

**Studies on the in vitro culture and genetic transformation of
pigeonpea (*Cajanus cajan* (L.) Millsp.) for induced resistance
to fungal pathogens**

**Thesis Submitted to the
Osmania University for the award of the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy**

G. SUNEETHA

ICRISAT
TASIRCI
Jaswant S. Khandwala Library



**Department Of Botany
Osmania University
Hyderabad 500 007 A.P., India**



**Genetic Transformation Laboratory
ICRISAT
Patancheru 502324, A.P., India**

2003

Dedicated to my

Loving Parents...



CERTIFICATE

Certified that the entire work embodied in this thesis entitled "**Studies on the in vitro culture and genetic transformation of pigeonpea (*Cajanus cajan* (L.) Millsp.) for induced resistance to fungal pathogens**" has been carried out by Ms. G. Suneetha, for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, under our supervision in the Genetic Transformation Laboratory, International Crops Research Institute for the Semi-Arid Tropics (ICRISAT), Patancheru, India. This work is original and has not been submitted so far, in part or in full, for the award of any degree or diploma of any University.

*Dec 01
12th June 2003*
Dr. B. Prathibha Devi

Associate Professor
Department of Botany
Osmania University
Hyderabad 500 007
India
Date 12.6.2003

Dr. (Mrs.) K. K. Sharma

ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR
DEPARTMENT OF BOTANY,
Osmania University,
HYDERABAD-500 007.

K. K. Sharma
June 6, 2003
Dr. Kiran K Sharma

Principal Scientist
Genetic Transformation Laboratory
International Crops Research
Institute for the Semi-Arid Tropics
(ICRISAT), Patancheru, 502 324
Andhra Pradesh, India
Date 6.6.2003

DR. K. K. SHARMA

ICRISAT
PATANCHERU P. O.
ANDHRA PRADESH-502 324
INDIA.

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis entitled "**Studies on the in vitro culture and genetic transformation of pigeonpea (*Cajanus cajan* (L.) Millsp.) for induced resistance to fungal pathogens**", comprises of my own work except where specifically stated to the contrary, and it is not substantially the same as my thesis that has been submitted for any degree to any other university.

Department of Botany

Osmania University

Hyderabad.

12.6.2003



G. Suneetha

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I wish to take this valuable opportunity to express my deep sense of gratitude and sincere thanks to Dr. B. Prathibha Devi, Associate Professor, Department of Botany, Osmania University, Hyderabad, for her constant guidance, valuable suggestions, execution of my research work, constructive criticism and encouragement

I have no words to express my profound gratitude and deepest respect to Dr. Kiran K. Sharma, Principal Scientist, Genetic Transformation Laboratory, ICRIJSAT, Patancheru. It is a great privilege to have been his student and benefited by his invaluable supervision and exemplary guidance through out my research work. I thank him for the interest he has taken in me to give the right perspective of research. His patience, continuous involvement, well-timed suggestions, and constant encouragement enabled me to do the best of my ability. My special thanks and deepest admiration goes for his meticulous supervision.

I am highly thankful to Prof. K. Janaradhan Reddy, Head, Department of Botany, Osmania University, Hyderabad, for his constant encouragement and abiding support during my study period.

I express my thanks to Prof. M. Radhakrishnaiah, Chairman, Board of studies in Botany, Osmania University, for his help.

I am thankful to the former Heads, Department of Botany, Osmania University, Profs., C. Manoharachary and J. K. Bhalla for providing facilities in the Department of Botany. I am especially thankful to Prof. J. K. Bhalla for her encouragement and help.

I extend deep sense of reverence and gratitude to Profs., RajGopal, G. Bagyanarayana, B. Rajkumar, and B. Bhadracharya for their support and valuable suggestions during the course of the endeavor.

I wish to express my profound thanks to Dr. N. Seetharama, Senior Scientist, Genetic Transformation Laboratory, ICRIJSAT, for his encouragement and good wishes.

I would like to thank Dr. V. Anjaiah, Associate Professor, Delhi University, for his advice and timely suggestions.

I am highly obliged to Mr. RajGopal, Lecturer, Govt. Degree College, for his abiding support, valuable advice and inspiration to start my research work and also for giving me the basic foundation of Plant Science.

I sincerely thank Dr. Diwaker, former Head, Learning Systems Unit, ICRIJSAT, for permitting me to avail the research facilities for conducting my research experiments.

The help and encouragement extended by Mr. Ganesh Nayak and Mr. Navi, is highly appreciated.

My special thanks goes to Mr M Satyanarayana, Breeding Unit, for supplying the seed under scarce conditions, which made me to work without any hindrance

I express my deep sense of gratitude and heartfelt thanks to the staff of Genetic Transformation Laboratory

I would like to thank Dr Venkatesh Bhat, Visiting Scientist, Genetic Transformation Laboratory, ICRIJSAT, for his timely help

Words are few in expressing my thanks to Ms M Lavanya, Scientific Officer, Genetic Transformation Laboratory, ICRIJSAT, who stood by me at every step of my research work,

I express my thanks to Mr C Jagan Mohan Reddy, Mr D Pandary, Mr Yuosuf, for their technical help, and Mrs Manemma for watering my plants

I would like to thank my Colleagues, Mr B Jayanand, Mr Gurayashankar, Mr Feroz, Mr A RamaKrishna Babu, Mr Manoj Kumar and Mr Kiran Kumar for their co-operation and timely assistance

I express my thanks to ICRIJSAT Library staff for their help and co-operation

I thank ICRIJSAT for providing me with sophisticated infrastructure, made my research work go in a smooth way

I extend my thanks to the non-teaching staff of the Department of Botany, Osmania University for their help

I acknowledge my thanks to the AP-Netherlands Biotechnology Program, IPE, O V, Campus, for their financial assistance, by way of accommodating me in the pigeonpea project and also by including me in their numerous network workshops on transgenic crops, which enabled me to get upto date with the current transgenic Scenario

I take this opportunity to express my thanks to my friends Mrs Esther Anil Kumar, Mrs Deepika, Ms Ramalakshmi, Mrs Esther Prasanna, Mr T Anil Kumar, Mr V Kishore, and Mr Srivas for their love and co-operation

I am in dearth of words to express my gratitude, love and affection to my parents Mr G J Deena Dayal and Mrs G Manohara Deena Dayal who have been a constant source of inspiration and encouragement at each and every step of my life. I am thankful to my father for his immense patience in understanding my work. Being an Automobile Engineer, he was much bearable in understanding the whole concept of my work, which was indeed a real tough task for him. I express my sincere thanks to my mother, who was with me all during her severe ill health. I thank my parents for their patience, untiring enthusiasm in my constructive carrier and for being with me in my hardships and happiness

I express my thanks to my sisters Mrs Vinolia, Mrs Leena and Mrs Aruna Priya for standing at every phase of my success and failure and I express my deep sense of gratitude to my

sisters for their love, care and encouragement and my brother in-laws, Mr. D. Praveen Raj and Mr. Jacob Daniel for their concrete support and encouragement.

The love and affection given by my nieces and nephew, Ashritha Raj, Nikitha Raj, Dimple and Enoch Anurag will be greatly cherished through out my life.

My special thanks goes to my Aunt, Ms. M. Varamma Prabhudas for her motherly affection and encouragement, my uncles Mr. Late M. Prashanth Kumar, Mr. M. Benjamin Wesley, Mr. M. Abhishekar and Mr. M. Christopher for their love and untimely help. I would like to thank my Cousins for their encouragement and affection.

Above all I am thankful to my best friend Mr. B. Chandra Shekar, without his support and affection it would have been a tough task to reach to this stage. I owe everything to him and my parents for what I am today.

For all the grace, strength, abundant blessings and loving Family, I am thankful to the ALMIGHTY.

Finally, I wish to thank all those who have helped me directly or indirectly in completing this work,


G. Suneetha

CONTENTS

Certificate	
Declaration	
Acknowledgements	
Contents	
List of Tables	
List of Figures	
Abbreviations	
1. Introduction	1-13
2. Review of Literature	14-91
2 1 Transgenic technology Current status	14
2 2 Tissue culture and regeneration	15
2 2 1 Pathways of regeneration	20
2 2 1 1 Organogenesis	21
2 2 1 2 Embryogenesis	22
2 3 Genetic transformation of plants	24
2 3 1 Marker genes	24
2 3 2 Vectors for gene transfer	27
2 3 3 Efficient techniques for transformation	28
2 3 3 1 Agrobacterium-mediated gene transfer	28
2 3 3 2 Direct gene transfer	29
2 3 3 2 1 Microprojectile bombardment or biolistics for gene transfer	30
2 4 Molecular characterization, screening of transgenic plants and inheritance of transgenes	35
2 5 In vitro plant regeneration and genetic transformation in pigeonpea	36
2 5 1 Current status of tissue culture and regeneration in pigeonpea	36
2 5 2 Genetic transformation of pigeonpea	40
3. Materials and Methods	42-76
3 1 Tissue culture	42
3 1 1 Plant material	42
3 1 2 Explant preparation and shoot regeneration	42
3 1 3 Culture medium and conditions	44
3 1 4 Sterilization of BA, kinetin, GA ₃ and IAA	49
3 2 Ontogeny studies on shoot bud differentiation	49
3 3 Genetic transformation	52
3 3 1 Effect of kanamycin (antibiotic selection) on untransformed control leaf explant	52
3 3 2 Microprojectile bombardment for gene transfer	52
3 3 2 1 Bacterial strain and plasmid	52

3.3.2.2	Isolation of plasmid DNA	53
3.3.2.3	Preparation of plasmid DNA for microprojectile bombardment	54
3.3.2.4	Particle preparation	54
3.3.2.5	Bombardment of particles	55
3.3.2.6	Plant regeneration and selection	56
3.4	Analysis of transgenic plants	58
3.4.1	Histochemical analysis of putative transformants	58
3.4.2	Molecular analysis of putative transformants	59
3.4.2.1	Extraction of genomic DNA	59
3.4.2.2	PCR analysis of putative transformants	62
3.4.2.3	Southern blot analysis	63
3.5	RT-PCR analysis	68
3.6	Inheritance of transgene in T ₀ and T ₁ generation	69
3.7	Statistical analysis	70
4.	Results	71-87
4.1	Tissue culture and Plant regeneration	71
4.2	Effect of media sterilization method	78
4.3	Ontogeny of adventitious shoot differentiation	78
4.4	Genetic transformation	81
4.4.1	Effect of antibiotic selection (kanamycin) on shoot regeneration from untransformed control leaf explant cultured on shoot induction medium	81
4.4.2	Microprojectile bombardment for gene transfer	
4.4.2.1	Microprojectile bombardment, Plant selection and regeneration	82
4.4.2.2	Elongation, rooting and acclimatization of transformants	82
4.5	Analysis of transgenics	83
4.5.1	Histochemical analysis	83
4.5.2	Molecular analysis of transgenics	84
5.	Discussion	88-108
5.1	Tissue culture of pigeonpea	88
5.2	Genetic transformation of pigeonpea	100
	Summary and Conclusions	109-118
	Appendices	119-128
	Bibliography	129-161
	Tables	162-178
	Figures	179-194
	Annexure	196

Table 1. Shoot bud induction from leaf explant of pigeonpea when cultured on MS medium containing TDZ and IAA

Table 2. Effect of cytokinin in combination with auxins on shoot bud induction from leaf explant

Table 3. The effect of BA, kinetin and 2-IP supplemented to MS medium on shoot bud induction from leaf explants of in vitro germinated seedlings of pigeonpea

Table 4. Studies on shoot bud formation from different explants on shoot induction medium consisting of MS + 5.0 μ M BA + 5.0 μ M kinetin

Table 5. Shoot bud regeneration from leaf explants from in vitro germinated seedlings of various donor genotypes of pigeonpea after culture on shoot induction medium comprising of MS + 5.0 μ M BA + 5.0 μ M kinetin

Table 6. Influence of size of lamina on shoot bud induction from the petiolar region of the leaf explant of in vitro germinated seedlings of pigeonpea, cultured on shoot induction medium consisting of MS + 5.0 μ M BA + 5.0 μ M kinetin

Table 7. Effect of GA₃ on the elongation of adventitious shoot buds

Table 8. Effect of IBA on the regeneration of adventitious roots on elongated shoots

Table 9. Effect of IAA on the regeneration of adventitious roots

Table 10. Effect of sucrose on rooting of the regenerated shoots cultured on MS basal medium with 1.14 μ M IAA

Table 11. Effect of the method of sterilization of BA, kinetin, GA₃ and IAA for the production of in vitro regenerated plantlets

Table 12. Effect of antibiotic kanamycin on shoot bud formation from petiolar region of untransformed leaf explant cultured on MS medium containing 5.0 μ M BA + 5.0 μ M kinetin

Table 13. Effect of different parameters for microprojectile-mediated gene transfer for the recovery of putative transformants

Table 14. Effect of selection on kanamycin for the recovery of putative transformed shoots after microprojectile bombardment

Table 15. Inheritance of *uidA* gene in T₁ generation of transgenic pigeonpea plants

Table 16. Inheritance of *uidA* gene in T₂ generation of transgenic pigeonpea plants

Table 17. Summary of the molecular analysis of the putative transformants of pigeonpea belonging to T₀, T₁ and T₂ generations produced through microprojectile-mediated gene transfer method

Figure 1A-F. Different stages of shoot regeneration from the proximal cut end of the petiolar region of leaf explant of pigeonpea.

Figure 2A-C. Elongation and rooting of shoots obtained from leaf explants of in vitro raised seedlings of pigeonpea after culture on MS basal medium containing GA₃ and IAA.

Figure 3A-K. Sequential events in the regeneration of multiple shoots from leaf explants derived from in vitro germinated seedlings of pigeonpea.

Figure 4. Effect of the age of leaf explant donor seedlings on the regeneration of multiple adventitious shoots in pigeonpea.

Figure 5A-H. Ontogeny of shoot bud formation from the proximal cut end region of the petiole of leaf explant of pigeonpea during 0 to 6 d on SIM containing MS basal medium supplemented with 5 μ M BA + 5 μ M kinetin.

Figure 5I-P. Ontogeny of shoot bud formation from the proximal cut end region of the petiole of leaf explant of pigeonpea during 8 to 14 d on SIM containing MS basal medium supplemented with 5 μ M BA + 5 μ M kinetin.

Figure 6. Restriction map of the plasmid used for microprojectile-mediated transformation of leaf explants from in vitro germinated seedlings of pigeonpea

Figure 7. Arrangement of the leaf explants for microprojectile bombardment on a petri-plate.

Figure 8A-B. Endogenous GUS activity in untransformed control and transformed bombarded pigeonpea leaves

Figure 9A-B. Transgenic plants grown in the glass house [Pre-field screening, greenhouse facility (P₂ level) , ICRISAT]

Figure 10A-B. Molecular analysis of putative transformants (T₀) of pigeonpea obtained after microprojectile bombardment using plasmid pRT99GUS RChit

Figure 11A-B. Molecular analysis of putative transformants (T₀) of pigeonpea obtained after microprojectile bombardment using plasmid pRT99GUS RChit

Figure 12A-B. Southern blot hybridization of PCR amplicons in the genomic DNA from putative transformants of T₀ generation

Figure 13A-B. Molecular analysis of putative transformants (T₀) of pigeonpea obtained after microprojectile bombardment using plasmid pRT99GUS RChit

Figure 14A-B. Molecular analysis of putative transformants (T₁) of pigeonpea obtained after microprojectile bombardment using plasmid pRT99GUS RChit

Figure 15A-B. Molecular analysis of putative transformants (T₂) of pigeonpea obtained after microprojectile bombardment using plasmid pRT99GUS RChit

Figure 16A-B. Southern blot hybridization of PCR amplicons in the genomic DNA from the putative transformants of T₂ generation

ABBREVIATIONS

$\mu\text{g/L}$	microgram per liter
μl	microliter
μM	micromole
2,4-D	dichlorophenoxyacetic acid
2-iP	2-[isopentenyl] adenine
BA	N ⁶ -benzyladenine
bp	base pair
cDNA	complementary deoxyribonucleic acid
cm	centimeter
d	day (s)
DNA	deoxyribonucleic acid
DNTPs	deoxyribonucleotide triphosphates
EDTA	ethylenediamine tetra acetic acid
GA ₃	gibberellic acid
GUS	β -glucuronidase
ha	hectares
HCl	hydrochloric acid
hr	hour (s)
IAA	indole-3-acetic acid
IBA	indole-3-butyric acid
kb	kilo base pair
kg	kilogram
kinetin	kinetin (6-furfuryl aminopurine)
L	litre
LB	Luria Broth
LD ₅₀	lethal dose at 50% mortality
M	molar
mg/L	milligram per liter

min	minutes
ml	milliliter
mm	millimeter
mol wt	molecular weight
mRNA	messenger ribonucleic acid
MS	Murashige and Skoog medium
NAA	α -naphthaleneacetic acid
NaOH	sodium hydroxide
<i>npII</i>	neomycin phosphotransferase
$^{\circ}\text{C}$	degree centigrade
PCR	polymerase chain reaction
PEG	polyethylene glycol
pH	negative logarithm of H^{+} ion
psi	pounds per square inch
<i>RChit</i>	rice chitinase gene
RIM	root induction medium
RNA	ribonucleic acid
RNase	ribonuclease
rpm	revolutions per minute
SDM	shoot development medium
SDW	sterile distilled water
Sec	second (s)
SEM	shoot elongation medium
SIM	shoot induction medium
SSC	sodium chloride and sodium citrate
TAE	Tris acetate-EDTA
T-DNA	transfer DNA
TDZ	thidiazuron [1-phenyl-3-(1,2,3-thidiazol-5-yl) urea]
TE	Tris EDTA
Ti plasmid	tumour inducing plasmid

<i>uidA</i>	β-glucuronidase gene
uv	ultraviolet
<i>vir</i>	virulence
Vol	volume
w/v	weight per volume
wk	week
wt	weight
X-Gluc	5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl-β-D-glucuronide

1. INTRODUCTION

1. INTRODUCTION

Fabacea is one of the largest families of flowering plants and is composed of 690 genera and 18000 species comprising of three subfamilies *Mimosoidae*, *Caesalpinanoidae* and *Papillinoideae*. *Papillinoideae* is the most important of them and contains more than 12000 tropical, sub-tropical, and temperate species. They are characterized by flowers with butterfly keel shaped petals and pod type fruits. The grain legumes commonly known as pulses belong to this sub-family (Le Houerou, 1991).

Pulses: yield, distribution, productivity and importance

Pulses have been indispensable constituents of the Indian diet where, pigeonpea stands second in terms of cultivation and yield amongst the pulse crops grown in India. India is a major pulse growing country in the world, sharing 35 to 36 per cent of total area and 27 to 28 per cent of the production of these crops, respectively. Over the past three decades, the area of pulse cultivation has been fluctuating between 22 to 24 million ha. The production of pulses per annum has been around 10 to 14 million tonnes and the annual productivity of pulses has been fluctuating between 475 to 544 kg ha⁻¹, respectively (Yadav, 1991). According to the Center for Monitoring Indian Economy (2003), in India, the annual production of pulses in the year 2001 to 2002 is about 13.10 million tonnes, occupying a total area of 38.7%.

Pulses are unique crops capable of fixing atmospheric nitrogen in their root nodules and thus meet their nitrogen requirements to a great extent. These crops can utilize soil moisture very efficiently and can be grown in areas left after satisfying the

demand for cereals, since even in moisture deprived conditions pulses give better returns. Pulse crops improve soil fertility and physical structure of the soil and fit well in mixed or inter cropping systems, crop rotations and dry farming while providing green pods as vegetables and nutritious fodder to the cattle. Pulses constitute a rich diet of the predominantly vegetarian masses of India by virtue of being high in seed protein content and also in possessing several essential amino acids. The ease with which they fit into crop rotation, restoration of soil fertility and with their capacity for producing minimum yield even under marginal and most neglected conditions with minimum inputs, pulses have become popular with Indian farmers (Hulse, 1991).

Pigeonpea: geographic distribution

Pigeonpea [*Cajanus cajan* (L.) Millsp.] with chromosome number of $2n=22$, is an important grain legume crop of rainfed agriculture in the semi-arid tropics of the Indian sub-continent and is also widely grown in eastern and southern Africa, Latin America and the Caribbean (Nene and Sheila, 1990). It is a member of the sub-tribe *Cajaninae*, tribe *Phaseoleae*, and family *Fabaceae*. Pigeonpea is so called because of its appeal to wild pigeons. It has been reported to occur in wild state in the upper region of Nile river and the coastal districts of Angola in Africa. Various concepts have been put forward regarding the origin of pigeonpea. Van der Maesen (1980) stated pigeonpea to be of Indian origin, from where it might have been distributed to Africa by two millennia BC at the latest and also suggested that Africa is the secondary center of origin.

Early wild species of pigeonpea were reported in China and Indochina by Watt (1908), while de Candolle (1885) stated that the wild ancestors grew in Africa from the coast of Guinea to Zanzibar, and in the Nile valley. Though measurable quantities are cultivated in the Caribbean, Southeast Asia and eastern Africa, about 90% of total world cultivation is in the Indian sub-continent (Hulse, 1991).

Pigeonpea grows well in sub-tropical and tropical environments, extending between latitudes of 30 °S to 30 °N, at elevations of up to 2000 m from mean sea level. India accounts for more than 90% of the world's pigeonpea production and area. World-wide, the crop is cultivated on about 3.4 million ha of land with an annual production of 2.7 million tonnes at an average yield of 790 kg ha⁻¹ (Nene and Sheila, 1990). According to the Center for Monitoring Indian Economy (2003), in India pigeonpea is cultivated on about 3503.4 thousand ha of land with an annual production of 2.3 million tonnes. Among all the states in India, Andhra Pradesh stands third in cultivation occupying 429.8 thousand ha of land, with an annual production of 154.7 thousand tonnes, standing sixth with an average yield of 360 kg ha⁻¹.

Constraints to the productivity of pigeonpea

Pigeonpea production is constrained by poor cultivation practices, less productive land-resource allocation, excess water or drought stress and losses caused by diseases and pests. The long-duration of the crop of 160 to 250 d contributes to the constraints. Inadequate support for technology generation and its transfer, the lack of stress-resistant, high-yielding genotypes, modern agronomic management, new production systems, and lack of utilization of research results and promotion

Non-availability of high yielding and disease and insect resistant varieties has been the greatest bottleneck for high productivity among pulses. With the increase in the world's population, human needs have also increased at rapid rates, which have become major challenges for food production (Reddy *et al.*, 1998).

Pigeonpea is susceptible to many diseases and insect pests. Its productivity is constrained by over 100 pathogens (Nene *et al.*, 1989). The diseases of considerable economic importance at present are sterility mosaic (SM), a viral disease, caused by *Leveillula taurica* (Reddy *et al.*, 1994), wilt caused by soil borne fungus *Fusarium oxysporum* *F. udum* (Butler) Synder and Hansen (Butler, 1906), *Phytophthora* blight (PB) caused by fungus *Phytophthora dreschleri* (Williams *et al.*, 1968), *Macrophomina* root rot caused by *Macrophomina phaseolina* (Williams *et al.*, 1968) and *Helicoverpa armigera* (legume pod borer), which is a major insect pest. Of all *Fusarium* wilt is the most important soil borne disease of pigeonpea.

Fusarium wilt

Wilt disease in India was discovered in the early 1900s (Butler, 1906), where the causal pathogen was described as *Fusarium udum* (Butler, 1910). Synder and Hansen (1940), named the soil borne fungus as *F. oxysporum* Schlecht. *F. sp. udum* (Butler). It is the oldest and most widespread disease of pigeonpea and has been reported from all major pigeonpea-growing countries in Asia and Africa (Nene *et al.*, 1996).

The first indication of the wilt is the occurrence of patches of dead plants in the field that appear usually at the flowering or pod-setting stage of the crop (Reddy *et al.*,

1990) Isolated wilted plants are also noted about a month after sowing. The most characteristic symptom in adult plants is a purple color extending upwards from the base of the main stem. This band is more easily seen in juvenile branches of pigeonpea than the main stem. Partial wilting of the plant is a definite indication of wilt and distinguishes this disease from termite damage, drought, and *Phytophthora* blight, which also kills the plant. Partial wilting is associated with lateral root infection, while total wilt is a result of taproot infection (Reddy *et al*, 1990). The intensity of browning or blackening decreases from the base to the tip of the plant. Sometimes, branches especially lower ones are affected even when there is no band on the main stem. These branches show die back symptoms with a purple band extending from the tip downwards, and intensive internal xylem blackening. When young (1 to 2 months old) plants die from wilt, they usually do not show external banding, but have obvious internal browning or blackening. Plants infected by *F. udum* also exhibit loss of leaf turgidity, interveinal clearing and chlorosis before death. Wilting in the infected plants occurs due to the intrusion of the pathogen into the root tissues, especially the xylem vessels leading to the blockage of the water conduction system (Reddy *et al*, 1998).

Application of chemicals to overcome the disease

The crop protection chemicals are used to overcome plant diseases caused by the invasion of insects and pests. The pesticides include various organic compounds that contain lead, antimony, arsenic, mercury, selenium, sulphur, thallium, zinc and fluorine as active compounds although not toxic to the insects, were very persistent, for instance, sprayed crops sometimes retain sufficient arsenical residues potentially harmful to the

consumers and crops were damaged by residues which accumulate in the soil. Fungicides containing sulphur, copper and mercury have been another source of persistent chemicals; residues. The pesticide residues are significant due to their toxicological properties and persistence in the environment. Their significance become more pertinent when they accumulate in the environment, get converted into more toxic metabolites, exhibits toxicity towards non-target organisms and mammals (Ray, 2003). In comparison, the use of resistant cultivars involves minimum cost thereby forgoing purchase of pesticides (Robinson, 1996)

Recombinant DNA technology and genetic transformation

Improvement of crops by breeding involves accumulating genes for higher productivity and other desirable characteristics such as resistance to pathogens and pests. Introgression of genes from distantly related or unrelated donors is seriously hampered by a variety of incompatibilities including sexual barriers. Realizing the fact that the traditional varieties of pulses are not only poor at yield but also highly vulnerable to common diseases, the major emphasis in varietal improvement has been therefore laid on disease resistance breeding. Although research on the disease has been carried out for the past 90 years, limited information on methods of management other than the development of resistant/tolerant cultivars is available. Loss of resistance has been reported in some cultivars in India, suggesting the need for more concentrated efforts on understanding and identifying the pathogen, and breeding for stable resistance (Reddy *et al.*, 1998).

Recombinant DNA and genetic transformation technologies can circumvent taxonomic limitations to the gene pool for pathogen resistance even to the extent that plants need not be the only sources for disease resistance traits. Further, molecular biological techniques provide capabilities to engineer host plant resistance that is effective both against specific as well as a broad spectrum of pathogens and are genetically stable. Further, these techniques permit to locate, clone and sequence individual genes (DNA fragments) from a complex DNA sequences (Yun *et al.*, 1997).

The development of plant transformation techniques has been a major breakthrough in overcoming constraints to achieve precision of genetic manipulation. With the establishment of vector-mediated and direct gene transfer systems, the applicability of transformation technology has advanced rapidly in recent years, and genes from taxonomically distant and or unrelated donors have been incorporated into plants. Genetic transformation technology promises to overcome not only the major agronomic problems not yet solved through recombinational breeding due to the non-availability of relevant genes within the accessible primary or secondary gene pools, but also to introduce and express genes from unrelated sources. Recent advances in tissue culture and recombinant DNA technology have opened new avenues of transformation of crop plants to produce transgenic plants with new genetic properties (Yun *et al.*, 1997), including specific applications for the semi-arid tropics (Sharma and Ortiz, 2000).

Plant chitinases

In order to survive, plants have to withstand many adverse conditions of the environment. The conditions that affect a plant's homeostasis are caused by environmental factors such as temperature, water, salt, mechanical damage (wounding), chemicals, UV light, and the interaction with pathogenic organisms, which forms an important biotic stress. Plants have their own networks of defense against plant pathogens that include a vast array of proteins and other organic molecules produced prior to infection or during pathogen attack. Not all pathogens can attack all plants and a single plant is not susceptible to the whole plethora of plant pathogenic fungi, viruses, bacteria or nematodes. Following pathogenic attack, some plants activate the expression of defense-related genes (Bowles, 1990). Some defense-related genes encode enzymes involved in phenyl-propanoid metabolism (Hahlbrock and Scheef, 1987), hydrolytic enzymes such as chitinases and β -1,3 glucanases (Boller, 1987) and proteinase inhibitors (Ryan, 1988). Chitinases belong to the "pathogenesis-related" (PR) proteins, which are coded by a subset of defense-related genes and have been extensively characterized due to their potential involvement with disease resistance (Muthukrishnan *et al*, 2001).

Chitin, a β -1,4-linked polymer of N-acetylglucosamine, is a structural component in a diverse array of organisms, including fungi, insects, various crustaceans, and nematode eggs (Gooday, 1990, Flach *et al*, 1992, Roberts, 1992, Ruiz-Herrera, 1992, Cohen, 1993). The enzyme chitinase poly glycanhydrolase [1,4-(N-acetyl-b-d-glucosaminide)], hydrolyzes the chitin polymer to release N-acetyl glucosamine oligomers, following either endo or exo cleavages of the β -1,4 bond.

One of the roles attributed to chitinases in higher plants is a defense mechanism against attack by pathogens, especially fungi, because the expression of chitinases is significantly enhanced upon infection. Furthermore, chitinases have antifungal activity and cause hyphal tips to lyse in vitro (Shapira *et al.*, 1989, Sela Buurlage *et al.*, 1993, Mauch *et al.*, 1998). The expression of chitinases could therefore be speculated to have a defensive role during both the early and the late stages of the infection process, depending on the levels of constitutive enzyme and the affectivity of induction. Much of the evidence for the suggested roles of chitinases in plant defense has been based on dramatic and rapid enhancement of enzyme levels in hypersensitive reactions, during induced host resistance (i.e., in association with several other pathogenesis-related [PR] proteins), and in tissues following infection by a pathogen. Recombinant DNA technology allows the enhancement of inherent plant responses against a pathogen by either using single dominant resistance genes not normally present in the susceptible plant (Keen, 1999) or by choosing plant genes that intensify or trigger the expressions of existing defense mechanisms (Bent and Yu, 1999, Rommens and Kishore, 2000). The availability of techniques in molecular biology now permits the isolation of specific genes and their reintroduction into plants, providing a powerful tool to elucidate the roles of specific enzymes in plants (Muthukrishnan *et al.*, 2001).

The imminent cloning of disease resistance genes, further molecular dissection of stress signal perception and transduction mechanisms and identification of genes that affect symptom development will provide attractive new opportunities for enhancing crop protection (Lamb *et al.*, 1992). Hamilton (1980, 1985) first suggested that virus

resistance could be obtained by introducing viral genes into plant, the possibility of viral genes functioning as resistance genes has been demonstrated in many virus-plant systems. The advantage of using PAP (pokeweed antiviral protein), a ribosomal-inhibiting protein found in the cell walls of *Phytolacca americana*, in transgenic plants for virus resistance is resistant to a broad spectrum of plant viruses by expression of a single gene. Tavladoraki *et al.*, (1993) showed that constitutive expression in transgenic plants of a single-chain Fv (scFv) antibody, directed against the plant icosahedral tombus virus artichoke mottled crinkle virus, caused reduction of infection incidence and delay symptom development. Voss *et al.*, (1995) showed a similar result with TMV. Tobacco plants expressing full-length Mab against TMV produced fewer numbers of necrotic local lesions when challenged with TMV.

Plant and microbial chitinases introduced into plants under the control of constitutive promoters, resulted in the enhancement of resistance of the host plant to fungal pathogens (Broglie *et al.*, 1991, Vierheilig *et al.*, 1993, Lin *et al.*, 1995). The results of genetic engineering for fungal resistance have been encouraging (Garner *et al.*, 1992, Ward *et al.*, 1994). Chitinases have shown to possess antifungal role in disease resistance (Pegg and Young, 1981, Mauch *et al.*, 1984, Broglie *et al.*, 1991, Sela-buurlage *et al.*, 1993). The genes encoding chitinases have been introduced into plants by genetic engineering programs aimed at developing disease resistant varieties. These genes have originated from both plants (Broglie *et al.*, 1986, Shinshi *et al.*, 1987, Gaynor, 1988, Nishizawa and Hibi, 1991) as well as bacteria (Jones, 1986). The bacterial chitinase gene isolated from *Serratia marcescens* (*chi-A*) was transferred into

tobacco plants by Jones (1988) and Suslow *et al.*, (1988), and the transformants showed significantly higher chitinase activity and more resistance to *Alternaria longipes* than that of the control plants Broglie *et al.*, (1991) generated transgenic tobacco plants using the cauliflower mosaic virus (CaMV) 35s promoter and the bean *CH5B* gene. The homozygous transformants showed an increased ability to survive in soil infected by *Rhizoctonia solani*. Elevated field tolerance to fungal pathogens was first reported in transgenic *Brassica napus* plants that contained a chimeric chitinase gene from bean (Grison *et al.*, 1996). Resistance to blackleg (*Leptosphaeria maculosa*) disease in transgenic canola was reported by Wang *et al.*, (1999). Terakawa *et al.*, (1997) reported the antifungal activity to transgenic tobacco using fungal chitinase gene from *Rhizopus oligosporus*. Extensive review on chitinases in disease resistance has been worked by Graham and Stucklen (1994), and Does and Cornelissen (1996). Enhanced levels of *Fusarium* resistance achieved in transgenic tomato lines accumulating multiple isoforms of chitinases and β -1,3-glucanases, were shown to result largely from the simultaneous expression of a class I chitinase and a class I β -1,3-glucanase gene (Jongedijk *et al.*, 1995).

Transgenic rice expressing rice endochitinase gene, driven by the 35s promoter also showed enhanced resistance to sheath blight (Lin *et al.*, 1995). Transgenic tobacco harboring rice endochitinase gene (Nishizawa *et al.*, 1993) expressed resistance against powdery mildew (*Erysiphe cichoracearum*). Rice plants induced with hydrolases such as chitinases and β -1,3-glucanase resulted in moderate field resistance to sheath blight caused by *R. solani* (Anuratha *et al.*, 1996). Tabei *et al.*, (1998) obtained transgenic

cucumber plants harboring a rice chitinase gene that expressed enhanced resistance to grey mold (*Bortyitis cinnera*) The resistance was stably inherited in the progenies, though one of the cucumber strains allowed the penetration of hyphae, invasion of the infected hyphae was restricted Sorghum plants belonging to genotype 607E expressed resistance to green bug, *Schizaphis graminum* Rodani, an aphid that attacks sorghum with the induction of chitinase protein (Krishnaveni *et al.*, 1999) Transgenic sorghum plants constitutively expressing a gene encoding a class I rice chitinase (*chill*) were generated by biolistic transformation of scutellum-derived embryogenic calli with a plasmid DNA carrying the bar gene as the selectable marker and the rice chitinase gene under the control of a cauliflower mosaic virus 35S promoter showed increased resistance to the stalk rot causing fungus, *Fusarium thapsinum* (Krishnaveni *et al.*, 2001). Therefore, chitin metabolism forms an excellent target for selective pest control strategies (Kramer and Koga, 1986, Cohen, 1987, Kramer *et al.*, 1997) This strategy was also adopted for the present studies

Objectives

The present work was undertaken to develop plant regeneration and genetic transformation protocols for pigeonpea with the following objectives

- To develop an efficient and high frequency plant regeneration system in pigeonpea
- To study the ontogeny of shoot bud differentiation from the selected leaf explant for better understanding of the system

- Optimization of efficient transformation protocol and genetic transformation of pigeonpea with *RChit* gene by using microprojectile-mediated gene transfer.
- Characterization of T₀ and T₁ generation transgenics of pigeonpea through molecular and genetic methods for the confirmation of gene transfer and expression.

2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Transgenic technology: Current status

The manipulation of the structures and function of genes at the sequence level, which aims to benefit the human race, is referred to as gene revolution that led to the development of recombinant DNA technology. Recombinant DNA technology involves the manipulation of genes, which include their isolation, identification, cloning and transfer into various organisms (Old and Primrose, 1994a). Traditional plant breeders followed conventional methods to improve various traits in crops such as yield, stress tolerance, etc. A number of desirable cultivars have been developed through recombination and mutation breeding methods. However, due to the limitations involved, crossing the species barrier was not possible. Plant tissue culture methods were later used to develop variability and also to produce a few interspecific hybrids. Introgression of foreign genes into desirable cultivars was a Herculean task through conventional breeding methods (Toenniessen, 1993). Therefore, non-conventional breeding methods, which include recombinant DNA technology, have come to the rescue of the plant breeder in the improvement of specific traits pertaining to the yield stability, disease and pest resistance, and product quality. Therefore genetic transformation technology has succeeded in overcoming the barriers of sexual incompatibility, which limits the genetic pool available for crop improvement (Kung, 1993). Plant genetic manipulation focuses on the cellular level of organization and involves the interfacing of all aspects of cell biology; molecular biology and gene transfer procedures (Sharp *et al.*, 1984). The most important aspect of biotechnology

comprises the transfer of specifically constructed assemblies through various transformation techniques, which constitutes genetic engineering. The plants obtained through genetic engineering contain a gene or genes usually from an unrelated organism and such genes are called as transgenes and the plants containing transgenes are known as transgenic plants (Birch, 1997).

According to Birch (1997), the major components in a gene transfer system for the production of transgenic plants are the development of reliable and efficient regeneration systems, availability of gene constructs, transformation with suitable vectors, methods to introduce DNA into the regenerable cells, selection and regeneration of transformed plants, molecular and genetic characterization of transgenic plants for stable and efficient gene expression.

2.2 Tissue culture and regeneration

The development of an efficient regeneration system is a pre-requisite for genetic transformation of plants and the transformation efficiency is generally been proportional to the efficiency of the tissue culture and gene transfer systems (Birch, 1997). The term tissue culture in a wide sense includes the in vitro culture of various kinds of explants ranging from cells to tissues and organs. With the availability of suitable conditions, each living cell of a multicellular organism is capable of independent development (White, 1963). The basic concept of in vitro plant regeneration comprises the response of individual somatic plant cells or protoplasts, capable of proliferation and organizing into tissues, and eventually developing into a

complete plant or organism, which constitutes the term totipotency (Ritchie and Hodges, 1993). The term totipotency was coined by Morgan (1901) that denotes the capacity of cell to develop into an organism by regeneration and was experimentally expressed at single cell level in the model species like tobacco (Vasil and Hildebrandt, 1965), and carrot (Normura and Komanine, 1985). All the cells in an individual explant are capable of expressing totipotency (Raghavan, 1986; Ammirato, 1987; Ranch and Pace, 1988; Vasil, 1988; Potrykus, 1990).

Cellular competence

Several factors such as morphological, cytological, biochemical and molecular aspects might play a vital role in distinction between totipotent and non-totipotent cells. The mixture of cells comprising the tissue explants vary physiologically, biochemically and developmentally (Lindsey and Yeoman, 1985), that led to the cellular heterogenicity in which certain cells in an explant are "competent" enough to respond to the in vitro culture conditions (Halperin, 1969; Vasil and Vasil, 1986; Potrykus, 1990). The capability of a cell or group of cells responding to an induced stimulus for a developmental process refers to the term "competence", which further represents a series of each of the genetic, epigenetic and physiological processes of the responding cell. The ability to induce differentiation in tissue culture is recognized as morphogenesis and the culture should comprise of a population of cells that are physiologically and biochemically uniform and express synchronized pattern of cell division, enlargement and differentiation (Meins and Binns, 1979).

Factors affecting in vitro cultures

Three vital factors affecting in vitro plant regeneration are genotype, explant source and culture conditions (including culture medium and environment). Variations in the above three factors led to the development of an in vitro regeneration system (Halperin, 1986, Ranch and Pace, 1988).

Effect of genotype

In order to regenerate a plant through in vitro culture, the choice of the genotype forms the most important factor (Ritchie and Hodges, 1993). The response of particular cultivars within a species responds differently to in vitro culture (Brown and Thorpe, 1986), which further illustrates that the genetic component is highly influential on success of in vitro culture and plant regeneration (Bingham *et al.*, 1975, Koorneef *et al.*, 1986, Hodges *et al.*, 1986). However, Vasil and Vasil (1986) stated that the genotypic effect could be solved by the use of correct combination of explant and culture conditions used. Further the development of genotype-independent methods can provide efficient transformation procedures (Sharma and Anjaiah, 2000).

