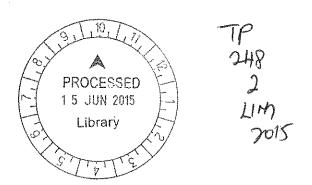
HISTOLOGY (SECTIONING AND MICROSCOPY) OF PUTATIVE SOMATIC EMBRYOS FROM DIRECT SOMATIC EMBRYOGENESIS OF SUNDEW

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DISSERTATION SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF BACHELOR OF BIOTECHNOLOGY (HONOURS)



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ABSTRACT

Sundew has been a medicinally important carnivorous plant and also a favourable ornamental plant for centuries. Owing to this, sundew is being over-exploited in certain countries, causing their populations to reduce to a critical level. To address these problems, in vitro micropropagation of sundew serves as an ideal way to regenerate and propagate these plants in large scale. Being one of the plant regeneration pathways, somatic embryogenesis possesses several advantages over other methods, rendering it to be more preferred. Previously, nodular structures were induced on Drosera × tokaiensis leaf segments on Murashige & Skoog (MS) medium supplemented with thidiazuron (TDZ) plant growth regulator. In order to confirm that these observed structures were somatic embryos, histology study was conducted. D. × tokaiensis leaves were cultured on MS medium supplemented with 1 mg/L TDZ hormone, and were then sampled and fixed in FAA fixative followed by dehydration in ethanol series. The dehydrated leaf samples were then cleared in xylene and infiltrated with paraffin wax prior to sectioning. Sections were dried, dewaxed and stained either using toluidine blue or safranin-aniline blue prior to microscopy. Microscopy observation identified competent-like cells, and embryogenic cell at one-, two-, four-, eight-cell stages and globular somatic embryos. Identification of these embryo developmental stages confirmed the somatic embryogenesis pathway of the species. However, identity of competent-like cells could not be confirmed as the morphology of competent cells is highly variable across different species. The identity could be confirmed by molecular detection of early-embryogenesis gene marker in future.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ac Apical cell

atc Anticlinal

BBM BABY BOOM

bc Basal cell

 β -D-glucans Beta-D-glucans

CaCl₂·2H₂O Calcium chloride dihydrate

cl Competent-like

CLV CLAVATA

CoCl₂·6H₂O Cobalt (II) chloride hexahydrate

CuSO₄·5H₂O Copper (II) sulfate pentahydrate

°C Degree Celsius

o Degree angle

D. carota Daucus carota

DNA Deoxyribonucleic acid

D. rotundifolia Drosera rotundifolia

D. spathulata Drosera spathulata

 $D. \times tokaiensis$ $Drosera \times tokaiensis$

DWS Dishwashing soap

ECM Extracellular matrix

ep Embryo proper

FAA Formalin-Acetic acid-Alcohol

FeSO₄·7H₂O Iron (II) sulfate heptahydrate

g Gram

g/L Gram per litre

glo Globular somatic embryo

HMC Human mast cell

H₃BO₃ Boric acid

ic Internal cell

in Inch

kg/cm² Kilogram per square centimetre

KH₂PO₄ Monopotassium phosphate

KI Potassium iodide

KNO₃ Potassium nitrate

L Litre

mc Meristematic cell

MgSO₄·7H₂O Magnesium sulfate heptahydrate

μL Microlitre

μm Micrometre

mg Milligram

mg/L Milligram per litre

mg/mL Milligram per millilitre

mm Millimetre

MnSO₄·4H₂O Manganese(II) sulfate tetrahydrate

mL Millilitre

min Minute

MS Murashige & Skoog (1962)

Na₂EDTA·2H₂O Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid, disodium dihydrate

