Mango (Mangifera indica L.) Flavor Biogenesis: Metabolic Profiling and Molecular Analysis

Thesis Submitted to AcSIR for the Award of the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

In
BIOLOGICAL SCIENCES



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Biochemical Sciences Division CSIR-National Chemical Laboratory Pune 411008, India 2017

Dedicated to my parents

and

All researchers who contributed to the field of plant metabolomics and molecular biology





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List of Accompanying Material

All the supplemental data for Chapter 4 is provided along with this thesis in the form of soft copy in CD attached to the last page

Annexure 1_Supplementary file 1: Alphonso *de novo* transcriptome assembly statistics. (.xlsx)

Annexure 1_Supplementary file 2: List of differentially regulated transcripts (p-value ≤ 0.05) amid various comparisons and their annotation. (.xlsx)

Annexure 1_Supplementary file 3: List of distinct transcripts identified to a stage amid various comparisons and their annotation. (.xlsx)

List of Abbreviations

°C Degree Celsius

μm Micro meter

μg Micro gram

AAT Alcohol acyltransferase

ADH Alcohol dehydrogenase

ALA α-linolenic acid

ATP Adenosine triphosphate

BHT Butylated hydroxyltoluene

DAH Days After Harvest

DAP Days After Pollination

DCM Dichloromethane

DTPS Di-terpene synthases

EH Epoxide hydrolase

EO Enone oxidoreductase

FAMEs Fatty acid methyl esters

FID Flame ionisation detector

g Gram

GC Gas chromatography

HCl Hydrochloric acid

HPL Hydrperoxide lyase

i.d. Internal diameter

LA Linoleic acid

LOX Lipoxygenase

m Meter

mg Milli gram

ml Milli liter

mm Milli meter

MS Mass spectrometry

MTPS Mono-terpene synthase

MTS Methyltransferase

NIST National Institute of Standards and Technology

ODT Odor detection threshold

PCR Polymerase chain reaction

PE Pectin esterase

PG Polygalacturonase

PL Pectate lyase

qPCR Quantitative polymerase chain reaction

rpm Revolutions per minute

RT Room temperature

STPS Sesqui- terpene synthase

TPS Terpene synthase



Chapter 1

General Introduction

and

Review of Literature









Chapter 1 General Introduction and Review of Literature

Life on the earth was assumed to be originated by the "Abiogenesis", that is the process wherein first living form originated from non-living organic matter about 3.8 to 4.1 billion years ago (Bell et al., 2015). Organic matter such as methane, carbon dioxide, water, ammonia, hydrogen sulphide, oxygen and phosphates present in early earth's atmosphere (extremely reducing) got converted in to the biological monomers, such as simple amino acids, sugars, fatty acids and nitrogenous bases. According to Bernel theory (Bernal, 1951) of biopoisis (origin of life) these biological monomers were responsible for origin of biological polymers, which further evolved in to the cells. Now, we have the complex world with millions of different species all of which are originated from single living form. During the course of evolution from single cell organisms to the most complex plant species and human race, basic things remained same such as nucleic acids as genetic material, proteins as functional molecules and carbohydrates, lipids along with proteins as structural components and source of energy in a cell. Of course each species is distinct from others with respect to its anatomy, physiology, reproduction, signalling or communication and many other aspects. This uniqueness of each species is due to various complex metabolic processes other than primary metabolism and called as secondary metabolic processes and one of such is flavor biogenesis in ripening fruits.

1.1 Flavor: A combined perception

Flavor is a term which describes sensory perception of particular food item by means of its taste, texture, visual appearance and aroma (Figure 1.1). Out of 5 senses of human *viz*. taste, vision, sound, touch and smell, except for sound all the other are responsible for combined perception of flavor. Amid these perception of taste is through taste buds present in the oral cavity and mainly on the tongue. Sweet, salty, bitter, sour and umami are five different types of tastes and recent studies have proposed fatty as the 6th taste (Mattes, 2009b). Similarly texture of food is sensory perception of touch and can be characterised in various classes such as soft, smooth, crunchy, hard, mushy and lumpy. Texture is considered important mainly for chewing and swalloing a perticular food item. Third one is visual appearance of food, which is

associated with presentation or decoration of food or perticular dish, but it is assumed to be mainly associated with color of food, as a study revealed increased redness in a drink is resposible for increased perception of sweetness though all the drinks were containing 1% sucrose (Johnson and Clydesdale, 1982). The last and the most important parameter of flavor is aroma or odor or smell of a food. It is the most important parameter as aroma of food can be sensed before we eat it or even see it. Another important fact is that humans are able to descriminate more than one trillion olfactory stimuli (Bushdid et al., 2014). This olfactory ability in humans is due to diversed olfacotry receptor proteins which are coded by a family of about thosand genes (Malnic et al., 2004). Further these olfactory receptors are more sensitive (3,400 times) than taste receptors (Patel, 2014). That's the reason most of the flavor related studies were focused on analysis and biosynthesis of aroma compounds.

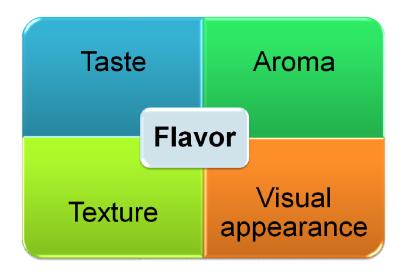


Figure 1.1 Flavor: A combined perception

1.2 Aroma compounds and their perception

Smell is the sense of aroma compound mediated through air. Thus the basic requirement to smell a particular compound is that it should be volatile. An ability of a compound to vaporize at room temperature and mix in to the air is known as volatility, and compound is called as aroma volatile. A particular smell might be due to a single compound or group of compounds and can be described by various ways of olfactions like smell, taste or materials as described in Table 1.1. Not all volatile

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compounds can be sensed and such compounds are called as anosmic, whereas others are responsible for mild to strong olfaction based on its concentration as well as odor detection threshold (ODT). ODT is a minimum concentration of a compound required to be sensed by human. Every compound has its own ODT, few examples as described in Table 1.2, lower the ODT more is the olfactory perception. Thus compounds with lower ODT are of great interest to the perfume and artificial food flavoring industries. These aroma compounds can be found in food, flower, essential oils (from spices, wood and seeds), wine and ripening fruits. Amid all these, ripening fruits show the highest diversity of aroma volatiles through various fruits and their ripening stages and always remain centre of attraction due to their commercial benefits as fresh fruits and various fruit products. Moreover, various food products with fruity aroma e.g. ice-creams, milk shakes, jams, cold drinks etc. have always remained as the first choice of consumers. Thus, scientists across the world have been working to understand biosynthesis and changes in the aroma volatile profiles of various fruits during their ripening.