Source of explant

The type of explant largely affects plant regeneration. Immature organs, meristematic and undifferentiated tissues, and young tissues form the most responsive and reliable explant sources (Green and Phillips, 1975, Kamo *et al.*, 1985, Vasil and Vasil, 1986). Genetic, epigenetic or physiological changes that occur in mature cells might be the reason for stage specific response (Halperin, 1986, Vasil, 1988, Lee and

Phillips, 1988'. Other factors of the explant to be considered include size, orientation in culture, pretreatment and inoculation density (Brown and Thorpe, 1986). Seedling explants form the most feasible explants for in vitro regeneration studies for their yearlong availability, uniformity and availability in large numbers (Bean *et al.*, 1997, Geetha *et al.*, 1998).

Culture conditions

Regeneration of complete plant from a single cell in controlled environment or in vitro was first attempted by Vasil and Hildebrandt (1965). Components of a medium include inorganic macro and micronutrients, reduced nitrogen, carbon source, vitamins and growth regulators (Gamborg and Shyluk, 1981).

Of these components, the concentration and ratios of the growth regulators have proven to be most critical for culture initiation and morphogenesis (Skoog and Miller, 1957, Vasil, 1988). In addition to the nutritional value, reduced nitrogen (Halperin, 1966) and sugar component (Brown and Thorpe, 1986) further affect morphogenesis. Many researchers have put forward various compositions of a nutrient medium for the growth of plant tissue (White, 1942, Murashige and Skoog, 1962, Linsmaier and Skoog, 1965, Gamborg and Eveleigh, 1968'. Inorganic salts are supplied in two groups as macro salts or nutrients and as micronutrients. The salts needed in higher amounts are called macronutrients, which include nitrogen, phosphorus, sulphur, magnesium, calcium and potassium. Nitrogen is mostly provided in two forms as nitrates and ammonium compounds. The salts needed in trace amounts are called as micro salts, which include boron, zinc, molybdenum, manganese, copper and iron etc. Carbohydrate

is supplied usually as sucrose. The most commonly used amino acid is glycine. Apart from nitrogen sources present in the inorganic salts, amino acids and amides are used in plant tissue culture media (Huang and Murashige, 1977). The most widely used amino acids are L-aspartic acid, L-asparagine, L-glutamic acid, L-glutamine and L-arginine. Vitamins are required in trace amounts as they catalyze the enzyme system of the cells. Vitamin B1 (thiamine) is the most commonly used vitamin for all plant tissue cultures. Other groups of vitamins, which stimulate growth, are niacin (nicotinic acid), vitamin B2 (riboflavin), vitamin B6-pyridoxin, vitamin C (ascorbic acid) and vitamin B12-cyanocobalamin (Gamborg *et al*, 1976, Huang and Murashige, 1977).

Murashige and Skoog (1962) first reported the use of MS medium. It is the most preferred medium for tissue culture based studies on wide plant species. The medium was formulated with the entire essential macro and micro mineral elements and hence has become the first complete medium designed for *in vitro* culturing of diverse plant species. To date, MS medium is the most widely used culture media in various tissue culture practices such as micropropagation, callus induction, regeneration etc. However, specific media for specific plant groups are available, for example, B5 and L2 media have been used for legumes (Thu *et al*, 2003).

Growth regulators

Several growth regulators are known to stimulate the biological activity in cultured plants. Shoot bud differentiation was first reported by Skoog (1944) in *in vitro* cultured tobacco pith. Cytokinins promote cell division and regulate growth, and development that include kinetin, a cytokinin that was discovered by Miller *et al*,

(1955). Root-shoot differentiation in the above system was proposed by Skoog and Miller (1957), and further stated that it is regulated by auxin-cytokinin ratio. The most widely used cytokinins are adenine, kinetin, zeatin, benzyladenine and auxins are IAA (indole-3-acetic acid), NAA (α -naphthaleneacetic acid), IBA (indole-3-butyric acid) and 2,4-D (2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid) etc. The hormones are physiologically active and also determine the acidity and alkalinity of the culture media to a small extent.

Based on the constituents, culture media are of two types, chemically defined and chemically undefined. In a chemically defined medium, the composition and concentration of all the constituents is known and it is prepared from inorganic and organic chemicals. Where as, in a chemically undefined medium, the concentration of the constituents is unknown due to the addition of natural products such as coconut milk, casein hydrosalate etc. A medium can be solid, semisolid, or liquid. Further, culture media is influenced by physical factors such as light, pH and temperature (Evans *et al.*, 1981

2.2.1 Pathways of regeneration

Various protocols for plant tissue culture have been developed during the past five decades and any plant species can now be regenerated in vitro through several pathways. Various pathways have been put forward to depict the regeneration processes such as organogenesis and embryogenesis. The rate of plant regeneration in tissue culture varies greatly from one species to another. Various cells, tissues and organs

from numerous plant species can be successfully cultured aseptically to regenerate whole plants

2.2.1.1 Organogenesis

Organogenesis is the development of adventitious organs or primordia from undifferentiated cell mass or directly from the explant in tissue culture by the process of differentiation. In vitro plant regeneration by organogenesis usually involves induction of shoot buds leading to the development of shoots from the explant tissue, with or without an intervening callus stage, followed by transfer to a root induction medium for root formation and development. Alterations of the auxin and cytokinin ratios can control morphogenesis in tobacco was reported by Skoog and Miller (1957). The developmental stage and physiological state of the explant at the time of culture would affect the ability to induce direct organogenesis and differentiation without an intervening callus stage (Thomas and Davey, 1975). The hypothesis of organogenesis was advanced by Torrey (1966), who suggested that organogenesis via callus starts with the development of a group of meristematic cells i.e., meristemoids that can respond to the factors within the system to initiate a primordium depending on the kinds of factors inducing either root, shoot or embryoid. For the induction of organogenesis via callus on a particular medium, the medium should cause dedifferentiation (callus induction), attainment of competence, induction for the organogenic pathway and determination for the pathway, and should not interfere with the morphogenic expression of the developmental pathway (Christianson and Warnick, 1985). Therefore, organogenesis

was found to be the most reliable pathway for the regeneration of transgenic plants. Organogenesis is of two types: 1 Direct organogenesis and 2 Indirect organogenesis. Organogenesis by direct rather than indirect pathway is preferred due to the problems with somaclonal variations confronted in callus cultures (Ritchie and Hodges, 1993).

Direct and indirect organogenesis

In direct organogenesis, either the shoot or root is induced directly from the pre-existing cells in the explant without undergoing an intervening callus phase (Brown and Thorpe, 1986, Christianson and Warnick, 1988). Direct organogenesis in vitro was reported in pigeonpea (Shiva Prakash *et al.*, 1994, Geetha *et al.*, 1998, Mohan and Krishnamurthy, 1998, Geetha *et al.*, 1999, Dayal *et al.*, 2003), in pea (Bean *et al.*, 1997), and in peanut (Sharma and Anjaiah, 2000). Indirect organogenesis involves an intervening phase of callus proliferation and growth, followed by shoot or root induction. Indirect organogenesis was reported in pigeonpea (Eapen and George, 1993, George and Eapen, 1994, Ramesh and Baldev, 1994, Eapen *et al.*, 1998, Thu *et al.*, 2003, Dolendro *et al.*, 2003).

2.2.1.2 Embryogenesis

The developmental pathway in which embryos have been induced to form from a somatic cell or group of somatic cells is referred to as somatic embryogenesis. Reinert and Stewart first reported development of somatic embryos in 1958-1959. The auxin (2,4-D), which is provided in the initiation phase of embryogenic cultures, generally

leads to the induction of cellular proliferation (callus induction) along the embryogenic pathway of development (Evans *et al.*, 1981, Normura and Komamine, 1985) Somatic embryogenesis is of two types 1 Direct and 2 Indirect somatic embryogenesis

Direct somatic embryogenesis

Somatic embryogenesis, which occurs directly from cells of the explant tissue without an intervening callus phase, is stated as direct somatic embryogenesis (Conger *et al.*, 1983, Raghavan, 1986) Direct embryogenesis was initially reported in *Glycine max* (Lazzeri *et al.*, 1985, Finer, 1988), and *Zea mays* (Armstrong and Green, 1985, Vain *et al.*, 1989)

Indirect embryogenesis

Indirect embryogenesis is a common pathway in which somatic embryos get induced and develop from proliferated callus (Mc William *et al.*, 1974, Williams and Maheswaran, 1986) The explant most often used in indirect embryogenesis is the immature zygotic embryo (Merkle *et al.*, 1990, Finer, 1994) Adventitious embryony has been reported in increasing number of plants, including cereals (Vasil, 1988), woody plants (Von Arnold and Wallin, 1988) and recalcitrant tropical crops such as banana (Novak *et al.*, 1989)

2.3 Genetic transformation of plants

2.3.1 Marker genes

Genetic transformation of plants requires markers, which play a vital role to ascertain and confirm the presence of transformed DNA, introduced into the plant cells (Walden, 1989, Klein *et al.*, 1989b). Selection of few transformed cells from the untransformed cells constitutes the key step in gene transfer methods. Screening offers an alternative in which selection pressure is not imposed on cells or shoots, but instead offers a provision to visibly assay them.

Selectable genes comprise selectable markers which are used for stable transformation, allowing living cells, tissues or whole plants to grow under conditions that prevent the growth of untransformed tissues or confer a phenotype which allows transformed and untransformed tissues to be distinguished unequivocally (Bowen, 1993). These marker genes exhibit dominant phenotype, and are usually of microbial origin and placed under the control of a strong constitutive expression of a eukaryotic promoter often of viral origin (Birch, 1997, Sharma and Ortiz, 2000).

The most commonly used selectable marker genes include those conferring resistance to antibiotic such as kanamycin [*nptII*, encoding neomycin phosphotransferase, (Herrera-Estrella *et al.*, 1983, Bevan *et al.*, 1983)], hygromycin [*hpt* encoding hygromycin phosphotransferase isolated from *E. coli* (van den Elzen *et al.*, 1985, Waldron *et al.*, 1985)], and herbicides such as phosphinothricin [*ppt* encoding phosphinothricin acetyltransferase that was isolated from *Streptomyces hygroscopicus*, an anaerobic soil actinomycete (De Block *et al.*, 1987, Haughn *et al.*, 1988)].

List of selectable markers used in gene transfer methods

Gene	Enzyme encoded	Selective agent (s)	Reference
<i>hpt</i>	Hygromycin phosphotransferase	Hygromycin B	Van den Elzen <i>et al.</i> , 1985
<i>nptII</i>	Neomycin phosphotransferase	Genticin (G418)	Bevan <i>et al.</i> , 1983
		Kanamycin	Herrera- Estrella <i>et al.</i> , 1983
<i>ppt</i>	Phosphinothricin acetyltransferase	Phosphinothricin (Bialophos)	De Block <i>et al.</i> , 1987
<i>als</i>	acetolactate synthase	Chlorosulphuron Imidazolinones	Haughn <i>et al.</i> , 1988

Scorable markers called as “reporter genes” are the screenable and or selectable genes of bacterial origin, which are detected through enzyme assays (scorable reporter genes) or through expression of resistance to a toxin (selectable reporter genes) Some of the common reporter genes used in plant transformation are *cat* (chloramphenicol acetyl transferase) Herrera-Estrella *et al.*, (1983), *lux* (Luciferase) Ow *et al.*, (1986), *uidA* (β -glucuronidase) Jefferson (1989), and GFP (green fluorescent protein) Chalfie *et al.*, (1994)

List of Screenable marker (reporter) genes used in transformation systems

Gene	Enzyme encoded	Reference
<i>cat</i>	Chloramphenicol	Herrera-Estrella <i>et al.</i> , 1983
<i>lacZ</i>	β -Galactosidase	Helmar <i>et al.</i> , 1984
<i>nptII</i>	Neomycin phosphotransferase	Reiss <i>et al.</i> , 1984
<i>lux</i>	Luciferase	Ow <i>et al.</i> , 1986
<i>uidA</i>	β -Glucuronidase	Jefferson <i>et al.</i> , 1987

Criteria for choosing selectable markers

Plant cell transformation frequencies are generally low and to ensure the survival of transformed cells in the presence of a selective agent, usually markers are used in stable transformation which confer a dominant phenotype on transformed cells, and result in adding up of a new trait not normally associated with untransformed cells. The frequency of untransformed cells or plants surviving at different levels of the selection pressure is initially recorded and the suitable levels are selected for the culture of transformed ones. If the frequency of escapes (surviving untransformed cells) is high, an alternate selection is sought. In order to ascertain the above strategy, LD₅₀ was taken into consideration (i.e., the level at which 50% growth inhibition is observed) and higher levels are then set up for the culture of transformants (Nutter *et al.*, 1987, Hauptmann *et al.*, 1988, Dekeyser *et al.*, 1989). Christou *et al.*, 1987 used antibiotics such as kanamycin and gentamicin (G418) for selection of transformed friable callus cultures of legume plants with neomycin phosphotransferase (*neptII*) gene. However, the effectiveness of the antibiotic selection depends on the explant source. Kanamycin enriched the growth of the transgenic cotyledonary nodal explants of soybean (Hinchee *et al.*, 1988), whereas it was too harsh and unsuitable for soybean meristem organ cultures (McCabe *et al.*, 1988). Hygromycin was originally tested for tobacco transformation (Waldron *et al.*, 1985), and has more recently been used for the transformation of several plant species like maize (Walters *et al.*, 1992). The efficacy of hygromycin or kanamycin as a selectable marker differs in a transformation system, for example in peas the shoot organogenesis was reproducibly induced on hygromycin

resistant calli but not on the calli selected for kanamycin resistance (Puonti-Kaerlas *et al.*, 1990)

2.3.2 Vectors for gene transfer

Plant genetic transformation vectors have certain essential features such as multiple unique restriction sites, which facilitate cloning the gene of interest, bacterial origin of replication, selectable markers that allow the recognition of untransformed cells, selectable marker gene for plasmid selection and maintenance in *E. coli* (Old and Primrose, 1994b) Two strategies have been adopted to obtain a vector suitable for the transfer of genes into plants such as the use of co-integrative pTi (Fraley *et al.*, 1985) and binary vectors (Hoekaema *et al.*, 1983) Initially developed vector systems were of the cointegrate type and made use of *Agrobacterium* strains with non-oncogenic Ti plasmids, e.g. Vector pGV3850 (Zambryski *et al.*, 1983) *Agrobacterium*-mediated gene transfer system has become more efficient with the advent of disarmed vectors or plasmids that replace wild type plasmids normally present in *Agrobacterium* In these vectors, the genes encoding growth regulators have been deleted to avoid interference with the regeneration of normal plants and have been replaced with dominant scorable and selectable markers (Bevan *et al.*, 1983, Fraley *et al.*, 1985, Bevan, 1984)

2.3.3 Efficient techniques for transformation

Transgenic plant research depends on the availability of procedures for plant transformation. Amongst the several techniques developed for transformation of plants two types of methods for plant transformation are more popular (Potrykus, 1990). The use of *Agrobacterium* as a biological vector for foreign gene transfer and direct gene transfer techniques, in which DNA is introduced into cells by the use of physical means i.e.; biolistics or microprojectile bombardment.

2.3.3.1 *Agrobacterium*-mediated gene transfer

The dawn of plant molecular biology and genetic engineering was basically the consequence of the discovery and study of the plant pathogen *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* (Gheysen *et al.*, 1998). *A. tumefaciens*, a gram-negative soil bacterium, causes crown gall tumors at the wound site of many dicotyledonous plants (Smith and Townsend, 1907). The crown gall formation is due to the transfer of a specific DNA fragment called the T-DNA (transfer DNA) from tumor inducing (Ti) plasmid of the bacterium (Zaenen *et al.*, 1974) to the plant cell. The transfer of T-DNA and its integration into the plant nuclear genome leads to crown gall phenotype (Chilton *et al.*, 1977; Schell *et al.*, 1979). T-DNA contains genes, which encode for the production of auxins (Akiyoshi *et al.*, 1984), and cytokinins (Barry *et al.*, 1984). Further, these genes encode for the production of enzymes involved in the synthesis of opines (Ellis and Murphy, 1981; Dessaux *et al.*, 1992). *Agrobacterium* strains were classified based on opines encoded by Ti plasmids as octopine, nopaline, agropine, succinamopine or

chrysopine strains (Dessaux, 1992, Vandequin-Dransart *et al.*, 1995) The transfer of T-DNA into plants requires three bacterial genetic elements, which constitutes, 1 25 bp imperfect repeats flanking T-DNA (Van Haaren *et al.*, 1988) acting in cis-orientation (Zambryski *et al.*, 1983), 2 Virulence genes (*vir* genes) encoded by Ti plasmid that is involved in processing of T-DNA and its transfer from the bacterium to the plant cell (Hooykaas and Beijersbergen, 1994), and 3 Bacterial elements consisting of a number of bacterial chromosomal genes that are necessary for T-DNA transfer and for the attachment of bacterium to the plant cell

2.3.3.2 Direct gene transfer

Agrobacterium-mediated gene transfer has been the most commonly used method of gene transfer in plants, but the cereals (monocots), comprising the most important food crops are not easily amenable to this method of gene transfer, further some of the dicots were recalcitrant to in vitro manipulation thus making inevitable to adopt direct gene transfer methods that are genotype independent in terms of DNA delivery, but however their efficiency is influenced by the type of target cells and their utility for the production of transgenic plants Direct gene transfer involves physical means to introduce DNA into intact cells (Gheysen *et al.*, 1998)

2.3.3.2.1 Microprojectile bombardment or biolistics for gene transfer

The invention of the direct gene transfer technique of microprojectile bombardment (Sanford *et al.*, 1987) was a major development in plant genetic manipulation as it has enabled the transformation of many plants that were not amenable to *Agrobacterium* or protoplast based gene transfer techniques. Microprojectile bombardment is the most widely used plant transformation method after *Agrobacterium* and has been applied to a wide range of crops (Barcelo and Lazzeri, 1998).

DNA delivery into plant cells is carried out with heavy microparticles (tungsten or gold) coated with DNA of interest, which are accelerated at a very high velocity, 1,400 ft per second (Russell *et al.*, 1993a). The microprojectiles are generally 1 to 3 μm in diameter, which are carried by a macroprojectile or the bullet and are accelerated into target cells such as pollen, cultured cells, cells in differentiated tissue and meristems, by penetrating cell walls of intact tissue. Particle gun, the PDS-1000He, uses helium for particle propulsion. In this gun, a burst of helium gas, released by the rupture of a plastic disc calibrated to break at a known pressure, accelerates a macrocarrier upon which microscopic gold or tungsten particles (microcarriers) coated with DNA get precipitated (Russell, 1993b). The term “biolistics” (biological ballistics) was coined to describe the nature of the delivery of foreign DNA into living cells or tissue through bombardment with a biolistic (gene gun) device (Weissinger, 1992).

Factors affecting microprojectile-mediated gene transfer

Physical factors

Physical factors affecting particle velocity and its penetration into target cells are particle acceleration, pressure and the distance of particle insertion into the target cells. Particle velocity used to penetrate the DNA into the target cells should cause minimum damage to the cells (Birch and Franks, 1991).

Biological factors

Biological factors taken into consideration in the gene transfer method is the capacity of the bombarded cells that undergo bombardment to proliferate and regenerate into plants which subsequently depends on factors such as growing conditions of the donor plants, explant, physiological and developmental stage of the explant, culture conditions of the explants and selection agents and selection intensity used (Weissinger, 1992).

Application of microprojectile bombardment for the production of transgenic plants

Following microprojectile bombardment, foreign genes have been delivered and expressed in both dicots and monocots including economically important crop species such as soybean, wheat, corn and rice (Wang *et al.*, 1988; Wu, 1989; Cao *et al.*, 1990). Biolistics has proven to be the most effective means of transformation of plant organelles (Svab *et al.*, 1990; Daniell *et al.*, 1991). Expression of the introduced genes was quantified by studies based on transgene regulation in specific plant cells or tissues

(Cao *et al.*, 1991; Lee *et al.*, 1991; Goldfarb *et al.*, 1991; Seki *et al.*, 1991a). Transgenic plants were produced from wide range of crops through microprojectile bombardment, that include the transgenic plants produced from bombardment of shoot apices of maize, (Zhong *et al.*, 1996); immature zygotic embryos of wheat (Becker *et al.*, 1994); immature inflorescence of *Triticum* (Barcelo *et al.*, 1994), leaves of tobacco (Tomes *et al.*, 1990) roots of *Arabidopsis* (Seki *et al.*, 1991b); anthers of rubber tree (Arokiaaraj *et al.*, 1994), pollen grains of tobacco (Stoeger *et al.*, 1995) and embryogenic cell suspension of soybean (Finer and McMullen, 1991). The first bombardment experiment was carried out on *Chlamydomonas* that could stably integrate transgenes in the chloroplast genome (Boynton *et al.*, 1988) and the same approach was subsequently used by Svab *et al.*, (1990) to produce tobacco plants with stably transformed chloroplasts. Morrish *et al.*, (1993) and Varsha *et al.*, (1996) emphasized the potentiality of microprojectile bombardment in transforming plant cells to produce transgenic plants. Christou *et al.*, (1989) reported first stable transformation of soybean, subsequently in maize (Kamm *et al.*, 1990), *Glycine max* (McCabe *et al.*, 1988; Christen *et al.*, 1989; Takano *et al.*, 1996; Hadi *et al.*, 1996; Hu *et al.*, 1999; Santarem and Finer, 1999; Aragao *et al.*, 2000), *Gossypium hirsutum* (McCabe and Martinell 1993); *Phaseolus vulgaris* (Russell *et al.*, 1993c; Ozcan 1995; Aragao *et al.*, 1996; Kim and Minamikawa, 1996; Zhang *et al.*, 1997); *Arachis hypogaea* (Schnall *et al.*, 1993; Brar *et al.*, 1994; Livingstone and Birch, 1995); *Zea mays* (Lowe *et al.*, 1995), *Hordeum vulgare* (Ritala *et al.*, 1994), sorghum (Devi and Sticklen, 2001) and pearl millet (Devi and Sticklen, 2002).

Advantages of microprojectile bombardment and limitations of microprojectile bombardment

Some of the advantages of microprojectile bombardment in gene transfer are: 1. It is relatively easy to handle, 2. One shot yields many hits and 3. The total survival of cells from the intrusion of particles (Monti, 1992). Though many reports concerning varied crops expressed the efficiency of DNA delivery, but stable transformation frequencies were low. This might be due to low frequency of transgene integration and intrinsically low regeneration capacity of target cells and finally the tissue damage by bombardment. However the above problems could be solved by slightly modifying the parameters affecting DNA delivery (Weissinger, 1992).

Comparative studies between microprojectile bombardment and Agrobacterium-mediated gene transfer methods

Physical methods of gene transfer are fundamentally different from *Agrobacterium* transformation. For microprojectile bombardment, the most important is to first examine the available tissue culture systems, determine the modes of regeneration and identification of potential explants, location of the cells involved, optimize tissue culture conditions to increase the number or accessibility of cells and develop conditions for non-lethal transfer of DNA into large number of such cells per bombardment. In *Agrobacterium* transformation, genetic sequences are introduced into disarmed Ti plasmids, which carry essential genetic elements required for the DNA transfer. The plasmids are then reintroduced into defined strains of *Agrobacterium*. DNA transfer occurs as part of modified pathogenesis process,

involving complex and highly evolved interactions between the target plant cell and the bacterium. A defined segment of DNA is cut from the Ti plasmid molecule, transferred into the recipient cell and integrated into the plant chromosome. Whereas physical methods for gene transfer do not involve any intermediate vector organism.

Because no vector organism is involved, physical gene transfer techniques are not limited by any constraints characteristic of *Agrobacterium*-mediated transformation. Genetic sequences can be incorporated into virtually any plasmid, which provides the sequences necessary for replication and selection in bacteria. Other sequences, such as the "vir" or border sequences of the Ti plasmid are not essential. In order to facilitate the above purpose, the plasmid construction for DNA delivery by physical means is simplified and plasmids tend to be smaller in size (Pietrzak *et al.*, 1986) since large plasmids (>10kb) will be subjected to greater fragmentation during microprojectile bombardment. Further, physical introduction of DNA is not dependent upon any bacterial/host cell interaction. In addition to this, no *Agrobacterium* infection occurs during DNA transfer by physical procedures; removal of *Agrobacterium* cells from the resulting transgenic tissue or plants by antibiotic treatment is not required, which simplifies and expedites the transformation process. The absence of *Agrobacterium* also eliminates the possibility of accidental release of recombinant bacteria into the environment, reducing the possibility of unintentional movement of alien genes to non-target plants.

2.4 Molecular characterization, screening of transgenic plants and inheritance of transgenes

Preliminary screening of the putative transformants was carried out by PCR analysis. PCR (polymerase chain reaction) is an *in vitro* enzymatic method of amplifying specific DNA sequences conceived by Mullis (Mullis, 1990). The simple concept of the PCR relies upon the repeated synthesis of the targeted DNA by the enzyme DNA polymerase (Phillip and Stewart, 1992). A breakthrough has come in PCR with the introduction of the thermostable enzyme Taq DNA polymerase (Lawyer *et al* 1989) from the thermophilic bacterium "*Thermus aquaticus*" which is resistant to high temperature thus doing away with replenishment during the PCR process (Erich *et al* , 1988).

The pre-requisites for proving stable transformation are 1. A tight correlation between molecular data on integration of foreign genes (Southern blot) and phenotypic expression of integrated genes (enzyme assays of reporter genes), 2. Transmission and expression of integrated foreign genes in several offsprings and 3. Use of appropriate controls in various assays to rule out false positives and combination problems often encountered in experimentation (Yang, 1993).

It is generalized that *Agrobacterium* produces simpler integration patterns than direct gene transfer, but both approaches result in a similar range of integration events, including truncations, rearrangements and various copy numbers and insertion sites. Further, the frequency, distribution of inserts and rearrangements vary with transformation parameters in both gene transfer methods. Majority of the reports

suggests T-DNA insertions by *Agrobacterium*-mediated transfer are stably inherited in normal Mendelian fashion (Budar *et al* , 1986, Chyi *et al* , 1986, Wallroth *et al* , 1986, Feldmann and Marks, 1987) T-DNA copy number vary considerably in transformed plants (Thomashow *et al* , 1980, Zambryski *et al* , 1982, Spielmann and Simpson, 1986, Jones *et al* , 1987) and two unlinked T-DNA elements can integrate into the same plant cell (Depicker *et al* , 1985, De Framond *et al* , 1986, Petit *et al* , 1986) T-DNA junctions can vary from tandem inverted repeats, direct repeats or single copy insertions (Zambryski *et al* , 1982, Spielmann and Simpson, 1986, Jorgensen *et al* , 1987) A rearrangement of target plant sequences at the site of insertion has been observed by Gheysen *et al* , (1987) The presence of both multiple copy insertions and inverted tandem structures suggests some differences in the mode of DNA uptake from direct DNA transformation of mammalian and plant cells Direct DNA transfer and incorporation in cells often results in large direct repeated arrays of introduced DNA (De Jonge and Bootsma, 1984, Potrykus *et al* , 1985)

2.5 In vitro regeneration and genetic transformation in pigeonpea

2.5.1 Current status of tissue culture and regeneration studies in pigeonpea

The availability of an in vitro regeneration protocol is a pre-requisite for the application of most biotechnological techniques, such as production of synthetic seeds, transgenic plants and somaclones (Parrott *et al* , 1992) Development of protocols of high regeneration is an inevitable pre-requisite for the production of transgenic plants Considerable work has been done till date ShamaRao and Narayanaswamy (1975),

obtained callus from hypocotyl explants from seeds exposed to gamma irradiation and organogenesis was induced in fifty percent of the callus initiated on MS medium supplemented with 2,4-D and kinetin Gosal and Bajaj (1979) observed the formation of multiple shoots from differentiated immature embryos cultured on MS medium supplemented with 2,4-D and casein hydrolysate in which globular to early heart shaped embryos directly developed into plantlets Mehta and Mohan Ram (1980) have used in vitro grown seedlings as the source for culturing leaf, stem, epicotyl and root explants cultured on MS medium fortified with B₅ + BA + GA₃ + NAA Callus was initiated from these explants, which was friable initially but later became necrotic and compact Shoot bud formation resulted from leaves and cotyledonary callus cultured on Blaydes medium supplemented with BA, NAA and GA₃ (gibberillic acid). Kumar *et al.*, (1984) observed that cotyledons are the better explants for regeneration, nodal halves of the cotyledons developed more shoots when compared to distal halves on MS medium with 2,4-D and BA Kumar *et al.*, (1985) used immature embryos as explants that resulted in direct plantlet formation when cultured on MS and B5 medium supplemented with 2,4-D However, it was observed that B₅ medium to be superior in giving more results than MS medium Subramanyam *et al.*, (1988) obtained callus from anthers cultured on MS medium fortified with 2,4-D, however it failed to differentiate on various combinations of media. Reena *et al.*, (1992) obtained large number of shoot buds from callus. Cotyledons from mature seedlings were taken as explants, produced green compact calli, which further resulted in shoot bud formation, and later elongated on addition of GA₃. Eapen and George (1993) regenerated shoot buds from leaves cultured on MS

supplemented with BA and IAA. Shoots buds resulted from callus after 45 d of culture on shoot induction medium. Baldev and Ramesh (1994) reported the formation of callus from leaf and epicotyl explants cultured on B₅ medium with various combinations of phytohormones such as BA, kinetin and NAA. They observed the callusing response from leaf explants was better than epicotyl region due to the presence of meristematic cells in leaf that could be induced to multiply at an accelerated rate and the formation of healthy callus was obtained in NAA, at relatively higher concentration. Shiva Prakash *et al.*, (1994) obtained multiple shoot formation from cotyledonary nodal region of seedlings germinated on MS medium supplemented with BA and the shoot buds elongated on MS basal medium (hormone free medium). Proliferation of the shoot initials resulted with topical application of IAA. The resulted elongated shoots rooted efficiently on MS fortified with IBA. Geetha *et al.*, (1998) obtained direct shoot bud differentiation and multiple shoot induction from seedling explants such as epicotyl, hypocotyl, leaf, cotyledon and cotyledonary nodal segments cultured on MS medium augmented with varied concentrations of BA/kinetin. Elongation of multiple shoots resulted when placed on MS medium fortified with BA in combination with NAA and GA₃. Maximum frequency of shoot formation resulted from the cotyledonary node explants and minimal regeneration from leaf explants. They observed BA to more effective cytokinin for shoot organogenesis. The elongated shoots rooted on MS supplemented with IBA. Eapen *et al.*, (1998) observed the formation of shoot regeneration from primary leaf segments cultured on MS medium supplemented with TDZ with IAA. Tiny protuberances were produced from the cut end of the leaf

segments within 14 to 21 d of culture, which became distinct as shoot buds after 45 to 50 d. The initial shoot meristems (5 to 10%) elongated on medium supplemented with BA, GA₃ and IAA. They observed TDZ induced high frequency regeneration from leaf discs of pigeonpea. Sreenivasu *et al* (1998) obtained plant regeneration through somatic embryogenesis using cotyledon and leaf explants of 10-d-old seedlings cultured on MS medium fortified with TDZ. Subsequent withdrawal of TDZ from the induction medium resulted in the maturation and growth of the embryos into plantlets on MS basal medium. Mohan and Krishnamurthy (1998) observed the formation of shoot buds from the distal cotyledonary segments cultured on MS medium fortified with different combinations of BA, kinetin and adenine sulfate. Shoot buds elongated on transfer to MS medium containing BA and NAA, which later rooted on IBA. Distal halves of the cotyledons turned green after 2 to 3 wk of culture which subsequently produced small, green, dome like structures, and later developed into shoot buds after 3 to 4 wk. Geetha *et al*, (1998) used 7-d-old seedling explants of epicotyl, hypocotyls, leaf, cotyledon and cotyledonary nodal segments. Number of shoots per explant was more when cultured on MS medium supplemented with BA in combination with NAA. Geetha *et al*, (1999) used shoot tips for the regeneration of transgenic pigeonpea. Seedlings raised from decoated seeds produced clusters of leafy structures, when cultured on low concentration of TDZ (0.05 to 1.0 μ M), whereas the same explants when cultured on high concentration of TDZ (10.0 to 20.0 μ M), induced somatic embryos (Dolendro *et al*, 2003). Germinated seedlings grown on B5 medium supplemented with BA (10 mg/L) induced differentiating callus formation in the cotyledonary node region. The

calli when transferred to B5 medium containing reduced concentration of BA (0.2 mg/L) resulted in the formation of shoots (Thu *et al.*, 2003). Dayal *et al.*, (2003) reported high frequency regeneration from leaf explants of aseptic seedlings. Primary leaf explants of 4 to 5-d-old exhibited adventitious shoot regeneration from the proximal cut end of the leaf when cultured on MS medium fortified with BA and kinetin.

2.5.2 Genetic transformation of pigeonpea

Most of the legumes that include pigeonpea are recalcitrant in nature. Till date there is no appropriate regeneration protocol in pigeonpea that can be exploited for the production of transgenics, either due to long callus phase or due to non-reproducibility of the protocol. The use of wild types of *A. tumefaciens* strains (Rathore and Chand, 1997) induced tumor formation in several cultivars (Bahar and Pant A-106, H82-1, UPAS 120 and ICPL 151) of pigeonpea. Sagore *et al.*, (1997) reported *A. tumefaciens*-mediated transfer of pigeonpea embryo axis, using reporter gene. Arundhati (1999) reported *Agrobacterium*-mediated transfer of leaf disks of pigeonpea cultivar ICPL 5164, using LBA4404 pBAL2 *Agrobacterium* strain and further studied the transient expression in leaf disks. For *Agrobacterium*-mediated gene transformation, Geetha *et al.*, (1999) have utilized shoot apices and cotyledonary nodal explants and the mode of regeneration was direct organogenesis. Lawrence and Koundal (2001) have used embryonal axes for *Agrobacterium*-mediated gene transfer method and they have observed indirect regeneration resulting from callus produced through embryonal axes.

Thu *et al.*, (2003) reported the production of transgenic pigeonpea using cotyledonary nodal region through microprojectile bombardment as well as *Agrobacterium*-mediated gene transfer method. Transgenic pigeonpea using leaf explant was produced by Dayal *et al.*, (2003).

3. MATERIALS AND METHODS

3. MATERIALS AND METHODS

3.1 Tissue culture

3.1.1 Plant material

Different genotypes of pigeonpea (*Cajanus cajan* (L.) Millsp.) were obtained from the gene bank of ICRISAT (International Crops Research Institute for the Semi-Arid Tropics), Patancheru, India. These genotypes include ICPL 87, ICPL 88039, ICPL 87119, ICPL 85063, ICPL 88009, ICPL 87091, ICPL 2376, ICPL 87051, ICPL 91011, ICPL 332 and ICPL 84031. Unless mentioned otherwise, all the experiments were carried out with the cultivar ICPL 88039 (Appendix 1).

3.1.2 Explant preparation and shoot regeneration

The seeds of pigeonpea cultivar ICPL 88039 were surface sterilized with 70% ethanol for 2 min, and washed with 0.1% (w/v) aqueous mercuric chloride containing 1 to 2 drops of Tween-20 for 8 min on a rotary shaker and rinsed four to five times in sterile water and soaked in autoclaved water for 4 hr. The seed coat was removed from pre-soaked seeds and germinated on semi-solid MS (Murashige and Skoog, 1962) basal medium (Appendix 2).

Primary leaves from 4 to 5-d-old aseptically grown seedlings were used as explants for culture. While preparing leaf explants, care was taken to excise the petiolar region sufficiently away from the axillary meristem, so as to completely eliminate any preformed meristematic tissue. The explants were placed on SIM (shoot induction

medium) consisting of MS basal medium augmented with 5 μM BA in combination with 5 μM kinetin. Once the shoot initiation was observed, the leaf explants forming shoot bud were placed on $\frac{1}{2}$ strength SIM [or shoot development medium (SDM)] consisting of MS medium having 2.5 μM BA and 2.5 μM kinetin after removing half the lamina. The explants with differentiated and proliferated multiple shoot buds were transferred to SEM (shoot elongation medium) consisting of MS medium supplemented with 0.58 μM GA₃. The shoots over 3 cm in length were transferred to rooting medium (RIM) consisting of MS basal medium with reduced sucrose concentration (1% w/v). Pulse treatment was given to the elongated shoots with 11.42 μM IAA solution. First pulse treatment was given to the cut shoots, which were directly dipped into the IAA (11.42 μM) solution for 30 to 60 sec and later transferred to the tubes containing MS medium devoid of any growth regulators in which the sucrose concentration was reduced to 1% (w/v). Second pulse treatment was given to those unrooted shoots, which were unable to root in the first pulse treatment. The in vitro regenerated plantlets with well-developed roots were transferred to small pots for hardening, which consisted of autoclaved sand and small amount of thiarum (fungicide). The plantlets were kept in the pots (3 inches) covered with polythene bags for 5 d. Initially these plantlets were kept in culture room for one day at a temperature of 26 °C and relative humidity of 40%. Later the pots were transferred to the greenhouse. Within these 5 d various steps were involved for the acclimatization of the rooted plantlets. In the initial phase of the acclimatization, small holes were punched on the sides of the polythene bag. After 3 d top portion of the polythene bag was totally cut, with eventual removal of the bag after

7 to 8 d The plants from the smaller pots (6 inches) were transferred to much bigger pots (13 inches) which consisted of autoclaved sand and soil in 1:1 ratio supplemented with small amount of manure and di-ammonium phosphate (DAP). During the initial transplantation process, the plants were covered with same polythene bags (with top cut portion) and small sticks were used to give support to the plant. After 3 d, the plants were totally uncovered and are exposed to withstand various climatic conditions. The surviving plants were maintained in the glasshouse until maturity and harvest.

Various parameters effecting shoot regeneration like growth regulators, sucrose concentration, age of the explant and genotype were dealt in detail in the following section (3.1.3)

3.1.3 Culture medium and conditions

MS basal medium with 3% sucrose was used for all the experiments except, rooting experiments. pH of the medium was adjusted to 5.8 prior to the addition of 0.8% agar and was autoclaved at 15 psi pressure for 15 min. The regeneration experiments were carried out in 90 mm X 16 mm sterile disposable plastic petri-plates sealed with Parafilm[®], while elongation and rooting experiments were conducted in 15 mm X 25 mm long test tubes plugged with non-absorbent cotton plugs wrapped in one layer of cheese cloth. Cultures were maintained at 26 ± 1 °C with 16 h photoperiod provided by white cool fluorescent lamps having $60 \mu\text{Em}^{-2}\text{S}^{-1}$ light intensity and 8 hr of dark period.

Growth regulators

TDZ and IAA: TDZ in combination with IAA was tested for shoot bud induction in shoot regeneration experiments on pigeonpea. Leaves from 2, 3, 4, 6, and 8-d-old aseptically grown seedlings were taken as explants for culture. A total of 24 explants of 3 replicates were taken and observations were recorded based on the explant response for shoot bud induction and change in the morphology of the explants in response to the above growth regulators was observed. Data was recorded after 3 wk of culture. MS medium supplemented with three different levels of TDZ and IAA were tested (TI, TI-1, TI-2) and the explant's response for shoot bud induction was observed. In the first combination, 9.0 μM TDZ in combination with 0.57 μM IAA (TI) was taken. In the second combination, the concentration of TDZ was 9.08 μM and IAA 1.14 μM (TI-1) and in the third, TDZ concentration was 11.35 μM in combination with 1.14 μM IAA (TI-2).

BA and NAA: Earlier reports on pigeonpea stated the combination of cytokinin and auxin to be effective for shoot bud induction. Therefore experiments were conducted using leaves from 4, 5, 6, 7, 9, 11, 13, 15-d-old aseptically grown seedlings were used as explant. MS medium containing various combinations of BA + NAA (BN1, BN2, BN3, BN4) were tested. The effect of combination of cytokinin and auxin on the explant for response to the formation of shoot buds was observed. Four combinations of the medium were prepared. A total of 24 explants of 3 replicates were taken for culture and the experiments were repeated thrice and the data was scored. In the first combination, BA concentration was 4.44 μM in combination with 0.54 μM

NAA (BN1), in the second combination, concentration of BA was 11.09 μM and NAA 1.07 μM (BN2), in the third combination, concentration of BA was 15.53 μM with 1.16 μM NAA (BN3) and in the fourth combination 22.18 μM BA in combination with 1.07 μM NAA (BN4)

BA, kinetin and 2-iP: As cytokinins are useful for shoot organogenesis, various combinations of BA, kinetin and 2-iP were supplemented with MS medium. The effect of these cytokinins on the explant in response to the formation of multiple shoots was tested. Four to 5-d-old aseptically grown leaf explants were cultured on MS medium augmented with various levels of BA, kinetin and 2-iP (C1 to C6, K1 to K6, P1 to P6 and I1 to I6). Four combinations of the medium were prepared. In the first combination, BA concentration ranged from 0, 2.5, 5, 7.5, and 10 μM , in which, kinetin concentration of 5 μM was kept constant (C1 to C6), in the second combination, concentration of BA and kinetin was vice versa (K1 to K6), and in the third, the concentrations of kinetin ranged from 0, 2.5, 5, 7.5, and 10 μM and 2-iP concentration of 5 μM was kept constant (P1 to P6). In the fourth combination, the concentration of kinetin (5 μM) was kept constant and with different concentrations of 0, 2.5, 5, 7.5, and 10 μM , 2-iP (I1 to I6).