Na₂MoO₄· 2H₂O Sodium molybdate dihydrate

ne Non-embryogenic

NH₄NO₃ Ammonium nitrate

nm Nanometre

olc Outer layer cell

% Percent

PC Pheochromocytoma

pd Protoderm

prc Periclinal

Pyridoxine-HCl Pyridoxine hydrochloride

s Second

sc Suspensor cell

SEM Scanning electron microscopy

SERK Somatic Embryogenesis Receptor-like Kinase

sg Smaller globular somatic embryo

TDZ Thidiazuron

TEM Transmission electron microscope

Thiamine hydrochloride

UV Ultraviolet

v Vacuole

WUS WUSCHEL

w/v Weight per volume

× Times

ZnSO₄·7H₂O Zinc sulfate heptahydrate

1.0 CHAPTER 1:

INTRODUCTION

Sundew, being one of the largest varieties of carnivorous plants, having at least 194 species, is a group of herbaceous plants that feeds by using its stalked mucilaginous glands covering its leaf surfaces to lure, trap and digest small creatures namely insects. Sundew is usually found in wet habitats where the acidic conditions minimise the amount of nutrients it can absorb from the soil. Thus, its alternative way of obtaining sufficient amount of nutrients to sustain life is to lure, capture and digest insects using its leaves covered with numerous 'tentacles', within each contains a nectar gland. The nectar gland produces digestive enzymes which help to digest the trapped prey.

Sundew has been used as a medicinal plant as early as 12th century when an Italian doctor, Matthaeus Platearius reported that sundew as a remedy for coughs under the name *herba sole*. Herbalists also recommend sundew tea for various lung diseases such as bronchitis, asthma, dry coughs, whooping coughs, and "bronchial cramps" (Chakraborty & Bhattacharya, 2013). Besides that, sundew was also found to exhibit antimicrobial property. The phytochemical dubbed plumbagin produced by sundew was believed to be the substance responsible for the antimicrobial property. This made those sundew extracts to emerge as a potential treatment for various oral infectious diseases (Didry, Dubreuil, Trotin & Pinkas, 1998).

Sticky adhesive of sundew possesses potential for a variety of cutting-edge medical uses encompassing chronic wound healing, regenerative medicine and tissue engineering. Dried sundew's adhesive coated on a silicon wafer was found to comprise of a complex network of nanofibres which cross-linked to produce a porous scaffold useful for cell attachment in tissue engineering procedures (Zhang, Lenaghan, Xia, Dong, He, Henson & Fan, 2010). Besides possessing medical and therapeutic properties, sundew has also become a favourable ornamental plant owing to the beauty of its glistening traps. Some species of sundew can be used as dyeing agents in making yarn (Williams, 2011). Some tuberous sundews which are native to Australia produce corms which serve as a delicacy of the Australia Aborigines (Clarke, 2013).

Since sundew is attributed to various therapeutic properties by botanical treatises and pharmacopoeias, some sundew species have encountered over-exploitation in certain countries in Europe (Lange, 1998). Destruction of their natural habitats in peats or bogs and collection for research purposes further reduce their populations. Many studies including *in vitro* propagation have been conducted to propagate sundew for commercial, research and conservation purposes. There have been various methods to propagate sundew namely direct (not involving callus intermediate) and indirect somatic embryogenesis (involving callus intermediate) and organogenesis, propagation from pre-existing meristems (e.g. leaf segments), leaf cuttings, root cuttings and so on.

There has been a scenario that more plant cultivators are becoming more interested in sundew micropropagation rather than conventional propagation methods. Extended juvenility has made conventional propagation methods to be relatively more time consuming than somatic embryogenesis in mass production of plants. In addition, limited improvements have been made through conventional propagation methods due to inherent problems such as hybridization barriers, long term inbreeding depression and sterility. In contrast, somatic embryogenesis allows large-scale vegetative propagation which could be enhanced by using bioreactors to further scale up the propagation (De Klerk, Hall & George, 2007).