Table 1.1 Perception of aroma compounds

Perception like	Type of smell	Examples	
	Fresh	Citrus fruits	
	Aromatic	Gasoline	
Smell	Putrid	Old meat	
Silicii	Rancid	Oxygenated fatty acids	
	Foul Decaying animals		
	Stinking	Rotten fruits or leaves	
	Sweet	Esters, acetone	
	Creamy	Delta octalactone	
Taste	Caramel	Burning sugars	
	Buttery	Avocado or Shea butter	
	Savory/spicy	Spices	
	Fruity	Various fruits	
	Grassy	Green grass or leaves	
Material/ Vision	Floral	Flowers	
	Woody	Smell in forest after rain	
	Corky	New Furniture	

Table 1.2 Odor detection threshold values

Odor detection threshold values of few compounds in ppb (parts per billion)

Sr. No.	Compound	ODT value in ppb (Ho et al., 2015)
1	(Z)-3-hexenol	13
2	(E)-geraniol	3.2
3	2-Phenyl ethanol	1000
4	Hexanoic acid	890
5	Hotrienol	110
6	2,3-Butanedione	10
7	(E,E)-2,4-decadienal	0.16
8	Methional	0.2

1.3 Fruit ripening

Fruit ripening is a very complex, irreversible but well harmonized process which involves changes in biochemical composition, physiology and organoleptic properties of fruits as summarized in Figure 1.2. These changes are finally responsible for softness, attractive color, and sweet fruity aroma of a ripe fruit (Prasanna et al., 2007).

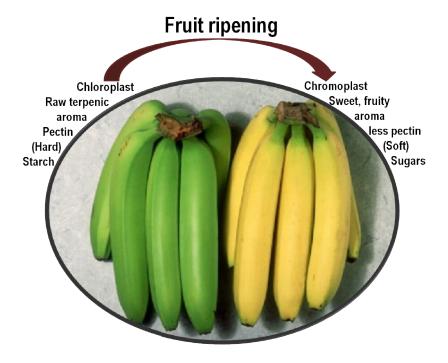


Figure 1.2 Biochemical and physiological changes during fruit ripening

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1.3.1 Biochemical changes

During fruit ripening various biochemical changes take place, which start with increased fruit respiration and ethylene production. Respiration is a biochemical process in which, cells of fruit convert glucose to carbon dioxide, water and energy (ATP) by using oxygen.

$$Glucose + Oxygen \rightarrow Carbon dioxide + Water + ATP (energy)$$

That is the reason during ripening of fruits significant increase in the carbon dioxide production is evinced in most of the fruit e.g. carbon dioxide production in Haden mango at harvest was 20 mlKg⁻¹hr⁻¹ which increased 3-fold till climacteric peak to 60 mlKg⁻¹hr⁻¹ (Biale et al., 1954). Carbon dioxide produced during fruit ripening is usually measured in the jars, wherein constant flow of air is maintained which further passes through a cylinder containing alkali to absorb carbon dioxide. Similarly, ethylene (a ripening gas) production in fruits is measured by its absorption in mercuric perchlorate. This simultaneously produced ethylene triggers the cascade of ripening events in fruits (Bapat et al., 2010). Ethylene is produced in all ripening fruits, but in few fruits upon harvest burst in the ethylene production is evident and this class of fruits are classified under climacteric fruits, whereas rest do not show such ethylene burst during post harvest and are known as non-climacteric fruits (Bapat et al., 2010; Bouzayen et al., 2010). Examples of few non-climacteric and climacteric fruits are summarized in Table 1.3. Ethylene act as a ripening hormone and trigger various processes in fruits such as conversion of complex structural and storage polysaccharides in to simple sugars, this is responsible for increase in the total soluble solids (TSS) and content of reducing sugars. Compositional changes studied in two guava types during ripening revealed 1.2-fold change in TSS and increase in the reducing sugars till climacteric peak in both the types (Bashir and Abu-Goukh, 2003). Further production of various organic acids like citric, malic, lactic, ascorbic and tartaric acid etc. take place which is observed through increased titratable acidity in many fruits. (Bashir and Abu-Goukh, 2003). Additionally these biochemical changes show nutritional significance by synthesis of many soluble vitamins during fruit ripening e.g. Vitamin C, Vitamin E, Carotenoids and Folic acid (Slavin and Lloyd, 2012).

Table 1.3 Examples of climacteric and non-climacteric fruits

Climacteric fruits	Non-climacteric fruits
Tomato	Cherry
Banana	Grape
Guava	Lemon
Kiwifruit	Litchi
Mango	Mandarin
Papaya	Melon
Passion fruit	Orange
Peach	Strawberry

1.3.2 Changes in fruit physiology

Once the ripening events have been triggered by ethylene it leads to various physiological changes in fruits. Significant increase in the production of diverse enzymes involved in cell wall hydrolysis have been shown in many fruits (Brady, 1987). Pectin is an important cell wall component of plants and is responsible for the fruit firmness (Brummell and Harpster, 2001). Various pectin degrading enzymes such as pectate lyase (PL), pectin esterase (PE) and polygalacturonase (PG) were found to be up regulated during ripening of various fruits. Through ripening of papaya more than 6-fold increase in the activities of PE and PG were observed along with the increased respiration and ethylene production (Paull and Chen, 1983). Similarly, cellulose and hemi-cellulose are also present in many fruits and account for insoluble fibre content and firmness of fruits (Brady, 1987; Imsabai et al., 2006). Various cellulases/glucanases degrade these insoluble fibres and play their role in fruit softening; this process was clearly observed in avocado fruit ripening, wherein firmness of the ripening fruit was inversely correlated to the cellulase activity during post-harvest span of 14 days (Pesis et al., 1978). Activities of these enzymes degrade pectin, cellulose and hemi-cellulose and are accountable for transformation of mature raw or unripe fruit to soft fruit with fleshy pulp.

Concurrently, in most of the fruits during ripening loss of green color and development of yellow, orange, red or dark blue to purple color is observed. This change is due to chloroplast degradation and chromoplast development (Egea et al.,

2010). These chromoplasts are the plastids which accumulate carotenoids and are mainly developed from pre-existing plastids (chloroplast). Various pigments such as xanthophylls, anthocyanines and carotenoids biosynthesis and accumulation take place during fruit ripening and furnish specific color characteristic to each fruit (Table 1.4). Degradation of chlorophyll (from 50μgg⁻¹ to almost null) and biosynthesis of carotene (10μgg⁻¹ to 200μgg⁻¹) was reported during tomato fruit development (Fraser et al., 1994) which is responsible for transition of tomato fruit color from green to red. Altogether these physiological changes confer softness and attractive color to fruit.

Pigment Colour Examples Chlorophyll Green Unripe fruits, kiwifruit Carotene Yellow to Orange Lemon, banana, orange Lycopene Red Tomato, strawberry Flavonoids Yellow Grapefruit, yellow prickly pear Anthocyanines Red, Blue or Purple Blueberries, lingonberries

Table 1.4 List of fruit pigments responsible for various colors

1.3.3 Generation of aroma volatiles

Generation of various aroma volatiles during fruit ripening is an important attribute from consumer point of view. Different fruits have their unique volatile profile upon ripening. Volatile compounds in fruits are diverse consisting hundreds of different chemical compounds comprising only 10^{-7} to 10^{-4} of the fresh fruit weight (Berger, 2007; Brückner and Wyllie, 2008). Volatile chemicals developing the fruit flavor are synthesized by means of various metabolic pathways during ripening and postharvest storage of fruit.