Type of explant

Various explants like epicotyl, hypocotyl, embryonal axes, leaf lamina, leaf with half cut lamina and petiole from in vitro raised aseptic seedlings were taken to compare their morphogenic potential, and the observations were recorded based on the explants response for shoot induction. The explants were placed on MS medium supplemented

with 5 μ M BA and 5 μ M kinetin The explant, which responded well, was selected for all the consecutive experiments

Genotype

To study the effect of genotype of the explant donor seedlings, eleven genotypes of pigeonpea belonging to different maturity groups were selected (Table 5) These genotypes include ICPL 87, ICPL 88039, ICPL 87119, ICPL 85063, ICPL 88009, ICPL 87091, ICPL 2376, ICPL 87051, ICPL 91011, ICPL 332 and ICPL 84031 The leaf explants of 4 to 5-d-old in vitro germinated seedlings were cultured on SIM and their response for shoot regeneration was compared

Age of explant

For efficient organogenesis, the age of the explant was taken as one of the important parameter Explants from different ages of 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 9, 11, 13 and 15-d-old aseptically germinated seedlings were taken A total of 60 explants with three replicates were taken and cultured on SIM Age of the explant was optimized based on the shoot induction response from leaf explant obtained from seedlings of different ages

Size of the leaf lamina

To study the role of lamina, different portions of the lamina were surgically removed so as to have explants with full, $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{3}{4}$ portions of the lamina and without lamina along with the petiolar cut end The explants were cultured on SIM with the abaxial surface of the lamina in contact with the medium

Effect of GA₃ on shoot elongation

Different steps were involved for the elongation of the multiple shoots. A total of 24 explants of three replicates were taken for culture. Initially the explants with differentiated shoot buds were placed in SIM for elongation. In the second combination, the explants with shoot buds were placed in ½ strength SIM and in the third combination, the explants with multiple shoot buds were cultured in MS medium supplemented with various levels of GA₃ (0.58, 1.51, 1.71, 2.31 and 2.89 µM). Explants cultured on MS medium supplemented with 2.5 µM BA and 2.5 µM kinetin were taken as controls. The concentration of GA₃ was optimized based on the shoot bud response for the elongation of healthy and multiple shoots.

IBA and IAA for rooting

Elongated shoots (upto 3 cm) were transferred to RIM (root induction medium containing MS basal medium supplemented with various concentrations of IBA). MS medium with different concentrations of IBA such as 0.9, 1.97, 2.95, 3.94 and 4.9 µM with reduced sucrose concentration (1% w/v) were tested and the response of the elongated multiple shoots for root initiation was observed.

Based on the response of the elongated shoots on IBA, IAA was tested for root initiation in the elongated shoots. MS basal medium having different concentrations of IAA, which include 1.14, 2.82, 3.42, 4.57, 5.71, 6.85, 7.56 and 11.42 µM was used for pulse treatment of rootable shoots.

Sucrose for rooting

Sucrose starvation experiments were carried out on elongated shoots placed on RIM consisting of 1.14 μM IAA. Various percentages of sucrose from 1, 2 and 3% were tried for rooting and sucrose percentage was optimized based on the response of the shoots rooted.

3.1.4 Sterilization of BA, kinetin, GA₃ and IAA

Different sterilizing methods were used for BA, kinetin, GA₃ and IAA, for different stages of regeneration studies involving SIM, SDM, SEM and RIM, was carried out and the effect of autoclavable and filter sterilized phytohormones on shoot regeneration was observed.

3.2 Ontogeny studies on shoot bud differentiation

To study the morphology and shoot bud development from petiolar region of the leaf, the leaf explants from in vitro raised aseptic seedlings and cultured on SIM and the petiolar region from which the regeneration occurred was used for ontogeny studies. The explants of different ages from 0, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12 and 14-d-old were taken and processed for paraffin sectioning as described by Johansen (1940). Steps involved in processing the tissue are fixation, dehydration, infiltration, embedding, sectioning, deparaffinising, staining, and mounting were as follows:

Fixation

Petiole region of the leaf explant was fixed in a solution of acetic acid 95% ethanol (1:3). The samples were infiltrated under vacuum and maintained at 4 °C for 4 to 6 hr.

Dehydration

The fixed samples were vacuum infiltrated and washed thrice with distilled water (30 min each) and then dehydrated with alcohol dilution series (10, 30, 50 and 70%) for 30 min each and finally stored in a fresh solution of 70% alcohol at 4 °C.

Infiltration

The samples in 70% ethanol were taken and placed in oven maintained at 52 to 60 °C temperature (melting point of paraffin wax). The lid of the vial was opened and at an interval of 30 min, a rice grain size of paraffin wax was added to the vial and the lid was replaced tightly and retained in the hot air oven. This process was continued until the material was infiltrated in wax and the extra wax starts occupying the glass vial by dissolving in the 70% ethanol. At this stage the lid of the vial was opened and wax addition was continued till the entire vial was filled with wax, which was taken out of the oven and placed at room temperature.

Embedding

The vial with the material infiltrated completely with wax was once again placed in the oven to bring the wax into melting state. Plastic boats were taken and placed in a tray with water, and the melted wax in the vial along with the sample was poured into

the boat along with some fresh melted wax so that the material was completely embedded in wax to the brim of the boat (Appendix 3)

Sectioning

The material embedded in the paraffin wax was trimmed to remove the extra wax in and around the tissue and the boat was placed in the racket of the microtome and sections of 10 μm thin were cut using Leica RM 2155 TM, India microtome device and later were slid onto a microslide

Deparaffinising and staining

The slides were dried and then deparaffinised by passing through a series of solutions and a total time period of 16 hr is required for the above process to be carried out and staining of the sections was done using Eosin stain. The slides with the sections were serially processed as given in Appendix 4

Mounting

A drop of DPX mount was taken on a cover slip and the slide reversed on to the cover glass with the section falling in the center of the cover glass and the slide was turned to the correct position. The cover glass was tapped gently to remove air bubbles and the slides were air dried for 15 to 20 min and then stored with proper labeling

Observations and photography

All the observations were made by using a compound microscope under 4, 10, 20 and 40X magnifications and photographed with Kodak 100 ASA black and white films

3.3 Genetic transformation

3.3.1 Effect of the kanamycin (antibiotic selection) on untransformed control leaf explants

Initial experiments were carried out to study the effect of antibiotic selection for shoot regeneration using untransformed leaf explant. The explants were placed on shoot induction medium. Once the shoot bud initiation was noticed, the explants with half cut lamina were placed on ½ strength SIM. Various concentrations of kanamycin (25, 50, 75, 100, 125 and 150 mg/L) were tested on leaf explant and observations were carried out on the morphological changes and response of the leaf explant for shoot regeneration. About 72 explants were taken and the experiments were repeated thrice. The efficiency of the antibiotic on the explant cultured was observed after 2 to 3 wk.

3.3.2 Microprojectile bombardment for gene transfer

3.3.2.1 Bacterial strain and plasmid

The *RChit* gene was kindly provided by Dr. S. Muthukrishnan of Kansas State University, USA. The *RChit* gene was cloned in the plasmid pRTT99GUS in the Genetic transformation laboratory, ICRISAT (K. K. Sharma and coworkers). The plasmid construct pRT99GUS RChit (Fig. 6) carrying chitinase expression cassette was maintained in *E. coli* strain DH5 α . The plasmid pRT99GUS RChit has marker genes such as *nptII* and *uidA*, and *RChit* as candidate gene under the control of a constitutive promoter CaMV 35S and polyA terminator.

3.3.2.2 Isolation of plasmid DNA

Plasmid DNA was isolated according to the procedure reported by Sambrook *et al.*, (1989). Various steps in the procedure were as follows -

Components

- GTE buffer 50 mM Glucose, 25 mM Tris (pH 8.0), 10 mM EDTA (pH 8.0)
- Lysis buffer 0.2 N NaOH and 1% SDS
- 5 M Potassium acetate, pH 5.2
- RNase (10 mg/ml)
- Chloroform
- Isopropanol
- 70% ethanol
- TE buffer 10 mM Tris (pH 8.0) and 1 mM EDTA (pH 8.0)

Method

Plasmid construct pRT99GUS RChit was maintained in *E. coli* strain DH5 α and grown on LB (Appendix 5) agar plates containing 100 μ g/ml ampicillin. Single isolated colonies were grown in 10 ml of LB medium overnight at 37 °C on a rotary shaker at 220 rpm and 10 ml bacterial suspension was pelleted by centrifuging for 10 min at 6000 rpm. The bacterial pellet was suspended in 600 μ l of GTE for 5 min at room temperature (can be placed even in ice), in order to maintain the osmoticum. To the resuspended bacterial solution, 1200 μ l of freshly prepared lysis buffer was added and the samples were placed on ice for 5 min. After 5 min, 900 μ l of 5 M potassium acetate was added to the lysed bacterial solution and the samples were mixed well by inverting the tubes slowly and the mixture was placed back on ice for 5 min. The solution was centrifuged for 10 min at 14,000 rpm and the supernatant was transferred to fresh tubes

to which 3 to 5 μ l of RNase (10 mg/L) was added, to remove RNA, and incubated at 37 °C for 30 min. Equal volumes of phenol:chloroform was added to remove proteins present in the DNA mixture and a brief spin was given. Further, to the aqueous phase equal volume of chloroform was added and the sample solution was centrifuged for 30 sec. The top aqueous phase was collected into fresh tubes and to this 0.8 volume of isopropanol was added to precipitate nucleic acids and stored at -20 °C for 30 min. The sample was centrifuged for 10 min at 10,000 rpm / 4 °C and the pellet was washed with 70% ethanol and air-dried. The dried plasmid DNA pellet was finally dissolved in 30 μ l of TE.

3.3.2.3 Preparation of plasmid DNA for microprojectile bombardment

Plasmid pRT99GUS-RChit consisting of *RChit* gene along with *uidA* and *nptII* genes was used for microprojectile bombardment (Fig. 6). Microprojectile bombardment was performed using PDS-1000He (Bio-Rad, Hercules, Calif).

3.3.2.4 Particle preparation

A total of 30 mg of 1 μ m tungsten (Bio-Rad, Hercules, Calif) particles were sterilized with 500 μ l of 70% ice-cold ethanol. The particles were vortexed for 3 to 5 min and incubated at room temperature for 15 min, later centrifuged for 5 sec in microfuge to pellet the microparticles. The microparticles were then washed and resuspended in sterile water. Particles were coated with DNA according to Sanford (1990) with some modifications.

Particle suspension (tungsten) of 50 μ l was mixed with 5 to 7 μ l of plasmid DNA (1 μ g/ml), and to the above suspension 50 μ l of CaCl_2 (2.5 M) and 20 μ l of 0.1 M spermidine was added for the precipitation of the plasmid DNA (Russell *et al.*, 1993b). The mixture was vortexed for 3 min and a brief spin of 5 sec was given. Later, the supernatant was discarded and the pellet was washed with 70% ethanol followed by 100% ethanol. DNA coated particles were resuspended in 60 μ l of absolute ethanol. Particle-DNA mixture of 6 μ l was placed in the center of the nylon microprojectile screen. The target explants were placed at a distance of 6 and 8 cm from the stopping plate and covered with a stainless steel mesh. Chamber pressure of 25 mm Hg was maintained. For bombarding the explants, two different distances of 6 and 8 cm from the stopping plate were tested and two different pressures of 1100 and 1300 psi pressure were also tested individually to bombard the DNA into the target cells. A total of 400 explants of three replicates were taken and bombarded. Based on the regeneration potential of the bombarded explants, the above parameters were standardized.

3.3.2.5 Bombardment of particles

Macrocarriers were dipped in isopropanol and placed on a sterile filter paper for drying. Tungsten particles coated with 6 μ l of DNA were loaded on each macro carrier. Rupture disc was loaded into the acceleration tube to which petri-plate with the sample was placed at an optimum distance and the door was closed. Vacuum switch was kept pressed till it reached 23 to 25 inches Hg and immediately the vacuum hold switch was pressed. Later the fire switch was pressed and the rupture disk bursts once the helium

gas fills up and the pressure to increase to the required limit as. Fire switch was released immediately after the rupture disk bursts and the gun fired onto the macrocarrier, which was stopped by the stopping screen, while the DNA coated micro projectiles were shot onto the target tissue

Explants (50 to 60) in number were placed in each petri-plate in a circular manner without leaving any space in between and the position of the explants was in such a way that the cut end of the petiolar region of the explant where the target cells competent for regeneration was facing towards the center (Fig 7) Parameters like size of the tungsten particle (1 μm) and particle density were kept constant throughout the experiments

3.3.2.6 Plant regeneration and selection

Initially 74 explants were taken in each experiment The explants were pre-cultured on SIM at the time of bombardment The bombarded explants were culture in SIM for 24 hr, and later the explants were transferred to fresh plates consisting of SIM with small amount of cefotaxime to avoid contamination, and the plating density of 10 explants was maintained The bombarded explants were placed on SIM With the onset of multiple adventitious shoots from the proximal cut end of the petiole of the leaf explant, the explants with half cut lamina was transferred to the selection medium, consisting of $\frac{1}{2}$ strength SIM with 25 mg/L kanamycin The explants were cultured in the above medium for a week, and later the explants were transferred to SEM with 50 mg/L kanamycin The elongated shoots cultured in the above medium were

subjected to continuous selection pressure of 50 mg/L kanamycin and in the following 2 to 3 sub-cultures of 2 wk each on the shoot elongation medium, the concentration of kanamycin was increased upto 100 mg/L for stringent selection of transformed shoots. The selected shoots were transferred to the RIM. The elongated putative transformed shoots were subjected to pulse treatment for rooting (pulse treatment given, is similar to that of the treatment given to the in vitro regenerated plantlets).

Acclimatization and transplantation of putative transgenic plants

The in vitro selected plantlets with well-developed roots were transferred to small pots (6 inch) for hardening, which consisted of autoclaved sand and pinch of thiamam (fungicide). The plantlets were kept in the pots of 3 cm covered with polythene bags for 5 d. Initially for one day these plantlets were kept in culture room at a temperature of 26 °C and relative humidity of 40%. Later the pots were transferred to the glasshouse. Within these 5 d various steps were involved for acclimatization of the rooted plantlets. In the initial phase of the acclimatization, small slits were made on sides of the polythene bag. After 3 d top portion of the polythene bag was totally cut.

The plants from the smaller pots were transferred to bigger pots (13 inch) which consisted of autoclaved sand and soil in 1:1 ratio supplemented with small amount of manure and di-ammonium phosphate (DAP). Even in bigger pots, the plants were covered with polythene bags and small sticks were used to give support to the plant. After 3 d, the plants were totally uncovered.

3.4 Analysis of transgenic plants

Molecular and biochemical analysis of putatively transformed plants was carried out for two reasons First, to determine whether the material is transgenic and second, to characterize the material (e.g. to determine copy number and/ or the complexity of the DNA insert, and evaluate transgene expression)

3.4.1 Histochemical analysis of putative transformants

Transient expression of a β -glucuronidase (*uidA*) marker gene was assayed by the histochemical procedure of Jefferson (1987) The substrate used to study the *uidA* gene expression was 5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl β -D-glucuronide (X-Gluc)

GUS reaction

The enzyme β -glucuronidase cleaves the substrate X-Gluc into Glucuronic acid and indoxyl derivative The indoxyl derivative dimerizes and is then oxidized to form insoluble, highly colored indigo dye (dichloro-dibromo indigo, CIBr indigo) Although atmospheric oxygen stimulates the dimerization of indoxyl derivative the oxidation catalyst potassium ferricyanide and ferrocyanide present in a reaction mix, accelerates the reaction EDTA added in the reaction mix leads to the partial inhibition of the enzyme by oxidation catalyst

The procedure followed for GUS assay was as follows putative transformed tissue either leaf, petiole or stem sections were incubated in GUS histochemical staining solution in 1.5 ml eppendorf, covered with aluminum foil Later the plant tissue kept for

GUS assay was vacuum aspirated for 10 min and later incubated in dark at 37 °C overnight. The tissue was rinsed in 70 and 100% ethanol for 30 min till the chlorophyll comes out from the intercellular spaces of the plant tissue expressing intense blue. Explants after 2 d of bombardment, as well as the explants (leaf, petiole) after subsequent sub-cultures after bombardment were stained with GUS histochemical staining solution (Appendix 6)

3.4.2 Molecular analysis of putative transgenics

3.4.2.1 Extraction of genomic DNA

Genomic DNA from the putative plants was extracted according to the protocol reported by Porebski *et al.*, (1997)

Solutions

- Extraction buffer (Appendix 7)
- Poly vinyl pyrrolidone (PVP 40,000)
- Chloroform octanol (24 1)
- 5 M NaCl
- 95% ethanol, 70% ethanol, absolute ethanol (100%)
- TE buffer 10 mM Tris-HCL + 1mM EDTA, pH 8.0
- RNase A 10 mg/L
- Proteinase K 1 mg/L
- Chloroform-Phenol saturated in TE
- 3 M sodium acetate pH 4.8

Genomic DNA was isolated from leaf material of glasshouse grown putative transformants. Leaf tissue (500 mg) was ground in liquid nitrogen with a mortar and pestle. To the powdered leaf tissue, 5 ml of extraction buffer was added and transferred to 30 ml polypropylene tubes. The contents were mixed well by inverting the tubes 3 to 5 times and incubated at 60 °C for 45 min. To the incubated mixture, 6 ml of chloroform octanol solution (24:1 ratio) was added and centrifuged at 6000 rpm for 20 min. The supernatant was collected and adding ½ volume of 5 M NaCl and double the volume of 95% ethanol precipitated the DNA, and incubated at -20 °C for 20 min. DNA pellet was collected by centrifuging at 6000 rpm for 6 min. The pellet was washed with ice-cold 70% ethanol, air-dried and dissolved in 500 µl of 10 mM Tris and 1 mM EDTA, pH 8.0. To the dissolved pellet 10 µl of RNase (10 mg/L) was added to degrade RNA by incubating at 37 °C. After 30 min, 3 µl Proteinase K was added and incubated further at 37 °C in water bath for another 30 min. Later equal volumes of phenol:chloroform (1:1) was added to the DNA solution. The vial consisting of the solution was inverted slowly for three to four times and centrifuged for 10 to 15 min at 14,000 rpm. To the clear supernatant 1/10 volume of 3 M sodium acetate and equal volume of 100% ethanol was added and placed and incubated at -80 °C. In order to recover more DNA, to the bottom layer, 100 to 150 µl of TE was added and a 10 min spin was given at 14,000 rpm. To the supernatant 1/10 volume of 3 M sodium acetate and equal volume of absolute ethanol was added and incubated at -80 °C (preferably overnight). Samples were centrifuged at 14,000 rpm and the pellet was washed in 70% ethanol, air dried and later dissolved in TE.

Rapid preparation of genomic DNA using plant DNAzol® reagent (Invitrogen U.S.A.) for quick PCR analysis

Plant DNAzol is an extra strength DNAzol® reagent, specifically formulated for the isolation of genomic DNA from plants. The plant DNAzol procedure is based on the use of a novel guanidine-detergent lysing solution, which hydrolyzes RNA and allows the selective precipitation of DNA from a variety of plant tissues. The whole protocol can be carried out at room temperature and time involved in the extraction of the DNA is very less and the method is very efficient and quick.

Components

- DNAzol® reagent
- Chloroform
- DNA Zol® + ethanol mix (1 : 0.75)
- 70 and 100% ethanol
- TE buffer 10 mM Tris-HCL + 1 mM EDTA, pH 8.0

Young leaf tissue of 100 mg was taken and ground in liquid N₂ to a fine powder. To the ground tissue 300 µl of DNAzol® reagent was added and incubated at 25 °C with shaking for 5 min. After 5 min 300 µl of chloroform was added to the above mixture and vortexed for few sec. The mixture in the eppendorf was further incubated for 5 min at 25 °C, which was later centrifuged for 10 min at 12,000 rpm. The clear supernatant was transferred to the fresh tubes and to it two volumes of 100% ethanol was added. The samples were mixed well by inverting the tubes for 6 to 8 times and were stored at room temperature for 5 min. After incubation the samples were centrifuged at 5,000

rpm for 4 min. The supernatant was discarded and to the pellet 300 µl DNAzol® + ethanol mix was added to precipitate DNA and further vortexed and stored at room temperature for 5 min. The samples were centrifuged for 4 min. The supernatant was discarded and the pellet was washed with 70% ethanol and the samples were spinned at 5,000 rpm for 4 min. The ethanol solution was discarded and the pellet was air or vacuum dried and dissolved in 70 µl of TE.

3.4.2.2 PCR analysis of putative transformants

Putative transformants were screened by PCR (polymerase chain reaction) for the presence of *nptII*, *uidA* and *RChit* genes in plants transformed with plasmid pRT99GUS:RChit vector.

The 700 bp region of *nptII* and 1.2 kb fragment of *uidA* genes was amplified by using 22-mer oligonucleotide primers (Hamill *et al.*, 1991).

Upper primer I: 5¹-GAG GCT ATT CGG CTA TGA CTG -3¹

Lower primer II: 5¹-ATG GGG AGC GGC GAT ACC GTA - 3¹

uidA gene of 1.2 kb region was amplified using oligonucleotide primers (*gus I gusII*),

Upper primer I: 5¹ - GGT GGG AAA GCG CGT TAC AAG -3¹

Lower primer II: 5¹ - GTT TAC GCG TTG CTT CCG CCA -3¹

RChit gene of 525 bp region was amplified using 21-mer oligonucleotides primers, designed in Genetic transformation laboratory, ICRISAT.

Upper primer I 5'- TCT GCC CCA ACT GCC TCT GCT -3'

Lower primer II 5'- CCC CGC GGC CGT AGT TGT AGT - 3'

PCR reaction was performed with 50 µl of a total reaction mixture containing 25 ng of genomic DNA, 5 µl of 10X PCR buffer (- MgCl₂), 1.5 µl of 50 µM MgCl₂, 1 µl of 10 mM dNTP mix, 1 µl of 10 µM Primer I, 1 µl of 10 µM Primer II, and 0.25 µl of 1.25 units of Taq DNA polymerase. The total volume was made up to 50 µl with sterile distilled H₂O. The control without template DNA was used in each set of reactions with each primer. Using TECHNE PHC3 thermocycler programmed for 32 cycles performed the amplification reaction.

Amplification reactions were carried out by using Eppendorf thermal cycler using the following conditions: denaturation at 94 °C for 60 sec, annealing at 59 °C (*uidA*), 58.5 °C (*nptII*), 63 °C (*RChit*), for 45 sec, extension at 72 °C for 90 sec for 32 cycles and final extension at 72 °C for 4 min (one cycle). The amplified products were assayed by electrophoresis on 1.2 % agarose gel.

3.4.2.3 Southern blot analysis

Steps involved in Southern blotting are: Digestion of the genomic DNA with an appropriate restriction enzyme, Gel electrophoresis of the restriction fragments, Transfer of the DNA to a nylon or nitrocellulose membrane, Hybridization of the Southern blot with labeled probe, and autoradiography to detect the signal.

Materials

- Denaturation buffer 1.5 M NaCl and 0.5 M NaOH
- Neutralization buffer 1.5 M NaCl and 0.5 M Tris, pH 7.5
- 20X SSC NaCl→175.3 gm/L and Na Citrate→88.2 gm/L
- 250 mM HCL
- Blotting tray
- 3M Whatman paper
- Nylon membrane, Hybond-N⁺ membrane (Pharmacia)
- UV cross linker (Pharmacia)
- Paper towels
- Parafilm[®]
- 500 gm weight
- Pasture pipette

Digestion of genomic DNA with restriction enzymes

Genomic DNA from putative transformants transformed with the plasmid pRT99GUS RChit was digested with enzyme *Hind*III which produces double cut within the plasmid to release the 1.2 kb *RChit* gene, and enzyme *Xba*I was used to restrict the genomic DNA which produces single restriction site within the plasmid to know the copy number of the inserted gene

Genomic DNA	10 to 15 µg
10 X restriction buffer	5 µl
Enzyme	2.5 µl
Sterile distil H ₂ O	7.5 µl
The entire set up was for	50 µl

Gel electrophoresis of the restricted fragments

Genomic DNA of 10 to 15 µg was extracted from the putative transformed plants as described above was digested and restricted fragments were electrophoretically separated on 0.8% agarose gel casted in 1X TAE and electrophoresis was performed at 40 volts for 3 to 4 hr.

Transfer of the DNA to a nylon or nitrocellulose membrane

Restriction of the genomic DNA was carried out overnight by placing the samples at recommended temperature (preferably at 37 °C). Untransformed genomic DNA was taken as control sample. The agarose gel, resolving the restricted DNA fragments, was placed in a plastic tray and depurinated in 250 mM HCl with gentle shaking at 10 to 20 rpm for 15 min. Later HCl was drained off and the gel was rinsed with distilled water and denaturated in solution consisting of 1.5 M NaCl and 0.5 M NaOH for 15 min with gentle shaking. The above denaturation step was repeated with fresh solution for another 15 min. Denaturation solution was drained off and the gel was gently rinsed twice with distill water and the gel was placed in neutralization solution (1.5 M NaCl and 0.5 M Tris, pH 7.5) for 15 min and the neutralization step was repeated again with fresh solution for another 15 min. Nylon membrane and 3 sheets of 3M Whatman filter paper were cut to the exact size of the gel to be transferred. The nylon membrane was soaked in 20X SSC. A blotting tray was taken and a glass plate was placed on the blotting tray. A filter paper was placed in such a way that both ends of the filter paper wick were immersed into the 20X SSC placed in blotting tray. A

sheet of 3M Whatman filter paper of gel size was placed onto the blotting paper. The gel was placed carefully on top of the filter paper starting from one side and with the well side facing down with two additional sheets of filter papers. On this, pre-soaked nylon membrane was placed on the gel with marked side facing the gel. Air bubbles from the gel were removed by gently rolling a glass pipette over the gel and a sheet of Whatman paper cut to the size of the gel was placed over the gel and the area all around the gel was covered with Parafilm[®] to prevent contact of the top paper towels with the wick. A stack of paper towels was placed on top of the Whatman paper placed over the gel and a weight of 500 gm was kept on top of the papers. The blotting was performed overnight for complete capillary action. Later the blot was dried at room temperature for 10 min and the DNA was cross-linked by placing the blot DNA side down on a UV transilluminator for 3 to 6 min.

DNA hybridization with non-radioactive probes

The hybridization was carried out by using the commercially available Alkphos Direct labelling and Detection System (Pharmacia), a non-radioactive electrochemiluminiscent system. The probe was labeled with alkaline phosphatase enzyme that reacts with the added substrate, CDP-Star[™] (Pharmacia) and emits photons in the form of signals that can be identified on an X-ray film.

Temperature in the hybridization oven was set at 55 °C. The Blot was placed in the hybridization bottle. Pre-heated pre-hybridization solution was added to the blot and kept for hybridization. Probe DNA of 10 µl was taken in an eppendorf tube and heated at 100 °C by placing the sample in boiling water bath for 5 min and immediately the

sample was placed on ice for another 5 min to denature the DNA. The sample was briefly spun down prior to use. To this denatured DNA, 10 µl of reaction buffer, 10 µl of cross linker (2 µl of cross linker added to 8 µl of distilled water), 2 µl of enzyme labeling reagent was added and a brief spin was given. Subsequently the sample was placed in water bath set at 37 °C for 30 min. The blots were probed with non-radioactive labelled (Alkphos Direct labelling and Detection System, Pharmacia), PCR amplicons.

The above-labeled solution was added to the pre-hybridization buffer (Appendix 8) present in the hybridization bottles without touching the membrane. Hybridization was performed overnight at 55 °C. After overnight hybridization, the used probe was discarded and primary wash (Appendix 9) was given at the same temperature for 10 min and this step was repeated for another 10 min with fresh primary wash buffer. Later secondary wash was given for 5 min at room temperature and at this step, the blot can be placed for 30 min in secondary wash buffer (Appendix 10) prior to autoradiography.

Autoradiography and X-ray film development

Drops of chemiluminescent detection (CDP-StarTM) was added on the blot and excess solution of CDP-StarTM was drained off by touching the tip of the blot on the tissue paper where excess droplets can be soaked. Blot was placed in a saran wrap and an X-ray film was placed over it in an exposure film cassette in a dark room. Initially the film was exposed after 45 min of placement. For intensification, the blot was placed for another 4 hr.

X-ray film development

X-ray film was removed from the cassette and was placed in a tray containing the X-ray Kodak GBX developer for 60 to 120 sec. Later the film was transferred to another tray containing water and rinsed for 30 sec. The film was further placed in a tray containing the Kodak GBX fixer and the film was incubated for 60 to 120 sec. The film was rinsed with water for 2 min followed by air-drying.

3.5 RT-PCR analysis

Reverse transcription followed by the polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) leading to the amplification of specific RNA sequences in cDNA form, is a sensitive means for detecting RNA molecules, a means for obtaining material for sequence determination, and a step in cloning a cDNA copy of the RNA. Various strategies that can be adopted for first strand cDNA synthesis are the reverse transcriptase reaction that can be primed by the down stream PCR, primer annealed to the RNA or by random hexamers or by an oligo dT primer at the polyA tail of mRNA (Kawasaki, 1990).

RT-PCR analysis of the putative transformants growing in the glasshouse was carried out using the Thermoscript RT-PCR system (Pharmacia). RT-PCR analysis was carried out on 18 independent transformed plants of T₀ generation (P1 to P18). Total RNA from the putative transformants was isolated (Appendix 11) using TRIzol reagent

(Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's protocol and the amplified products were separated on 1.2% agarose gel .

3.6 Inheritance of transgenes in T₀ and T₁ generation

T₀ plants were selfed to get T₁ progeny. A total of 40 seeds, 5 seeds from each primary independent transformed plant (P1, P2, P3, P5, P6, P7, P8, P13) were sown for further inheritance studies in T₁ generation (a total of 40 T₁ lines were taken). Five T₁ lines each (P1→1-4, P2→1-4, P3→1-4, P5→1-4, P6→1-4, P7→1-4, P8→1-4, P13→1-4), of 8 independently transformed T₀ plants corresponding to T₁ generation obtained through microprojectile bombardment were tested. Inheritance studies was carried out based on PCR analysis for the presence of *uidA* gene in plants transformed with the plasmid pRT99GUS:RChit. PCR positive plants were further tested for Southern blot analysis. Self-fertilized progeny of T₁ plants were germinated and raised to maturity to get T₂ progeny. Four seeds of 2 independent transformed plants of T₁ generation (P1 and P8) were sown and the replicates (P1→1→1-4, P8→1→1-4) were tested for segregation studies, which were carried out based on the PCR positive results and analysis of transgene integration was further confirmed through PCR analysis for *uidA*, *nptII* and *RChit* genes. For Southern analysis of *RChit* gene, 16 lines (P1→1→1-4, P8→1→1-4, P9→1→1-4, P10→1→1-4) of 4 independent transgenic plants (P1, P8, P9 and P10) representing the T₂ generation were tested.

3.7 Statistical analysis

All the experiments were replicated thrice and data was scored and analyzed based on mean and SE values (Standard error).

4. RESULTS

4. RESULTS

A highly efficient regeneration protocol is a pre-requisite for the development of transgenic plants. In the process of optimizing such a regeneration protocol in pigeonpea, various factors for in vitro culture were successfully optimized to develop a shoot regeneration protocol that is reproducible and efficient. These include genotype effect, role of growth regulators, culture medium, and other physical factors that were dealt in detail to optimize the regeneration protocol. Most efficient response was obtained from the petiolar region of the leaf explant. It was amenable for microprojectile-mediated gene transfer for the production of a large number of transgenic pigeonpea plants over relatively short periods of time. The bombarded explants were grown to maturity and the shoots were grown on the culture media with selection to ensure their transgenic nature. The putative transformants were grown till maturity and the later generations raised (T_0 , T_1 and T_2 generations) were further confirmed through PCR, Southern blot analysis and RT-PCR.

4.1 Tissue culture and Plant regeneration

The pathway for shoot regeneration in the present study was through organogenesis. Leaf explant from 4 to 5-d-old in vitro grown seedlings of pigeonpea variety ICPL 88039 was taken for all the experiments. The explants were cultured on MS basal medium supplemented with 5 μ M BA + 5 μ M kinetin (SIM) by placing their abaxial surfaces in contact with the medium (Fig. 1A). After 5 d of culture, swelling of

the petiole was observed (Fig 1B) and small protuberances emerged out of the petiolar region after 7 d (Fig 1C) Initiation of the shoot buds was restricted towards the proximal cut end of the petiole With the onset of shoot bud initiation at 7 d, half of the distal portion of the leaf lamina was removed and further cultured on the shoot development medium (SDM) consisting of 1/2 strength SIM ie, MS basal medium supplemented with 2.5 μ M BA + 2.5 μ M kinetin (Fig 1D) Formation of multiple shoots was observed after 14 d of culture (Fig 1E) Prolonged culturing of the explants on SDM led to the formation of multiple shoots after 21 d (Fig 1F) Therefore, the explants of 21 d with multiple shoots were cultured on MS basal medium fortified with 0.58 μ M GA₃ After 3 d of culture, shoots elongated upto 1 cm (Fig 2A) Multiple shoots elongated rapidly after 7 d of culture on SEM (Fig 2B) These shoots were separated and placed individually on MS basal medium containing 1% sucrose for rooting Adventitious root formation was observed in the pulse treated (pulse treatment was given to the cut shoots, which were directly dipped into the IAA (11.42 μ M) solution for 30 to 60 sec) elongated shoots (Fig 2C) The rooted explants were transferred to pots containing sand for their hardening and transplantation to the glasshouse

Over 90% of the rooted plants were transferred to the pots containing autoclaved sand and soil in 1:1 ratio for hardening The rooted plants covered with polythene bags (to overcome the excessive loss of moisture due to transpiration and to maintain high humid conditions) acclimatized upon transfer to pots resulting in the formation of well-developed shoots and leaves with a survival rate of over

95% (Fig 5J) The regenerated plants were similar phenotypically to those of normal pigeonpea plants and the time taken for the complete regeneration of the plants under in vitro conditions was 45 to 50 days Following this protocol over 200 plants were produced that in turn produced fertile seeds (Fig 5K)

Sequential events of shoot regeneration were summarized in Fig 3A-K

The results of specific media constituents are as follows

Role of phytohormones

Effect of TDZ and IAA on shoot bud induction

The use of TDZ for shoot induction was earlier reported in pigeonpea (Eapen and George, 1993, Eapen *et al.*, 1998, Thu *et al.*, 2003, Dolendro *et al.*, 2003) In the present study, efficacy of TDZ in combination with IAA on shoot bud induction was studied by using the leaf explants Leaves from 2, 3, 4, 6 and 8-d-old of in vitro raised aseptic seedlings were taken as explants Various concentrations of TDZ (9.0, 9.08 and 11.35 μM) in combination with IAA (0.57 and 1.14 μM) were tested However, the explants failed to respond to shoot bud induction when cultured on TI, TI-1 and TI-2 media consisting of the above concentrations of TDZ and IAA Instead the explants turned pale yellow (Table 1)

Effect of BA and NAA on shoot bud induction

Leaves from 4, 5, 6, 7, 9, 11, 13 and 15-d-old in vitro raised seedlings were taken as explants and tested on various concentrations of BA in combination with NAA for shoot induction. The explants cultured on BN2, BN3 and BN4 media, enlarged in

size, but no shoot formation was observed. Instead, callus formation was observed from 3 wk onwards. Two types of calluses were observed, a) light green and friable, b) dark green, hard and compact. A combination of 4.44 μM BA and 0.54 μM NAA (BN1) resulted in the shoot bud formation in 2 explants out of 24 explants cultured through intervening callus phase (Table 2).

Effect of BA, kinetin and 2-iP on shoot bud induction

Earlier reports on shoot regeneration suggest that a combination of two cytokinins was required for the regeneration of shoot buds from leaf explants. Hence, various combinations of cytokinins such as kinetin and BA and kinetin with 2-iP were tested to induce shoot bud differentiation from leaf explants of pigeonpea. In general, BA along with kinetin was found to be more efficient in inducing multiple shoot buds when compared to the combinations of kinetin and 2-iP where only single shoots were formed at low frequencies. A combination of 5.0 μM BA and 5.0 μM kinetin was found to be the best for shoot bud induction medium (Table 3).

Effect of explant on shoot regeneration

Various explants such as epicotyl, hypocotyl, embryonal axis, leaf lamina, leaf with half-cut lamina and leaf with intact lamina and petiole was cultured on SIM. The developmental pathway of each explant was observed after one week of culture. Only callus formation was noticed after 2 wk of culture from epicotyls, hypocotyls and embryonal axes explants. Five explants out of a total of 24 with half lamina showed the formation of shoots from intervening callus, after 6 wk, while the remaining explants developed only callus. Leaf with intact lamina and petiole expressed a high frequency

of totipotency resulting in the formation of shoot buds which were restricted to the proximal cut end of the petiole in 95% of explants (Table 4) Basal on these observations, leaf explants were considered as ideal for obtaining adventitious shoot buds in pigeonpea

Effect of lamina tissue on regeneration from leaf explants

In studies on role of the lamina tissue in regeneration from the petiolar cut end of the leaf explant, it was found that the leaf explant containing intact lamina was essential for regeneration response while the shoot bud induction declined with reduced lamina tissue Hence, whole leaf explants from 4 to 5-d-old seedlings were used for all the subsequent experiments (Table 6)

Effect of age of the explant donor seedlings on shoot regeneration

Effect of age of the explant donor seedlings was determined to study the effect on shoot regeneration In general, younger seedlings (5 d) provided explants that were highly regenerative while the regeneration potential declined with the age thereafter Leaf explants from 4 to 5-d-old seedlings exhibited the highest frequency of multiple shoot regeneration where over 90% of the explants responded (Fig. 4)

Effect of orientation of the explant on culture medium

The orientation of the leaf explant played a vital role in shoot bud formation Culturing the leaf explant with the abaxial side in contact with the medium promoted the initiation of shoot buds During shoot formation, the margins of the petiole of leaf explant expanded towards the adaxial side resulting in lifting of the cut end of the

petiole away from the medium leading to the drying of the explant as well as hindering further growth of the shoot buds. Physical contact of the petiole with the culture medium was essential to elicit a complete response. Therefore, constant observation of the cultures was done to overcome the above problem.

Effect of genotype on shoot regeneration

To study the effect of genotype on shoot regeneration potential by using the optimized regeneration protocol, 11 genotypes of pigeonpea belonging to different maturity groups (extra short, short and medium duration types) were tested. In general, there was no significant variation amongst the genotypes belonging to different maturity types. Moreover, the frequency of explants producing shoot buds and the variation in regeneration frequencies between the maturity groups was as great as that within the maturity groups (Table 5).

Effect of GA₃ on shoot elongation

The shoot buds that developed on leaf explants on SIM failed to elongate when placed on the same medium. Further, differentiation and formation of rosette shoot buds occurred when transferred to ½ strength SIM. Hence various concentrations of GA₃ were tested to induce shoot elongation. Higher concentrations of GA₃ ranging from 1.51 µM to 2.89 µM when added to MS medium resulted in the formation of weak and thin shoots with curved tips. The control explants cultured on MS medium fortified with 2.5 µM BA and 2.5 µM kinetin resulted in rosette shoot buds. However, rapid elongation of multiple shoots occurred on 0.58 µM GA₃. Hence the shoot elongation

medium was formulated by using MS with 0.58 μM GA₃ on which over 88% shoots underwent elongation within 3 to 5 days (Table 7)

Rooting of elongated shoots

Various concentrations of IBA (the rooting hormone) were tested for inducing adventitious roots on the elongated shoots. The elongated shoots (>3 cm in length) were transferred to rooting medium consisting of IBA. While a high concentration of IBA (2.95, 3.94 and 4.9 μM) proved to be detrimental, only 2% of shoots produced roots on medium containing 1.99 μM IBA (Table 8)

Therefore, IAA was tested for the induction of root on elongated shoots. Of the various concentrations tested (1.14, 2.82, 3.42, 4.57, 5.71, 6.85 and 7.56 μM), pulse treatment given to the elongated shoots with 11.42 μM IAA resulted in maximum percentage of shoots producing roots. Considering this concentration as optimum, pulse treatment (by placing the cut ends of the shoots in 11.42 μM IAA solution for 30 to 60 sec) was given to the freshly cut elongated shoots, which resulted in 52% of the shoots undergoing root formation in the first sub-culture. Root initiation was observed within 6 d of the pulse treatment. In the second sub-culture, the shoots already pulse treated were subjected to second pulse treatment that resulted in the rooting of additional 66% shoots. By the end of the third sub-culture, above 87% of the elongated shoots had rooted. The amount of phenols produced by the explant was very high which if neglected hindered further growth of the shoots. Hence, the unrooted shoots were sub-cultured on to the fresh medium (RIM) for every 10 d (Table 9)

Effect of sucrose concentration on rooting

To study the effect of sucrose concentration on rooting, cultures were initiated with RIM supplemented with 1, 2 and 3% sucrose. Maximum percentage of rooting (over 45.8%) was observed in MS basal medium supplemented with 1% sucrose (Table 10).