Somatic embryogenesis, being one of the plant micropropagation methods, possesses several advantages over other micropropagation methods and conventional propagation (Litz & Gray, 1992). The somatic embryos could act as a research model system in embryological studies besides serving as a target for gene transformation. Since somatic embryo cultures often originate from a single plant cell, the formation of chimeras could be minimised after gene transformation to ensure genetic uniformity among the plantlets. This distinguishes somatic embryogenesis from organogenesis which often produces chimeras (Kamle, Bajpai, Chandra, Kalim & Kumar, 2011).

Somatic embryogenesis in most cases also eliminates the need for a separate root induction which might be difficult in some species. This enables plantlets to be

propagated and acclimatised more rapidly compared to organogenesis that requires root induction (Kamle et al., 2011). In addition, somatic embryos could be cryopreserved, enabling the establishment of gene banks and thus serving conservation purposes.

In a previous study, leaf segments of a model sundew plant were used as explants for the induction of somatic embryogenesis using thidiazuron (TDZ) plant growth regulator (unpublished data). However, the preliminary result obtained from the induction study of sundew remains unconfirmed. Thus, in this study, histological analysis of the structure and ontogeny of the somatic embryos were studied to confirm the occurrence of somatic embryogenesis pathway on treated sundew explants. Another alternative to confirm the somatic embryogenesis pathway of sundew is to regenerate sundew plants from the somatic embryos. However, the latter requires longer time to achieve in many species.

Therefore the aim of this study is to confirm the occurrence of somatic embryogenesis pathway of a research model sundew, $D. \times tokaiensis$ (Komiya & Shibata) T. Nakam & K. Ueda (Apps.kew.org, n.d.), by performing histological analysis (sectioning and microscopy) of the putative somatic embryos induced by TDZ. In order to achieve the aim, cultured sundew leaf explants were sampled at particular days after induction by TDZ for histological analysis. The null hypothesis of this study is the nodular structures obtained from direct somatic embryogenesis induction of $D. \times tokaiensis$ are not somatic embryos based on the absence of somatic embryogenesis morphological markers. Whereas the alternative hypothesis of this study is the nodular structures obtained from direct somatic embryogenesis are indeed somatic embryos based on the presence of morphological markers.

2.0 CHAPTER 2:

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 SUNDEW

The genus *Drosera*, commonly known as sundew, comprises one of the largest groups of carnivorous plants. There are at least 194 *Drosera* species discovered to date (McPherson, 2010). Sundew obtains their nutrients by using their stalked mucilaginous glands that cover their leaf surfaces to attract, trap and digest small creatures such as insects. The nectar gland within each 'tentacles' covering the leaf surfaces contains digestive enzymes which aim to digest the captured prey. Sundew is commonly found in wet habitats namely bogs, swamps, moist streambanks, marshes and so on where the acidic condition of soil reduces their nutrient absorption from the soil. Therefore, the nutrient uptake through their carnivorous behavior acts as an alternative way to obtain adequate amount of nutrients to sustain their lives.

2.1.1 Medicinal and Other Uses

As early as 12th century, sundew has been used as a medically important plant in phytotherapy. Matthaeus Platearius, an Italian doctor reported that sundew could be used as a remedy for coughs under the name *herba sole*. Some herbalists also recommend sundew tea for bronchitis, whooping coughs, dry coughs, asthma and "bronchial cramps" (Chakraborty & Bhattacharya, 2013). In addition, there were cases where patients who suffered from blood dysentery were administered with whole plant paste of certain sundew species such as *Drosera burmannii* Vahl (Mitra & Mukherjee, 2010) to cure the disease. Moreover, there was a study which indicated that extracts of the aerial parts of *Drosera peltata* Smith exhibited antimicrobial properties, making it to be an effective treatment against oral infectious diseases such as periodontitis and dental caries (Didry et al., 1998). Plumbagin isolated from the chloroformic extract was found to be the active ingredient responsible for antimicrobial properties of the sundew extracts. Some sundew extracts are also effective against antibiotic susceptible as well as the resistant strains of human