Volatile composition of a fruit may vary based on maturity, cultivar or variety, species, weather and pre and post-harvest handling. In general various terpenes such as mono-terpenes, sesqui-terpenes, oxygenated terpenes and hydrocarbons are major constituents in most of the fruits. Other than terpenes various esters, alcohols, aldehydes, lactones and furanones are also found to be contributing sweet, fruity, creamy and caramel like notes in ripened fruits. Each fruit has unique aroma due to perfect qualitative and quantitative blend of these volatile chemicals (Brady, 1987).



Linalool, ethyl acetate, phenylacetonitrile, benzyl isothiocynate, methyl butanoate, ethyl butanoate, 3-methylbutanol, benzyl alcohol, α-terpineol and butanol



Acetoxyacetone, p-allyl phenol, γ -butyrolactone, β -hydroxyhexanoic acids, 4-methoxy-2,5-dimethyl-2(H)-furan-3-one, methyl esters of β -hydroxybutyric acid, γ -octalactone, 2-propenyl hexanoate, sesquiterpenes, 1-(E, Z)-3,5-undecatriene



Butyrates, butyl acetate, 2,5-dimethyl-4-hydroxy-3(2H)-furanone, dimethyl-4-methoxy-3(2H)-furanone, γ -decalactone, γ -odecalactone, ethyl butanoate, ethyl cinnamates, ethyl hexanoate, ethyl 3-methylbutanoate, ethyl propanoate, farnesyl acetate, furaneol, furaneol- β -glucoside, geraniol, 2-heptanone, hexanal, (E)-2-hexenal, hexyl acetate, linalool, methyl cinnamates, methyl and ethyl acetates, methyl anthranilate, methyl butanoate, methyl 2-methylbutanoate, methyl hexanoate, mesifurane, propionates, and 1-octen-3-one



Acetaldehyde, acetoin, carvone, β -damascenone, (E,E)-2,4-decadienal, diacetyl, dodecanal,ethyl acetate, ethyl butanoate, ethyl propanoate, ethyl-2-methylpropanoate, ethyl-2-methyl butanoate, ethyl hexanoate, ethyl-3-hydroxy hexanoate, ethyl octanoate, ethyl decanoate, geranial citronellal, hexanal, limonene, methyl butanoate, 3-methyl butanol, neral, nonanal, (E)-2-nonenal, 1-penten-3-one, 1-octanol, β-sinensal, α-terpincol, and terpinen-4-ol



Benzaldehyde, benzyl alcohol, γ -caprolactone, cis-3-hexenyl acetate, β - damascenone, γ -decalactone, (*E,E*)-2,4-decadienal, δ -decalactone, γ -decalactone, dimethyl disulfide, γ -dodecalactone, δ -dodecalactone, ethyl acetate, ethyl butanoate, ethyl octanoate, γ -decalactone, hexanal, (*Z*)-3-hexen-1-ylacetate, (*E*)-2-hexen-1-ol, (*Z*)-3-hexenal, γ -jasmolactone, linalool, methyl octanoate, γ -octalactone, δ - octalactone, δ -pentyl- α -pyrone, and terpinolene



Alcohols, aldehydes, 1-butyl acetate, butyl-2-methylbutanoate, β -damascenone, ethyl butanoate, ethyl butanoate, ethyl-2-methylbutanoate, n-hexanal, 1-hexanol, hexen-1-ol, hexyl acetate, hexyl butanoate, hexyl-2-methylbutanoate, hexyl propanoate, ketone, 2-methylbutanoate, methyl-2-methylbutanoate, propyl-2-methylbutanoate, pentyl acetate, 1-propyl propionate, trans-2-hexenal and trans-2-hexen-1-ol

Figure 1.3 Composition of aroma volatiles in various fruits

Many popular fruits are mined to fetch the key aroma imparting volatiles to their ripe stages (Figure 1.3). The list includes apple (Dixon and Hewett, 2000; Flath et al., 1969; Mehinagic et al., 2006), banana (Golding et al., 1999), papaya (Almora et

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al., 2004; Flath et al., 1990; Heidlas et al., 1984; Pino et al., 2003), kiwifruit (Gilbert et al., 1996), litchi (Chyau et al., 2003), grapes (Sánchez-Palomo et al., 2005), citrus fruits (Berger, 2007; Berry et al., 1983), peach (Aubert et al., 2003; Horvat et al., 1992; Narain et al., 1990), jackfruit (Maia et al., 2004; Ong et al., 2006), pineapple (Berger et al., 1985; Berger et al., 1983; Takeoka et al., 1991; Tokitomo et al., 2005), strawberry (Forney et al., 2000; Hakala et al., 2002; Sanz et al., 1994; Ulrich et al., 2007; Whitaker and Evans, 1987) and mango (Pino et al., 2005; Quijano et al., 2007). Hundreds of different volatile compounds responsible for their characteristic odor have been investigated from various fruits. Also, Aroma volatile composition of these fruits varies qualitatively and quantitatively across various fruit developmental stages.

Scientists around the world are still investigating complex ripening process and aroma volatile biosynthesis in different fruits. Aroma volatiles are diverse among various fruits and also amid numerous cultivars of single fruit/ species. There are thousands of different fruits species and each species has various cultivars or varieties with different properties. Thus, detailed study on each fruit cultivar is insinuated.

1.4 Mango: The king of fruits

Among all fruits, mango is highly favored and known as "The king of fruits". Mango i.e. *Mangifera indica* L. is an Angiosperm from order Sapindales and family Anacardiaceae. It is known to be originated in south-east Asia i.e. Indo-Burma region (Ravishankar et al., 2000). It is a tropical fruit and also known as "Apple of the tropics". There are thousands of different mango varieties across world, to example few Haden, Tommy Atkins, Alice, Ataulfo, Edward, Fazli, Keitt, Kent, Osteen, Sindhri, Alphonso, Kesar, Pairi, Dashehari, Banganpalli and Zill are famous cultivars. Mango is commercially cultivated over 103 countries of the world (Jiang et al., 2010). India, China, Thailand, Indonesia, Mexico and Pakistan are the major mango producing countries as described in Figure 1.4. In the year 2014 the world mango production was around 45.37 million metric tonnes (MMT), with India as the highest mango producing (18.43 MMT) country, which is around 40% of global mango production (Figure 1.5a). However, India held second rank in the year 2013 in mango export (0.26 MMT) after Mexico which was 0.33 MMT as shown in Figure 1.5b (http://faostat.fao.org/).