4.2 Effect of media sterilization method on shoot induction

Method used for sterilizing the culture media for regeneration from leaf explant greatly influenced the frequency of shoot regeneration stages that included induction, differentiation, elongation and rooting. In each of the medium tested, filter sterilized phytohormones were nearly 3 times more effective than autoclaved phytohormones (Table 11).

4.3 Ontogeny of adventitious shoot differentiation from the petiolar region of leaf explants

Leaf explants from 4 to 5-d-old seedlings exhibited high frequency morphogenesis in over 90% of cultures and the shoot differentiation was restricted to the proximal cut end of the petiolar region of the leaf explant. To study the morphological and differential development pathway, histological analysis of the explant undergoing morphogenesis was carried out to determine the developmental pathway of the competent cells capable of morphogenesis, and to confirm the adventitious nature of the regenerated shoots. For ontogeny studies, 4 to 5-d-old leaf

explants (0 d) cultured on shoot induction medium for different periods (2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12 and 14 d) were taken for tissue processing. Transverse section of 0 d explants showed epidermis, cortex and vascular parenchyma cells, which were isodiametric in nature (Fig 5A), and longitudinal section of the cut end of the petiole exhibited starch filled cells in the epidermal region (Fig 5B)

Two-day-old explants exhibited actively dividing cells in the cortical region (Fig 5C), followed by anticlinal and periclinal cell divisions in the dividing cells at the cut end (Fig 5D). The formation of starch grains was observed in the dividing cells at the petiolar cut end in 4-d-old explants (Fig 5E and 5F), whereas cells in the cortical region were highly starch filled after 2 d and a clear demarcation of dividing and non-dividing cells was observed in 6 d culture (Fig 5G). Sixth-day culture showed the formation of meristematic zones in the vascular parenchyma region (Fig 5H) and the formation of meristematic zones were observed in the peripheral cells of the cut end of the petiole of 8-d-old, leaf explant (Fig 5I). The formation of mitotic divisions was maximum in the epidermal and sub-epidermal region of the petiole (Fig 5J). Eventually, the cells in the meristematic zones started withering and the cells in the cortical region became highly vacuolated (Fig 5K) by 10 d. The initiation of the leaf primordium was observed at the cut end of the petiolar region that was very prominent in 10-d-old explants (Fig 5L). Localized meristematic activity at the proximal end resulted in the formation of multiple nodular structures of 12-d-old explants (Fig 5M) which further resulted in the clear demarcation of the withering cells and cells getting collapsed in the meristematic nodular region (Fig 5N). The nodular structures resulting

from the meristematic activity proliferated and gave rise to well-defined shoot buds by 14 d of culture of the leaf explant in $\frac{1}{2}$ strength SIM (Fig 5O) The shoot buds formed started differentiating and led to the formation of the leaf primordia, and the formation of the multiple shoots was visible after 14 d of culture (Fig 5P)

Based on the ontogeny studies, the multiple shoots differentiated from the proximal cut end. Cells of the petiole were adventitious in origin and developed through organogenesis. The cells underwent various developmental stages to give rise to shoot buds and leaf primordia. Initially, the epidermal, cortical and vascular parenchyma cells of the petiolar region were filled with rich starch grains and highly cytoplasmic in nature. During the developmental stages, the cells underwent mitotic divisions and the formation of shoot buds involved the consumption of starch that can be observed with the vacuolation of cortical, epidermal and vascular parenchyma cells and further led to the formation of the meristematic cells at the peripheral cells of the petiole. The meristematic cells gave rise to the nodular structures at the cut end with subsequent culturing of the explants in the shoot induction medium. During the formation of the shoot buds, the cells near the meristematic zones completely collapsed. By 14 to 15 d of culture the formation of multiple shoot buds and leaf primordia resulted through the proliferation of shoot buds at the proximal cut end of the petiolar region of the leaf explant.

4.4 Genetic transformation

After standardizing the various parameters for in vitro plant regeneration in pigeonpea, cut end of the leaf explant proved to be efficient in expressing a high regeneration frequency of over 90%. Hence the leaf explant was used for producing transformants by using microprojectile bombardment.

4.4.1 Effect of antibiotic selection (kanamycin) on shoot regeneration from untransformed control leaf explants cultured on shoot induction medium

Since the plant selection marker gene for kanamycin resistance is present in the bombarded construct, various concentrations of kanamycin were tested on shoot regeneration potential of unbombarded control explants. Results were considered based on visual observations after 3 wk. Explants cultured on 25 mg/L kanamycin did not exhibit any morphological change or hindrance to shoot bud formation. The explants responded well to kanamycin selection up to 50 mg/L and expressed optimum regeneration frequency. However, about 20% of the explants cultured on 75 and 100 mg/L of kanamycin expressed bleaching. The explants subjected to higher concentrations of the antibiotic (125 to 150 mg/L) did not respond well and expressed a low regeneration frequency. Therefore, kanamycin at 100 mg/L was considered as a stringent selection for all the subsequent experiments (Table 12).

4.4.2 Microprojectile bombardment for gene transfer

4.4.2.1 Microprojectile bombardment , Plant selection and regeneration

Plasmid pRT99GUS RChit consisting of *RChit* gene along with *uidA* and *nptII* genes was used for microprojectile-mediated gene transfer (Fig 6) Different parameters for microprojectile bombardment were used including different pressures of helium gas and different bombardment distances to find the most effective ones Later, the bombarded explants were cultured on selection medium containing kanamycin to recover and regenerate the putative transformants

Pressures, of 1100 and 1300 psi of helium gas used for bombarding the target cells were found to be effective since there was minimal damage to the tissue and the bombarded explants regenerated well on SIM In addition to this, the use of bombardment distances, of 6 and 8 cm resulted in similar response and there was no significant variation (Table 13)

After a recovery period of 14 d, the explants subjected initially to a low concentration of kanamycin (25 and 50 mg/L) for a week proved to be effective without effecting their regeneration potential (Table 14) Later, the explants were subjected to stringent selection with 100 mg/L kanamycin for 3 wk Multiple shoots developed from more than 80% of the explants However, bleaching was also observed in less than 25% of the shoots This observation suggested that in pigeonpea although kanamycin did not result in efficient visual selection of the transformants, it did play a selective role on the suppression of shoot bud induction from the untransformed cells of the explants

4.4.2.2 Elongation, rooting and acclimatization of transformants

As the shoot buds differentiated, the explants with proliferated shoot buds were cultured on SEM containing 50, 75 and 100 mg/L kanamycin. The multiple shoots after attaining a length of 3 cm were transferred to RIM without any antibiotic selection. However, prior to the transfer, the elongated shoots were pulse treated with 11.42 μM IAA. Over 50 putative transformed plantlets produced through microprojectile bombardment were transferred to pots containing autoclaved sand covered with polythene bags. This method helped the plant to overcome excessive loss of water through transpiration and addition of small amount of thiamin rescued the plant from fungal contamination during acclimatization. Later, the plantlets were transferred to the potting mix containing autoclaved sand and soil in 1:1 ratio. The plants could overcome hardening process and the survival rate was over 95%.

4.5 Analysis of transgenics

4.5.1 Histochemical analysis

Initial screening of the putative transformants was carried out through GUS assay, which was performed on the explants that were subjected to bombardment. Transient expression of GUS was studied after 48 hr of bombardment and stable expression was studied after 3 wk of bombardment. The target tissue, the proximal cut end of the petiolar region of leaf explant, and leaf lamina was taken for *in vivo* GUS histochemical assay. However, untransformed control plants expressed faint blue (Fig

8A), whereas the transformed explants expressed intense blue coloration (Fig 8B). Hence based on these results, GUS assay was not considered ideal for screening the putative transformants of pigeonpea.

4.5.2 Molecular analysis of transgenics

By using the optimized transformation protocol based on microprojectile bombardment, 50 putative independent transgenic plants were transferred to the glasshouse (Fig 9A, B). Eighteen (P1 to P18) independently transformed plants in T₀ generation were analysed by PCR, Southern blot analysis, and RT-PCR. PCR analysis was carried out for the amplification of coding regions of *uidA* (Fig 10A), *nptII* (Fig 10B) and *RCh1* genes (Fig 11A). gene RT-PCR was carried out on all the 18 independent transformed plants (Fig 11B). Out of 18 plants, 17 of them showed the expression of *uidA* gene. Out of 17 plants (P1 to P17) tested for the PCR analysis for *uidA* gene, 16 plants expressed the amplification of 1200 bp fragment of *uidA* gene and only 1 plant (P5) was found to be negative. Eighteen plants (P1 to P18) were tested for the amplification of 700 bp *nptII* gene fragment and all the plants showed the amplification of the respective gene. For the amplification of 525 bp fragment of *RCh1* gene, 10 plants (P1, P2, P3, P6, P7, P8, P9, P10, P20 and P23) were tested and 9 plants showed the positive amplification of the gene and 1 plant (P7) was found to be negative. Based on the above results, it was concluded that 90% of the plants of T₀ generation expressed the amplification of the expected size of the respective gene fragments. Fidelity of the amplified gene fragments was verified by subjecting the PCR gels to

Southern blotting which resulted in positive Southern hybridization with respective *uidA* (Fig 12A) and *RChit* gene (Fig 12B) probes. Gene integration pattern in the nuclear genome of the putative transformed plant for *RChit* gene was verified through Southern blot analysis. Out of the 11 independent transformed plants of T₀ tested (P16, P17, P18, P19, P20, P23, P24, P25, P26 and P27), 6 plants (P16, P17, P18, P20, P23 and P26) expressed the presence of the *RChit* gene. Out of 6 plants, 2 plants (P17 and P23) showed single copy inserts, while rest of the plants showed double inserts (Fig 13A). Further Southern blot analysis of *nptII* gene confirmed the transgenic nature of 5 other plants (P1, P3, P4, P7 and P8) out of a total of 8 plants (P1 to P8). Plants (P1, P3 and P4) among the Southern (*nptII*) positives showed single gene inserts and the rest (P7 and P8) showed double inserts (Fig 13B). Eighteen positive T₀ plants (P1 to P18) were selected and tested for the expression of the inserted gene through RT-PCR of *uidA* gene. Out of 18 plants, 17 plants were found to be positive. Based on the results from PCR and Southern blot analysis, a high transformation efficiency of 50% was concluded.

Of the 50 independently transformed plants of T₀ generation, 8 plants (P1, P2, P3, P5, P6, P7, P8 and P13) of T₀ generation were advanced to T₁ generation and later, to T₂ generation. In order to study the Mendelian inheritance pattern in the T₁ progeny, 5 seeds of each T₁ lines (P1→1-5, P2→1-5, P3→1-5, P5→1-5, P6→1-5, P7→1-5, P8→1-5, P13→1-5) were sown and PCR analysis was performed on 40 T₁ plants for the amplification of *uidA* gene. Of 40 plants, 25 plants (P1→1, 4, 5, P2→3, 4, 5, P3→1, 2, 3, 4, 5, P5→3, 5, P6→2, 3, 4, 5, P7→2, 4, 5, P8→1, 3, 4, 5, P13→1) were PCR

positives expressing the 1.2 kb of *uidA* gene fragment (Fig. 14A) gene following the Mendelian ratio of 3:1 (Table 15). The inheritance of the *RChit* gene in T₁ generation was analyzed on randomly selected T₁ PCR positive plants through Southern blot hybridization (Fig. 14B) and the following (16) plants were analysed for Southern blotting of *RChit* gene ((P1→1, 4, P3→1, 3, P5→1, 3, 4, P6→2, 4, P7→2, 3, 4, P8→3, 4, P13→2, 4), in which 3 plants (P1→4, P8→2, 4) expressed the *RChit* gene integration in T₁ generation plants tested for the same).

The PCR positive T₁ plants (from the progeny of P1 and P8, i.e., P1→1-4, P8→1-4) were further processed for T₂ generation. Four seeds of each T₁ plant (P1→1-4, P8→1-4) were sown for further study of T₂ generation. Of 8 T₂ lines of 2 independent transformants of T₀, 7 plants (P1→1→1-4, P8→1→1-3) showed the amplification of *uidA* (Table 16) gene fragment (Fig. 15B) and 7 plants were tested positive (P1→1→2-4, P8→1→1-4) for *nptII* gene (Fig. 15A), which was further confirmed through Southern blot analysis of PCR amplicons (Fig. 16A).

PCR amplification of *RChit* gene in 16 T₂ plants (P1→1→1-4, P8→1→1-4, P9→1→1-4, P10→1→1-4) resulted in the positive amplification of *RChit* gene in only three plants (P8→1→1, P9→1→1, 2) produced from 2 independent transgenic lines (Fig. 15C). Because of the high stringency in the annealing temperature (63 °C) for the PCR analysis, the % of positive plants was found to be less. Ultimately, 16 T₂ plants belonging to 4 (P1, P8, P9 and P10) independent transgenic plants of T₀ generation of 4 replicates each (P1→1→1-4, P8→1→1-4, P9→1→1-4, P10→1→1-4) were taken up

for the Southern blot analysis of *RChit* gene. Out of 16 lines, 8 plants (P1→1→1, 2, 4, P8→1→1, 2, P9→1→1, 4, P10→1→1) were found to be positives indicating the presence of *RChit* gene and thereby inheritance of the gene from T₀ and T₁ generation (Fig 16B)

The results of the molecular analysis of the transformants produced through microprojectile-mediated gene transfer method are clearly depicted in Table 17. All the transgenic plants thus showed the Mendelian inheritance (3:1) of the introduced genes in the T₁ and T₂ generation. These plants also exhibited stable gene expression based on RT-PCR analysis of the respective genes.

5. DISCUSSION

5. DISCUSSION

5.1 Tissue culture of pigeonpea

One of the pre-requisites for successful gene transfer to plants is the availability of suitable protocols for plant regeneration and genetic transformation. In vitro plant regeneration protocols in pigeonpea have been reported from hypocotyl (ShamaRao and Narayanswamy, 1975), cotyledons (Mehta and Mohan Ram, 1980), epicotyl (Kumar *et al*, 1984), leaf (Eapen and George, 1993, Ramesh and Baldev, 1994, George and Eapen, 1994, 1998, Geetha *et al*, 1998), distal halves of the cotyledons (Patel *et al*, 1994), cotyledonary node (Shiva Prakash *et al*, 1994, Geetha *et al*, 1998), distal cotyledonary segments (Mohan and Krishnamurthy, 1998), shoot tips (Geetha *et al*, 1999), and through somatic embryogenesis from cotyledons and leaf explants (Sreenivasu *et al*, 1998). ShamaRao and Narayanswamy (1975) reported that the hypocotyl segments obtained from the seeds irradiated with gamma rays produced profuse callus that regenerated shoot buds and plantlets in 50% of the cultures, while shoot regeneration was not observed in seeds, that were not irradiated, or in seeds which were exposed to higher dosage of gamma rays. Kumar *et al*, (1990) reported a low frequency of shoot formation from callus initiated from leaf explants. Patel *et al*, (1994) reported regeneration through somatic embryogenesis from cotyledonary explants in which the induction, maturation and germination of somatic embryos took 45 to 50 d. George and Eapen (1994), observed organogenesis via callus from the primary leaves and cotyledons, where only 36% of the callus cultures regenerated shoot buds. Further somatic embryogenic regeneration from diverse

explants such as immature embryonal axes, stem and roots was observed, but the somatic embryos developed from these explants failed to produce shoots. Eapen and George (1993) reported high frequency shoot bud formation directly from leaf explants, which were initiated after 20 to 25 d and subsequent formation of shoot buds resulted after 45 d. Shiva Prakash *et al.*, (1994) observed the formation of multiple shoot buds from cotyledonary node. However, these shoot buds failed to elongate. Eapen *et al.*, (1998) reported the formation of shoot buds after 45 d of induction of primary leaf segments cultured on media supplemented with TDZ. In the cotyledonary segments, although the shoot bud formation was observed in 88% of the explants, only 18% of them developed shoots (Mohan and Krishnamurthy, 1998). It is observed that in pigeonpea, regeneration from explants other than cotyledons occurred at low frequencies (Shama Rao and Narayanswamy 1975, Kumar *et al.*, 1984, George and Eapen, 1994, Shiva Prakash *et al.*, 1994, Geetha *et al.*, 1998). However, in all the above neither the presence of the embryonic axis stimulated the formation of buds on cotyledons nor the axillary meristems proliferated, producing multiple shoots. In the present study however, an efficient system for the regeneration of multiple shoots was observed in pigeonpea where over 90% of cultures underwent differentiation of adventitious shoot buds from the petiolar cut end of the leaf explants that are devoid of any pre-existing meristems. This was confirmed in our studies on the ontogeny of shoot bud histogenesis from the petiolar cut end. By understanding the events associated with the formation of shoot bud, histogenesis can provide important clues into the ontogeny of shoot formation. Ontogeny studies showed the adventitious nature of the shoot buds.

by revealing the pattern of the formation of actively dividing cells that led to the formation of distinct meristemoids, at the proximal cut end of the petiole. These meristemoids progressively developed into shoot apices, each with an apical meristem in the center and leaf primordia surrounding it. Similar observations were found in the ontogeny studies of *Echinocloa* (Samantaray *et al.*, 1995). Histological sections in the present study revealed that shoot bud differentiation took place quite early, which was similar to that of the shoot development in jute (Saha *et al.*, 1999). Ontogeny studies of the present pigeonpea revealed the presence of epidermal cells, parenchyma, vascular elements and meristematic cells. Similar observations have been earlier reported in *Populus* (McCown *et al.*, 1988) and *Pinus* (Aitken-Christie *et al.*, 1984). Observations during the ontogeny studies of *Eucalyptus* (Herve *et al.*, 2001), revealed that protuberances originated from the cambial cells of the leaf's vascular system suggesting that the regeneration occurred from the adventitious shoot buds rather than pre-existing meristematic cells. This observation agrees with the present study that confirmed the regenerated shoots had an adventitious origin the present study also emphasizes the epidermal or sub-epidermal origin of the adventitious buds which originated from the peripheral layers of leaf-derived protuberances where, the leaf-derived protuberance formation involved the leaf's vascular system. The overall adventitious shoot formation in *Crimum* was similar to the present studies in pigeonpea where shoot formation was not preceded by callus, but developed adventitiously from the floral stem epidermis (Slabbert, 1995).

Regeneration potential is affected by explant origin and culture maintenance conditions (Pierik, 1987) and age of the explant (Welander, 1988, Sharma *et al.*, 1990a). The physiological age of the explant affects shoot regeneration and determines the morphogenic pathways of adventitious shoot formation (Saini *et al.*, 2002). The juvenile explants from in vitro-raised seedlings often have a better regenerability than explants derived from mature tissue (Thorpe, 1993, Harding *et al.*, 1996) and younger tissue has been found to be more responsive in tissue culture than the older tissue (Brown and Thorpe, 1986). In the present study, age of the donor seedlings greatly influenced the differentiation of shoot buds from the petiolar region of the leaf explants where younger leaves from 4 to 5-d-old seedlings exhibited a greater regeneration potential that declined with the increasing age of the explant donor seedlings. Similar observations were recorded in the cotyledonary explants of *Brassica juncea* (Sharma *et al.*, 1989, Sharma *et al.*, 1990a). Younger leaves of cowpea were reported to regenerate significantly with a larger average number of shoots per explant than the older leaves (Van Eck and Kitto, 1992). In oat, age of the seedlings was found to be an important parameter for regeneration from the leaf base segment (Gless *et al.*, 1998). The age of the cultured explants was found to be the crucial factor in affecting the regeneration ability of geranium (Chang *et al.*, 1996) and Chinese cabbage (Choi *et al.*, 1996). Shoot organogenesis was observed from cotyledons of immature raised seedlings of *Medicago truncatula* (Trieu and Harrison, 1996). Immature cotyledons have been found to be more responsive in multiple shoot bud formation in pea (Grant *et al.*, 1995). Immature zygotic cotyledons of soybean exhibited higher embryogenic potential than the mature

cotyledons (Yan *et al.*, 2000) Young purple red laminate explants provided better nodular callus formation than the older or larger ones (Te-Chato and Lim, 1999).

Age dependent variation in in vitro responses was linked to difference in endogenous auxin levels (Cassels *et al.*, 1982) or endogenous cytokinin levels (Josephina *et al.*, 1990) Such differences have been ascribed to the interaction of endogenous levels of auxins and cytokinins in the explants and those applied exogenously (Niederwieser and Van Staden, 1990) Further, Eapen and George (1993), Eapen *et al.*, (1988), Geetha *et al.*, (1998), reported a higher regeneration from primary leaves The number of regenerated shoot buds from cotyledonary explants generally decreased as the seedlings aged in Douglas fir (Goldfarb *et al.*, 1991) Young immature embryos exhibited a higher regeneration frequency in case of sunflower (Hunold *et al.*, 1995) While a similar response was also observed in monocots such as *Alstroemeria* in which the younger stalk cultures gave maximum response (Lin *et al.*, 1998) Transformation and regeneration rates were significantly reduced using older epicotyl segments of Washington navel orange (Bond and Roose, 1998)

Explants excised from 2-d-old seedlings showed higher transient transformation rates than those excised from 4 or 6-d-old seedlings This substantiates the earlier finding that younger explants are more susceptible to *Agrobacterium* than older explants (Jaiwal *et al.*, 2001)

One of the important features of regeneration is a polarized regeneration response where some of the tissues of an explant have a greater regeneration potential. Similar observations were made on the leaf explants of wild pear (Caboni *et al.*, 1999),

leaves of cowpea (Muthukumar *et al*, 1995), cotyledonary petioles of *Brassica juncea* (Sharma *et al*, 1990b, 1991), leaf explants of *Piper columbrium* (Kelkar and Krishnamurthy, 1998), cotyledons of peanut (Sharma and Anjaiah, 2000) and leaf explants of *Paulownia* sp (Kumar *et al*, 1998) In the present study, regeneration was restricted to the proximal cut end of the petiolar tissues with an increasing gradient in the morphogenic ability from the leaf tip towards the base of the leaf This might be due to the increased density of the vascular bundles present in the proximal region of the leaf that could also play a role in inducing the higher morphogenic response Such polarity in the formation of shoots from the petiolar region of leaf explants was also observed in carrot petiole segments (Ammirato, 1985), petiole explants of *Vitis* (Cheng, 1989), petiole explants of papaya (Hossain *et al*, 1993) and the petioles of the leaf explants of peanut (Kanyand *et al*, 1994, Sharma and Anjaiah, 2000) With respect to the differentiation of shoot buds from leaf lamina, they were polarized at the cut end of the leaf explants of peanut (George and Eapen, 1994), while a higher morphogenesis was detected towards the petiole rather than at the apex area in apple (Yepes and Aldwinkle, 1994) Polarity appeared to be a factor in case of Japanese pear leaf explants, because regeneration occurred at the same position on most of the leaves regenerated Cutting the leaf explants may also alter the polarity of regeneration from intact leaves (Lane *et al*, 1998) The callus derived from the leaf base had a greater embryogenic potential than that derived the leaf-tip in *Echinochloa* (Samantaray and Das, 1997) Basal portions of the shoot tip explants of cocoyam were more responsive compared to

the shoot tip (Nyochemberg and Garton, 1998). Leaf explants from the terminal part of the in vitro derived shoots were more responsive and produced more shoots than explants from the basal part of the shoot (Economou and Maloupa, 1995).

Leaf segments without petiole or petiole segments alone did not form adventitious shoots in suggesting the existence of a petiole-derived endogenous substance (s), whose distribution and accumulation may be important for polar development of adventitious shoots (Akaracharanya *et al.*, 2001)

In the present study, leaf with intact lamina and petiole enhanced the formation of shoot buds in over 90% of the explants. Although the regeneration of shoots occurs from the petiolar cut end in leaf explants in the present study, both the tissues, viz., petiole and lamina play an important role in organogenic response and a direct correlation exists between the amount of laminar tissue and shoot regeneration response (Dayal *et al.*, 2003). This suggests the possible involvement of hormones and/or metabolites provided by the lamina tissue in expression of cellular totipotency of the petiolar tissue that may be provided by the lamina tissue (Sharma *et al.*, 1991; Kumar *et al.*, 1998).

The size of the cultured leaf explant played a vital role in the present study of pigeonpea, where higher percentage of regeneration occurred in cultured explants with full lamina and similar increased regeneration was obtained from the smaller sized explants viz: in soybean where smaller zygotic cotyledon explants were found to have a higher embryogenic potential (Yan *et al.*, 2000); the leaflets of peanut

(Baker and Wetzstein, 1992), the length of floral stems of *Crimum* (Slabbert *et al.*, 1995), the leaves of melon (Yadav *et al.*, 1996)

Composition of the culture medium with respect to phytohormone types and levels was found to be an important factor for in vitro responses. Further, the growth regulators used during tissue culture and plant regeneration can have a lasting effect on plant performance (Bhat and Srinivasan, 2002). Cytokinins in general are required to induce shoot buds from cultured tissues (Thorpe, 1993). The auxin/cytokinin balance is one of the important factors that determine the pattern of morphogenesis from petiole explants in order to increase the number of vegetative shoots. These combinations therefore may have encouraged the interactions that resulted in specific morphogenetic responses in the formation of adventitious shoot buds from petiolar region of leaf explants in the present study, which was similar to the observations found in African violet (Sunpui and Kanchanapoom, 2002). Shoot buds developed under the influence of TDZ, which was histologically proved in case of African violet (Mithila *et al.*, 2003). The increased regeneration in the cut mid rib portion of Japanese pear leaf explants was more than compared to the intact leaves, might be due to a change in the balance of endogenous growth regulators resulting from the wounding treatment (Lane *et al.*, 1998), implying the role of endogenous growth regulators in regeneration.

Although, TDZ has been used effectively for shoot bud formation in leaf explants of pigeonpea (Eapen *et al.*, 1998), it proved to be toxic for the young immature pigeonpea leaves in the present study where the explants became necrotic. A combination of BA and kinetin was however found to be beneficial for pigeonpea leaf

explants. Similar observations were found in *Picea omarika*, where a combination of BA and kinetin showed maximum meristematic activity in embryos and seedling shoot tips (Pletikapic and Buturovic-Derick, 1995) and in elephant apple (Hossain *et al.*, 1994). Differences in the requirements of growth regulators might be due to the differences in the type of explants and in the cultivars used. BA was found to be a more effective cytokinin in inducing multiple shoot buds when compared to TDZ in Douglas-fir cotyledons (Goldfarb *et al.*, 1991). The effect of BA in promoting multiple shoot buds was highlighted in several pigeonpea shoot regeneration protocols (Mehta and Mohan Ram, 1980; Eapen and George, 1993; George and Eapen, 1994; Shiva Prakash *et al.*, 1994; Mohan and Krishnamurthy, 1998; Geetha *et al.*, 1998). BA has been reported to be more effective than other cytokinins in promoting maximum number of shoots in pea (Bean *et al.*, 1997), peanut (Cheng *et al.*, 1996), and *Vigna mungo* (Karthikeyan *et al.*, 1996). Further, the morphogenic response varied with different concentrations of BA in pearl millet in terms of multiple shoots or in vitro flowering (Devi *et al.*, 2000). The level of organogenic competence of the explants was defined by concentration of BA in *Piper columbrinum* (Kelkar and Krishnamurthy, 1998), where lower concentrations of BA of 5 μ M was more effective without directly creating a stress on juvenile explants. BA was found to be very effective in enhancing shoot bud formation in leaf explant of pigeonpea in the present study where kinetin further supported the growth of the multiple shoot buds. Kinetin was found to be an effective cytokinin in inducing organogenesis in chickpea (Fontanna *et al.*, 1993). Regeneration was much quicker and frequency was high or because of the specific

combination of growth regulators, which resulted in high shoot organogenesis from leaf explants of cassava (Guohua, 1998). High frequency regeneration was obtained from leaves and petioles supplemented with plant growth regulators of BA and kinetin in African violet (Sunpui and Kanchanapoom, 2002). The use of BA and kinetin for long duration (3 to 4 wk) in the present study led to the formation of healthy shoots, which synchronously increased in number. However, the cytokinin failed to initiate the elongation of shoots, resulting in rosette shoots.

Besides the cytokinins and auxins, the other growth regulators such as GA_3 can also play a vital role in the production of shoots *in vitro*. In the present studies, multiple shoot buds produced were treated with GA_3 for further development and elongation. GA_3 is known to have stimulatory effect on stem elongation in different plants (Phinney, 1984). In the present study, shoots elongated rapidly when transferred to MS basal medium supplemented with GA_3 . A combination of BA and GA_3 induced optimum for the best shoot elongation and plant uniformity in pineapple (Escalona *et al.*, 1999). Similar effect of GA_3 has been observed earlier in pigeonpea (Geetha *et al.*, 1998), in castor (Sujatha and Reddy, 1998) and in *Phaseolus* (Mallik and Saxena, 1992). Shoots elongated well, when cultured on MS basal medium supplemented with GA_3 in *Aristolochia* (Manjula *et al.*, 1997). GA_3 is used for shoot elongation in pea (Sanago *et al.*, 1996) and in *Lonicera* (Palacios *et al.*, 2002). It has been suggested that GA_3 promotes cell division and elongation in the sub apical zone of the shoot primordium of leaf explant (Eapen and George, 1993). Shoot buds developed when exposed to cytokinins, and subsequent removal of cytokinin led to shoot

elongation, which was earlier, observed in Douglas fir cotyledons (Goldfarb *et al*, 1991) Addition of GA₃ to the transient expression medium enhanced the elongation and recovery of the shoots regenerating from the explants of *Helianthus* (Malone-Schoneberg *et al*, 1994)

Orientation of the explant on the culture medium can play an important role in plant regeneration (Sharma *et al*, 1990c) Orientation of the explant in the present study was found to be critical for obtaining higher regeneration from the leaf explant Placing the leaf explant with the abaxial side in contact with the medium and adaxial side faced up has promoted the initiation of shoot buds Similar observations were reported in the case of the cotyledonary node explants with 1 to 2 mm split embryonal axis of *Medicago trunculata* (Trieu and Harrison, 1996) and the leaf explants of *Alstroemeria* (Lin *et al*, 1998) Orientation of the floral stem explants of *Crimum* played an important role in the initiation of shoots, where most of the shoots could be regenerated, when the discs were placed with their basal ends touching the medium (Slabbert *et al*, 1995) Melon cotyledons were highly regenerative when cultured adaxially than when cultured abaxially (Yadav *et al*, 1996) Changing the orientation of the explants of *Vigna* from vertical upright position to horizontal position drastically decreased the frequency of shoot induction as well as the length of the shoot indicating that orientation appears to interact with polarity to affect shoot regeneration (Saini *et al*, 2002) Orientation of the leaf base segments had considerable influence on shoot bud development of *Echinocloa*, where a greater number of shoot buds developed on the adaxial side of the explant surface than on the abaxial side (Samantaray *et al*, 1995) Cocultivation of the

stem segments with *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* placed in a horizontal position proved to be critical for efficient transformation in *Brassica* (Kuvshinov *et al.*, 1999)

Genotype of the explant donors has been shown to play a major role in the regeneration of shoots in several species including legumes (Pederson, 1986, Chen *et al.*, 1987, Meijer and Brown, 1987, McKently *et al.*, 1989, 1991, Sellars *et al.*, 1990) Since the development of an ideal regeneration system should be genotype independent, the choice of a suitable genotype is critical in such studies (Jain *et al.*, 1988, Shoemaker and Counche, 1986) Shoot production in a particular explant donor explant genotype depends on the culture conditions and principally to the interaction between the genotype and the culture medium (Flores *et al.*, 1999) The plant regeneration protocol reported in the present study has been found to be applicable across a wide range of pigeonpea genotypes tested, which belonged to different maturity groups Among all the genotypes tested the genotype ICPL 88039 was found to respond better and hence was used in the present work Uniform observations were reported in all the three cultivars of gerbera in terms of efficient shoot bud regeneration with slight variation and therefore, the regeneration protocol used was genotype independent (Orlikowska *et al.*, 1999) Genotype independent protocols were reported in guineagrass (Chen *et al.*, 2002), in melon (Ficcadenti and Rotino, 1995, Yadav, 1996), in gypsophila (Ahroni *et al.*, 1997), and in *Vitis* (Torregrosa and Bouquet, 1996) Genotype dependent response was reported in all the varieties of onion (Luthar and Bohance, 1999)

Therefore, a highly efficient regeneration protocol has been optimized in the present study, which is genotype independent and the time involved in raising the

plantlets was less that can be further used for the production of transgenic plants with genes of agronomic importance

5.2 Genetic transformation of pigeonpea

The most important aspect of successful genetic transformation is the induction of a larger number of regenerable cells that are accessible to the gene transfer methods, and which continue to proliferate transformed cells under stringent selection conditions. Further, the gene transfer into potentially regenerable cells may not allow recovery of transgenic plants if the capacity for efficient regeneration is short lived (Birch, 1997). Transformation efficiency is proportional to the efficiency of the tissue culture and gene transfer systems (Hiei *et al.*, 1994, Ishida *et al.*, 1996, Bower *et al.*, 1996, Li *et al.*, 1996). In the present study, an efficient regeneration and transformation protocol was optimized by using the petiole region of the leaf explant for high frequency production of multiple shoots at a rapid rate, from the bombarded (microprojectile bombardment) target cells, without any intervening callus phase.

It is reported that the length of the callus phase is negatively correlated with regeneration ability, where the somaclonal variations can influence the phenotype of the regenerated shoots (Fontanna *et al.*, 1993). The rate of plant regeneration using the present protocol (>90%) is highly efficient and reproducible and is applicable to a wide range of pigeonpea genotypes tested.

The cut end of petiole of leaf explant, site at which there is high potential for differentiation, was found to be an efficient target tissue amenable to microprojectile bombardment. As the age of the explant played a vital role in the transformation, primary leaf explant of 4 to 5-d-old used for bombardment was proved to be efficient. During this period, the cells at the proximal region of the petiole divided actively.

Preliminary trials were carried out to determine the LD₅₀ concentration of kanamycin for plant survival by culturing untransformed explants on shoot induction medium containing varying concentrations of kanamycin. The explants could tolerate a concentration of 50 mg/L, but higher concentrations of 75 and 100 mg/L caused bleaching of plantlets. Hence it was decided to employ a concentration of 100 mg/L kanamycin for the selection of transformed plants after microprojectile bombardment.

With the onset of shoot bud formation, the explants were placed in the selection with a lower concentration of kanamycin. Formation of the buds or the meristematic nodules would have been suppressed, if the explants were placed before the formation of the shoots. Hence the 14 -d-old explants were more feasible for selection. Therefore after microprojectile bombardment, a recovery period of 10 to 14 d was given so that the explants could recover from bombardment shock. The use of dominant selectable marker is an integral part of a transformation strategy. The sensitivity of plant cells to a selectable marker depends on the genotype, the physiological condition, size and type of the explant and tissue condition. If organogenesis is the pathway for subsequent regeneration of transgenic plants, then the risk of producing chimeric plants exists (Kar *et al*, 1996). However, application of selection pressure in the initial shoot bud

formation leads to the suppressed growth of untransformed plants. In an organogenic pathway there is a higher chance for escapes. Avoiding the use of antibiotics during early stages of organogenesis seems to be important for quick and healthy growth of the shoots, since they interfere with development of transformed cells (James *et al.*, 1989, Michelmore *et al.*, 1987).

Concentration of the antibiotic selection also played a vital role in recovery of putative transformants. Presently, a higher dose of selection in the initial stages of the shoot bud induction (from the explant) was detrimental. This was also recorded in case of immature zygotic cotyledons of soybean (Yan *et al.*, 2000). Hence, the explants were subjected to lower concentrations of the antibiotic in the initial phase, and later subjected to a gradual increase in the selection concentration. Similar selection regime was followed for pea transformation in which the concentration of the selection agent was gradually increased (Bean *et al.*, 1997), for groundnut transformation (Cheng *et al.*, 1996), *Vigna* transformation (Karthikeyan *et al.*, 1996) and in papaya transformation (Fitch *et al.*, 1990). In the present transformation protocol, great emphasis was laid on gentle selection regime in the initial stages, which was vital for the successful recovery of transformants and was further found to be crucial.

The absence of selection in the RIM facilitated the development of healthy roots, which was found to be crucial. This was similar to reports on other crops such as apple (James *et al.*, 1989), *Brassica* (Moloney *et al.*, 1989) and chickpea (Fontanna *et al.*, 1993).

In the present study, preculturing the explants prior to bombardment proved the transformation frequency similar to woody fruit plants, such as plum (Mante *et al.*, 1991) The number of putatively competent cells for transformation was greatly increased by a preculture treatment on a medium rich in auxins in *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Sangwan *et al.*, 1992) and in embryogenic suspension cultures of cassava (Watad *et al.*, 1998)

Leaf explants were found to be efficient for regeneration and transformation through microprojectile bombardment as in the case of tobacco (Horsch *et al.*, 1985), *Vigna* (Karthikeyan *et al.*, 1996), and groundnut (Cheng *et al.*, 1996 and Baker and Wetzstein, 1992)

In case of the bombarded explants, they could with stand substantial pressures of 1100 and 1300 psi and their regeneration ability was retained The target cells used in the present transformation procedure were highly regenerable, and were so chosen because direct transformation of totipotent tissues would minimize somaclonal variations (Sanford, 1990) Further, the bombardment distance of 6 and 8 cm did not impair the regeneration capacity of the bombarded explants Several workers maintained similar distances viz zygotic embryos of peanut (Schnall and Weissinger, 1993), and in bombarded shoot tip clumps of sorghum and pearl millet (Devi and Sticklen, 2001, 2002) A dramatic effect of the increase in number of blue spots was observed in the embryogenic suspension cultures of cassava, when the optimal bombardment pressure (1100 psi) and the optimal particle size

(10 μm) were used (Schopke *et al.*, 1997) Distance of 6 cm resulted in highest transient expression levels of *uidA* gene in lily calli (Wataid *et al.*, 1998)

Transient expression resulted was recorded in more than 90% of the bombarded explants Microprojectile bombardment negatively affects long-term cell survival and hence the number of stable transformation events Although, transient expression may be quite efficient (Hunold *et al.*, 1995, Devi and Sticklen, 2001, 2002), the choice of the explant, type and culture conditions were very important for high expression levels In case of microprojectile bombardment, a successful regeneration event requires that a cell not only survives the bombardment and stably integrates the foreign gene into its genome, but also is a part of cell population induced to regenerate into a whole plant In the present study with petiolar region of leaf explants, transient expression resulted in more than 90% of the bombarded explants But not only the bombarded explants, but also untransformed control explants were also stained blue Such endogenous activity has been reported in some species (Hu *et al.*, 1990) Though kanamycin was found to be a better selective agent in screening the putative transformants after microprojectile bombardment, it however did not allow the visual selection of the putative transformants, which was also observed in the case of groundnut transformants (Sharma and Anjaiah, 2000)

The stable transformants resulted through microprojectile bombardment was found to be 50% positive In Southern blot analysis of the stable transformants resulted (*RCh1* gene T₀ Southern blot), out of 11 independent transformants 6 plants were found to be positive and all the plants except 2 plants had double insertions, which is more

common in direct gene transfer methods (Sanford, 1990). However, most of the Southern positive *npfII* plants showed single inserts. The hybridizing band therefore reflects the integration of the presence of the gene inserted in the genome and provides an estimate of the number of copies of the gene integrated. The difference in the size of the bands also indicated that the events were independent and the integration was random. In case of wheat, the number of hybridizing bands indicating the presence of bar gene varied from 1 to 4 (Khanna and Daggard, 2003) and multiple copies of the gene insertion was observed in carrot (Hardegger and Sturm, 1998). Further, of the 6 putatively transformed plants, one plant contained high number of transgene copies in *Festuca* (Bettany *et al.*, 2003), one or two copies each in the genome of strawberry (Schaart *et al.*, 2002) and in mung bean (Jaiwal *et al.*, 2001). Most of the transformants expressed single gene copy inserts and only one plant showed two copies in pear (Gao *et al.*, 2002) and in *Phaseolus*, out of 10 plants 4 plants showed single copy inserts, whereas other plants expressed 2 or more (De clereq *et al.*, 2002). The positive signals obtained in the above analyses confirmed the integration of the transgene into the genome of all the regenerated plants. The copy number of both the transgene and the rearranged fragments is often highly variable in plants transformed by microprojectile bombardment, similar to the observations in rose (Pawlowski and Somers, 1996). Transgene rearrangements are particularly common among the transgenics derived from biolistic delivery of DNA (Jorgenson *et al.*, 1996).

The transformation efficiency in the present study was 50% indicating that the microprojectile bombardment was an efficient gene transfer method, which

subsequently relies on the target tissue that is competent enough to combat the bombardment shock. Even though limited numbers of plants were tested, the results suggest a Mendelian inheritance of the transgene which was evident in the T₁ and T₂ generations.

Although many papers have been published on pigeonpea transformation, most of the regeneration protocols used in producing the transformants were not reproducible, either due to long callus phase and inefficiency of the explants to produce shoots at a higher frequency. Geetha *et al.*, (1999) and Lawrence and Koundal (2001) have reported genetic transformation in pigeonpea. The transformation efficiency reported by Lawrence and Koundal (2001) was only 1.2%, although the explants which were used by them produced calli, but out of 213 calli produced (23.8%) only 11 calli (1.2%) showed shoot bud initiation and 6 calli developed suggest the shoots indicating the poor efficiency of regeneration and transformation potential of the explants. In case of transformation protocol put forward by Geetha *et al.*, (1999) only 3 plants were found to be positive. In the present study, selection of explant has become an important criterion and as such regeneration resulted from the cut end of the petiole, without any callus phase. Though the pathway for regeneration was through organogenesis, high stringent selection of the shoots led to the development of transgenics with above 50% efficiency and the transgenic plants showed positive gene integration events.

Molecular analysis of T₀ plants through PCR and Southern blot analysis proved the existence of transgenes in the transformants. PCR analysis resulted in the amplification of respective gene fragments such as *uidA*, *npII*, and *RChit* genes in

more than 90% of the putatively transformed plants. Southern blot of the 5 T₀ plants positive for *nptII* gene revealed the presence of the gene in a single insert in 3 plants. In Southern blot analysis of T₀ plants for *RChit* gene, out of 11 independent transgenic lines, 6 plants expressed prominent signals indicating the presence of the gene and 2 plants had a single insertions.

Further amplification of the marker as well as candidate genes in T₁ and T₂ generation proved the simultaneous transfer of both the genes. All the transformants produced were morphologically normal and fertile and there was no significant phenotypic changes observed in all the plants belonging to T₀, T₁ and T₂ generations. In T₁ generation, 8 independent transformed plants of T₀ generation with 5 replicates were taken. Out of 5 lines of each of the independent transformants of T₀, the number of PCR positives for *uidA* gene was either 3 or 4 indicating the segregation pattern following Mendelian inheritance ratio of 3:1.

To verify the stable integration of the *RChit* gene, Southern blot analysis was carried out on 16 T₂ generation plants representing 4 independent transformants of T₀ generation, which resulted in positive gene integration in 8 plants. This further proved the transformation protocol that was used for the production of transformed plants led to the highest transformation frequency.

In conclusion, a well established and a relatively efficient method of plant regeneration compatible to the genetic transformation of pigeonpea through microprojectile bombardment has been developed, that allows stable integration and

expression of the transgene, as confirmed by histochemical and molecular analysis, as well as the studies on heritability of the transgene

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

SUMMARY

The present study deals with the production of transgenic pigeonpea resistant to wilt disease (caused by fungus, *Fusarium oxysporum F udum* (Butler) Synder and Hansen) This was achieved by using microprojectile-mediated gene transfer method for the introduction of *RCht* gene into pigeonpea cultivar ICPL 88039 Development of a reliable tissue culture regeneration system is a pre-requisite for the development of transgenic plants In the present study, a rapid and reliable in vitro regeneration protocol was developed by using 4 to 5-d-old leaf explants obtained from in vitro raised aseptic seedlings The regeneration protocol exhibited a high frequency (more than 90%) of multiple shoot development Experiments were carried out to optimize the plant regeneration protocol amenable to genetic transformation for the development of transgenic pigeonpea The experiments involved studies on tissue culture, and genetic transformation aspects

Tissue culture studies

- 1 The method for shoot bud regeneration describes in this thesis for the development of high frequency adventitious multiple shoots from the petiolar region of leaf explant, (which is devoid of any pre-existing meristematic cells)

- 2 Primary juvenile leaf explants from 2 to 15-d-old donor seedlings were tested for their regeneration efficiency, and the explants from 4 to 5-d-old seedlings showed the highest response. The regeneration potential declined with increase in the age of the explant.
- 3 Various plant growth regulators such as BA, kinetin, 2-iP, TDZ, IAA, and NAA supplemented in the MS medium were tested for shoot bud differentiation. The explants cultured on MS supplemented with BA in combination with kinetin showed the best response. Whereas, BA proved to be a potential cytokinin for the induction of target cells and multiple shoot buds, kinetin supported the further growth of the multiple shoots. TDZ (a phenyl urea), was found to be detrimental to the leaf explant culture in the present study. Auxins such as NAA and IAA in combination with cytokinins were found to be futile for shoot induction. An interesting observation was that there was a three-fold increase in the efficiency of shoot bud regeneration that was induced by the use of filter-sterilized phytohormones compared to the autoclaved phytohormones.
- 4 Based on the genotypes tested, it was observed that the regeneration protocol put forward was applicable across a wide range of pigeonpea genotypes. ICPL 88039, which has a moderate level of resistance to the legume pod borer was used for all the experiments for the production of transgenic pigeonpea.
- 5 The formation of shoot buds exhibited polarity by restricting their formation to the cut end of the petiole of the leaf explant. Better response was obtained with the petiole with intact lamina, for shoot induction.

- 6 The orientation of the leaf explant played a vital role in enhancing morphogenesis. Placing the abaxial side of the explant in contact with the culture medium gave better results.
- 7 The explants exhibited adventitious shoot bud formation when cultured on MS medium supplemented with 5.0 μM BA and 5.0 μM kinetin. The shoot buds were initiated within a week of induction. Differentiation of shoot buds was visible after 8 to 10 d. Differentiation and further proliferation of the multiple shoot buds occurred when transferred to shoot development medium comprising of MS basal medium supplemented with 2.5 μM BA in combination with 2.5 μM kinetin.
- 8 The formation of multiple shoots and leaf primordia was observed from 14 d onwards. Histological analysis of the regenerated explants revealed that the ontogeny of shoot buds was adventitious in origin. The shoot buds differentiated into shoots in the shoot development medium. The differentiated shoots could be elongated when cultured on MS medium supplemented with 0.58 μM GA₃ and the shoots elongated within 6 to 7 d.
- 9 For rooting, various concentrations of IBA (0.98 to 9.0 μM) and IAA (1.14 to 11.42 μM) and MS medium with reduced sucrose concentration (1% w/v) were tested individually. Freshly cut shoots were pulse treated by dipping the shoots in 11.4 μM IAA solution before the transfer to the culture tubes containing MS medium fortified with 1% sucrose (w/v) and devoid of any growth regulators. Pulse treatment enhanced the formation of adventitious roots to in

80% of the rootable shoots, while the adventitious root formation was observed after 6 d of root initiation. Sugar starvation of 1% by adding only sucrose was also found to be effective in the successful induction of rooting.

- 10 The rooted shoots could undergo the hardening process with a survival rate of 95 to 100%. The use of polythene bags to cover the in vitro raised plantlets during the hardening process helped the plantlets to withstand the minimal loss of water through transpiration and by maintaining high humid conditions. The plants were later transplanted into regular pots with sand and soil in 1:1 ratio. Addition of small amount of thiram (fungicide) helped in the acclimatization of the plant to overcome fungal infection if any.

Genetic transformation studies

- 1 The method of microprojectile bombardment was used for gene transfer by using leaf regeneration system developed in the present study.
- 2 The plasmid construct used for bombardment of the explants was pRT99GUS RChit, carrying chitinase expression cassette was maintained in *E. coli* strain DH5 α . The plasmid pRT99GUS RChit contained marker genes viz. *uidA* and *npfII* besides the *RChit* gene under the control of a constitutive promoter CaMV 35S and polyA terminator.
- 3 In the present study, the target cells amenable for bombardment were identified as the cells residing in the proximal cut end of the petiolar region of the leaf.

- explant Since the plant selection marker gene *nptII* was used presently, which imparts the plant cells resistance to kanamycin, initial tolerance levels of kanamycin were standardized on untransformed explants and a concentration of 100 mg/L was selected for the culture of bombarded explants
- 4 In microprojectile-mediated gene transfer method, the bombardment distance and the pressure of the helium gas generally play a vital role Pressures of 1100 and 1300 psi of helium gas were found to be optimum for the penetration of the plasmid coated particles into the target cells and the optimum bombardment distance was 6 and 8 cm
 - 5 The explants were transferred to fresh culture plates 24 hr after bombardment A recovery period of 14 d was found to be ideal before transfer to selection medium Kanamycin selection was gradually increased from 25, 50, 75 to 100 mg/L The explants were subjected to a selection pressure of 25 mg/L for 2 wk and later transferred to a selection of 50 mg/L for 1 wk and further placed in a medium consisting of 75 mg/L for a wk The explants were stringently subjected to 100 mg/L selection for longer period's upto 3 wk, that screened the untransformed shoots produced from untransformed cells
 - 6 Exclusion of selection from root induction medium was found to be effective in the formation of roots The transfer of the plants to the potting mix for the acclimatization consisted of sand and soil in 1:1 ratio and the plants were covered with polythene bags to retain high humidity

- 7 Transient expression of *uidA* gene is generally assayed through histochemical analysis of GUS, where X-Gluc was used as a substrate. The explants subjected to bombardment were tested for GUS assay. The transformed tissue expressed intense blue, while the untransformed control tissue expressed faint blue. Since the untransformed control tissue also expressed blue coloration, transient expression based on GUS assay was found to be unreliable for the present study on pigeonpea.
- 8 Fifty independent transformed (T_0) plants were transferred to the glass house. PCR analysis was carried out on 17 (T_0) plants for *uidA* gene amplification, 10 (T_0) plants for *RChit* gene amplification and 18 (T_0) plants for *nptII* gene amplification.
- 9 Fidelity of the PCR amplification was confirmed through Southern blotting of the PCR amplicons, where 90% of the transformants revealed the presence of the transgene.
- 10 Further, for gene integration and copy number analysis, Southern blotting for *RChit* gene was carried out on 11 randomly selected plants. Out of the 11 independent transformed plants of T_0 tested (P16, P17, P18, P19, P20, P23, P24, P25, P26 and P27), only 6 plants (P16, P17, P18, P20, P23 and P26) expressed the presence of the *RChit* gene. Out of the 6 plants, 2 plants (P17 and P23) showed single copy inserts, while rest of the plants showed double inserts. Further, Southern blotting for *nptII* gene was carried out on first 10 plants and 5 plants (P1, P3, P4, P7 and P8) were found to be positives. Three plants (P1, P3

and P4) from among the Southern (*npII*) positives showed single gene inserts and the rest (P7 and P8) showed double gene inserts

- 11 Self-fertilized first 8 plants of T₀ generation were advanced to T₁ generation for inheritance studies. Five replicates were taken from each independent transformant. Forty T₁ plants (P1→1-5, P2→1-5, P3→1-5, P5→1-5, P6→1-5, P7→1-5, P8→1-5, P13→1-5) were analysed through PCR for inheritance of *uidA* gene and 25 plants (P1→1, 4, 5, P2→3, 4, 5, P3→1, 2, 3, 4, 5, P5→3, 5, P6→2, 3, 4, 5, P7→2, 4, 5, P8→1, 3, 4, 5, P13→1) were PCR positives, expressing the 1.2 kb of *uidA* gene fragment.
- 12 Southern blotting for *RChit* gene was carried out on 16 T₁ lines of 8 independent transformed T₀ plants (P1→1, 4, P3→1, 3, P5→1, 3, 4, P6→2, 4, P7→2, 3, 4, P8→3, 4, P13→2, 4), in which only 3 plants (P1→4, P8→2, 4) expressed the *RChit* gene integration in T₁ generation that confirmed the presence of the gene. The self-raised plants of T₁ generation were grown to maturity to raise T₂ generation.
- 13 A total of 8 T₂ plants from 2 independent T₀ transformed plants (4 replicates each) were subjected to PCR analysis of *uidA* and *npII* genes. Seven plants (P1→1→1-4, P8→1→1-3) showed the amplification of *uidA* gene fragment and 7 plants were tested positive (P1→1→2-4, P8→1→1-4) for *npII* gene.
- 14 For confirmation of integration of *RChit* gene in the T₂ transformants, 4 replicates were taken of 4 plants and tested through Southern blotting. Out of 16 lines, 8 plants (P1→1→1, 2, 4, P8→1→1, 2, P9→1→1, 4, P10→1→1) were

found to be positives indicating the integration of *RChit* gene and thereby inheritance of the gene from T₀ and T₁ generation

CONCLUSIONS

In the present study on the development of in vitro plant regeneration system in pigeonpea and establishment of an efficient genetic transformation protocol using microprojectile bombardment, the following conclusions were drawn,

- 1 An efficient plant regeneration system using the leaf explant was standardized The regeneration system developed was rapid, reliable, reproducible, efficient and capable of producing plants independently (without any intervening callus phase) through organogenesis
- 2 Primary juvenile leaf explants from 4 to 5-d-old plants exhibited the highest regeneration response of 90% Target cells at the proximal cut end of the petiole were found to be amenable for microprojectile bombardment
- 3 MS basal medium fortified with 5.0 μ M BA and 5.0 μ M kinetin was found to be highly effective for the initiation of shoot buds from the petiolar region of leaf explant
- 4 Histological studies of the regenerating explants revealed the adventitious origin of multiple shoot buds

- 5 Shoot development medium consisting of 2.5 μ M BA and 2.5 μ M kinetin was found to be the most suitable for shoot bud differentiation. Incorporation of GA₃ in the MS medium enhanced shoot elongation.
- 6 Efficient rooting could be induced in MS basal medium supplemented with IAA containing a reduced sucrose concentration of 1%. Shoots pulse treated with IAA developed more number of adventitious roots. The survival rate of the transplanted and hardened plantlets was more than 90%.
- 7 An efficient transformation protocol was standardized by using the petiolar region of the leaf explant as the target tissue for microprojectile bombardment. Pressures of 1100 and 1300 psi and distances of 6 and 8 cm were found to be ideal for bombardment of the target leaf explants. The selection regime of 100 mg/L kanamycin was found to be ideal for screening of the putative transformants.
- 8 Fifty T₀ putative transgenic plants were regenerated, rooted and transferred to the glasshouse.
- 9 Of the 18 T₀ plants analysed for *uidA* and *nptII* genes, almost all the plants expressed the amplification of the respective gene fragment. Of 10 T₀ plants analysed for *RChit* gene, 9 plants expressed the presence of the gene.
- 10 Eleven T₀ plants were tested for *RChit* gene that confirmed the presence of the gene in 6 plants and single copy inserts were found only in 2 plants. Southern blot analysis was carried out on 8 T₀ plants for the integration of *nptII* gene, 5 plants

were characterized for the presence of the gene. Single copy inserts were observed in 3 plants.

- 11 Of the 40 T₁ plants analysed for the amplification of *uidA* gene by PCR, 25 plants showed the amplification of the above gene.
- 12 Eight T₂ plants were tested for the PCR amplification of *uidA* gene and 7 were found to be positives, and the same result was observed for the amplification of *npII* gene. Sixteen T₂ plants were tested for PCR amplification of the *RChit* gene and only 3 plants were found to be positive probably due to the high stringent conditions applied. The segregation and inheritance of the transgene followed Mendelian 3:1 ratio.
- 13 Further confirmation of the T₂ plants for the presence of the *RChit* gene was carried out. Out of the 16 T₂ plants, 8 plants were positive for *RChit* gene integration.
- 14 Based on the results presented above, it is concluded that the transformation efficiency was over 50%.
- 15 The regeneration and transformation protocol reported here for pigeonpea is efficient for the production of high frequency of transformants and the system has been successfully utilized to produce transgenic plants with genes of agronomic importance. Therefore, this system could be generally applicable for the biotechnological improvement of pigeonpea.

APPENDICES

APPENDICES

Appendix 1. Pigeonpea variety ICPL 88039

Released name/Year	ICPL 88039
Parentage	ICPL 161-H2-HB-HB-HB-H1-HB-HB
Yielding	2.0 tonnes ha ⁻¹
Cropping systems	Suitable for sole crop/Inter-cropping
Sowing time	Kharif in June
Seed rate	15 to 20 kg ha ⁻¹ (Kharif)
Duration	Early (short-duration)
Growth habit	Non-determinate (NDT)
Resistance	Maruca resistant
Seed size	Medium size 10.5 (gm)/100 seed
Days of flowering	77 d
Days to maturity	111 d
Plant height	182 cm
Protein dhal	22.03%
Dhal yield	82.80%

Appendix 2. Murashige and Skoog (1962) medium

Salt	Conc (mg/L)	Stock (per L)	Use (per L)
<u>MAJOR SALT</u> (X 50)			
NH ₄ NO ₃	1650	33 0 g/200 ml	10 ml
KNO ₃	1900	38 0 g/400 ml	20 ml
KH ₂ PO ₄	170	3 40 g/200 ml	10 ml
CaCl ₂	440	8 80 g/200 ml	10 ml
MgSO ₄ 7H ₂ O	370	7 40 g/200 ml	10 ml
<u>MINOR SALTS</u> (X 100)			
H ₃ BO ₃	6 20		
KI	0 83	6 20 mg/L)	
MnSO ₄ H ₂ O	22 3	83 0 mg/L)	
ZnSO ₄ 7H ₂ O	8 6	2230 mg/L)	
Na ₂ MoO ₄ 2H ₂ O	0 25	860 mg/L)	5 0 ml
CuSO ₄ 5H ₂ O	0 025	25 mg/L)	
CoCl ₂ 6H ₂ O	0 025	2 5 mg/L)	
<u>IRON</u> (X 100)	37 3	2 5 mg/L)	
Na ₂ EDTA 2H ₂ O	27 8	3 73 g/L)	
FeSO ₄ 7H ₂ O	40	2 78 g/L)	
OR		2 0 g/500ml	
FeNa ₂ EDTA			
<u>ORGANICS</u> (X 100)			
GLYCINE	2 0	200 mg/L)	10 ml
NICOTINIC ACID	0 5	50 mg/L)	10 ml
THIAMINE HCL	0 1	100 mg/L)	10 ml
PYRIDOXINE HCL	0 5	50 mg/L)	10 ml
m-Inositol	100	5 0 g/500 ml	

Appendix 3 Embedding of the petiolar region of the leaf explant for ontogeny studies

Station no	Solvent	%	Time
1	Isopropyl alcohol	80	1hr
2	- do -	90	- do -
3	- do -	95	- do -
4	- do -	95	- do -
5	- do -	absolute	- do -
6	- do -	- do -	- do -
7	- do -	- do -	- do -
8	chloroform	-	- do -
9	- do -	-	- do -
10	- do -	-	- do -
11	Paraffin - 1	-	3hr
12	Paraffin - 2	-	3hr

Appendix 4 Staining the deparafinised sections of the petiolar region of the leaf explant for ontogeny studies

Station no	Reagent	Time in min
1	Xylene (sulphur free)	7
2	Xylene	7
3	Acetone (absolute)	2
4	Ethanol 95%	2
5	Tap water (wash I)	5
6	Distilled water	3
7	Hematoxylin	12
8	Tap water (wash II)	12
9	Distilled water	2
10	Eosin	1
11	Ethanol 95%	1/60
12	- do -	1/60
13	- do -	1/60
14	Acetone (absolute)	1
15	- do -	2
16	Acetone and xylene	2
17	Xylene	2
18	- do -	2

Appendix 5. Preparation of LB medium (Sambrook *et al.*, 1989)

Preparation for 1 L

Chemical	Wt in gm
Bacto-peptone	10
Yeast extract	5
Sodium chloride (NaCl)	10
Agar	15
pH	7

Appendix 6. Preparation of GUS histochemical staining buffer for 5 ml (Jefferson 1987)

Chemical	Stock conc	Working conc
X-GLUC	10 mg	Dissolve in 100 μ l of dimethyl formamide
Tris-HCL	1 M	100 mM (100 μ l from 1 M stock)
NaCl	5 M	50 mM (100 μ l from 5 M stock)
Potassium Ferricyanide	200 mM	2 mM (100 μ l from 200 mM stock)
Triton X	1%	0.1% (100 μ l from 1% stock)
Sodium azide	50 mg/ml	0.2% (400 μ l from stock)
Distilled H ₂ O		8.2 ml

The buffer was filter sterilized and stored in 1.5 ml eppendorfs at 4 °C

Appendix 7. Composition of DNA extraction buffer (Porebski *et al.*, 1997)

Component	Stock Conc	Working conc for 100ml
Tris	1 M	20 ml
NaCl	5 M	56 ml
EDTA (pH 8.0)	100 mM	40 ml
CTAB	10 %	40 ml
β -mercaptoethanol	0.3 %	300 μ l (added just before use)
H ₂ O		40 ml

Appendix 8. Preparation of Pre-hybridization buffer

Hybridization buffer (Alkaline phosphatase) - 25 ml

0.5 M NaCl - 0.73125 gm

Blocking reagent - 1 gm

Add NaCl of 0.73125 gm and blocking reagent of 1 gm to 25 ml of hybridization buffer and keep it for thorough mixing on a magnetic stirrer for 1 hr

Note Pre-heated buffer (55 °C) to be added to the blots

Appendix 9. Preparation of Primary wash buffer for 500 ml

Chemical	Chemical to be added for 500ml
Urea- 2 M	60 gm
SDS-0.1%	500 mg
0.5 M NaPO ₄ - 50 mM	pH 7 (50 ml)
NaCl- 150 mM	4.32 g
MgCl ₂ -1M	500 µl
Blocking reagent	1 gm

Appendix 10. Preparation of 20X Secondary wash buffer for 500 ml

1 M Tris base-60.5 gm

2 M NaCl-56 gm

pH set at 10

Appendix 11. Extraction of RNA through TRIzol method

- Grind the leaf tissue in liquid N₂ (100 mg). Homogenize the tissue in 1 ml of TRIzol reagent.
- Incubate the sample for 5 min at 15 to 30 °C.
- Add 200 µl of chloroform per 1 ml of TRIzol reagent.
- Shake vigorously for 15 sec and incubate at 15 to 30 °C for 2 to 5 min.
- Centrifuge at 14000 rpm for 15 min at 2 to 8 °C till three phases' form.
- Collect the upper aqueous phase (3/4 vol only) into fresh tubes and precipitate it with 500 µl of isopropanol.
- Incubate the samples at 15 to 30 °C for 10 min and later centrifuge at 14000 rpm for 10 min at 2 to 8 °C.
- Decant the supernatant.
- Wash the pellet with 70% ethanol (1 ml)/ vortex it.
- Spin at 10000 rpm for 5 min at 2 to 8 °C.
- Dry the pellet in vacuum drier for 5 min.
- Dissolve the pellet in RNase free (30 µl) of water.

Preparation of chemicals and buffers useful in genetic transformation studies

1. Preparation of 2 N NaOH, mol wt - 40 gm

Constituent	Wt in gm	Vol
NaOH	8	Dissolve in 100 ml of SDW

2 Preparation of 5 M Potassium acetate pH 5.2 mol wt- 98.14 gm

Constituent	Wt in gm	Vol
Potassium acetate	49.07	Dissolve in 100 ml SDW

Make up the pH to 5.2 with acetic acid

3 Preparation of 5 M NaCl, mol wt - 58.44 gm

Component	Wt in gm	Vol
NaCl	29.22	Dissolve in 100 ml SDW

4 Preparation of 0.5 M Sodium phosphate, mol wt – 138 gm

Constituent	Wt in gm	Vol
Sodium phosphate	6.9	Dissolve in 100 ml of SDW

Adjust the pH to 7 with 5 M HCL

5 Preparation of 1 M Tris pH 8, mol wt - 121.14 gm

Constituent	Wt in gm	Vol
Tris-HCL	12.1	Dissolve in 100 ml of SDW

Adjust the pH to 8 with 1N NaOH

6 Preparation of 100 mM EDTA pH 8, mol wt - 372.24 gm

Component	Wt in gm	Vol to be added
EDTA	3.72	Dissolve in 100 ml of SDW

Adjust the pH to 8 with 1N NaOH

7 Preparation of 10% CTAB

Dissolve 10 gm of CTAB in 100 ml of SDW

8 Preparation 10% SDS

Dissolve 10 gm of SDS in 100 ml of SDW

9 Preparation of 2.5 M CaCl_2 , mol wt - 147 gm

Chemical	Wt in gm	Vol
CaCl_2	36.75	Dissolve in 100 ml of SDW

10 Preparation of 3 M Sodium acetate pH 4.8, mol wt - 82.03 gm

Chemical	Wt in gm	Vol
Sodium acetate	24.61	Dissolve in 100 ml of SDW

Adjust the pH to 4.8 with acetic acid

11 Preparation of 50X TAE

Chemical	Wt in gm	Vol to be added
Tris-HCL	242	
$\text{Na}_2\text{EDTA} \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$	372.2	
Acetic acid		57.1 ml

Adjust the pH to 8.5, make up the volume to 1L with SDW

12 Preparation of 1X TAE for 5 L

Chemical	Vol
50X TAE	100 ml

Make up the volume to 5 L with SDW

13 Preparation of varied % of ethanol

Component	Working %	Vol of ethanol to be added (ml)	Final vol
Ethanol	10	10	Make up the vol to 100 ml with SDW
Ethanol	30	30	- do -
Ethanol	50	50	- do -
Ethanol	70	70	- do -

BIBLIOGRAPHY

7. Bibliography

- Aitken-Christie, J., Singh, A.P. and Davies, H. (1988) Multiplication of meristematic tissue a new tissue culture system for radiata pine In J W Hanover, D E Keathley (eds), Genetic Manipulation of woody plants, Plenum Press, New York, pp 413- 432
- Akaracharya, A., Choi, Y.E., Kusano, T., Shinmyo, A. and Sano, H. (2001) Efficient plant regeneration of *Ipomea aquatica* by direct shoot formation from cotyledon segments Plant Biotechnol , 18 77-79
- Akiyoshi, D.E., Klee, H., Amasino, R.M., Nester, E.W. and Gordon, M.P. (1984) T-DNA of *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* encodes an enzyme of cytokinin biosynthesis Proc Natl Acad Sci USA , 81 5994-5998
- Ammirato, P.V. (1985) A revised medium for rapid growth and bioassays with tobacco tissue culture In R R Henke, K W Huges, M P Constatin, A Hollander (eds), Tissue culture in forestry and agriculture, Plenum Press, New York, pp 9-29
- Ammirato, P.V. (1987) Organizational events during somatic embryogenesis In C E Green, D A Somers, W P Hackett, D D Biesboer, (eds), Plant Tissue and Cell culture, A R Liss, New York, pp 57-81
- Anuratha, C.S., Zen, K.C., Cole, K.C., Mew, T. and Muthukrishnan, S. (1996) Induction of chitinases and β -1,3-glucanases in *Rhizoctonia solani*-infected chitinase cDNA clone Physiol Plant , 97 39-46
- Aragao, F.J.L., Barros, L.M.G., Brasikiro, A.C.M., Ribeiro, S.G., Smith, F.D., Sanford, J.C., Faria, J.C. and Rech, E.L. (1996) Inheritance of foreign genes in transgenic bean (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L) co-transformed via particle bombardment Theor Appl Genet , 93 142-150
- Aragao, F.J.L., Sarokin, L., Vianna, G.R. and Rech, E.L. (2000) Selection of transgenic meristematic cells utilizing a herbicidal molecule results in the recovery of fertile transgenic soybean (*Glycine max* (L) Merrill) plants at a high frequency Theor Appl Genet , 10 1-6
- Armstrong, C.L. and Green, C.E. (1985) Establishment and maintenance of friable embryogenic maize callus and the involvement of L-Proline Planta, 164 207-214

- Arokiairaj, P., Jones, H., Cheong, K.F., Coomber, S. and Charlwood, B.V. (1994) Gene insertion into *Hevea brasiliensis* Plant Cell Rep , 13 425-43
- Arundhati, A. (1999) *Agrobacterium*-mediated transformation of pigeonpea (*Cajanus cajan* L. Millsp) by using leaf disks International Chickpea and Pigeonpea NewsLett , 6 62-64
- Baker, C.M. and Wetzstein, H.V. (1992) Somatic embryogenesis and plant regeneration from leaflets of peanut, *Arachis hypogea* Plant Cell Rep , 11 71-75
- Barcelo, P., Hagel, C., Becker, D., Martin, A. and Lorz, H. (1994) Transgenic cereal (*Triticum*) obtained at high efficiency by microprojectile bombardment of inflorescence tissue Plant J, 5 583-592
- Barry, G.F., Rogers, S.G., Fraley, R.T. and Brand, L. (1984) Identification of a cloned cytokinin biosynthetic gene Proc Natl Acad Sci USA , 81 4776-4780
- Bean, S.J., Gooding, P.S. and Mullineaux, P.M. (1997) A simple system for pea transformation Plant Cell Rep , 16 513-519
- Becker, D., Brettscheider, R. and Lorz, H. (1994) Fertile transgenic wheat from microprojectile bombardment of scutellar tissue Plant J, 5 299-30
- Bent, A.F. and Yu, I.C (1999) Applications of molecular biology to plant disease and insect resistance Adv Agro , 66 251-298
- Bettany, A.J.E., Datton, S.J., Timms, E., Dhanoa, M.M.S. and Morris, P. (2003) *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*-mediated transformation of *Festuca arundinacea* (Schreb) and *Lolium multiflorum* (Lam) Plant Cell Rep , 21 437-444
- Bevan, M., Barnes, W.M. and Chilton, M.D. (1983) A Chimeric antibiotic resistance gene as a selectable marker for plant cell transformation Nature, 304 184-187
- Bevan, M.W. (1984) Binary vectors for plant transformation Nucleic Acids Res , 12 8711-8721
- Bhat, S.R. and Srinivasan, S. (2002) Molecular and genetic analysis of transgenic plants considerations and approaches Plant Sci , 163 673-681
- Bingham, E.T., Hurley, L.V., Kaatz, D.M. and Saunders, J.M. (1975) Breeding Alfa Alfa regeneration from callus tissue in culture Crop Sci , 719-721

- Birch, R.G. (1997) Plant transformation Problems and strategies for practical application Plant Physiol Plant Mol Biol , 48 297-326
- Birch, R.G. and Franks, T. (1991) Development and optimization of microprojectile systems for plant genetic transformation Aus J Plant Physiol , 18 453-69
- Boller, T. (1987) Hydrolytic enzymes in plant disease resistance In T Kosuge, E.W Nester (eds), Plant-Microbe interactions, Molecular and Genetic Perspectives, Macmillan, New York, pp 85-414
- Bond, J.E. and Roose, M.L. (1998) *Agrobacterium*-mediated transformation of the commercially important citrus cultivar Washington navel orange Plant Cell Rep , 18 229-234
- Bowen, B.A. (1993) Markers for plant gene transfer In S.D Kung, R Wu (eds), Transgenic Plants, Engineering and utilization, Academic Press, Vol1, pp 89-121
- Boynton, J.E., Gillham, N.W., Harris, E.H., Hosler, J.P., Johnson, A.M. and Jones, A.R. (1988). Chloroplast transformation in *Chlamydomonas* with high velocity microprojectiles Science, 240 1534-1538
- Brar, G.S., Cohen, B.A., Vick, X.X. and Johnson, G.W. (1994) Recovery of transgenic peanut (*Arachis hypogea* L) plants from elite cultivars using ACCELL technology Plant J, 5 745-753
- Broglie, K., Chet, I., Holliday, M., Cressman, R., Biddle, P., Krowlton, S., Kanvains, C.J. and Broglie, R. (1991) Transgenic plants with enhanced resistance to the fungal pathogen *Rhizoctonia solani* Science, 254 1194 - 1197
- Broglie, K.E., Gaynor, J.J. and Broglie, R.M. (1986) Ethylene-regulated gene expression Molecular cloning of the genes encoding an endochitinase from *Phaseolus vulgaris* Proc Natl Acad Sci USA , 83 6820 - 6824
- Brown, D.G.W. and Thorpe, T.A. (1986) In I.K Vasil (ed), Cell culture and somatic cell genetics of plants, Academic Press, New York, Vol3, pp 49-65
- Budar, F., Thia-Toong, L., Van Montagu, M. and Hernalsteens, J.P. (1986) *Agrobacterium*-mediated gene transfer results mainly in transgenic plants transmitting T-DNA as a single Mendelian factor Genet Soc Amer , 114 303-313
- Butler, E.J. (1906) The wilt disease of pigeonpea and pepper Agri J Ind , 25-36

- Butler, E.J.** (1910) The wilt disease of pigeonpea and the parasitism of *Neocosmopora vasinfecta* Smith. *Memories of the Department of Agriculture in India Bot Ser* , 1-64
- Caboni, E., Tonelli, M.G., Lauri, P., Angeli, S.D. and Damiano, C.** (1999) In vitro shoot regeneration from leaves of wild pear. *Plant Cell Tissue Organ Cult* , 59 1-7
- Cao, J., Wang, Y.C., Klein, T.M., Sanford, J.C. and Wu, R.** (1990) Transformation of rice and maize using the biolistic process. In C J Lamb, R N Beachy (eds), *Plant gene transfer*, Wiley-Liss, New York, pp 21-23
- Cao, J., Zhang, W.G., Mc Elroy, D. and Wu, R.** (1991) Assessment of rice genetic transformation. In G S Khush, G Toenniessen (eds), *Rice Biotechnology*, International Rice Research Institute, Manila, Phillipines, pp 106
- Cassels, A.C., Long, R.D. and Mousdale, D.M.** (1982) Endogenous IAA and morphogenesis in tobacco petiole cultures. *Physiol Plant* , 56 507-512
- Chalfie, M., Tu, Y., Euskirchen, G., Ward, W.W. and Prasher, D.C.** (1994) Green fluorescent protein as a marker for gene expression. *Science*, 253 802-805
- Chang, C., Moll, E., Evenson, K.B. and Guittinam, M.J.** (1996) In vitro plantlet regeneration from cotyledon, hypocotyl and root explants of hybrid seed geranium. *Plant Cell Tissue Organ Cult* , 45 61-66
- Chen, L., Okabe, R., Guan, L. and Adachi, T.** (2002) A single and efficient culture of leaflets for plant regeneration in guineagrass (*Panicum maximum*). *Plant Biotechnol* , 19 63-68
- Chen, T.H., Marowitch, J. and Thompson, B.G.** (1987) Genotypic effects on somatic embryogenesis and plant regeneration from callus cultures of alfalfa. *Plant Cell Tissue Organ Cult* , 8 72-81
- Cheng, M., Jarret, R.L., Li, Z., Xing, A. and Demski, J.W.** (1996) Production of fertile transgenic peanut (*Arachis hypogaea* L.) plants using *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*. *Plant Cell Rep* , 15 653-657
- Cheng, Z. and Reisch, B.I.** (1989) Shoot regeneration from petioles and leaves of *Vitis x labruscana Catawba*. *Plant Cell Rep* , 8 403-406

- Chilton, M.D., Brummond, M.H., Kerlo, D.J., Sciaky, D., Montoya, A.L., Gordon, M.P. and Nester, E.W. (1977) Stable incorporation of plasmid into higher plants The molecular crown gall tumorigenesis Cell, 11 63-271
- Choi, P.S., Soh, W.Y. and Liu, J.R. (1996) Somatic embryogenesis and plant regeneration in cotyledonary explant cultures of Chinese cabbage Plant Cell Tissue Organ Cult , 44 253-256
- Christianson, M.L. and Warnick, D.A. (1985) Temporary requirement for phytohormone balance in the control of organogenesis In vitro Cell Dev Biol P , 112 494-497
- Christianson, M.L. and Warnick, D.A. (1988) Physiological genetics of organogenesis in vitro Hort Sci , 23 515 - 519
- Christou, P., Murphy, J.E. and Swain, W.F. (1987) Stable transformation of soybean by electroporation and root formation from transformed callus Proc Natl Acad Sci USA , 84 3962-3966
- Christou, P., Swain, W.F., Yang, N.S. and McCabe, D.E. (1989) Inheritance and expression of foreign genes in transgenic soybean plants Proc Natl Acad Sci USA, 86 7500-7504
- Chyi, Y.S., Jorgensen, R.A., Goldstein, D., Tanksley, S.D. and Loniza-Figueroa, F. (1986) Locations and stability of *Agrobacterium*-mediated T-DNA insertions in the lycopersicon genome Mol Gen Genet , 204 64-69
- Cohen, E. (1987) Chitin biochemistry synthesis and inhibition Annu Rev Entomol , 32 71-93
- Cohen, E. (1993) Chitin synthesis and degradation as targets for pesticide action Archives Insect Biochem Physiol , 22 245-261
- Conger, B.V., Hanning, G.E., Gray, D.J. and Mc Daniel, J.K. (1983) Direct embryogenesis from mesophyll cells of orchard grass Science, 221 850-851
- Cutt, J.R. and Klessig, D.F. (1992) Pathogenesis-related proteins In T Boller, F Meins (eds), Plant Gene Research, Genes involved in plant defense, Srrnger-Verlag Wein, NewYork, pp 210-243

- Daniell, H., Krishnan, M. and Mc Fadden, B.A. (1991)** Transient expression of beta-glucuronidase in different cellular components following biolistic delivery of foreign DNA into wheat leaves and calli Plant Cell Rep , 9 615-621
- Dayal, S., Lavanya, M., Devi, P. and Sharma, K.K. (2003)** An efficient protocol for shoot regeneration and genetic transformation of pigeonpea [*Cajanus cajan* (L) Millsp] using leaf explants Plant Cell Rep , (in Press)
- De Block, M., Botterman, J., Bandewick, M., Dockx, J., Thoen, C., Gossele, V., Rao, D., Movva, N., Thompson, C., Van Montagu, M. and Lecmans, I. (1987)** Engineering herbicide resistance in plants by expression of a detoxifying enzyme EMBO J, 6 2513-2518
- De Clereq, J., Zambre, M., Van Montagu, M., Dillen, W. and Angenon, G. (2002)** An optimized *Agrobacterium*-mediated transformation procedure for *Phaseolus acutifolius* A Gray Plant Cell Rep , 21 333-340
- de Condelle, A.P. (1985)** Origin of cultivated plants New York, pp 332-333
- De Framond, A.J., Back, E.W., Chilton, W.S., Kayes, L. and Chilton, M.D. (1986)** Two unlinked T-DNA's can transform the same tobacco plant cell and segregate in F1 generation Mol Gen Genet , 202 125-131
- De Jonge, A.J.R. and Bootsma, D. (1984)** Chromosome and DNA-mediated gene transfer in cultured mammalian cells Int Rev Cytol , 92 133-158
- Dekeyser, R., Claes, B., Marichal, M., Van Montagu, M. and Caplan, A. (1989)** Evaluation of selectable markers for rice transformation Plant Physiol , 90 217-223
- Depicker, A., Herman, L., Jacob, A., Schell, J. and Van Montagu, M. (1985)** Frequencies of simultaneous transformation with different T-DNAs and their relevance to the *Agrobacterium*/Plant cell interaction Mol Gen Genet , 201 477-484
- Dessaux, Y., Petit, A. and Tempe, J. (1992)** Opines in *Agrobacterium* biology In D P S Verma (ed), Molecular signals in plant-microbe communications, CRC press, Boca Raton, pp 109-136