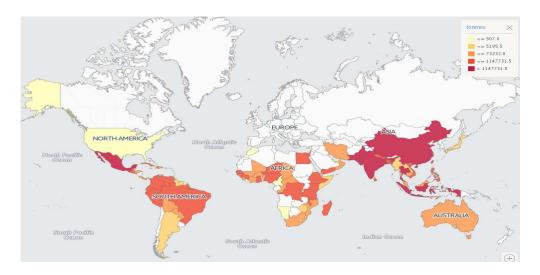


Figure 1.4 Major mango producing countries across world

Source: http://www.fao.org/faostat

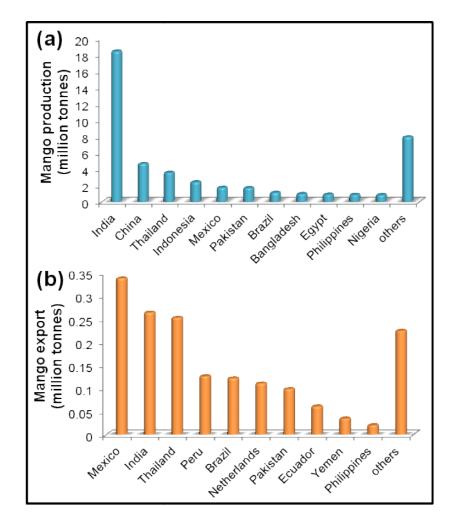


Figure 1.5 Mango production and export statisticsMango production in year 2014 (a) and export in year 2013 (b) data from few top-most countries

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There are thousands of mango varieties in India itself as it is the centre for diversity of mango. Various mango varieties are famous from different states of India (Figure 1.6). To list a few Alphonso, Kesar and Pairi from Mahatashtra, Gujarat and Karnataka; Dashehari, Langra and Chausa are famous in North Indian states; whereas Banganapalli, Neelam and Totapuri are the favorite varieties in South-India. Amid these Alphonso is legendary mango cultivar across the world due to its unique aroma, attractive color, low fibre containing pulp and long shelf life (Tharanathan et al., 2006a). To understand the biochemical and molecular mechanisms of flavor development during mango ripening various studies have been undertaken such as analysis of aroma volatiles, genes responsible for ripening and flavor biogenesis as well as proteomic and transcriptomic analysis. These studies revealed many important findings which are summarised in following sections.



Figure 1.6 Famous mango cultivars from different parts of India Source: http://mangoworldmagazine.blogspot.in/2016/06/india-mango-that-time-forgot.html

1.5 Biochemical characterization of mango flavor

Metabolites synthesized during fruit development and ripening are the actual and final indicative of molecular and physiological processes; few of them are also known to trigger other metabolic processes. Various analyses to decipher the volatile composition of number of mango cultivars all over the world indicate presence of myriad compounds, belonging to various chemical classes' *viz.* alcohol, aldehyde, benzenoid, ester, ketone, lactone and terpenoid, the number touching 400. The attempts have also revealed mango germplasm as the vast and the most diverse pool of volatiles. However, this vast germplasm largely remained unattended for their volatile composition sparing a few preliminary reports.

1.5.1 Deciphering the volatile diversity of mango cultivars

Initial work on mango volatiles dates back to 70's wherein organoleptic flavor properties of Alphonso, Langra, Rajapuri, Neelam and Totapuri mango cultivars were compared to their fatty acid composition and postulated correlation of palmitic acid to palmitoleic acid ratio and aroma intensities of these cultivars (Bandyopadhyay and Gholap, 1973c). Further, volatiles of canned Alphonso mango were analysed (Hunter et al., 1974) considering importance of the processed fruit products, closely followed by the volatile analysis of latex of Alphonso and Batali cultivars from India (Gholap and Bandyopadhyay, 1977). Both the studies implied dominance of terpene hydrocarbons in the volatile profile of mango. Earlier studies (Engel and Tressl, 1983; Idstein and Schreier, 1985) revealed a large spectrum of Alphonso volatiles and showed, β-myrcene and Z-ocimene as the main constituents of Alphonso mango flavor along with the presence of 14 different γ - and δ -lactones. Further, gas chromatographic volatile analysis of Venezuelan mangoes showed eight monoterpenes dominating overall flavor and comprising 54% of the sample, amid which δ -3-carene showed major contribution of about 26% (Macleod and Detroconis, 1982). Similarly dominance of δ-3-carene was reported from Brazilian Haden, Tommy and Keith mango cultivars (Andrade et al., 2000) as well as from Columbian Haden, Irwin, Manila and Tommy Atkins cultivars (Quijano et al., 2007). A report from comparative analysis of volatile composition from three mango cultivars from Shri Lanka showed qualitative and quantitative differences, wherein Jaffna mango

cultivar produced mainly cis- β -ocimene, whereas α -terpinolene found to be dominating in Willard and Parrot mango cultivars (MacLeod and Pieris, 1984). Interestingly, Kensington Pride mango contains esters as the second major contributor (33%) to aroma volatile profile followed by monoterpenes (49%) (MacLeod et al., 1988). Green Thai mango cultivar Khieo Sawoei has been investigated to be containing higher contributions of C6 aldehydes and alcohols along with the γ -terpinene and (E)- β -ocimene based on their odor thresholds (Tamura et al., 2001).

With the progressive advancement in the analytical techniques, more detailed analyses of mango volatiles were carried out in different parts of the world. The studies depicted major share of terpene hydrocarbons with the qualitative and quantitative variation of other classes of volatiles such as aldehydes, alcohols, esters, furanones, lactones, non–terpene hydrocarbons, nor-isoprenoids, etc. However, most of these reports targeted non-Indian cultivars leaving large mango germplasm of India unnoticed. A study which analysed and quantified the volatile profile of ripe fruits of 22 Indian and 5 non-Indian mango cultivars (Pandit et al., 2009a) was pioneering. Quantitatively, this data set generated the broadest ever range of volatile compounds wherein the highest and the lowest values were contributed by the Indian cultivars, *viz.* Langra and Chandrama, respectively (Figure 1.7).

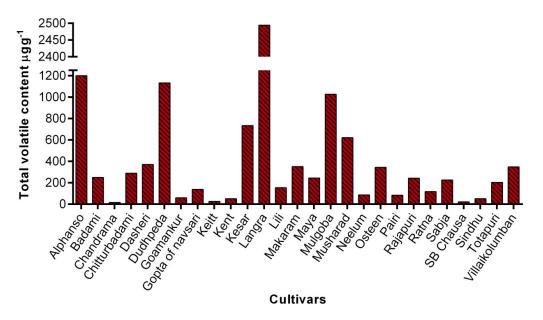


Figure 1.7 Total volatile content of various mango cultivars

Among the set of eighty four volatile compounds identified in this analysis, the lowest number of volatiles contributed to the blend of Pairi while the blend of Alphonso flavor experienced the numerical dominance of volatile compounds. Moreover, the highest number of lactones was detected only in the fruits of Alphonso supporting the previous reports. This study also showed the dominance of terpene hydrocarbons in the volatile profile of all 27 cultivars. Moreover, monoterpene hydrocarbons, β -myrcene and (Z)-ocimene significantly contributed to the flavor of most of the Indian cultivars, whereas δ -3-carene invariably dominated the blend of non-Indian cultivars. In the same study twenty cultivars formed the first group with monoterpene dominance while seven cultivars formed the sesquiterpene dominant group. This was the first report revealing sesquiterpene dominant class of mango cultivars wherein all the seven cultivars in this group were of Indian origin. India being the centre of origin and diversity of mango, such studies may be helpful in planning breeding strategies to obtain desired quality cultivars and for the food processing industry to obtain cultivar specific flavor.