- Devi, P. and Sticklen, M.B.** (2001) Culturing shoot-tip clumps of *Sorghum bicolor* (L.) Moench and optimal microprojectile bombardment parameters for transient expression J Cytol Genet , 2 89-96
- Devi, P. and Sticklen, M.B.** (2002) Culturing shoot-tip clumps of pearl millet [*Pennisetum glaucum* (L.) R Br] and optimal microprojectile bombardment parameters for transient expression Euphytica, 125 45-50
- Devi, P., Zhong, H. and Sticklen, M.B.** (2000) In vitro morphogenesis of pearl millet [*Pennisetum glaucum* (L.) R Br] Efficient production of multiple shoots and inflorescences from shoot apices Plant Cell Rep , 19 546-550
- Does, M.P. and Cornellissen, B.J.C.** (1996) Emerging strategies to control fungal diseases using transgenic plants In Proceedings of the second International crop science congress
- Dolendro, N.S., Lingaraj, S., Bhall Sarin, N and Jaiwal, P.K.** (2003) The effect of TDZ on organogenesis in pigeonpea (*Cajanus cajan* L. Millsp.) Plant Sci , 164 341-347
- Eapen, S. and George, L.** (1993) Plant regeneration from leaf discs of peanut and pigeonpea influence of benzyladenine, indoleacetic acid and indole acetic acid-amino acid conjugates Plant Cell Tissue Organ Cult , 35 223-227
- Eapen, S., Tivarekar, S. and George, L.** (1998) Thidiazuron induced shoot regeneration in pigeonpea (*Cajanus cajan* (L.) Millsp.) Plant Cell Tissue Organ Cult , 52 217-220
- Economou, A.S., and Maloupa, E.M.** (1995) Regeneration of *Elaeagnus angustifolia* from leaf segments of in vitro-derived shoots Plant Cell Tissue Organ Cult , 40 285-288
- Ellis, J.G. and Murphy, P.J.** (1981) Four new opines from crown gall tumors-their detection and properties Mol Gen Genet , 181 36-43
- Erlich, H.A., Gelfand, D.H., and Sakai, R.K.** (1988) Specific DNA amplification Nature, 331 461-462
- Escalona, M., Lorenzo, J.C., Gonza'lez, B., Daquinta, M., Gonza'lez, J.L. and Desjardins, Y.** (1999) Pineapple (*Ananas cosmosus* L. Merr) micropropagation in temporary immersion system Plant Cell Rep , 18 743-748

- Evans, D.A., Sharp, W.R. and Flick, C.E.** (1981) Growth and behaviour of cell cultures Embryogenesis and organogenesis Methods and applications in agriculture In T A Thorpe (ed), Plant tissue culture, McGraw Hill Publishers, New York, London, pp 45-113
- Feldmann, K.A. and Marks, M.D.** (1987) *Agrobacterium* mediated transformation of germinating seeds of *Arabidopsis thaliana* A non-tissue culture approach Mol Gen Genet , 208 1-9
- Ficcadenti, N. and Rotino, G.L.** (1995) Genotype and medium effect shoot regeneration of melon Plant Cell Tissue Organ Cult , 40 293-295
- Finer, J.J.** (1988) Apical proliferation of embryogenic tissue of soybean (*Glycine max* (L) Merrill) Plant Cell Rep , 7 238-241
- Finer, J.J.** (1994) Plant regeneration via embryogenic suspension cultures In R A Dexon, R A Gonzales (eds), Plant Cell Culture A practical approach, Oxford University Press, Oxford, pp 67-102
- Finer, J.J. and Mc Mullen, M.D.** (1991) Transformation of soybean via particle bombardment of embryogenic suspension culture tissue In Vitro Cell Dev Biol P , 27 175-182
- Fitch, M.M.M., Manshardt, R.M., Gonsalves, D., Slightom, J.L. and Sanford, J.C.** (1990) Stable transformation of papaya via microprojectile bombardment Plant Cell Rep , 9 189-194
- Flach, J., Pilet, P.E. and Jolles, P.** (1992) What's new in chitinase research? Experientia, 48 701-706
- Flores, B.E., Gentzbittel, L., Serieys, H., Alibert, G. and Sarrafi, A.** (1999) Influence of genotype and gelling agents on in vitro regeneration by organogenesis in sunflower Plant Cell Tissue Organ Cult , 59 65-69
- Fontanna, G.S., Santini, L., Caretto, S., Frugis, G. and Mariotti, D.** (1993) Genetic transformation in the grain legume *Cicer arietinum* L (chickpea) Plant Cell Rep , 12 194-198

- Fraley, R.T., Rogers, S.G., Horsch, R.B., Eichholtz, D.A., Flick, J.S., Fink, C.L., Hoffman, N.L. and Sanders, P.R.** (1985) The SEV system a new disarmed T₁ plasmid vector system for plant transformation *Biotechnology*, 3 629-635
- Fraley, R.T., Rogers, S.G., Horsch, R.B., Sanders, P.R., Flick, J.S., Adams, S.P., Bittner, M.L., Brand, L.A., Fink, C.L., Fry, J.S., Galluppi, G.R., Goldberg, S.B., Hoffman, N.L. and Woo, S.C.** (1983) Expression of bacterial genes in plant cells *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*, 80 4803-4807
- Gamborg, O.L. and Eveleigh, D.E.** (1968) Cultured methods and a detection of glucanases in suspension cultures of wheat and barley *Can J Biochem*, 46 417-421
- Gamborg, O.L. and Shyluk, J.P.** (1981) Nutrition, media and characteristics of plant cell and tissue culture In T A Thorpe (eds), *Plant tissue culture, Methods and applications in agriculture*, Academic Press, New York, pp 21-44
- Gamborg, O.L., Murashige, T., Thorpe, T.A. and Vasil, I.K.** (1976) Plant tissue culture media In *Vitro*, 12 473-478
- Gao, M., Murayama, H., Matsuda, N., Isuzugawa, K., Dandekar, A.M. and Nakano.** (2002) Development of *Agrobacterium*-mediated transformation of pear (*Pyrus communis* L.) with cotyledon explants and production of transgenic pears using ACC oxidase cDNA *Plant Biotechnol*, 19 319-327
- Garner, N., Van den Elzen, P. and Cornelliessen, B.J.C.** (1992) The potential for the control of fungal disease in crop plants using gene transfer technology *Biotech Intern*, 111
- Gaynor, J.J.** (1988) Primary structure of an endochitinase mRNA from *Solanum tuberosum* *Nucleic Acids Res*, 16 5210
- Geetha, N., Venkatachalam, P. and Laxmisita, G.** (1999) *Agrobacterium*-mediated Genetic transformation of pigeonpea (*Cajanus cajan* L.) and development of transgenic plants via direct organogenesis *Plant Biotechnol*, 16 213-218
- Geetha, N., Venkatachalam, P., Prakash, V. and Laxmisita, G.** (1998) High frequency induction of multiple shoots and plant regeneration from seedling explants of pigeonpea (*Cajanus cajan* (L.) Mill sp.) *Curr Sci*, 17 1036-1041
- George, L. and Eapen, S.** (1994) Organogenesis and embryogenesis from diverse explants in pigeonpea *Plant Cell Rep*, 13 417-497

- Gheysen, G., Angenon, G. and Van Montagu, M. (1998) *Agrobacterium*-mediated plant transformation a scientifically intriguing story with significant applications In K Lindsey (ed), Transgenic plant research, Harwood Academic Publishers, Netherlands, pp 1-33
- Gheysen, G., Van Montagu, M. and Zambryski, P. (1987) Integration of *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* transfer DNA (T-DNA) involves rearrangement of target plant DNA sequences Proc Natl Acad Sci USA , 84 6169-6173
- Gless, C., Lorz, H. and Gartner, A.J. (1998) Establishment of a highly efficient regeneration system from leaf base segment of oat (*Avena sativa* L) Plant Cell Rep , 17 441-445
- Goldfarb, B., Howe, G.T., Bailey, L.M., Strauss, S.H. and Zaerr, J.B. (1991) A liquid cytokinin pulse induces adventitious shoot formation from Douglas-fir cotyledons Plant Cell Rep , 10 156-160
- Gooday, G.W. (1990) The ecology of chitin degradation Advances Micro Ecol , 11 387-430
- Gosal, S.S. and Bajaj, Y.P.S. (1979) Establishment of callus tissue cultures and the induction of organogenesis in some grain legumes Crop Imp , 6 154-160
- Graham, L.S. and Sticklen, M.B. (1994) Plant chitinases Can J Bot , 72 1057-1083
- Grant, J.E., Cooper, P.A., Mc Ara, A.E. and Frew, T.J. (1995) Transformation of peas (*Pisum sativum* L) using immature cotyledons Plant Cell Rep , 15 254-258
- Green, C.E. and Phillips, R.L. (1975) Plant regeneration from tissue cultures of maize Crop Sci , 15 417-421
- Grisson, R., Grezer-Bresset, B. and Schneider, M. (1996) Field tolerance to fungal pathogens of *Brassica napus* constitutively expressing a chimeric chitinase gene Nature Biotechnol , 14 643-646
- Guohua, M. (1998) Effects of cytokinins and auxins on cassava shoot organogenesis from somatic embryogenesis from somatic embryo explants Plant Cell Tissue Organ Cult , 54 1-7
- Hadi, M.Z., Mc Mullen, M.D. and Finer, J.J. (1996) Transformation of 12 different plasmids into soybean via particle bombardment Plant Cell Rep , 15 500-505

- Hahlbrock, K. and Scheef, D.** (1987) Biochemical responses of plants to pathogens In I Chet (ed), Innovative approaches to plant disease control, Wiley, New York, pp 229-254
- Halperin, W.** (1966) Alternative morphogenetic events in cell suspensions Amer J Bot , 53 443-453
- Halperin, W.** (1969) Morphogenesis in cell cultures Annu Rev Plant Physiol , 20 395-418
- Halperin, W.** (1986) In I K Vasil (ed), Cell culture and somatic cell genetics of plants, Academic Press, New York, Vol 3, pp 3-47
- Hamill, J.D., Rounsley, S., Spencer, A., Todd, G. and Rhodes, M.J.C.** (1991) The use of the polymerase chain reaction in plant transformation studies Plant Cell Rep , 10 221-224
- Hamilton, R.I.** (1980) Defense triggered by previous invaders viruses In J G Horsefall, E B Cowling (eds), Plant disease An advanced treatise, Academic Press, NewYork, Vol 5, pp 279-303
- Hamilton, R.I** (1985) Using plant viruses for disease control Hort Sci , 22 848-852
- Hardegger, M., and Sturn, A.** (1998) Transformation and regeneration of carrot (*Daucus carota* L) Mol Breed , 4 119-127
- Harding, K., Benson, E.E. and Roubelakis-Angelakis, K.A.** (1996) Methylated DNA changes associated with initiation and maintenance of *Vitis vinifera* in vitro shoot and callus cultures A possible mechanism for age-related changes Plant Cell Rep , 35 79-85
- Haughn, G.W., Smith, J., Mazur, B. and Somerville, C.** (1988) Transformation with a mutant *Arabidopsis acetolactate synthase* gene renders tobacco resistant to sulfonylurea herbicides Mol Gen Genet , 211 266-271
- Hauptmann, R.M., Vasil, V., Ozias-Akins, P., Tabaeizadeh, Z., Rogers, S.G., Fraley, R. T., Horsch, R.B. and Vasil, I.K.** (1988) Evaluation of selectable markers for obtaining stable transformants in the *Gramineae* Plant Physiol 86 602-606
- Helmer, G., Casadaban, M., Bevan, M., Kayes, L. and Chilton, M.D.** (1984) A new chimeric gene as a marker for plant transformation The expression of *Escherichia coli* β -galactosidase in sunflower and tobacco cells Biotechnology, 2 520-525

- Herrera-Estrella, L., Deblock, M., Messens, E., Hernalsteens, J.P., Van Montagu, M. and Schell, J. (1983) Chimeric genes as dominant selectable markers in plants cells EMBO J, 2 987-995
- Herve', P., Jauneau, A., Pa'ques, M., Marien, J. N., Boudet, A.M. and Teulie'res, C. (2001) A procedure for shoot organogenesis in vitro from leaves and nodes of an elite *Eucalyptus gunnii* clone comparative histology Plant Sci , 161 645-653
- Hiei, Y., Ohta, S., Komari, T. and Kumashiro, T. (1994) Efficient transformation of rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) mediated by *Agrobacterium* and sequence analysis of the T-DNA Plant J , 6 271-282
- Hinchee, M.A.W., Conner-Ward, D.V., Newell, C.A., Mc Donnell, R.E., Sato, S.J., Gasser, C.S., Fischhoff, D.A., Re, D.B., Fraley, R.T. and Horsh, R.B. (1988) Production of transgenic soybean plants using *Agrobacterium*-mediated gene transfer Biotechnology, 6 923-926
- Hodges, T.K., Kamo, K.K., Imbrie, C.W. and Becwar, M.R. (1986) Genotype specificity of somatic embryogenesis and regeneration in maize Biotechnology, 4 219-223
- Hoekema, A., Hirsch, P.R., Hooykaas, P.J. and Schilperoort, R.A. (1983) A binary plant vector strategy based on separation of vir and T-region of the *A. tumefaciens* Ti-plasmid Nature, 303 179-181
- Hooykaas, P.J.J. and Beijersbergen, A.G.M. (1994) The virulence system of *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* Annu Rev Phytopathol , 33 529-534
- Horsh, R. B., Fry, J.E., Hoffman, N.L., Eichholtz, D., Rogers, S.G. and Fraley, R.T. (1985) A simple and general method for transferring genes into plants Science, 227 1229-1231
- Hossain, M., Rahman, S.M., Islam, R. and Joarder, O.I. (1993) High efficiency plant regeneration from petiole explants of *Carica papaya* L through organogenesis Plant Cell Rep , 13 99-102
- Hu, C.Y. and Wang, L. (1999). In Planta soybean transformation technologies developed in China Procedure, confirmation and field performance In vitro Cell Dev Biol P , 35 417-420

- Hu, C.Y., Chee, P.P., Chesney, R.H., Zhou, J.M., Miller, P.D. and O'Brien, W.T. (1990) Intrinsic gas like activities in seed plants Plant Cell Rep , 9 1-6
- Huang, L.C. and Murashige, T. (1977) Plant tissue culture media major constituents, their preparation and some application Tissue culture Ass Manual , 3 539-548
- Hulse, J.H. (1991) Nature, Composition, and utilization of grain legumes In Uses of tropical grain legumes Proceedings of a consultants meeting, ICRISAT center, India, pp 27-30
- Hunold, R., Burrus, M., Bronner, R., Duret, J.P. and Hahne, G. (1995) Transient gene expression in sunflower (*Helianthus annuus* L) following microprojectile bombardment Plant Sci , 105 95-109
- Ishida, Y., Saito, H., Ohta, S., Hiei, Y. and Komari, T. (1996) High efficiency transformation of maize (*Zea mays* L) mediated by *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* Nature Biotechnol , 14 745-750
- Jain, R.K., Choudary, J.B., Sharma, D.R. and Friedt, W. (1988) Genotypic and media effects on plant regeneration from cotyledon explant cultures of some *Brassica* species Plant Cell Tissue Organ Cult , 14 197-206
- Jaiwal, P. K., Kumari, R., Ignacimuthu, S., Potrykus, I. and Sautter, C. (2001) *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*-mediated genetic transformation of mungbean (*Vigna radiata* L Wilczek)-a recalcitrant grain legume Plant Sci , 161 239-247
- James, D.J., Passey, A.J., Barbara, D.J. and Bevan, M. (1989) Genetic transformation of apple (*Malus pumila* Mill) using a disarmed Ti-binary vector Plant Cell Rep , 7 658-661
- Jefferson, R.A. (1987) Assaying chimeric genes in plants The gus gene fusion system Plant Mol Biol Reptr , 5 387-405
- Jefferson, R.A. (1989) The GUS reporter gene system Nature, 342 37-838
- Jogenijk, K.E., Tigelaar, H., van Roekal, J.S.C., Bres-Vloemans, B.A., Dekkar, I., Peter, J.M., van den Elzen, P.J.M., Cornelissen, B.J.C. and Melchers, L.S. (1995) Synergistic activity of chitinases and β -1, 3-glucanases enhances fungal resistance in transgenic tomato plants Euphytica, 85 173-180
- Johansen, D.A. (1940) Plant Microtechnique, McGraw-Hill Book Co, New York, pp 523

- Jones, J.D.G.** (1986) Isolation and characterization of genes encoding two chitinase enzymes from *Serratia marcescens* EMBO J , 5 467-473
- Jones, J.D.G.** (1988) Expression of bacterial chitinase protein in tobacco leaves using two photosynthetic gene promoters Mol Gen Genet , 212 536-542
- Jones, J.D.G., Gilbert, D., Grady, K. and Jorgensen, R.** (1987) T-DNA structure and gene expression in petunia plants transformed by *Agrobacterium* C58 derivatives Mol Gen Genet , 207 478-485
- Jorgensen, R., Cluster, P., Que, Q., English, J. and Napoli, C.** (1996) Chalcone synthase co-suppression phenotypes in Petunia flowers comparison of sense vs antisense constructs and simple vs complex T-DNA sequences Plant Mol Biol , 31 957-973
- Jorgensen, R., Snyder, C. and Jones, J.D.G.** (1987) T-DNA is organized predominantly in inverted repeat structures in plants transformed with *Agrobacterium-tumefaciens* C58 derivatives Mol Gen Genet , 207 471-477
- Josphina, G., Niederwieser, J. and Van Staden.** (1990) The relationship between genotype, tissue age and endogenous cytokinin levels on adventitious bud formation on leaves of *Lachenalia* Plant Cell Tissue Organ Cult , 22 223-228
- Kamm, G.W., Spencer, T., Mangano, M., Adams, T.R., Daines, R.J., Start, W.G., O'Brien, J.V., Chambers, S.A., Adams, W.R. and Willetts, N.G.** (1990) Transformation of maize cells and regeneration of fertile transgenic plants Plant Cell, 2 603-618
- Kamo, K.K., Becwar, M.R. and Hodges, T.K.** (1985) Regeneration of *Zea mays* from embryogenic callus Bot Gaz , 146 327-334
- Kanyand, M., Desai, A.P. and Prakash, C.S.** (1994) Thidiazuron promotes high frequency regeneration of peanut (*Arachis hypogea*) plants in vitro Plant Cell Rep , 14 1-5
- Kar, S., Johnson, T.M., Nayak, P. and Sen, S.K.** (1996) Efficient transgenic plant regeneration through *Agrobacterium*-mediated transformation of chickpea (*Cicer arietinum* L) Plant Cell Rep , 16 32-37
- Karthikeyan, A.S., Sarma, K.S. and Veluthambi, K.** (1996) *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*-mediated transformation of *Vigna mungo* (L) Hepper Plant Cell Rep , 15 328-331

- Kawasaki, E.S.** (1990) Amplification of RNA In Innis (ed), PCR protocols A guide to methods and applications, Academic press, New York, pp 21-27
- Keen, N.T.** (1999) Plant disease resistance progress in basic understanding and practical application Adv Bot Res , 30 292-328
- Kelkar, S.M. and Krishnamurthy, K.V.** (1998) Adventitious shoot regeneration from root, internode, petiole and leaf explants of *Piper colubrinum* link Plant Cell Rep , 17 721-725
- Khanna, H.K. and Daggard, G.** (2003) *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*-mediated transformation of wheat using a super binary vector and a polyamine-supplemented regeneration medium Plant Cell Rep , 21 429-436
- Kim, J.W. and Minamikawa, T.** (1996) Transformation and regeneration of French bean plants by the particle bombardment process Plant Sci , 117 131-138
- Klein, T.M, Roth, B.A. and Fromm, M.E.** (1989) Regulation of anthocyanin biosynthesis genes introduced into intact maize tissues by microprojectiles Proc Natl Acad Sci USA , 86 6681-6685
- Konz, C., Olsson, O., Landrige, W.H.R., Shcell, J. and Szalay, A.A.** (1987) Expression and assembly of functional bacterial luciferase in plants Proc Natl Acad Sci USA , 84 131-138
- Koornneef, M., Hanhart, C. and Jongsma, M.** (1986) Breeding of a tomato genotype readily accessible to genetic manipulation Plant Sci , 45 201-208
- Kramer, K.J. and Koga, D.** (1986) Insect chitin Physical state, synthesis, degradation and metabolic regulation Insect Biochem , 16 851-877
- Kramer, K.J., Muthukrishnan, S., Johnson, L. and White, F.** (1997) Chitinase for insect control In N Carozzi, M Koziel, Taylor, P Francis (eds), Advances in insect control The role of transgenic plants, Washington DC, pp 185-193
- Krishnaveni, S., Jeoung, J-M., Muthukrishnan, S. and Liang, G.H.** (2001) Transgenic sorghum plants constitutively expressing a rice chitinase gene show improved resistance to stalk rot J Genet Breed , 55 151-158
- Krishnaveni, S., Muthukrishnan, S., Liang, G.H., Wilde, G. and Manickam, A.** (1999) Induction of chitinases and beta-1, 3-glucanases in resistant and sensitive cultivars of

- sorghum in response to insect attack, fungal infection and wounding *Plant Sci* , 144 9-16
- Kumar, A.S., Reddy, T.P. and Reddy, G.M. (1984) Multiple shoots from cultured explants of pigeonpea and *Atlyosia* species *SABRAO J*, 16 101-105
- Kumar, P.P., Rao, C.P. and Goh, C.J. (1998) Influence of petiole and lamina on adventitious shoot initiation from leaf explants of *Paulownia fortunei* *Plant Cell Rep* , 17 886-890
- Kumar, P.S., Subrahmanyam, N.C. and Farris, D.G. (1985) Plantlet regeneration from immature embryos of pigeonpea *Intl Pigeonpea News Lett* , 3 12- 15
- Kung, S.D. (1993) From green revolution to gene revolution In S D Kung, R Wu (eds), *Transgenic plants*, Academic press, San Diego, California, Vol2, pp 17-31
- Kuvshinov, V., Koivu, K., Kanera, A. and Pehu, E. (1999) *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*-mediated transformation of greenhouse grown *Brassica rapa ssp Oleifera* *Plant Cell Rep* , 18 773-777
- Lamb, C.J., Ryals, J.A., Ward, E.R. and Dixon, R.A. (1992) Emerging strategies for enhancing crop resistance to microbial pathogens *Biotechnology*, 10 1436-1445
- Lane, D.W., Iketani, H. and Hayashi, T. (1998) Shoot regeneration from cultured leaves of Japanese pear (*Pyrus pyrifolia*) *Plant Cell Tissue Organ Cult* , 54 9-14
- Lawrence, P.K. and Koundal, K.R. (2001) *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*-mediated transformation of pigeonpea (*Cajanus cajan* L Millsp) and molecular analysis of regenerated plants *Curr Sci* , 80 1428-1432
- Lawyer, F.C., Stoffel, S., Saiki, R., Myambo, K., Drummond, R. and Gelfand, D.H. (1989) Isolation, Characterization, and expression of *E coli* of the DNA polymerase from *Thermus aquaticus* *J Biol Chem* , 264 6427-6437
- Lazzeri, P.A., Hildebrand, D.F. and Collins, G.B. (1985) A procedure for plant regeneration from immature cotyledon tissue of soybean *Plant Mol Biol Repr* , 3 160-167
- Le Houerou, H.N. (1991) Forage species diversity in Africa an overview of the genetic resources In F Atter, H Zedan, N Q NG, P Perrino (eds), *Crop Genetic Resources of Africa*, International Board for Plant Genetic Resources, Rome, Italy, vol1, pp 99-117

- Lee, B.T., Murdoch, K., Topping, J., Jones, M.G.K. and Kreist, M.** (1991) Transient expression of foreign genes introduced into barley endosperm protoplasts by PEG-mediated transfer or into intact endosperm tissue by microprojectile bombardment *Plant Sci* , 78 237-246
- Lee, M. and Phillips, R.L.** (1988) The chromosomal basis of somaclonal variation *Annu Rev Plant Physiol Plant Mol Biol* , 39 413-437
- Lin, H.S., De Jen, M.J. and Jacobsen, E.** (1998) Formation of shoots from leaf axils of *Astroemeria* The effect of the position of the stem *Plant Cell Tissue Organ Cult* , 52 165-169
- Lin, W., Anuratha, C.S., Datta, K., Potrykus, I., Muthukrishnan, S. and Datta, S.K.** (1995) Genetic engineering of rice for resistance to sheath blight *Biotechnology*, 13 686 - 691
- Lindsey, K. and Yeoman, M.M.** (1985) Dynamics of plant cell cultures In I K Vasil (ed), *Cell culture and somatic cell genetics of plants*, Academic press, New York, Vol 2, pp 61-101
- Linsmaier, E.M. and Skoog, F.** (1965) Organic growth factors requirements for tobacco tissue culture *Physiol Plant* , 18 100-127
- Livingstone, D.M. and Birch, R.G.** (1995) Plant regeneration and microprojectile mediated gene transfer in embryonic leaflets of peanut (*Arachis hypogea* L.) *Aus J Plant Physiol* , 22 585-591
- Lowe, K., Bowen, B., Hoerster, G., Ross, M., Bond, D., Pierce, D. and Gordon-Kamm, B.** (1995) Germline transformation of maize following manipulation of chimeric shoot meristems *Biotechnology*, 13 679-682
- Lulsdorf, M.M., Rempel, H., Jackson, J.A., Baliski, D.S. and Hobbs, S.L.A.** (1991) Optimizing the production of transformed pea (*Pisum sativum* L.) callus using disarmed *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* strains *Plant Cell Rep* , 9 479-483
- Luthar, Z. and Bohance, B.** (1999) Induction of somatic organogenesis in onion (*Allium cepa* L.) using a two-step flower or ovary culture *Plant Cell Rep* , 18 797-802

- Mallik, K.A. and Saxena, P.** (1992) Somatic embryogenesis and shoot regeneration from intact seedlings of *Phaseolus acutifolius* A.P. aurens (L.) Wilezek, *P. coccineus* L., *P. vorghni* L. Plant Cell Rep, 11 163-168
- Manjula, S., Thomas, A., Daniel, B. and Nair, G.M.** (1997) In vitro plant regeneration of *Aristolochia indica* through axillary shoot multiplication and organogenesis Plant Cell Tissue Organ Cult, 51 145-148
- Mante, S., Morgens, P.H., Scorza, R., Cordts, J.M. and Callahan, A.M.** (1991) *Agrobacterium*-mediated transformation of plum (*Prunus domestica* L.) hypocotyl slices and regeneration of transgenic plants Biotechnology, 9 853-857
- Mauch, F., Hadwiger, L.A. and Boller, T.** (1984) Ethylene symptom, not signal for the induction of chitinase and β -1,3-glucanase in pea pods by pathogens and elicitors Plant Physiol, 76 607 - 611
- Mc William, A.A., Smith, S.M. and Street, H.E.** (1974) The origin and development of embryoids in suspension culture of carrot (*Daucus carota*) Ann Bot, 38 243-250
- McCabe, D.E. and Martinell, B.J.** (1993) Transformation of elite cotton cultivars via particle bombardment of meristems Biotechnology, 11 596-598
- McCabe, D.E., Swain, W.F., Martinell, B.J. and Christou, P.** (1988) Stable transformation of soybean (*Glycine max*) by particle acceleration Biotechnology, 6 923-926
- McCown, B.H., Zeldin, E.L., Pinkalla, H.A. and Dedolph, R.R.** (1988) Nodule culture a developmental pathway with high potential for regeneration, automated micropropagation, and plant metabolite production from woody plants In D E Keathley, J W Hanover, (eds), Genetic Manipulation of Woody Plants, Plenum Press, New York, pp 149-166
- McKently, A.H., Moore, G.A. and Gardner, F.P.** (1991) Regeneration of peanut and perennial peanut from seed explants Crop Sci, 31 833-837
- Mehta, V. and Mohan Ram, H.Y.** (1980) Regeneration of plantlets from the cotyledons of *Cajanus cajan* Ind Exp Biol, 18 800-802
- Meijer, E.G. and Brown, D.C.** (1987) A novel system for rapid high frequency somatic embryogenesis in *Medicago sativa* Physiol Plant, 69 591-596

- Meinns, F. and Jr, Binns, A.N. (1979) Cell differentiation in plant development Bioscience, 29 221-225
- Merkle, S.A., Parrott, W.A. and Williams, E.G. (1990) Applications of somatic embryogenesis and embryo cloning In S S Bhojwani (ed), Plant Tissue culture Applications and limitations, Elsevier, Amsterdam, pp 67-102
- Miller, C. O., Skoog, F., von Saltza, M. H. and Strong, F. M. (1955) Kinetin, a cell division factor from deoxyribonucleic acid J Amer Chem Soc , 77 1392
- Mithila, J., Hall, J.C., Victor, J.M.R. and Saxena, P.K. (2003) Thidiazuron induces shoot embryogenesis at high concentrations on leaf and petiole explants of African violet (*Saintpaulia ionantha* Wendl) Plant Cell Rep , 21 408-414
- Mohan, M.L. and Kirshnamurthy, K.V. (1998) Plant regeneration in pigeonpea (*Cajanus cajan* (L) Mill sp) by organogenesis Plant Cell Rep , 17 705-710
- Moloney, M.M., Walker, J.M. and Sharma, K.K. (1989) High efficiency transformation of *Brassica napus* using *Agrobacterium* vectors Plant Cell Rep , 8 38-242
- Monti, L.M. (1992) The role of biotechnology in agricultural research In G Thottupally, L M Monti, D R Mohan Raj, A W Moore (eds), Biotechnology Enhancing research in Africa Technical centre for Agricultural and rural co-operation, pp 1-9
- Morel, G. and Muller, J.R. (1964) La culture in vitro du méristème apical de la pomme de terre C R Acad Sci , (Paris), 258 5250-5252
- Morgan, T.H. (1901) Regeneration Macmillan Co , New York
- Morrish, F., Sondstand, D.D., Armstrong, C.L. and Fromm, M. (1993) Microprojectile bombardment A method for the production of transgenic cereal crop plants and functional analysis of genes In A Hiatt (ed), Transgenic Plants, Fundamentals and applications, Marcel Dekker, New York, pp 133-171
- Mullis, K.B. (1990) The unusual origin of the polymerase chain reaction Sci Amer , 262 56-65
- Murashige, T. and Skoog, F. (1962) A revised medium for rapid growth and bioassay with tobacco tissue culture Physiol Plant , 15 473-497

- Muthukrishnan, S., Liang, G.H., Trick, H.N. and Gill, B.S.** (2001) Pathogenesis-related proteins and their genes in cereals *Plant Cell Tissue Organ Cult* , 64 93-114
- Muthukumar, B., Mariamma, M. and Gnanam, A.** (1995) Regeneration of plants from primary leaves of cowpea *Plant Cell Tissue Organ Cult* , 42 152-155
- Nehra, N.S., Stushnoff, C. and Kartha, K.K.** (1989) Direct shoot regeneration from strawberry leaf disks *J Amer Soc Hort Sci* , 114 1014-1018
- Nene, Y.L. and Sheila, V.K.** (1990) Pigeonpea geography and importance In Y L Nene, S D Hall, V K Sheila (eds), *The Pigeonpea*, CAB, Wallingford, UK, pp 1-14
- Nene, Y.L., Sheila, V.K. and Sharma, S.B.** (1989) A World list of chickpea (*Cicer arietinum* L) and pigeonpea (*Cajanus cajan* (L) Millsp) pathogens *Legume pathology progress report-7* Patancheru, A P, India
- Nene, Y.L., Sheila, V.K. and Sharma, S.B.** (1996) A World list of chickpea and pigeonpea pathogens, 5th edn ICRISAT, Patancheru, India, pp 27 (Semi-formal publication)
- Niederwieser, J.G. and Van Staden, J.** (1990) The relationship between genotype, tissue age and endogenous cytokinin levels and formation of leaves of *Lachenalia* *Plant Cell Tissue Organ Cult* , 22 223-225
- Nishizawa, Y. and Hibi, T.** (1991) Rice chitinase gene cDNA cloning and stress induced gene expression *Plant Sci* , 76 211-218
- Nishizawa, Y., Kishimoto, N., Saito, A. and Hibi, T.** (1993) Sequence variation, differential expression and chromosomal location of rice chitinase genes *Mol Gen Genet* , 241 1-10
- Normura, K. and Komanine, A.** (1985) Identification and isolation of single cells that produce somatic embryos at a high frequency in a carrot suspension culture *Plant Physiol* , 79 988-991
- Novak, F.J., Afza, R., Van Duren, M., Perea-Kallos, M., Longer, B.V. and Xiolang, T.** (1989) Somatic embryogenesis and plant regeneration in suspension cultures of dessert (AA and AAA) and cooking (ABB) banana (*Musa* spp) *Biotechnology*, 7 154-159
- Nutter, R., Everett, N. and Pierce, D.** (1987) Factors affecting the level of kanamycin resistance in transformed sunflower cells *Plant Physiol* , 84 1185-1192

- Nyochemberg, L.M. and Garton, S. (1998) Plant regeneration from cocoyam callus derived from shoot tips and petioles Plant Cell Tissue Organ Cult , 53 127-134
- Old, R.W. and Primrose, S.B. (1994a) The impact of recombinant DNA technology the generation of novelty In R W Old, S B Primrose (eds), Principles of gene manipulation, Blackwell Science, London, pp 369-407
- Old, R.W. and Primrose, S.B. (1994b) Basic techniques In R W Old, S B, Primrose (eds), Principles of gene manipulation, Blackwell Science, London, pp 6-21
- Orlikowska, T., Nowak, E., Marasek, A. and Kucharska, D. (1999) Effects of growth regulators and incubation period on in vitro regeneration of adventitious shoots from gerbera petioles Plant Cell Tissue Organ Cult , 59 95-102
- Ow, D.W., Wodd, K.V., De Luca, M., De Wet, J.R., Helinski, D.R. and Howell, S.H. (1986) Transient and stable expression of the firefly luciferase gene in plant cell and transgenic plants Science, 234 856-859
- Ozcan, S. (1995) Transient expression of *gus* gene delivered into immature cotyledons of pea by microprojectile bombardment T J Bot , 19 423-426
- Parrott, W.A., Bailey, M.A., Durham, R.E. and Mathews, H.V. (1992) Tissue culture and regeneration in legumes In J P Moss (ed), Biotechnology in crop improvement in Asia, pp 115-148
- Patel, D.B., Barve, D.M., Nagar, N. and Mehta, A.R. (1994) Regeneration of pigeonpea, *Cajanus cajan*, through somatic embryogenesis Ind Exp Biol , 32 740-744
- Pawlowski, W.P. and Somers, D.A. (1996) Transgene inheritance in plants genetically engineered by microprojectile bombardment Mol Biotechnol , 6 17-30
- Pederson, G.A. (1986) In vitro culture and somatic embryogenesis of four *Trifolium* species Plant Sci , 45 101-104
- Pegg, G.F. and Yenng, D.H. (1981) Changes in glycosidase activity ad their relationship to fungal colonization during infection of tomato by *Verticillium albo-atrum* Physiol Plant Pathol , 19 371-382

- Petit, A., Berkaloﬀ, A. and Tempe, J. (1986) Multiple transformation of plant cells by *Agrobacterium* may be responsible for the complex organization of T-DNA in crown gall and hairy root Mol Gen Genet , 202 383-388
- Phillip, J.H. and Stewart, G.S.A.B. (1992) The polymerase chain reaction in molecular and microbiology Biotech Genet Eng Rev , 10 343-377
- Phinney, B.O. (1984) Gibberellins vs dwarfism and the control of shoot elongation in higher plants In A Coozier, S R Hilman (eds), The biosynthesis and metabolism of plant hormones, Cambridge University Press, pp 17-41
- Pierik, R.L.M. (1987,) Vegetative propagation In In vitro culture of higher plants Martinus Nijhoff Publishers 183-230
- Pietrzak, M., Shillito, R.D., Hohn, T. and Potrykus, L. (1986) Expression in plants of two bacterial antibiotic resistance genes after protoplast transformation with a new plant expression vector Nucleic Acids Res , 14 5857-5868
- Pletikapic', B.K. and Buturovic'-Deric,' Z. (1995) Regeneration of *Picea omarika* plants via organogenesis Plant Cell Tissue Organ Cult , 41 189-192
- Porebski, S., Bailey, G.L. and Baum, B.R. (1997) Modification of a CTAB DNA extraction protocol for plants containing high polysaccharide and polyphenol components Plant Mol Biol Rept , 15 8-15
- Potrykus, I. (1990) Gene transfer to cereals An assessment Biotechnology, 8 535-542
- Potrykus, I., Saul, M.W., Petruska, J., Paszkowski, J. and Shillito, R.D. (1985) Direct gene transfer to cells of *Graminae* monocot Mol Gen Genet , 199 183-188
- Puonti-Kaerlas, J., Errikson, T. and Engstrom, P. (1990) Production of transgenic pea (*Pisum sativum* L.) plants by *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* mediated gene transfer Theor Appl Genet , 80 246-252
- Raghavan, V. (1986) Embryogenesis in angiosperms In A Developmental and experimental study, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, pp 115-151
- Ramesh, T. and Baldev, B. (1994) Callusing response of epicotyl and leaf explants of pigeonpea Ind J Plant Physiol , 37 53-55

- Ranch, J. and Pace, G.M.** (1988) Science in the art of plant regeneration from cultured cells an essay and a proposal for a conceptual framework *Iowa State J Res* , 62: 537-569
- Rathore, S.R. and Chand, L.** (1997) In vitro transformation of pigeonpea genotypes by wild strains of *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* *International Chickpea and Pigeonpea Newslett* 4 38-39
- Ray, D.P.** (2003) Pesticidal pollution of environment In K B Chaudhary (ed), *Farmers' Forum*, Everest Press, New Delhi, India, pp 26-27
- Reddy, M.V., Raju, T.N. and Lenne, J.M.** (1998) Diseases of pigeonpea In D J Allen, J M Lenne (eds), *The pathology of food and pasture legumes*. University press, Cambridge, pp 517-552
- Reddy, M.V., Reddy, D.V.R. and Sacks, W.R.** (1994) Epidemiology and management of sterility mosaic disease of pigeonpea In *Proceedings of the International symposium rose rosette and other Eriophyid mite-transmitted plant disease agents of uncertain etiology*, 19-21 may 1994, Iowa State University, Ames, Iowa, USA, pp 29-32
- Reddy, M.V., Sharma, S.B. and Nene, Y.L.** (1990) Pigeonpea disease management In Y L Nene, S D Hall, V K Sheila (eds), *The pigeonpea*, CAB, Wallington, UK, pp 303-347
- Reena, M.J.T., Nambiar, P.T.C., Moss, J.P., Saatri, D.C. and Mohiuddin, M.** (1992) Tissue culture and wide crosses in pigeonpea In J P Moss (ed), *Biotechnology and crop improvement in Asia* International crops research institute for semi-arid tropics, Patancheru, AP, India, pp 163-164
- Ritala, A., Aspergren, K., Kurten, U., Salmenkallio-Marttila, M., Mannonen, L., Hannus, R., Kanppinen, V., Teeri, T.H. and Enari, T.M.** (1994) Fertile transgenic barley by particle bombardment of immature embryos *Plant Mol Biol* , 24 317-325
- Ritchie, S.W. and Hodges, T.K.** (1993) Cell culture and regeneration of trasgenic plants In S D Kung, R Wu (eds), *Transgenic plants, Engineering and utilization*, Academic Press, Voll, pp 147-178
- Roberts, G.A.F.** (1992) *Chitin chemistry* MacMillan Press, London

- Robinson, R.A. (1996) Return to Resistance In R A Robinson (eds), Breeding crops to reduce pesticide dependence agAccess Davis, California in association with International Development Research center, Ottawa, pp 113-118
- Rommens, C.M. and Kishore, G.M. (2000) Exploiting the full potential of disease-resistance genes for agricultural use Curr Opin Biotech , 11 120-125
- Ruiz-Herrera, J. (1992) Fungal cell wall structure, synthesis, and assembly Boca Raton, FL CRC Press
- Russell, D.A., Deboer, D.L., Stark, D.M., Preiss, J. and Fromm, M.E. (1993a) Plasmid targeting of *E coli* β -glucuronidase and ADP-glucose pyrophosphorylase in maize (*Zea mays* L) cells Plant Cell Rep , 13 24-27
- Russell, D.R., Wallace, K.M., Bathe, J.H., Martinell, B.J. and McCabe, D.E. (1993c) Stable transformation of *Phaseolus vulgaris* via electric discharge mediated particle acceleration Plant Cell Rep , 12 165-169
- Russell, K. J. (1993b) The biolistic PDS-1000/He device Plant Cell Tissue Organ Cult , 33 221-226
- Ryan, C.A. (1988) Oligosaccharides as signals for the expression of defensive genes in plants Biochemistry, 27 8879-8883
- Sagare, A.P., Suhasini, K., Naidu, R.B., Kulkarni, D.D., Gadbole, D.A. and KrishnaMurthy, K.V. (1997) Legumes research at NCL- an overview In G A Ravi Shankar, L V Venkataraman (eds), Biotechnological applications of plant tissue and cell culture, IBH Publishers, New Delhi, India, pp 49-58
- Saha, T., Ghosh, M. and Sen, S.K. (1999) Plant regeneration from cotyledonary explants of jute, *Corchorus capsularis* L Plant Cell Rep , 18 544-548
- Saini, R., Pawan, K. and Jaiwal, P. K. (2002) Age, position in mother seedling, orientation, and polarity of the epicotyl segments of blackgram (*Vigna mungo* L Hepper) determines its morphogenic response Plant Sci , 163 101- 109
- Samantaray, S. and Das, P. (1997) Regeneration of plants via somatic embryogenesis from leaf base and leaf tip segments of *Echinocloa colona* Plant Cell Tissue Organ Cult , 47 119-125

- Samantaray, S., Rout, G.R. and Das, P. (1995)** In vitro plant regeneration from leaf base and mesocotyl cultures of *Echinochloa colona* Plant Cell Tissue Organ Cult , 40 37-41
- Sambrook, J., Fritsch, E.F. and Maniatus, T. (1989)** Molecular cloning. A laboratory manual, Second edition, Cold spring harbor laboratory press, New York
- Sanago, M.H.M., Shattuck, V.I. and Stommer, J. (1996)** Rapid plant regeneration of pea using thidiazuron Plant Cell Tissue Organ Cult , 45 165-168
- Sanford, J.C. (1990)** Biolistic plant transformation Physiol Plant , 79 206-209
- Sanford, J.C., Klein, T.M., Wolf, E.D. and Allen, N. (1987)** Delivery of substances into cells and tissues using a particle bombardment process Particulate Sci Tech , 5 27-37
- Sangwan, R.S., Bourgeois, Y., Brown, S., Vasseur, G. and Sangwan-Norreel, B. (1992)** Characterization of competent cells and early events of *Agrobacterium*-mediated genetic transformation in *Arabidopsis thaliana* Planta, 188 439-456
- Santarem, E.R. and Finer, J.J. (1999).** Transformation of soybean [*Glycine max* (L) Merrill] using proliferate embryogenic tissue maintained on semi-solid medium In vitro Cell Dev Biol P , 35 451-455
- Schaart, J.G., Salentijn, E.M.J. and Krens, F.A. (2002)** Tissue-specific expression of the β -gluronidase reporter gene in transgenic strawberry (*Fragaria x ananasa*) plants Plant Cell Rep , 21 313-319
- Schell, J., Van Montagu, M., De Beuckeleer, M., De Block, M., Depicker, A., De Wilde, M., Engler, G., Genetello, C., Hernalsteens, J.P., Holsters, M., Seurinck , J., Silva, B.S., Van Vliet, F. and Villarroel, R. (1979)** Interactions and DNA transfer between *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*, the Ti-plasmid and the plant host Proceedings of the Royal Society of London, 204 251-266
- Schnall, J.A. and Weissinger, A.K. (1993)** Culturing peanut (*Arachis hypogaea* L) zygotic embryos for transformation via microprojectile bombardment Plant Cell Rep , 12 316-319
- Schopke, C., Taylor, N.J., Carramo, R. and Beachy, R.N. (1997)** Optimuzation of parameters for particle bombardmnet of embryogenic suspension cultures of casava (*Manihot ecsulenta* (rantz) Plant Cell Rep , 16 526-530

- Seki, M., Komeda, V., Iida, A., Yamada, Y. and Morikawa, H. (1991a) Transient expression of beta-glucuronidase in *Arabidopsis thaliana* leaves and roots and *Brassica napus* stems using a pneumatic particle gun Plant Mol Biol , 17 259-263
- Seki, M., Shigemoto, N., Komeda, Y., Imamura, J. and Morikawa, H. (1991b) Transgenic *Arabidopsis thaliana* plants obtained by particle bombardment mediated transformation Appl Microbiol Biotechnol , 36 228-230
- Sela-Brurlage, M.B., Ponstein, A.S., Bros-Vloemans, S.A., Melchers, L.S., Vanden Slen, P.J.M. and Cornellissen, B.J.C. (1993) Only specific tobacco (*Nicotiana tabacum*) chitinase and β -1,3-glucanase exhibit antifungal activity Plant Physiol , 101 859-863
- Sellars, R.M., Southward, G.M. and Phillips, G.C. (1990) Adventitious somatic embryogenesis from cultured immature zygotic embryos of peanut and soybean Crop Sci , 30 408-414
- ShamaRao, S.H.K. and Narayanswamy, S. (1975) Effect of gamma irradiation on cell proliferation and regeneration in explanted tissues of pigeonpea (*Cajanus cajan* (L.) Mill sp) Rad Bot , 15 301-305
- Shapira, R., Ordentlich, A., Chet, I. and Oppenheim, A.B. (1989) Control of plant diseases by chitinase expressed from cloned DNA in *Escherichia coli* Phytopathology , 79 1246-1249
- Sharma, K.K. and Anjaiah, V. (2000) An efficient method for the production of transgenic plants of peanut (*Arachis hypogea* L.) through *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*-mediated genetic transformation Plant Sci , 159 7-19
- Sharma, K.K. and Ortiz, R. (2000) Program for the application of genetic transformation for crop improvement in the semi-arid tropics In vitro Cell Dev Biol P , 36 83-92
- Sharma, K.K. and Thorpe, T.A. (1989) In vitro regeneration of shoot buds and plantlets from seedling root segments of *Brassica napus* L Plant Cell Tissue Organ Cult , 18 129-141
- Sharma, K.K., Bhojwani, S.S. and Thorpe, T.A. (1990a) Factors affecting high frequency differentiation of shoots and roots from cotyledon explants of *Brassica juncea* (L.) Czern Plant Sci , 66 247-253

- Sharma, K.K., Bhojwani, S.S. and Thorpe, T.A. (1990b)** Role of cotyledonary tissue in the in vitro differentiation of shoots and roots from cotyledon explants of *Brassica juncea* (L.) Plant Cell Tissue Organ Cult , 24 55-59
- Shinshi, H., Mohnen, D. and Meins, F. (1987)** Regulation of a plant pathogenesis related enzyme Inhibition of chitinase and chitinase mRNA accumulation in cultured tobacco tissue by auxin and cytokinin Proc Natl Acad Sci USA , 84 89-93
- Shiva Prakash, N., Pental, D. and Bhalla-Sarin, N. (1994)** Regeneration in pigeonpea (*Cajanus cajan* (L.) Millsp) from cotyledonary node via multiple shoot formation Plant Cell Rep , 13 623-627
- Shoemaker, R.C. and Counce, L.T. (1986)** Characterization of somatic embryogenesis and plant regeneration in cotton (*Gossypium hirsutum* L.) Plant Cell Rep , 3 178-181
- Skoog, F. (1944)** Growth and organ formation in tobacco cultures Amer J Bot , 31 19-24
- Skoog, F. and Miller, S. (1957)** Chemical regulation of growth and organ formation in plant tissue cultured in vitro Symp Soc Exp Biol , 11 118-140
- Slabbert, M.M., de Bruyn, M.H., Ferreira, D.I. and Pretorius, J. (1995)** Adventitious in vitro plantlet formation from immature floral stems of *Crinum macowanii* Plant Cell Tissue Organ Cult , 43 51-57
- Smith, E.F. and Townsend, C.O. (1907)** A plant tumor of bacterial origin Science, 25 671-673
- Speilmann, A. and Simpson, R.B. (1986)** T-DNA structure in transgenic tobacco plants with multiple gene integration sites Mol Gen Genet , 206 436-440
- Sreenivasu, K., Malik, S.K., Ananda Kumar, P. and Sharma, R.P. (1998)** Plant regeneration via somatic embryogenesis in pigeonpea (*Cajanus cajan* (L.) Millsp) Plant Cell Rep , 17 294-297
- Stoeger, E., Fink, C., Pfosser, M. and Heberle-Bore, E. (1995)** Plant transformation by particle bombardment of embryogenic pollen Plant Cell Rep , 14 273-278
- Subrahmanyam, N.C., Kumar, P.S. and Farris, D.G. (1988)** Tissue culture approaches to pigeonpea improvement In Biotechnology in tropical crop improvement Proceedings

- of the International Biotechnology Workshop 12-15 January 1987 ICRISAT center, India, Patancheru, AP, India, ICRISAT
- Sujatha, M. and Reddy, T.P.** (1998) Differential cytokinin effects on the stimulation of in vitro shoot proliferation from meristematic explants of castor (*Ricinus communis* L.) *Plant Cell Rep*, 17 561-566
- Sunpui, W. and Kanchanapoom, K.** (2002) Plant regeneration from petiole and leaf of African violet (*Saintpaulia ionantha* Wendl.) cultured in vitro *Songklanakarn J Sci Technol*, 24 357-364
- Suslow, T.V., Matsubara, D., Jones, I., Lee, R. and Dunsmuir, P.** (1988) Effect of expression of bacterial chitinase on tobacco susceptibility to leaf brown spot *Phytopathology*, 78 1556
- Sva'b, Z., Hajdukiewicz, P. and Maliga, P.** (1990) Stable transformation of plastids in higher plants *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*, 87 8526-8530
- Snyder, W.C. and Hansen, H.N.** (1940) The species concept in *Fusarium* *Amer J Bot*, 27 64-67
- Tabei, Y., Nishio, T., Kurihara, K. and Kanno, T.** (1994) Selection of transformed callus in a liquid medium and regeneration of transgenic plants in cucumber (*Cucumis sativus* L.) *Breed Sci*, 44 47-51
- Takano, T., Li, T., Kaneda, Y. and Kitamura, K.** (1996) Lowering the content of an allergic protein through efficient transformation in soybean seed Report of the soy protein Research committee Japan, 17 14-18
- Tavladoraki, P., Benvenuto, E., Trinca, S., De Martinis, D., Cattaneo, A. and Galeffi, P.** (1993) Transgenic plants expressing a functional single-chain Fv antibody are specifically protected from virus attack *Nature*, 366 469-472
- Te-Chato, S. and Lim, M.** (1999) Plant regeneration of mangosteen via nodular callus formation *Plant Cell Tissue Organ Cult*, 59 89-93
- Terakawa, T., Takaya, N., Horiuchi, J., Koike, M. and Takagi, M.** (1997) A fungal chitinase gene from *Rhizopus oligosporus* confers antifungal activity to transgenic tobacco *Plant Cell Rep*, 16 439-443
- Thomas, E. and Davey, M.R.** (1975) From single cell to plants Wykeham London

- Thomashow, M.F., Nutter, R., Montoyo, A.L., Gordon, M.P. and Nester, E.W.** (1980) Integration and organization of Ti-plasmid sequences in crown gall tumors *Cell*, 19 729-739
- Thompson, C.J., Movva, N.R., Tizzard, R., Cramer, R., Davies, J.E., Lawyereys, M. and Botterman, J.** (1987) Characterization of the herbicide-resistance gene bar from *Streptomyces hygroscopicus* *EMBO J*, 6 2519-2523
- Thorpe, T.A.** (1993) In vitro organogenesis and somatic embryogenesis Physiological and biochemical aspects In K A Roubelakis-Angelakis, K Tran Thanh Van (eds), Morphogenesis in plants, Plenum press, New York, pp 19-38
- Thu, T.T., Mai, T.T.X., Dewaele, E., Farsi, S., Tadesse, Y., Angenon, G. and Jacobs, M.** (2003) In vitro regeneration and transformation of pigeonpea [*Cajanus cajan* (L.) Millsp] *Mol Breed*, 11 159-168
- Toenniessen, G.** (1993) Advantages of biotechnology over plant breeding methods In C You, Z Chen, Y Ding (eds), Biotechnology in agriculture, Kluwer academic Publishers, pp 125-129
- Tomes, D.T., Weissinger, A.K., Ross, M., Higgins, R., Drummond, B.J. and Schaff, S.** (1990) Transgenic tobacco plants and their progeny derived by microprojectile bombardment of tobacco leaves *Plant Mol Biol*, 14 261-268
- Torregrosa, L. and Bouquet, A.** (1996) Adventitious shoot bud formation and shoot development from in vitro leaves of *Vitis x Muscadina hybrida* *Plant Cell Tissue Organ Cult*, 45 245-252
- Torrey, J.G.** (1966) The initiation of organized development in plants *Adv Morphogen*, 5 39-91
- Tran Thanh Van, K.M.** (1981) Control of morphogenesis in in vitro cultures *Annu Rev Plant Physiol*, 32 291-311
- Trieu, A.T. and Harrison, M.J.** (1996) Rapid transformation of *Medicago trunculata* Regeneration via shoot organogenesis *Plant Cell Rep*, 16 6-11

- Vain, P., Yean, H. and Flament, P.** (1989) Enhancement of production and regeneration of embryogenic type II class in *Zea mays* L. by AgNO₃ Plant Cell Tissue Organ Cult , 18 143-151
- Van den Elzen, P.J.M., Townseed, J., Lec, K.Y. and Bedbrook, J.R.** (1985) A chimeric Hygromycin resistance gene as a selectable marker in plant cells Plant Mol Biol , 5 299-302
- Van der Maesen, L.J.G.** (1980) India is the native home of the Pigeonpea Miscellaneous papers 19, Wageningen Mendedelingen Handbonwhogeschool, pp 257-263
- Van Eck, J.M. and Kitto, S.L.** (1992) Regeneration of piperment and orange unit from leaf disks Plant Cell Tissue Organ Cult , 30 41-49
- Van Haaren, M.J.J., Sedee, N.J.A., Krul, M., Schilperoot, R.A. and Hooykaas, P.J.J.** (1988) Function of heterologous and pseudo border repeats in T region transfer via the octopine virulence system of *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* Plant Mol Biol , 11 773-781
- Vandequin-Dranart, V., Petit, A., Poneet, C., Ponsonnet, C., Nesme, X., Jones, J.B., Bouzar, H., Chilton, W.S. and Dessaux, Y.** (1995) Novel T_i plasmids in *Agrobacterium* strains isolated from fig tree and chrysanthemum tumors and their opine like molecules Mol Plant- Microbe Interact , 8 311-321
- Varsha, R.K.D., Luthra, R. and Kumar, S.** (1996) Microprojectile mediated plant transformation A bibilographic search Euphytica, 95 269-294
- Vasil, I.K.** (1988) Progress in the regeneration and genetic manipulation of cereal crops Biotechnology, 6 397-402
- Vasil, I.K. and Hildebrandt, A.C.** (1965) Differentiation of tobacco plants from single isolated cells, microcultures Science, 150 889-890
- Vasil, I.K. and Vasil, V.** (1986) Regeneration in cereal and other grass species In I K Vasil (ed), Cell culture and somatic cell genetics of Plants, Academic press, New York, Vol3, pp 121-150
- Vierheilig, H., Alt, M., Neuhas, J.M., Boller, T. and Wiekknken, A.** (1993) Colonization of transgenic *N sylvestris* plants, expressing different forms of *N tobacum* chitinase by

- the root pathogen *Rhizoctonia solani* and by the mycorrhizal symbiont, *Glomus mossean* Mol Plant Microbe Interact , 6 261-264
- Von Arnold, S. and Wallin, A. (1988) Tissue culture methods for clonal propagation of forest trees IAPTC News Lett , 56 2-13
- Voss, A., Niersbach, M., Hain, R., Hirsch, H.J., Liao, Y.C., Kreuzaler, F. and Fischer, R. (1995) Reduced virus infectivity in N-tobacco secreting a tmv-specific full size antibody Mol Breed , 1 39-50
- Walden, R. (1989) Genetic transformation in plants Single wood cliffs, New Jersey, Prentice Hall
- Waldron, C., Murphy, E.B., Roberts, J.L., Gustafson, G.D., Armour, S.L and Malcom, S.K. (1985) Resistance to hygromycin B A new marker for plant transformation studies Plant Mol Biol , 5 103-108
- Wallroth, M., Gerats, A.G., Rogers, S.G., Fraley, R.T. and Horsch, B. (1986) Chromosomal localization of foreign genes in *Petunia hybrida* Mol Gen Genet , 202 6-16
- Walters, D.A., Vetsch, C.S., Potts, D.E. and Lundquist, R.C (1992) Transformation and inheritance of *Hygromycin phosphotransferase* gene in maize plants Plant Mol Biol , 18 189-200
- Wang, V.C., Klein, T.M., Fromm, M., Cao, J., Sanford, J.C. and Wu, R. (1988) Transient expression of foreign gene in rice, wheat, and soybean cells following particle bombardment Plant Mol Biol , 11 433-439
- Wang, Y., Novak, G., Culley, D., Hadwiger, C.A. and Fris-tensky, B. (1999) Constitutive expression of pea defense gene DRR206 confers resistance to black leg (*Leptosphaeria maculans*) disease in transgenic Canola Mol Plant Microbe Interact , 12 410-8
- Watad, A.A., Yun, D.J., Niu, M.X., Wu, Y., Kononowicz, A.K. and Bressan, R.A. (1998) Microprojectile bombardment mediated transformation of *Lilium longiflorum* Plant Cell Rep , 17 262-267
- Welander, M. (1988) Plant regeneration from leaf and stem segments of shoots raised in vitro from mature apple trees J Plant Physiol , 132 738-744
- White, P.R. (1942) Plant Tissue Culture Annu Rev Biochem , 11 615-628

- White, P.R.** (1963) The cultivation of animal and plant cells 2nd Ed, Ronald Press, New York
- Williams, E.G. and Maheswaran, G.** (1986) Somatic embryogenesis factors influencing coordinated behaviour of cells as an embryogenesis group *Ann Bot* , 57 443-462
- Wu, R.** (1989) Methods for transforming plant cells In S D Kung, C J Arntzen (eds), *Plant Biotechnology*, Butterworths, Boston, pp 35-51
- Yadav, D.S.** (1991) Constrains in production of pulses In D S Yadav, *Pulse crops (Production Technology)*, Kalyani Publishers, New Delhi, pp 24-31
- Yadav, R.C., Mohamed, S.T. and Grumet, R.** (1996) High frequency shoot regeneration from leaf explants of musk melon *Plant Cell Tissue Organ Cult* , 45 207- 214
- Yan, B., Srinivasa Reddy, M.S., Collins, G.B. and Dinkins, R.D.** (2000) *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* mediated transformation of soybean (*Glycine max* (L) Merrill) using immature zygotic cotyledon explants *Plant Cell Rep* , 19 1090-1097
- Yang, S.N.** (1993) Transgenic plants from legumes In S D Kung, R Wu (eds), *Transgenic plants*, Academic press, San Diego, California, Vol2, pp 79-100
- Yepes, L.M. and Aldwinkle, H.S.** (1994) Factors that effect leaf regeneration efficiency in apple and effect of antibiotics in morphogenesis *Plant Cell Tissue Organ Cult* , 37 257-269
- Yun, D.J., Bressan, R.A. and Hasegawa, P.M.** (1997) Plant antifungal proteins *Plant Breed Rev* , 14 39 68
- Žaenen, I., Van Larebcke, N., Teuchy, H., Van Montagu, M. and Schell, J.** (1974) Super coiled circular DNA in crown gall inducing *Agrobacterium* strains *J Mol Biol* , 86 109-127
- Zambryski, P., Depicker, A., Kruger, K. and Goodman, H.** (1982) Tumour induction by *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* analysis of the boundaries of T-DNA *J Mol Appl Genet* , 1 363 – 370
- Zambryski, P., Joos, H., Genetello, C., Leemans, J., Van Montagu, M. and Schell, J.** (1983) T₁-Plasmid vector for the introduction of DNA into plant cells without alteration of their normal regeneration capacity *EMBO J*, 2 2143 – 2150

- Zhang, Z., Coyne, D.P. and Mitra, M. (1997)** Optimuzation of parameters influencing biolistic DNA transformation of common bean Bean Improvement cooperative, USA, 40, pp 7-8
- Zhong, H., Sun, B., Warkentin, D., Zhang, S., Wu, R., Wu, T. and Sticklen, M.B. (1996)** The competence of maize shoot meristems for integrative transformation and inherited expression of transgenes Plant Physiol , 110 1097-1107
- Zhu, H., Krishnaveni, S., Liang, G.H. and Muthukrishnan, S. (1998)** Biolistic transformation of sorghum using a rice chitinase gene J Genet Breed , 52 243-252

TABLES

Table 1. Shoot bud induction from leaf explant of pigeonpea when cultured on MS medium containing TDZ and IAA*.

Culture media**	No of explants cultured	No explants forming shoots (mean \pm SE)	% explants forming shoots	Morphology of the explant
0 (Control)	24	0 0	0 0	Green
TI	24	0 0	0 0	Pale yellow
TI - 1	24	0 0	0 0	Pale yellow
TI - 2	24	0 0	0 0	Pale yellow

* The results were recorded at the end of 3 wk

** MS basal medium supplemented with TDZ and IAA

T I (9 0 μ M TDZ) + (0 54 μ M IAA)

T I-1 (9 08 μ M TDZ) + (1 14 μ M IAA)

T I-2 (11 35 μ M TDZ) + (1 14 μ M IAA)

Table 2. Effect of cytokinin in combination with auxin on shoot bud induction from leaf explant*.

Culture media**	No of explants cultured	Fresh wt of the callus (mg)	Dry wt of the callus (mg)	No of explants with callus (mean±SE)	No of shoots per responding explant (mean±SE)	% explants responding for shoot formation	Morphology of the calluses
0 (Control)	24	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	Callus was not formed
BN1	24	0 2863	14 1	23 3±0 2	0.66±0.4	2.7	Light green friable
BN2	24	0 1664	8 1	23 3±0 4	0 0	0 0	Light green friable
BN3	24	0 1361	25 6	23 7±0 2	0 0	0 0	Dark green, hard compact
BN4	24	0 5116	12 2	24 0±0 0	0 0	0 0	Dark green, hard compact

*The results were recorded at the end of 4 wk

**MS medium supplemented with various concentrations of BA and NAA

BN1 = BA (4 44 µM) + NAA (0 54 µM)

BN2 = BA (11 09 µM) + NAA (1 07 µM)

BN3 = BA (15 33 µM) + NAA (1 61 µM)

BN4 = BA (22 18 µM) + NAA (1 07 µM)

Table 3. The effect of BA, kinetin and 2-iP supplemented to the MS medium on shoot bud induction from leaf explants of in vitro germinated seedlings of pigeonpea*.

Media	Growth regulators (μM)			No of explants cultured	Explants producing shoots (mean \pm SE)	% explants forming shoots
	kinetin	BA	2-iP			
0 (Control)	0.0	0.0	0.0	30	0.0	0.0
C1	5.0	10.0	0.0	30	15.0 \pm 0.7	50.0
C2	5.0	7.5	0.0	30	20.5 \pm 0.4	68.3
C3	5.0	5.0	0.0	30	28.5 \pm 0.4	95.0
C4	5.0	2.5	0.0	30	26.5 \pm 0.4	88.3
C5	5.0	1.0	0.0	30	22.0 \pm 0.4	73.3
C6	5.0	0.0	0.0	30	24.5 \pm 0.4	81.7
K1	10.0	5.0	0.0	30	15.0 \pm 0.7	50.0
K2	7.5	5.0	0.0	30	23.5 \pm 0.4	78.3
K3	5.0	5.0	0.0	30	27.0 \pm 0.7	90.0
K4	2.5	5.0	0.0	30	20.5 \pm 0.4	68.3
K5	1.0	5.0	0.0	30	22.0 \pm 0.4	73.3
K6	0.0	5.0	0.0	30	23.5 \pm 0.4	78.3
P1	10.0	0.0	5.0	30	25.5 \pm 0.4	85.0
P2	7.5	0.0	5.0	30	21.0 \pm 0.7	70.0
P3	5.0	0.0	5.0	30	18.5 \pm 0.4	61.7
P4	2.5	0.0	5.0	30	17.5 \pm 0.4	58.3
P5	1.0	0.0	5.0	30	21.5 \pm 0.4	71.1
P6	0.0	0.0	5.0	30	20.5 \pm 0.4	68.3
I1	5.0	0.0	10.0	30	11.0 \pm 0.7	36.7
I2	5.0	0.0	7.5	30	21.0 \pm 0.4	70.0
I3	5.0	0.0	5.0	30	23.5 \pm 0.4	78.3
I4	5.0	0.0	2.5	30	10.5 \pm 0.4	35.0
I5	5.0	0.0	1.0	30	13.5 \pm 0.4	45.0
I6	5.0	0.0	0.0	30	21.5 \pm 0.4	71.7

* The results were recorded at the end of 3 wk.

Table 4. Shoot bud formation from different explants, cultured on shoot induction medium consisting of MS + 5.0 μ M BA + 5.0 μ M kinetin*.

Explant	No of explants cultured	No of explants developing callus (mean \pm SE)	No of explants with shoot buds (mean \pm SE)	% explants developing shoots
Epicotyl	24	24 0 \pm 0 0	0 0	0 0
Hypocotyl	24	23 7 \pm 0 2	0 0	0 0
Embryonal axes	24	23 3 \pm 0 2	0 0	0 0
Leaf lamina with out petiole	24	24 0 \pm 0 0	0 0	0 0
Leaf with half cut lamina and petiole	24	23 0 \pm 0 3	1 7 \pm 0 5	6 9
Leaf with lamina and petiole	24	0 0	23.0\pm0.3	95.83

* The observations were recorded at the end of 3 wk

Table 5. Shoot bud regeneration from leaf explants of the in vitro germinated seedlings of various donor genotypes of pigeonpea after culture on shoot induction medium comprising of MS + 5.0 μ M BA + 5.0 μ M kinetin*.

Genotype	Duration type	No of explants cultured	No of explants producing shoot buds	% explants producing shoot buds
ICPL 91011	Extra short	39	24	61.5
ICPL 88009	Short	39	16	41.0
ICPL 84031	Short	42	25	59.2
ICPL 87091	Short	50	31	62.0
ICPL 87	Short	73	52	71.2
ICPL 88039	Short	54	45	83.3
ICPL 2376	Medium	77	34	44.2
ICPL 87051	Medium	57	31	54.4
ICPL 332	Medium	35	19	54.3
ICPL 85063	Medium	69	44	63.8
ICPL 87119	Medium	35	23	65.7

* The observations were recorded at the end of 2 wk

Table 6. Influence of the size of lamina on shoot bud induction from the petiolar region of the leaf explant of in vitro germinated seedlings of pigeonpea, cultured on shoot induction medium consisting of MS + 5.0 μ M + 5.0 μ M kinetin*.

Size of the lamina	No. of explants cultured	No. of explants producing shoot buds	% explants producing shoot buds
Leaf with full lamina	30	27	90.0
Leaf with $\frac{1}{2}$ lamina	30	26	86.6
Leaf with $\frac{1}{4}$ lamina	30	22	73.3
Leaf with no lamina	30	6	20.0

*The observation on response of the explant to shoot bud formation was recorded after 12 d

Table 7. Effect of GA₃ on the elongation of adventitious shoot buds. MS was used as a basal medium.

<u>Growth regulators (μM)</u> BA kinetin GA ₃			No of explants cultured	No of explants with elongated shoots (mean±SE)	% explants with elongated shoots	Morphology of the elongated shoots
Control•			24	0 0	0 0	Rosette shoots
2 5	2 5	2 89	24	2 7±0 6	11 11	Thin, weak shoots and tip curled
-	-	2 89	24	2 7±0 2	11 11	Thin, weak shoots and tip curled
-	-	2 31	24	3 0±0 3	12 5	Thin, lean, weak shoots
-	-	1 71	24	3 7±0 5	15 3	Weak shoots
-	-	1 51	24	9 0±0 3	37 5	Weak shoots
-	-	0 58	24	23,3±0.5	88.9	Healthy strong shoots

*The observations on explant with elongated shoots were recorded after 1 wk

• MS basal medium supplemented with 2 5 μM BA + 2 5 μM kinetin

Table 8. Effect of IBA on the regeneration of adventitious roots, on elongated shoots. MS was used as basal medium *.

IBA (μM)	No of elongated shoots cultured for rooting	No of shoots forming roots (mean \pm SE)	% shoots forming roots
0 (Control)	24	0 0	0 0
4 90	24	0 0	0 0
3 94	24	0 0	0 0
2 95	24	0 0	0 0
1 97	24	0 7 \pm 0 2	2 7
0 98	24	2.0 \pm 0.4	2.7

* The observation for the root development was recorded after 3 wk

Table 9. Effect of IAA on the regeneration of adventitious roots. MS was used as basal medium *.

IAA (μM)	No. of elongated shoots placed for rooting	No. of shoots forming roots (mean \pm SE)	% shoots forming roots
0 (Control)	24	0.0	0.0
7.56	24	0.0	0.0
6.85	24	0.0	0.0
5.71	24	0.3 \pm 0.2	0.0
4.57	24	1.0 \pm 0.3	1.3
3.42	24	1.0 \pm 0.3	4.2
2.28	24	2.3 \pm 0.2	4.2
1.14	24	4.3 \pm 0.2	9.7
**11.42 with pulse treatment	24	12.7 \pm 0.8	18.1
11.42 second subculture	24	16.0 \pm 0.3	52.8
11.42 third subculture	24	21.0\pm0.3	87.5

*The observations on elongated shoots developing roots were recorded at the end of 15 d.

**Pulse treatment was given to the freshly cut elongated shoots by placing the shoots in 11.42 μM IAA solution for 30 to 60 sec and later transferring them to MS basal medium with 1% sucrose.

Table 10. Effect of sucrose on rooting of the regenerated shoots cultured on MS basal medium with 1.14 μ M IAA*.

% of sucrose	No of shoots placed for rooting	No of explants forming roots (mean \pm SE)	% shoots forming roots
0 (control)	24	0 0	0 0
3	24	4 3 \pm 0 2	18 1
2	24	6 7 \pm 0 2	27 8
1	24	11.0\pm0.3	45.8

*The observation on the shoots for rooting after first sub-culture was recorded at the end of 3 wk

Table 11. Effect of the method of sterilization of BA, kinetin, GA₃ and IAA for the production of in vitro regenerated plantlets*.

Culture medium**	Stages of regeneration	Method of sterilization	No of explants cultured	No of explants responded (mean \pm SE)	% explants responded
SIM	Shoot induction	Autoclaved	24	17.7 \pm 0.2	73.6
		Filter sterilized	24	23.7\pm0.2	98.6
SDM	Shoot bud differentiation	Autoclaved	24	16.0 \pm 1.0	66.7
		Filter sterilized	24	23.3\pm0.4	97.2
SEM	Shoot elongation	Autoclaved	24	14.3 \pm 0.7	59.7
		Filter sterilized	24	21.3\pm0.5	88.9
RIM	Root induction	Autoclaved	24	4.3 \pm 0.2	18.1
		Filter sterilized	24	21.0\pm0.3	87.5

*The observations were recorded at the end of 2 wk

**MS basal medium supplemented with the following combinations of growth regulators

SEM (MS + 5.0 μ M BA + 5.0 μ M kinetin)

SDM (MS + 2.5 μ M BA + 2.5 μ M kinetin)

SEM (MS + 0.58 μ M GA₃)

RIM [MS basal medium with 1% sucrose (shoots were pulse treated with 11.42 μ M IAA)]

Table 12. Effect of kanamycin on explants surviving selection. Untransformed leaf explant cultured on MS medium containing 5.0 μ M BA + 5.0 μ M kinetin*.

Kanamycin (mg/L)	No of explants cultured	No of explants surviving selection	% explants surviving selection
0 (control)	72	72	$\frac{72}{72} \times 100 = 100$
25	72	70	97.2
50	72	67	93.3
75	72	62	86.1
100	72	57	79.2
125	72	36	50.0
150	72	26	30.0

*The observations were recorded based on the phenotypic response of explant to kanamycin after 3 wk

Table 13. Effect of different parameters for microprojectile-mediated gene transfer on the recovery of putative transformants*.

Parameter	No of explants bombarded	No of explants responded for shoot regeneration			% explants producing shoots
		Rep1	Rep2	Rep3	
Bombardment distance (cm)					
Control (not bombarded)	400	396	394	398	99 00
6	400	386	390	383	96 58
8	400	384	396	384	97 0
Pressure of helium gas (psi)					
Control (not bombarded)	400	397	393	398	99 00
1100	400	393	387	382	96 83
1300	400	396	385	382	96 92

The observations were recorded at the end of 3 wk

*The plasmid used for bombarding the explants was pRT99GUS RChit

Table 14. Effect of selection on kanamycin for the recovery of putative transformed shoots after microprojectile bombardment*.

Kanamycin (mg/L)	No of explants cultured	No of explants which could not regenerate after selection (mean \pm SE)	% explants which could not regenerate after selection
25 ^a	74	1 3 \pm 0 4	5 5
50 ^b	70	3 3 \pm 0 2	13 9
75 ^c	57	4 3 \pm 0 2	18 1
100 ^d	40	7 0 \pm 0 3	29 2

The observations were recorded at the end of 3 wk

*The plasmid used for bombarding the explants was pRT99GUS RChit

a \rightarrow 1/2 strength shoot induction medium consisting of MS + 5 μ M BA + 5 μ M kinetin supplemented with 25 mg/L kanamycin

b \rightarrow MS basal medium containing 0.58 μ M GA₃ supplemented with 50 mg/L kanamycin

c \rightarrow MS basal medium containing 0.58 μ M GA₃ supplemented with 75 mg/L kanamycin

d \rightarrow MS basal medium containing 0.58 μ M GA₃ supplemented with 100 mg/L kanamycin

Table 15. Inheritance of *uidA* gene in T₁ generation of transgenic pigeonpea plants

Plant No. ¹	No of T ₁ plants tested	PCR analysis of <i>uidA</i> gene		3:1 segregation*
		No of plants +ve	No of plants -ve	χ^2
P1	5	3	2	0.60
P2	5	3	2	0.60
P3	5	5	0	1.67
P5	5	2	3	1.65
P6	5	4	1	0.03
P7	5	3	2	0.60
P8	5	4	1	0.03
P13	5	1	4	4.03*

¹ P1, P2, P3, P5, P6, P7, P8, P13 are independent T₀ plants and seeds of 5 replicates were taken from the above independent transgenic plants for inheritance studies in T₁ generation

*Significant at 5 % probability at 1 Degrees of freedom, where tabulated χ^2 value is 3.841

Table 16. Inheritance of *uidA* gene in T₂ generation of transgenic pigeonpea plants

T ₁ plant*	No of T ₂ plants tested	PCR analysis of <i>uidA</i> gene		3:1 segregation
		No of plants +ve	No of plants -ve	χ^2
P1	4	4	0	1.33
P8	4	3	1	0.00

*1 and 8 are independent T₂ plants, 1 to 4 plants are the replicates of the above independent transgenic plants

Table 17. Summary of the molecular analysis of the putative transformants of pigeonpea belonging to T₀, T₁ and T₂ generations produced through microprojectile-mediated gene transfer method

	PCR			Southern blot analysis	
	<i>uidA</i>	<i>nptII</i>	<i>RCht</i>	<i>nptII</i>	<i>RCht</i>
No of T ₀ plants analysed (P1 to P18)	17	18	10	8	11
No of +ve T ₀ plants	16	18	8	5	6
No of -ve T ₀ plants	1	0	2	3	5
No of T ₁ plants analysed (Progeny of P1 to P8 and P13)	40	-	-	-	16
No of +ve T ₁ plants	25	-	-	-	3
No of -ve T ₁ plants	10	-	-	-	13
No of T ₂ plants analysed (Progeny of P1, P8, P9 and P10)	8 (P1 and P8)	8 (P1 and P8)	16 (P1, P8, P9 and P10)	-	16 (P1, P8, P9 and P10)
No of +ve T ₂ plants	7	7	3	-	8
No of -ve T ₂ plants	1	1	13	-	8

FIGURES

Figure 1. Different stages of shoot regeneration from the proximal cut end of the petiolar region of leaf explant of pigeonpea (arrows indicate the differentiation of the shoot buds at the petiolar region leaf explant).

- A. Leaf explants cultured on MS basal medium supplemented with 5 μ M BA + 5 μ M kinetin with abaxial side of the explant in contact with the medium.
- B. Swelling of the petiolar region after 5 d.
- C. Small protuberances from the proximal cut end of the petiole after 7 d.
- D. Leaf explant with half cut lamina in shoot development medium.
- E. Formation of multiple shoot bud from the petiolar region after 14 d.
- F. Multiple shoot formation after 21 d of culture.

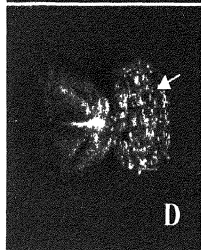
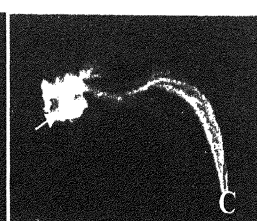
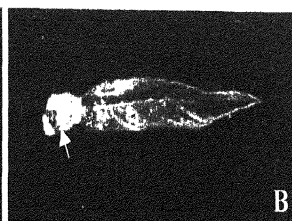
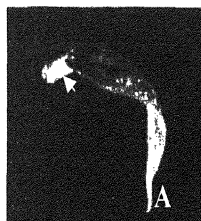


Figure 2. Elongation and rooting of shoots obtained from leaf explants of in vitro raised seedlings of pigeonpea after culture on MS basal medium containing GA₃ and IAA.

- A. Multiple shoot development from leaf explants cultured on MS medium fortified with 0.58 μ M GA₃.
- B. Elongation of individual shoots cultured on MS medium supplemented with 0.58 μ M GA₃.
- C. Formation of adventitious roots from elongated shoot after culture on MS basal medium supplemented with 1% sucrose.

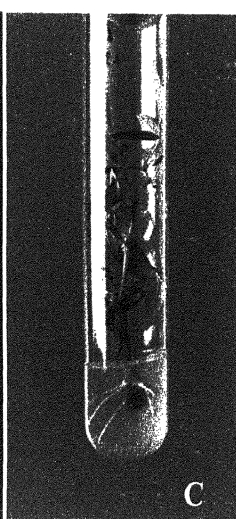
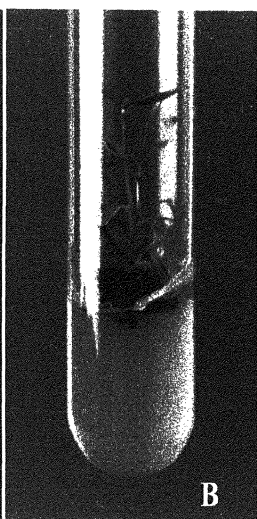
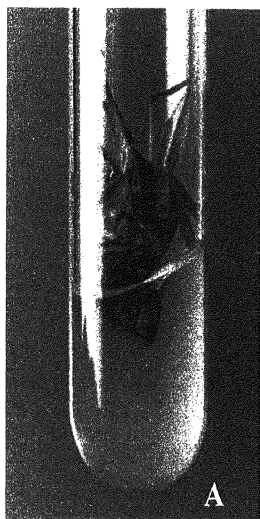


Figure 3A-K. Sequential events in the regeneration of multiple shoots from leaf explants derived from in vitro germinated seedlings of pigeonpea, (arrows indicate the petiolar cut end undergoing shoot bud differentiation).

A. Leaf explants at d 0 cultured on MS medium supplemented with 5.0 μM BA and 5.0 μM kinetin (SIM). **B.** Enlargement and swelling of the petiolar region within 5 d of the culture on SIM. **C.** Initiation of adventitious shoot buds from leaf explants from the swollen tissue of the petiolar cut end observed after 7 d on SIM. **D.** Differentiation of multiple shoot buds after 8 d from the petiolar cut end. At this stage, the explants with reduced lamina are ready for transfer to reduced SIM for shoot development. **E.** Proliferation of the shoot buds after 10 d on SIM. **F.** Development of shoot buds into shoots after 12 d on reduced SIM. **G.** Formation of multiple shoots after 2 wk on reduced SIM. **H.** Explant bearing multiple shoots placed on shoot elongation medium (SEM) containing MS supplemented with 0.58 μM GA₃ for shoot elongation after 7 d. **I.** A rooted pigeonpea plant on MS containing 1.14 μM IAA (RIM) after 3 wk ready for transplantation. **J.** A well-established and hardened plant successfully transplanted to the glasshouse at 4 wk. **K.** In vitro produced plants after 2 months in the glass house showing growth, flower production, and pods that contain viable seeds.