1.5.2 Development and ripening of mango: A flavouring volatile perspective

Aroma volatile analysis of various mango cultivars across the world suggested secondary metabolite diversity among them in terms of number of metabolites detected and their quantities. As most of the studies analysed aroma volatiles from various ripe mango cultivars, next target was to study changes in these volatile profiles during their development and ripening. Earlier study (Gholap et al., 1986) reporting olfactory analysis of various ripening stages of Alphonso mango described aroma of raw mango as more terpenic and earthy-like, whereas that of ripe stage with addition of coconut/almond like notes. Later, over-ripe stage of only two cultivars viz. Keitt (Macleod and Snyder, 1985) and Kensington pride (Bartley and Schwede, 1987) was monitored for their volatile content. Keitt experienced synthesis of off flavor alcohols whereas Kensington pride showed reduced levels of ethyl butanoate. Another work carried out on Kensington Pride mango showed dominance of terpene hydrocarbons with α -terpenolene as a major compound of early ripening with higher share of δ -3-carene in the late ripening stages. However, ripening of Kensington Pride mango was characterised by increased concentration of ethyl octanoate (Lalel et al.,

2003a, b). Further this study also reported synthesis of terpenes parallel to ethylene biosynthesis, whereas esters were found to be associated with fatty acid production. A comparative study of ripening stages of Cogshall, Keitt and Kent using two distinct analytical techniques also revealed important harvest maturity indices based on the volatile profile, to obtain optimum quality fruits (Lebrun et al., 2008).

Among the vast germplasm of Indian mango, Alphonso is the most popular cultivar mainly because of its highly delicious flavor, in addition to its attractive color, low fibre containing sweet pulp and long shelf life. Owing to these properties, its raw as well as ripe fruits are largely utilised in various cuisines and in food processing industries in India. With this knowledge five developing and five ripening stages of fruits, flowers and leaves of Alphonso mango along with mature raw and ripe fruits of cv. Sabja were rigorously studied for their volatile composition (Pandit et al., 2009b). This study revealed differential pattern of 55 volatile compounds throughout the analysed data set among which monoterpene hydrocarbons qualitatively and quantitatively dominated the volatile profile at all the stages followed by sesquiterpene and lactones. Interestingly, the study also confirmed the *de novo* presence of lactones and furanones at the ripening stages which could be credited for the coconut/almond like notes of ripe Alphonso fruits.

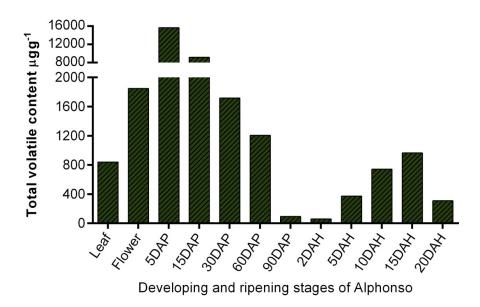


Figure 1.8 Total volatile content of various Alphonso tissues

Further, qualitative and quantitative analysis of these compounds revealed few stages as important time points in the development and ripening of the Alphonso fruit. One such stage was 5DAP which contributed the highest amount of volatiles to the fruit closely followed by 15DAP and these two were collectively termed as 'jump start' stage as the concentration of total volatiles gradually decreased in the further stages (Figure 1.8). Lactones and furanones which are vital flavorants of ripe Alphonso fruits (Wilson et al., 1990) showed *de novo* appearance at 10 DAH and the highest share to 15DAH stage. This was in agreement with the previous organoleptic analysis (Gholap et al., 1986) which suggested 15 DAH as the perfect ripe stage with the highest lactone content. In Alphonso, over–ripening was characterized by reduction in the quantities of terpenes and lactones and increase in the furanones (Pandit et al., 2009b).

1.6 Molecular characterization of mango genes

Development and ripening of any fruit is characterized by a coordinated series of many genetic, metabolic and physiological events. Such processes are largely studied targeting the genes that are directly or indirectly involved in these events. Such earlier attempt in the fruits *viz.* strawberry (Aharoni and O'Connell, 2002), banana (Mbeguie-A-Mbeguie et al., 2009), pineapple (Moyle et al., 2006) and melon (Nagasawa et al., 2005) have exemplified the role of varied fruit specific genes in their ripening.

1.6.1 Differential expression of genes during development and ripening of mango

Molecular biology of mango has a very recent history with a share of bunch of studies mainly targeted to various aspects of ripening. Pioneering study reported *in vitro* translation of total RNA from unripe and ripe mango fruits, these translated products showed differential patterns in both the stages, thus indicating ripening specific expression of various genes (Lopez-Gomez and Gomez-Lim, 1993). Further, genetic transformation of *ACC oxidase* gene in somatic proembryos of mango has been carried out but did not report phenotypic effect of the transformation (Cruz-Hernandez et al., 1996). Differential expression of five genes *viz.* PRL1 protein, transcription initiation factor, CCR4 protein and 18S and 23S rRNA encoding genes

from Alphonso and Totapuri mango cultivars was reported, wherein all the five genes were found to be regulatory elements and did not show any direct relation to ripening related events (Saiprasad et al., 2004). Fruit ripening and softening related genes viz. pectate lyase and expansin were characterized from Dashehari mango, these genes showed fruit and ripening specific expression which was inhibited/delayed upon 1-MCP treatment to fruits (Chourasia et al., 2006a; Sane et al., 2005). This study also confirmed application of 1-MCP in delaying mango ripening. Relative quantification of eighteen genes from Alphonso mango was studied through fruit development and ripening, which for the first time reported various genes related to terpene metabolism (Isopentenyl pyrophosphate isomerase, geranyl pyrophosphate synthase, geranyl geranyl pyrophosphate synthase and farnasyl pyrophosphate synthase). Terpene is an important and most abundant class of aroma volatiles in all the mango cultivars. Relative quantification of these genes showed their differential expression during various stages and was correlated to their volatile content (Pandit et al., 2010). Similarly, various other genes related to stress response, ethylene response, protein synthesis and turnover viz. Isochorismate hydrolase, Glucosyl transferase, Monodehydrogenase ascorbate reductase, Methyl transferase, Small heat shock protein, Metallothionein, Chitinase, Ethylene response factor, Lipoxygenase and Ubiquitin-protein ligase were studied for their relative expression through various stages of development and ripening of Alphonso mango (Pandit et al., 2010). Mango fruits are enriched source of various vitamins. Emphasizing their importance a key gene encoding hydroxyphenylpyruvate dioxygenase involved in tocopherol biosynthesis was isolated and characterized from Dashehari mango (Singh et al., 2011). Transcript analysis of this gene suggested its ripening related expression in fruits and was positively influenced by ethylene and abscisic acid treatments. Though all these studies flourished good knowledge in the field of mango molecular biology, they remain restricted to one or the other biosynthetic pathway or ripening related event.