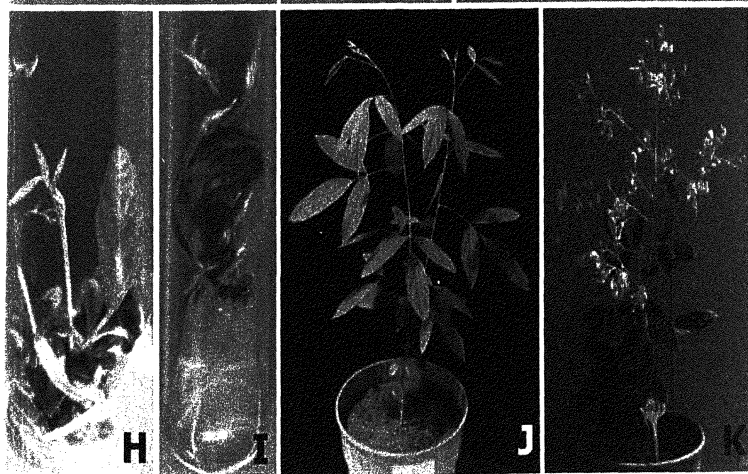
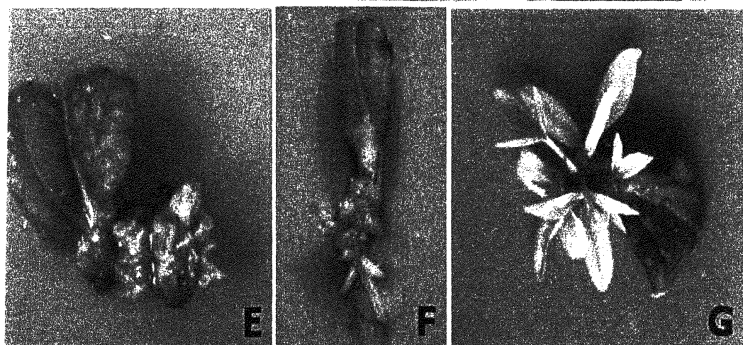
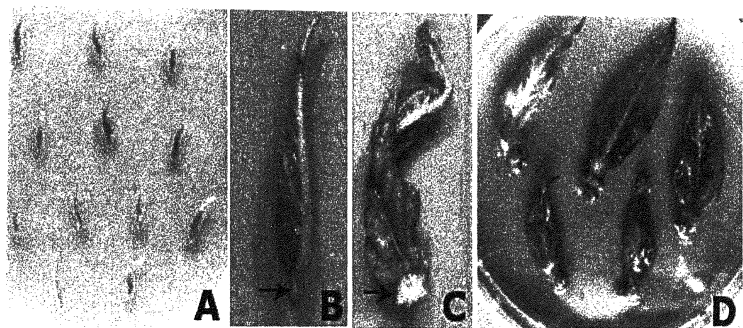


Figure 4. Effect of the age of leaf explant donor seedlings on the regeneration of multiple adventitious shoots in pigeonpea. Sixty explants were cultured on shoot induction medium containing MS basal medium supplemented with 5 μ M BA + 5 μ M kinetin.

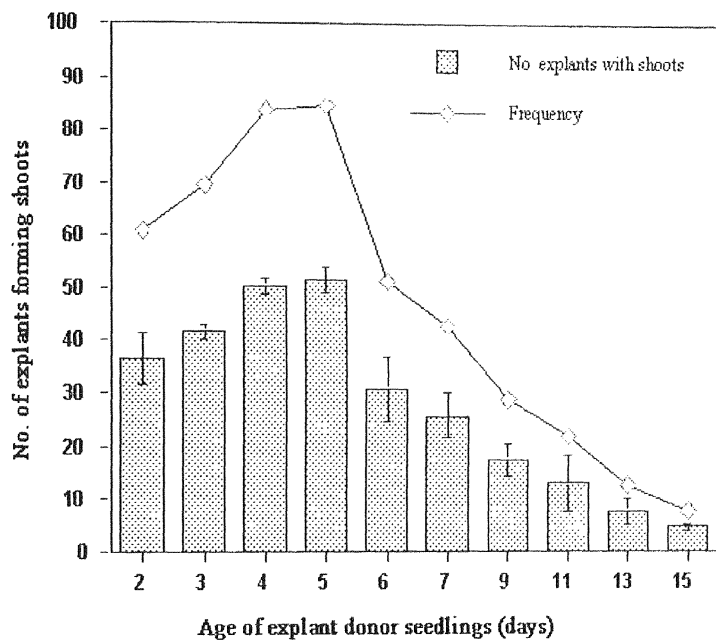


Figure 5A-H. Ontogeny of shoot bud formation from the proximal cut end region of the petiole of leaf explant of pigeonpea during 0 to 6 d on SIM containing MS basal medium supplemented with 5 μ M BA + 5 μ M kinetin.

A. Transverse section of the petiole 0 d showing epidermis and cortical cells and vascular parenchyma cells (arrow). **B.** Transverse section of the petiole 0 d exhibiting cut end of the petiole (arrow). **C.** Transverse section of the petiole of 2-d-old culture in which the formation of actively dividing cells (arrow) was observed in the cortical region. **D.** Transverse section of the petiole of 2-d-old culture expressing the anticlinal and periclinal divisions in the actively dividing cells (arrow). **E, F.** Transverse section of 4-d-old petiole exhibiting starch filled (arrow) in the dividing cells. **G.** Transverse section of 6-d-old petiole showing the demarcation of dividing and non-dividing cells in the cortical region leading to the formation of meristematic zones (arrow). **H.** Transverse section of 6-d-old petiole expressing the formation of meristemoids (arrows).

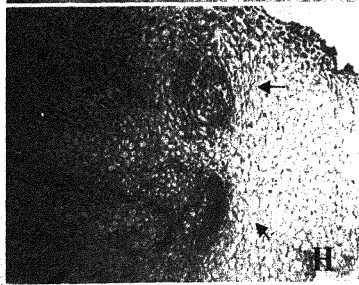
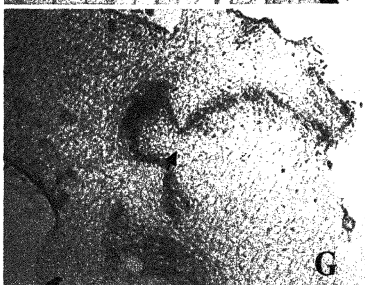
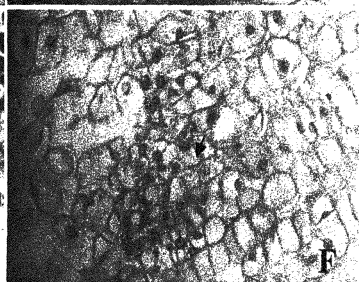
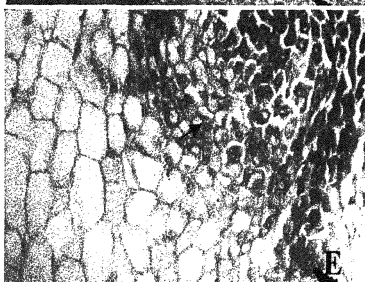
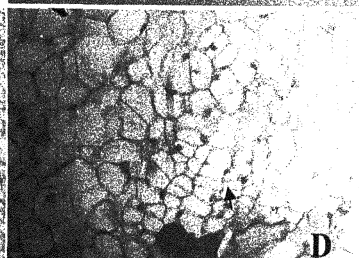
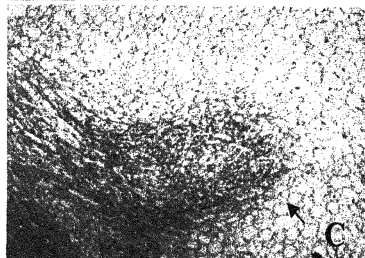
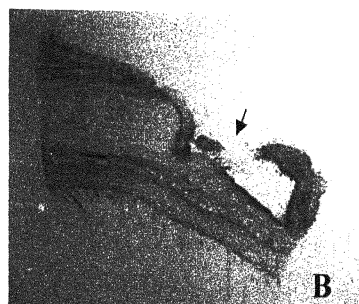
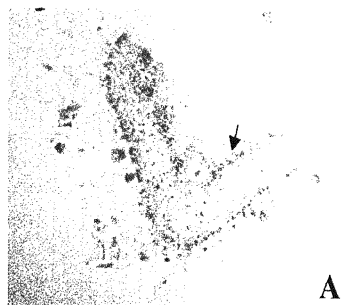


Figure 5I-P. Ontogeny of shoot bud formation from the proximal cut end region of the petiole of leaf explant of pigeonpea during 8 to 14 d on SIM containing MS basal medium supplemented with 5 μ M BA + 5 μ M kinetin.

I. Formation of the meristematic nodules at the cut of the petiolar region (arrow) of the transverse section of 8-d-old petiole. **J.** Formation of the actively dividing cells in the epidermal and sub epidermal region (arrow) of cut end of the petiole. **K.** Withering of the cells (arrows) observed near the meristematic regions of the transverse section of 10-d-old petiole. **L** Transverse section of 10-d-old petiole expressing the initiation of the leaf primordium (arrows) at the proximal cut end of the petiole. **M, N.** Transverse section of 12-d-old petiole exhibiting the collapsing of the cells (arrows) in the meristematic nodular region. **O, P** Transverse section of 14-d-old petiole showing clear differentiation of leaf primordium (arrows).

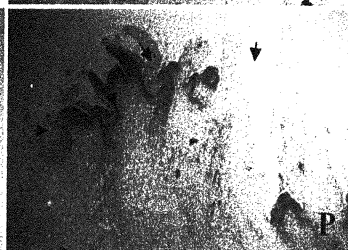
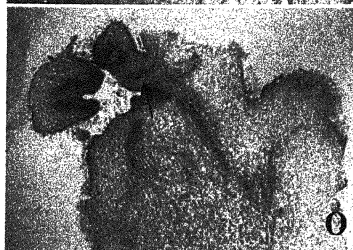
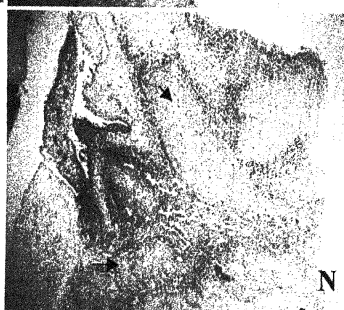
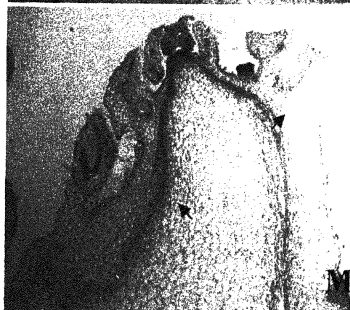
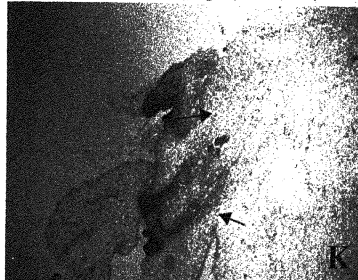
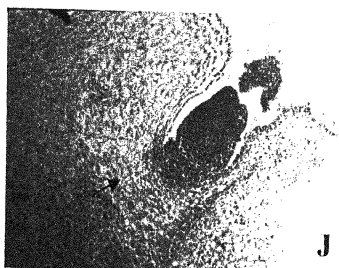
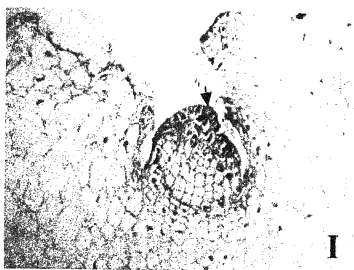


Figure 6. Restriction map of the plasmid used for microprojectile-mediated transformation of leaf explants from in vitro germinated seedlings of pigeonpea. Plasmid construct pRT99GUS:RChit used for microprojectile bombardment has marker genes such as *npII* and *uidA*, and *RChit*, as candidate gene under the control of a constitutive promoter CaMV 35S and polyA terminator.

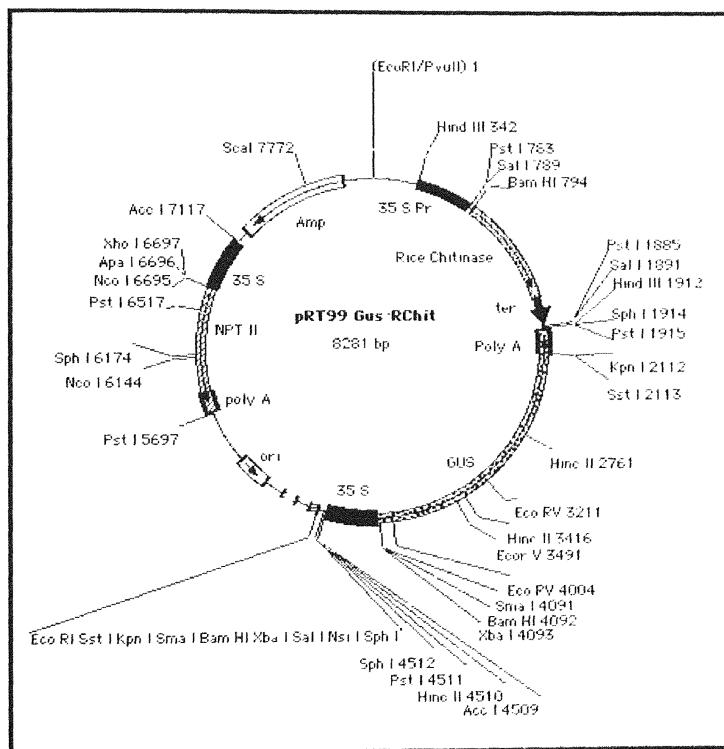


Figure 7. Arrangement of the leaf explant for microprojectile bombardment on a petri-plate

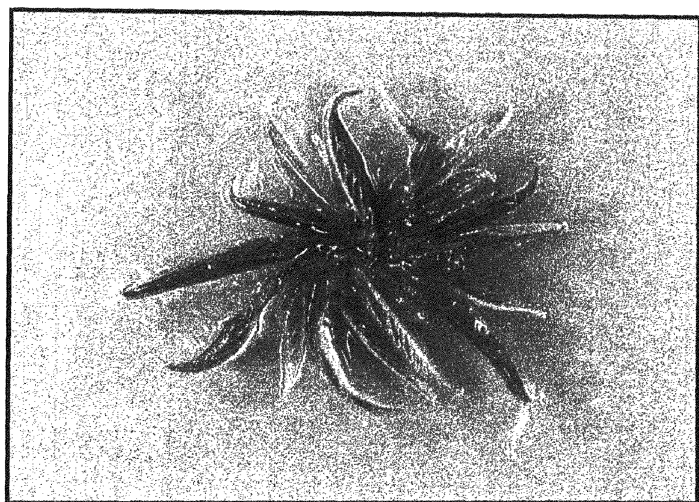


Figure 8A-B. Endogenous GUS activity in untransformed control and transformed bombarded pigeonpea leaves.

A. Untransformed control leaf showing faint blue.

B. Putative transformed leaf showing intense blue.

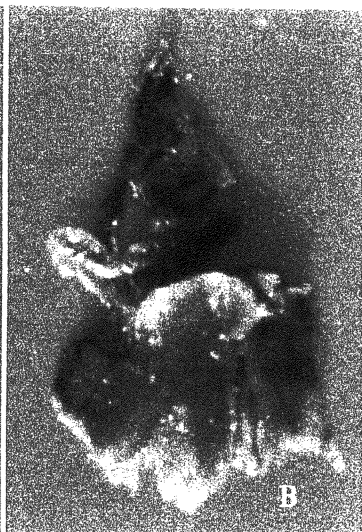


Figure 9A-B. Transgenic plants grown in the glass house [Pre-field screening, greenhouse facility (P₂ level), ICRISAT]

A. Ten-day-old T₁ generation seedlings grown in the glasshouse

B. Well established putative transgenic plants (T₁ generation) showing normal growth in the glasshouse

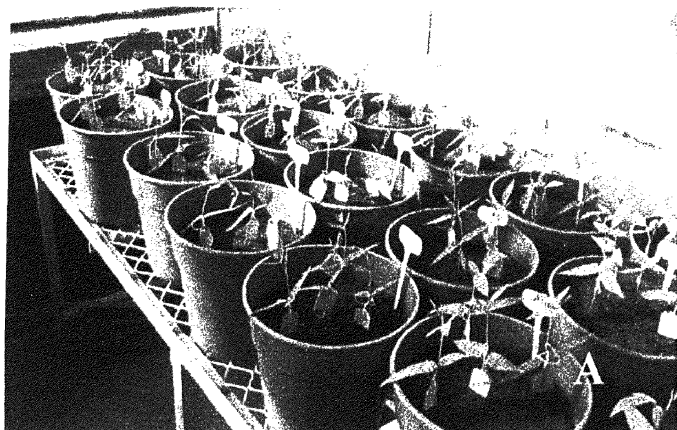


Figure 10A-B. Molecular analysis of putative transformants (T_0) of pigeonpea obtained after microprojectile bombardment using plasmid pRT99GUS:RChit. The lanes 1-17 carry genomic DNA from putative transformants; Lane 18 is untransformed control; Lane 20 is λ DNA restricted with *HindIII*.

- A. PCR amplification on the genomic DNA showing amplification of the 1200 bp fragment of *uidA* gene. Lane 18 is DNA from putative transformed control; Lane 19 is DNA from pRT99GUS:RChit.
- B. PCR amplification on the genomic DNA showing amplification of the 700 bp fragment of *iptII* gene. Lane 18 is DNA from untransformed control; Lane 19 is DNA from pRT99GUS:RChit

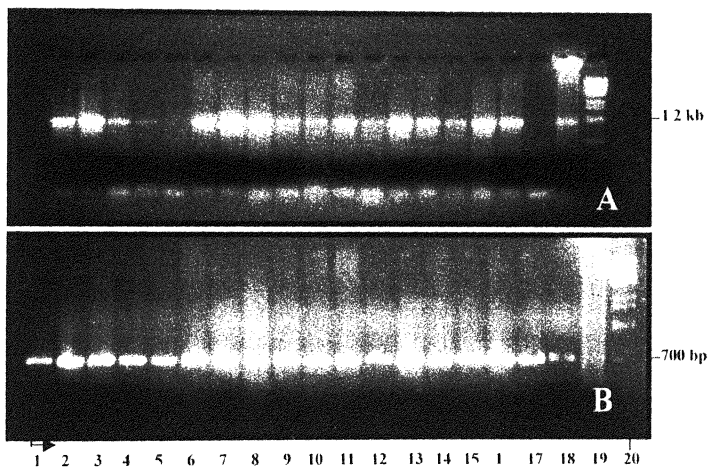


Figure 11A-B. Molecular analysis of putative transformants (T_0) of pigeonpea obtained after microprojectile bombardment using plasmid pRT99GUS:RChit.

A. PCR amplification of the genomic DNA showing amplification of the 525 bp fragment of *RChit* gene after microprojectile bombardment using plasmid pRT99GUS:RChit

Lane 11 is DNA from putative transformed control; Lane 12 is DNA from pRT99GUS:RChit. Lane 1 to 8 carry genomic DNA from plants transformed by microprojectile bombardment using plasmid pRT99GUS:RChit.

B. RT-PCR of the cDNA showing amplification of the 1200 bp fragment of the *uidA* gene Lane 18 is cDNA from untransformed control; Lane 19 is DNA from pRT99GUS:RChit. Lane 20 is λ DNA restricted with *Bst*I.

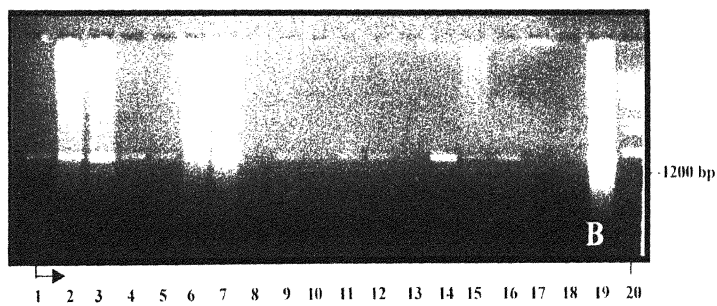
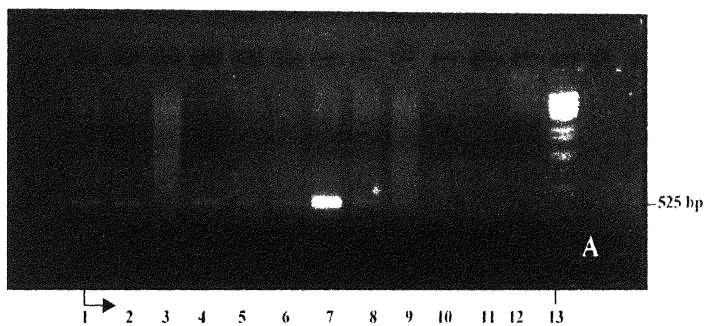


Figure 12A-B. Southern blot hybridization of PCR amplicons in the genomic DNA from putative transformants of T_0 generation. The blots were probed with non-radio Alkphos (Amersham UK.) labeled PCR amplified gene fragments.

A. Lane 1-17 shows PCR amplified products of genomic DNA from the putative transformants. Lane 19 is untransformed control, Lane 10 carries DNA from the plasmid pRT99GUS:RChit.

PCR amplification of 1200 bp fragment of *uidA* coding region. The PCR products were resolved on 1.2% agarose gel and probed with non-radio Alkphos-labeled *uidA* gene from plasmid pRT99GUS:RChit restricted with *HindIII*.

B. Lane 1-11 show PCR amplified products of genomic DNA from the putative transformants. Lane 12 is untransformed control, Lane 13 carries DNA from the plasmid pRT99GUS:RChit.

PCR amplification of 525 bp fragment of *RChit* gene coding region. The PCR products were resolved on 1.2% agarose gel and probed with non-radio Alkphos-labeled *RChit* gene from plasmid pRT99GUS:RChit restricted with *HindIII*.

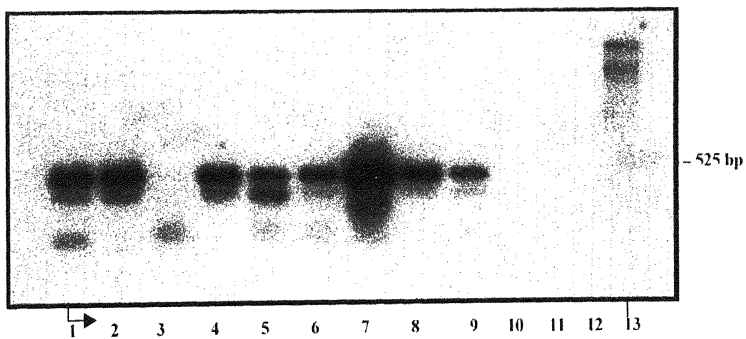
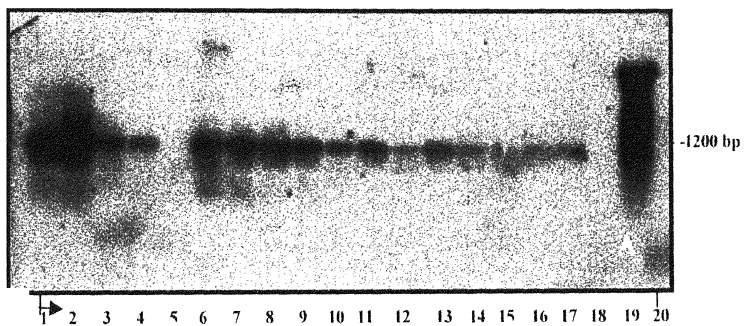


Figure 13A-B. Molecular analysis of putative transformants (T₀) of pigeonpea obtained after microprojectile bombardment using plasmid pRT99GUS:RChit.

- A.** Southern blot hybridization of *RChit* in the genomic DNA from putative transformants of T₀ generation. The DNA was digested with *Xba*I to provide a single restriction site within the plasmid DNA. The blot was probed with non-radio Alkphos labeled 525 bp PCR amplified *RChit* gene fragment to test the copy number. Lane 1-8 carry genomic DNA from the putative transformants transformed by microprojectile bombardment. Lane 9 is untransformed control, Lane 10 is plasmid pRT99GUS:RChit restricted with *Hind*III to release the 1.2 kb fragment of *RChit* gene.
- B.** Southern blot hybridization of *npII* gene in the genomic DNA from putative transformants of T₀ generation. The DNA was digested with *Xba*I to provide a single restriction site within the plasmid DNA. The blot was probed with non-radio Alkphos labeled 700 bp PCR amplified *npII* gene fragment. Lane 1-8 show genomic DNA from putative transformants. Lane 9 is untransformed control, Lane 10 is plasmid pRT99GUS:RChit restricted with *Hind*III to release the 700 bp *npII* gene fragment.

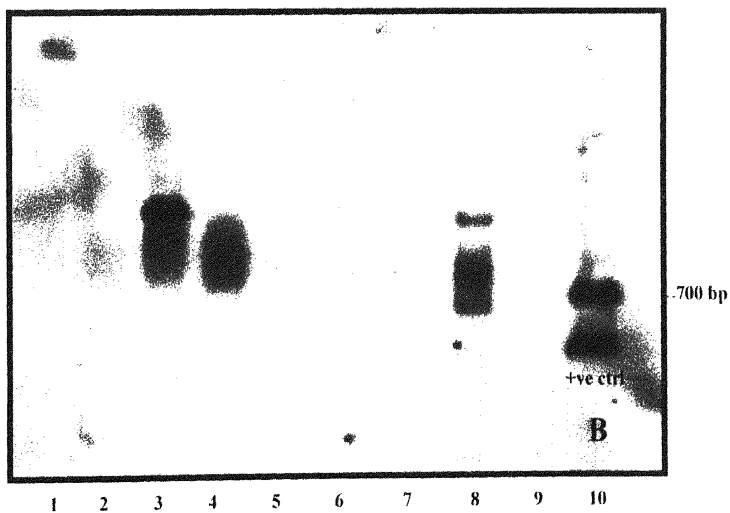
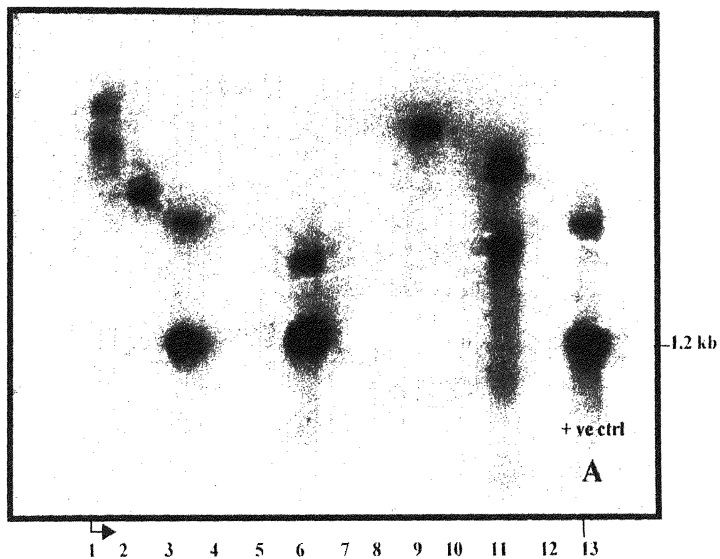


Figure 14A-B. Molecular analysis of putative transformants (T_1) of pigeonpea obtained after microprojectile bombardment using plasmid pRT99GUS:RChit.

A. PCR amplification of the genomic DNA of 40 T_1 lines representing 10 independent transformed plants of T_0 , showing amplification of the 1200 bp fragment of *uidA* gene. Lane 1-18 and lane 21 to 38 carry genomic DNA from the putative transformants of T_1 generation. Lane 19 and lane 39 is DNA from pRT99GUS:RChit. Lane 20 and 40 is λ DNA restricted with *Bst*I.

B. Southern blot hybridization of *RChit* gene in the genomic DNA from putative transformants of T_1 generation. The DNA was digested with *Xba*I to provide a single restriction site within the plasmid DNA. The blot was probed with non-radio Alkphos labeled 525 bp PCR amplified fragment of *RChit* gene. Lane 1-16 carry genomic DNA of 16 T_1 lines representing 10 independent transformed plants of T_0 . Lane 18 is untransformed control, Lane 19 is plasmid pRT99GUS:RChit restricted with *Hind*III to release the 1.2 kb *RChit* gene fragment (arrows indicate the positive signal for gene insertion).

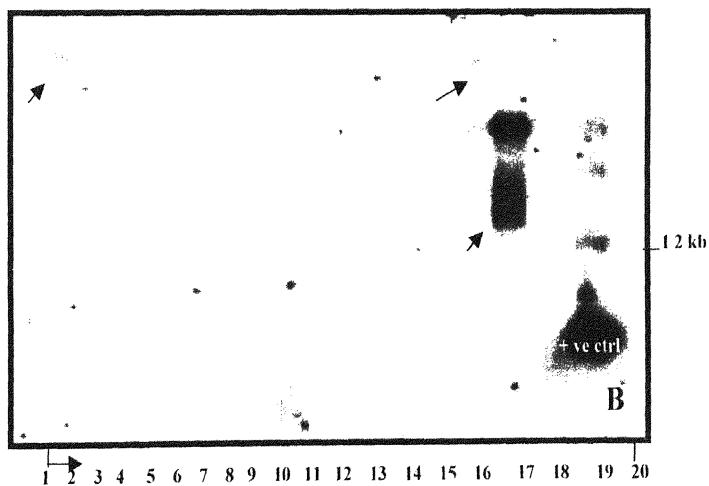
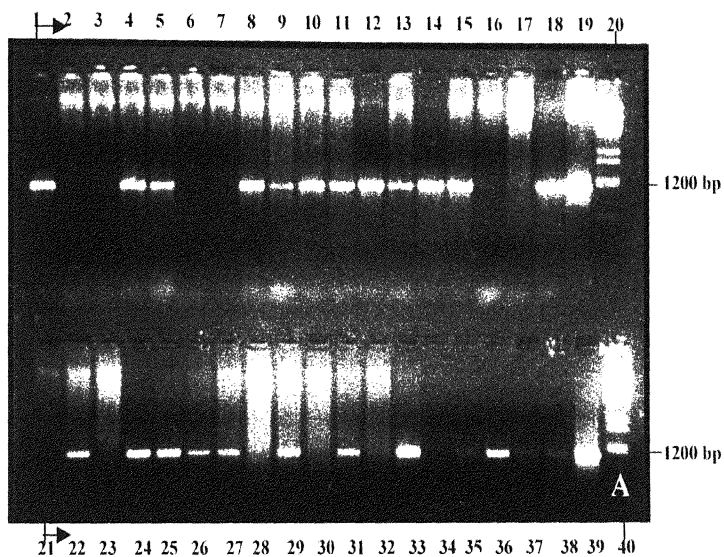


Figure 15A-B. Molecular analysis of putative transformants (T₂) of pigeonpea obtained after microprojectile bombardment using plasmid pRT99GUS:RChit.

- A.** PCR amplification of the genomic DNA showing amplification of the 700 bp fragment of *upfII* gene. Lane 1 to 8 carry genomic DNA from 8 T₂ lines representing 2 independent transformed plants, lane 9 is DNA from untransformed control; Lane 10 is DNA from pRT99GUS:RChit. Lane 11 is λ DNA restricted with *HindIII*.
- B.** PCR amplification of the genomic DNA showing amplification of the 1200 bp fragment of *uidA* gene. Lane 1 to 11 carry genomic DNA from putative transformed plants of 8 T₂ lines representing 2 independent transformed plants control, Lane 12 is DNA from pRT99GUS:RChit, Lane 13 is λ DNA restricted with *BstI*.
- C.** PCR amplification of the genomic DNA of 16 T₂ lines from 4 independent transformed plants, showing amplification of the 525 bp fragment of *RChit* gene after microprojectile-mediated gene transfer method using plasmid pRT99GUS:RChit. Lane 1 to 16 carry DNA from putative transformed plants of T₂, lane 19 is DNA from pRT99GUS:RChit. Lane 20 is λ DNA restricted with *HindIII*.

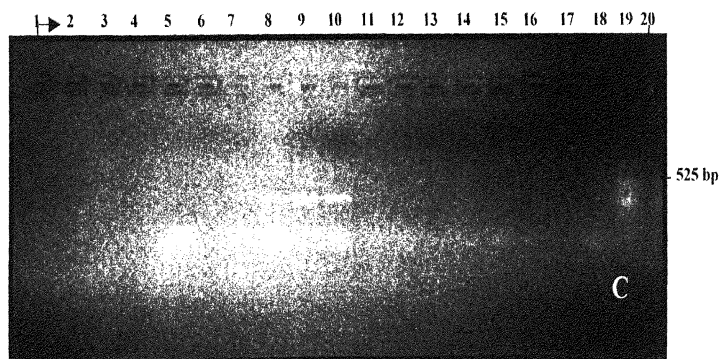
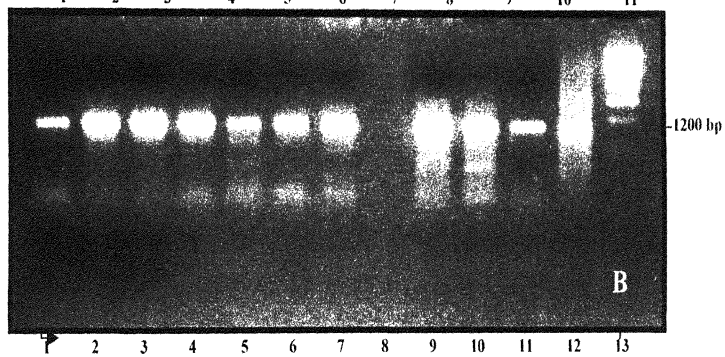
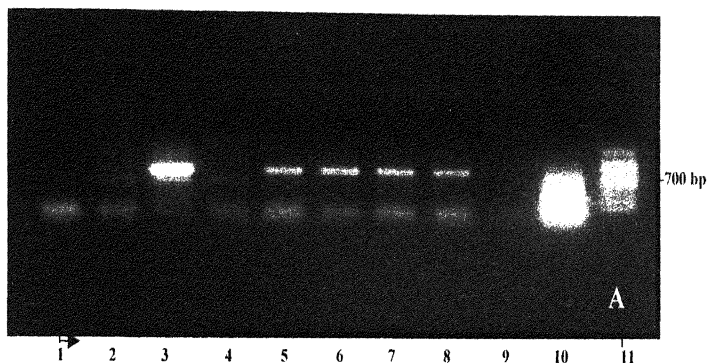
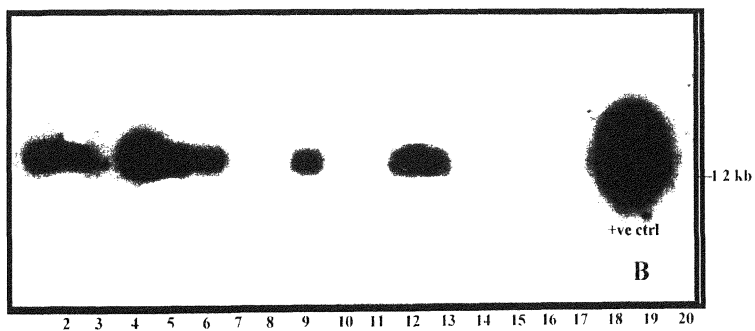
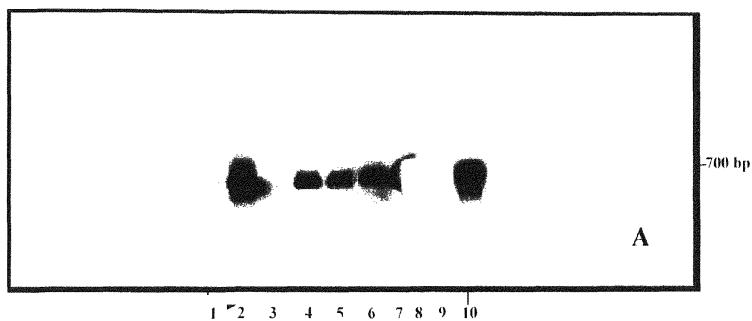


Figure 16A-B. Southern blot hybridization of PCR amplicons in the genomic DNA from the putative transformants of T₂ generation. The blots were probed with non-radio Alkphos (Amersham UK) labeled PCR amplified gene fragments.

A. PCR amplification of 700 bp fragment of *np11* coding region. Lane 1-8 show PCR amplified products of genomic DNA from the putative transformants. Lane 9 is untransformed control, Lane 10 carries DNA from the plasmid pRT99GUS:RChit.

The PCR products were resolved on 1.2% agarose gel and probed with non-radio Alkphos-labeled *np11* gene.

B. Southern blot hybridization of *RChit* gene in the genomic DNA from putative transformants of T₂ generation. The DNA was digested with *HindIII* to provide a double cut within the plasmid DNA to release 1.2 kb fragment of *RChit* gene. The blot was probed with non-radio Alkphos labeled 525 bp PCR amplified *RChit* fragment. Lane 1-16 carry genomic DNA of 16 T₂ lines representing 4 independent transformed plants of T₂ generation. Lane 18 is untransformed control, Lane 19 is plasmid pRT99GUS:RChit restricted with *HindIII* to release the 1.2 kb *RChit* gene fragment.



Annexure

- 1. Dayal, S., Lavanya, M., Devi, P. and Sharma, K.K. (2003).** An efficient protocol for shoot regeneration and genetic transformation of pigeonpea [*Cajanus cajan* (L.) Millsp.] using leaf explants. Plant Cell Rep., (in Press).
- 2. Dayal, S., Lavanya, M., Devi, P. and Sharma, K.K. (2003).** Genetic transformation of pigeonpea (*Cajanus cajan* (L.) Millsp.) by using the rice chitinase gene for the development of resistance to fungal pathogens. Communicated to Plant Science.

© Springer-Verlag 2003

Genetic Transformation and Hybridization

An efficient protocol for shoot regeneration and genetic transformation of pigeonpea [*Cajanus cajan* (L.) Millsp.] using leaf explants

S. Dayal^{1,2}, M. Lavanya¹, P. Devi² and K. K. Sharma¹ 

(1) Genetic Transformation Laboratory International Crops Research Institute for the Semi-Arid Tropics Patancheru 502 324 Andhra Pradesh India

(2) Department of Botany Osmania University 500 006 Hyderabad India

Abstract A protocol for efficient plant regeneration from leaf explants of pigeonpea [*Cajanus cajan* (L.) Millsp.] was developed for the production of transgenic plants. Leaf explants from 4- to 5-day-old in vitro raised seedlings were most efficient in producing multiple adventitious shoots in 90% of the explants on shoot induction medium [Murashige and Skoog (MS) medium +5.0 μ M benzyladenine +5

μ M kinetin]. Shoot buds originated from the petiolar cut end of the explants and elongated rapidly on medium containing 0.58 μ M

gibberellic acid. Over 80% of the elongated shoots rooted well on MS medium containing 11.42 μ M indole-3-acetic acid and were

transplanted with 100% success. The procedure reported here is very simple, efficient and reproducible, and is applicable across diverse genotypes of pigeonpea. The usefulness of this system for further studies on the genetic transformation of pigeonpea has been demonstrated in biolistics-mediated gene transfer by using *nrp1* and *uidA* as marker genes, where 50% of the selected plants showed gene integration and expression.

Keywords Biolistics - *Cajanus cajan* (L.) - Organogenesis - Pigeonpea - Transformation

Abbreviations

BA	N ⁶ -Benzyladenine
GA ₃	Gibberellic acid
IAA	Indole-3-acetic acid
IBA	Indole-3-butyric acid
2-IP	N ⁶ -[2-Isopentenyl]adenine
MS	Murashige and Skoog medium
RIM	Root induction medium
RT-PCR	Reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reaction
SEM	Shoot elongation medium
SIM	Shoot induction medium

Communicated by P. P. Kumar

 K. K. Sharma
E-mail: k.sharma@icar.org
Fax: +91-40-23241239

To
The Dean
Faculty of Science
Osmania University
Hyderabad-500 007

Dated 12.6.2003

From
Ms G Suneetha
Research Scholar
(Regd for Ph D)
Department of Botany
Osmania University

Through Proper Channel

Sir,

This is to inform you that I G Suneetha, a registered Research Scholar (Ph D) vide OU letter no 505/DFSC/98-99 Dated 5th July 1999, have completed my research and presently submitting my thesis for evaluation for the award of Ph D degree I have worked as Project Fellow in the AP-Netherlands Biotechnology Project "**Development of disease resistant transgenic pigeonpea**", under the supervision of the Principal Investigator Dr B Prathibha Devi and the Co-investigator Dr Kiran K Sharma The Project work involved the use of several methods for genetic transformation of pigeonpea and was carried out mostly in the Genetic Transformation Laboratory, International Crops Research Institute for the Semi-Arid Tropics (ICRISAT), Patancheru, India However, the research concerning the use of microprojectile method of gene transfer has been compiled for my Ph D thesis entitled "**Studies on the in vitro culture and genetic transformation of pigeonpea (*Cajanus cajan* (L.) Millsp.) for induced fungal pathogens**". This is for your information

Thanking you,

Yours sincerely

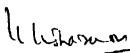


G Suneetha

Prathibha Devi
12th June 2003

Signature of Principal investigator

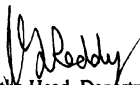
DAVE I



DR. K. K. SHARMA

Signature of the Co-investigator

ICRISAT
PATANCHERU P. O.
ANDHRA PRADESH-502 324
INDIA.



Signature of the Head, Department of Botany

Professor & Head
Department of Botany
Osmania University
- 500 007.