Advancement of analytical techniques such as RNA sequencing (RNAseq) or next generation sequencing (NGS) in molecular biology provided way to study thousands of genes simultaneously during complex events of fruit ripening. In recent years RNAseq data from Langra, Kent, Zill and Dashehari mango has been reported, which identified 30509, 33142, 54207 and 74312 unique transcripts from these

cultivars, respectively (Azim et al., 2014; Dautt-Castro et al., 2015; Srivastava et al., 2016; Wu et al., 2014b). Huge data generated in these studies was further utilized to identify differentially expressed genes from raw and ripe fruits of Kent and Dashehari mangoes, which revealed many differences in their transcriptomic profiles and suggested cultivar specific variations in gene expression.

1.6.2 Aroma volatile biosynthesis in mango

1.6.2.1 Terpene backbone biosynthesis

'Terpene hydrocarbon' is a well studied class of plant secondary metabolites mainly due to its role in various biochemical processes such as attracting and guiding the pollinators, protecting the vital reproductive parts of plants from enemies and direct or indirect defence (Dudareva et al., 2004). Apart from this, they are key odorants of flowers and fruits. Aroma of mango fruits is known to be invariably dominated by terpenes. Monoterpens and sesquiterpene biosynthesis take place in plastids and cytosol, respectively (Bouvier et al., 2005). Though their locations of biosynthesis are different, both are synthesized from isopentenyl diphosphate (IPP) and dimethylallyl diphosphate (DMAPP). These IPP and DMAPP are synthesized in plastids as well as cytosol by MEP and MVP pathways, respectively (Figure 1.9). Further, enzymatic condensation of IPP and DMAPP results in synthesis of geranyl diphosphate, farnesyl diphosphate and geranyl geranyl diphosphate and the reactions are catalysed by GPPS, FPPS and GGPPS, respectively as represented in Figure 1.10. These genes involved in biosynthesis of terpene backbones have been well studied from many other plant species such as Mentha x piperita, Antirrhinum majus and Humulus lupulus (Burke et al., 1999; Szkopiñska and Plochocka, 2005; Tholl et al., 2004; Wang and Dixon, 2009).

Mango flavor being dominated by terpenes, studying the terpene biosynthesis in mango would be a productive approach to understand its metabolism. Only one such study has been reported till date in which three isoprenyl diphosphate synthase genes (IDS) which provide branch point for the synthesis of monoterpenes and sesquiterpenes were isolated and characterized from Alphonso mango (Kulkarni et al., 2012). Real time analysis of *Mi*GPS1, *Mi*GPS2 and *Mi*FPS genes during ripening stages depicted increased transcript level during mid ripe and complete ripe stages

which showed good correlation with monoterpene and sesquiterpene profiles of ripening Alphonso mango. Recently, Transcriptomic studies have also reported presence and differential expression of these genes till isoprenoid diphosphate biosynthesis but failed to report terminal gene homologs for monoterpene, sesquiterpene and diterpene synthases from mango (Dautt-Castro et al., 2015; Srivastava et al., 2016).

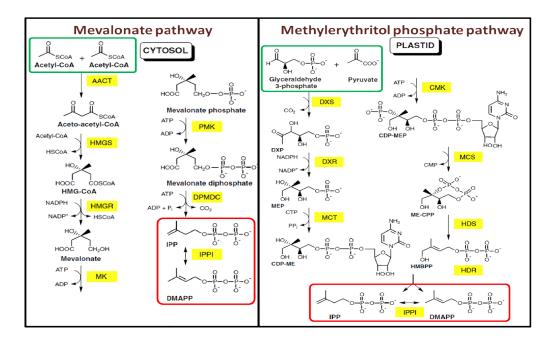


Figure 1.9 Cytosolic and plastidial IPP and DMAPP biosynthesis pathways Source: (Bouvier et al., 2005)

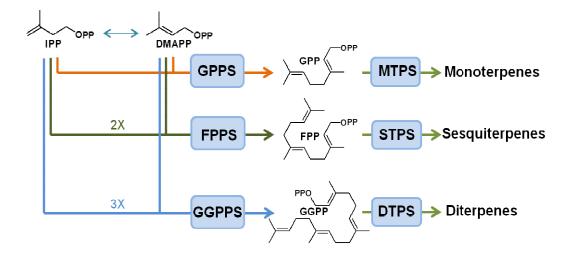


Figure 1.10 Terpene biosynthesis pathway

1.6.2.2 Fruity and caramel aroma of mango: Biosynthesis of Furanones

Furaneol and mesifuran are two furanones and showed their ripening specific appearance during mango ripening. Furaneol has long history as a principle odor compound of pineapple and its odor has been described as of 'burnt pineapple' by the researchers (Flath and Forrey, 1970). It has also been reported as an important aroma component of strawberry and tomato (Schwab and Roscher, 1997). This compound is known to impart sweet fruity odor and also has low odor detection threshold due to which smaller quantities of this compound are enough to impart a characteristic note to the fruits (Wilson et al., 1990). Biosynthesis of furaneol has been studied only from strawberry and tomato which revealed that D-fructose-1,6-diphosphate is first converted by an unknown enzyme into an unstable intermediate, 4-hydroxy-5-methyl-2-methylene-3(2H)-furanone (HMMF), further this HMFF is converted into furaneol by an enzyme enone oxidoreductase as described in Figure 1.11 (Klein et al., 2007; Raab et al., 2006). Enone oxidoreductase from strawberry also showed its highest expression during late ripening stages and correlated with furaneol content during these stages (Raab et al., 2006).

Alphonso fruit flavor analysis during ripening revealed *de novo* appearance of furaneol (4-hydroxy-2,5-dimethyl-3(2H)-furanone) and its methyl derivative mesifuran (2,5-dimethyl-4-methoxy-3(2H)-furanone) (Pandit et al., 2009b). Considering it as vital flavor contributor to ripe Alphonso fruits, an enone oxidoreductase from Alphonso was isolated and characterized (Kulkarni et al., 2013a), which showed sequence similarity to alkenal/eone oxidoreductase from cucumber and enone oxidoreductases from tomato and strawberry. Recombinant protein catalyzed biosynthesis of furaneol from D-fructose-1,6-diphosphate with NADH as reducing agent. Further, mango enone oxidoreductase (*Mi*EO) showed reducing activity towards highly reactive carbonyls such as 3-buten-2-one and 1-penten-3-one similar to the oxidoreductase from cucumber leaves (Yamauchi et al., 2011).

Mesifuran is another important furanone detected from mango during ripening which is accountable for caramel like notes. Mesifuran biosynthesis has been investigated in strawberry for the first time, wherein *O-methyltransferase* (FaOMT)

catalysed synthesis of mesifuran from furaneol. Also, real time PCR analysis showed good correlation of its transcripts and mesifuran levels in ripening strawberries (Wein et al., 2002).

Similar methyltransferase homolog from Alphonso mango (*MiOMTS*) was isolated and characterized. Recombinant enzyme showed conversion of furaneol to mesifuran by utilizing SAM (S-adenosyl-L-methionine) as methyl donor (Figure 1.11). At the same time *in vitro* studies of recombinant protein coded by this *MiOMTS* also showed conversion of protocatechuic aldehyde to vanillin confirming its activity towards various substrates. Significant increase in the mesifuran was evinced in ethylene treated Alphonso mangoes during ripening and qPCR analysis of *O-methyltransferase* in ethylene treated mangoes also showed significant rise in its transcripts compared to untreated mangoes confirming ethylene driven transcriptional regulation of this gene (Chidley et al., 2016b).

Figure 1.11 Furanone biosynthesis

1.6.2.3 Ester biosynthesis

Various esters have been reported from variety of fruits and known to contribute sweet aroma to ripened fruits. Kensington Pride, Baladi and Cuban mango cultivars showed significant amounts of ethyl butanoate amid various aroma volatiles (Bartley and Schwede, 1987; Engel and Tressl, 1983). Similarly, Keitt and Tommy Atkins mango cultivars showed presence of ethyl acetate and various C5, C6, C7, C8 and C10 esters. These esters are synthesized from aldehydes of different chain lengths originating from diverse metabolic pathways and converted to corresponding alcohols by activity of alcohol dehydrogenase (ADH). Further esters are synthesized from these alcohols upon action of alcohol acyltransferase (AAT) along with acetylCoA (Pérez et al., 1996) as described in Figure 1.12. Three different transcript variants of ADH have been reported from Dashehari mango, wherein ADH1 and 2 transcripts

were abundant during initial stages of ripening, where as ADH3 was abundant during early fruit developing stages. All the three ADH variants from Dashehari mango showed positive response towards ethylene treatment whereas their response towards abscisic acid was different (Singh et al., 2010). This study analyzed ADH from mango in detail but further functional analysis is needed. Though AAT from mango is not functionally characterized various studies showed its involvement in esters synthesis from various fruits (Pérez et al., 1996). A study in transgenic melon showed decreased AAT activities, which resulted in 22 % decrease in the content of esters, while alcohol and aldehyde content was found to be increased (Shan et al., 2012).

Figure 1.12 Ester biosynthesis pathway

1.6.2.4 Mysterious lactone biosynthesis

Aroma volatile analysis of mango revealed ripening specific appearance of furanones and lactones, which can be considered as marker metabolites of mango ripening. Interestingly 14 different lactones have been reported from Alphonso, which is the highest number of lactones known from any single fruit (Idstein and Schreier, 1985; Wilson et al., 1990). Although lactones exhibit qualitative abundance, they are present at lower concentrations in Alphonso but have high impact on overall flavor of Alphonso due to their lower odor detection threshold. Further, lactones are known to impart sweet fruity flavor which is the characteristic feature of fully ripe fruit (Wilson et al., 1990). Though lactones are important constituent of fruit flavor their biosynthesis pathway is still unknown and further detailed study at metabolite and molecular level is required.

Metabolite and molecular studies have given useful insights in to mango flavor. Cultivar specific aroma volatiles and their modulation during fruit development and ripening have been well explored. Similarly, various molecular studies have characterized few biosynthetic pathways in mango by means of gene isolation, qPCR and *in vitro* analysis. Surprisingly, none of the studies focused on functional characterization and *in planta* approach. Cultivar specific transcriptomic studies to identify key genes and their functional characterization are required to understand mango flavor biogenesis *in toto*.

Genesis of thesis and its organization

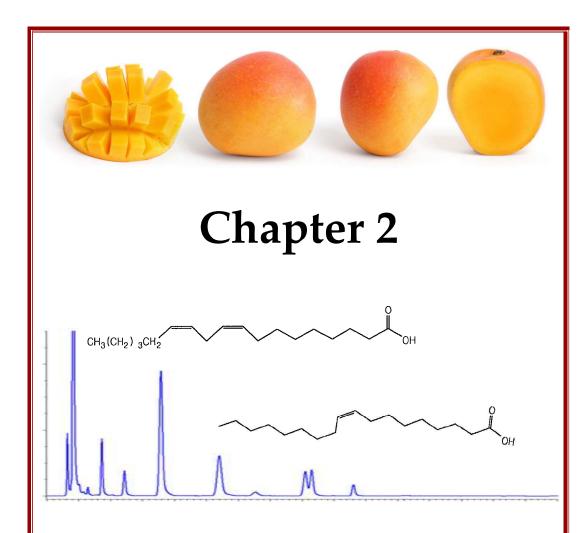
Decades of efforts involved in understanding the mango flavor revealed substantial findings through various mango cultivars across the globe. Plant Molecular Biology group at CSIR- National Chemical Laboratory, Pune, India has been working to reveal secrets of mango flavor and its biogenesis. The journey started with the ISSR marker and aroma volatile study to understand molecular and metabolite diversity amid various mango cultivars, which revealed qualitative abundance of aroma volatiles in Alphonso (Pandit et al., 2009a; Pandit et al., 2007). Further studies were undertaken to reveal changes in the aroma volatiles during fruit development and ripening, at various geographic locations and upon exogenous ethylene treatment in Alphonso (Chidley et al., 2013; Kulkarni et al., 2012; Pandit et al., 2009b). Molecular studies were also carried out which depicted biosynthesis of furanones and precursors for terpene metabolism from Alphonso mango (Chidley et al., 2016b; Kulkarni et al., 2013a).

Possessing this valuable knowledge about mango flavor biogenesis and aspiration to discover something novel, I initiated my Ph.D. work to identify novel genes involved in mango ripening and flavor biogenesis, in particular to get insight into unanswered lactone biosynthesis pathway.

The present thesis has been organized in following manner

- **Chapter 1:** General Introduction and Review of Literature
- Chapter 2: Changes in fatty acid composition during fruit development and ripening of three mango cultivars (Alphonso, Pairi and Kent) varying in lactone content
- Chapter 3: Isolation and characterization of 9-lipoxygenase and epoxide hydrolase2 genes: Insight into lactone biosynthesis in mango fruit (Mangifera indica L.)
- Chapter 4: Transcriptional transitions in Alphonso mango (*Mangifera indica* L.) during fruit development and ripening explain distinct aroma and shelf life characteristics

Summary and future directions Bibliography



Changes in fatty acid composition during fruit development and ripening of three mango cultivars (Alphonso, Pairi and Kent) varying in lactone content

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Chapter 2 Changes in fatty acid composition during fruit development and ripening of three mango cultivars (Alphonso, Pairi and Kent) varying in lactone content

2.1 Introduction

Fruits have always remained integral part of human diet due to their nutritional quality wrapped together with delicious taste and aroma. Fruits are a good source of all the seven nutrients required by human beings *viz*. carbohydrates, proteins, fatty acids, dietary fibres, minerals, vitamins and water. Various diet studies have therefore, suggested daily consumption of fruits as a part of healthy diet (Sachdeva et al., 2013; Willett et al., 1995). Fatty acids are the important component of fruits as they are involved in multiple cellular, physiological, protective and defensive mechanisms. Apart from this fruits are good source of essential fatty acids from consumer point of view.

Mango (Mangifera indica L.) is vastly preferred among all the fruits due to its nutritional composition, sweet taste and creamy, fruity aroma (Tharanathan et al., 2006b). A detailed study on mango volatiles (Pandit et al., 2009a; Pandit et al., 2009b), sugar content (Castrillo et al., 1992) and ripening related changes (Yashoda et al., 2006) has been carried out. However, studies targeting fatty acid composition of mango are relatively less attempted. Fatty acid analysis of Alphonso, Neelam, Langra, Totapuri and Rajapuri cultivars at ripe stage suggested abundance of palmitic acid, palmitoleic acid and oleic acid in ripe pulp of all these cultivars than rest of the fatty acids (Bandyopadhyay and Gholap, 1973a). This study was closely followed by another attempt wherein a correlation between fatty acid composition and organoleptic properties of Alphonso mango fruits was stated (Bandyopadhyay and Gholap, 1973b; Gholap and Bandyopadhyay, 1975). An earlier report on lipid content of peel and pulp of five mango cultivars (Pathak and Sarada, 1974) gave initial insights about the lipid content of mango, where the total lipid content ranged between 0.75-1.7% for peel and 0.8-1.36% for pulp of ripe mango. Similarly fatty acid analysis of ripe Kent mango reflected abundance of palmitic, palmitoleic and α linolenic acids (Pott et al., 2003). A study on lipid content of seed (kernel) from

various mango varieties of Thailand (Sonwai and Ponprachanuvut, 2014) and African Bush mango (Olawale, 2010) displayed mango seeds as a rich source of lipids.

All the studies carried out till date to estimate fatty acid content of mango pulp, peel and seed reported relative quantification of individual fatty acids (percent of fatty acid from total fatty acid content). Relative quantification becomes ambiguous as the method is based on number of compounds identified and quantified in the respective study. Thus, the absolute quantification of individual fatty acids has been focused in the present study.

Fatty acids are well known precursors for a class of aroma volatiles called green leaf volatiles (GLVs) which include hexanal, trans-2-hexenal, trans-2-octanal, heptanal, 2-nonenal and 1-penten-3-one (Goff and Klee, 2006). These compounds are responsible for green grassy aroma (Matsui, 2006) and their presence was reported during early stages of Alphonso fruit development (Pandit et al., 2009b). Lactones is another group of aroma volatiles synthesized from fatty acids and contribute creamy, caramel, peach or coconut like aroma based on the type of γ or δ lactone (Xi et al., 2012). Lactones have been shown to be ripening specific compounds and their qualitative and quantitative variation amid various mango cultivars as well as pulp and skin of Alphonso mango have been reported (Chidley et al., 2013; Pandit et al., 2009a).

As lactones have a significant share in the flavor character of Alphonso mango, analysis of their precursor i.e. fatty acids during the development and ripening of Alphonso mango will shade light on their biosynthesis. In this view, present study was undertaken for detailed profiling of fatty acids through various developing and ripening stages of three mango cultivars *viz*. Alphonso (lactone rich cultivar), Pairi and Kent (lactone less cultivars) (Pandit et al., 2009a) to understand their nutritional and flavor related importance.

2.2 Materials and methods

2.2.1 Plant material

Mangifera indica L. (Anacardiaceae) fruits of cv. Alphonso and cv. Pairi were collected from mango orchards at the Mango Research Sub Centre (16.528336 N, 73.344790 E), Deogad and of cv. Kent from mango orchards at the Regional Fruit Research Station (15.856849 N, 73.653387 E), Vengurle, both affiliated to Dr. Balasaheb Sawant Konkan Agricultural University, Dapoli, Maharashtra, India. Developing stages of all the three mango cultivars were collected at 15, 30 and 60 days after pollination (DAP) and at mature raw stage (90 DAP for cvs. Alphonso and Pairi, 110 DAP for cv. Kent). Fruits at these developing stages were harvested, pulp (mesocarp) and skin (exocarp) separated immediately, snap frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C until further use. A set of 12 fruits each for all the three cultivars were additionally harvested at their respective mature raw stage and kept in the hay containing boxes at ambient temperature for ripening. Three cultivars showed variation in the ripening duration, hence four ripening stages as table green, mid ripe, ripe and over ripe based on the skin color, aroma and fruit softness (each stage is represented by days after harvest i.e. DAH for cv. Alphonso as 5, 10, 15 and 20 days; for cv. Pairi as 4, 6, 8 and 10 days and for cv. Kent as 5, 8, 10 and 13 days, respectively) were used for further analysis. At each ripening stage fruits for each cultivar were removed from the box, pulp and skin were separated, frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C till further use.

2.2.2 Transesterification of fatty acids

Fatty acid methyl esters (FAMEs) were synthesized by transesterification reaction in methanolic HCl. 500 mg of the tissue was finely crushed in liquid nitrogen and added to the 5 ml methanol containing 3M HCl, $25\mu g$ butylated hydroxyltoluene (BHT) as an antioxidant and $250~\mu g$ tridecanoic acid as an internal standard. Transesterification was carried out at $80~^{\circ} C$ in water bath for 2hrs to synthesize FAMEs. After incubation reaction mixture was cooled on ice and FAMEs were extracted twice in 2ml n-Hexane. n-Hexane layer was completely evaporated in vacuum evaporator, FAMEs were reconstituted in $250\mu l$ chloroform and used for GC-MS and GC-FID analysis.

2.2.3 Extraction of aroma volatiles

Aroma volatiles were extracted from 2 g pulp and skin of completely ripe fruits of all the 3 cultivars by solvent extraction method using 10 ml dichloromethane (DCM) with appropriate concentration of nonyl acetate as an internal standard. Extraction was carried out for 30 min at 28 °C in a shaker. DCM was decanted and centrifuged at 10,000 rpm at RT to remove remaining tissue debris. The supernatant was dehydrated with anhydrous sodium sulphate and concentrated to 1 ml using vacuum evaporator. After overnight incubation at -80 °C the extracts were centrifuged at 10,000 rpm at 4 °C for 15 min to pellet out high molecular weight lipids. The extracts were further concentrated to 100 µl and stored at -20 °C till used for GC analysis.

2.2.4 Gas chromatography analysis

2.2.4.1 Identification and quantification of FAMEs

Gas chromatographic analysis was carried out on 7890B GC system Agilent Technologies coupled with Agilent 5977A MSD (Agilent Technologies, CA, USA). lul of chloroform reconstituted FAMEs were injected for GC-MSD analysis. Method for the gas chromatographic separation of fatty acid structural isoforms was standardized, for better resolution of fatty acids 75 m long SPTM 2560 (Supelco, USA) column with 0.18 mm i.d. and 0.14 µm film thickness was used. Helium was used as the carrier gas with 1 ml min⁻¹ flow. Initial oven temperature was kept at 130 °C and held for 5 min, followed by a ramp of 10 °C min⁻¹ till 230 °C with hold at 230 °C for 20 min. Injector temperature was maintained at 250 °C, source, quadrupole and transfer line temperatures were 150 °C, 180 °C and 250 °C, respectively. Mass spectra were obtained by Agilent MSD at 70eV on scan mode with scanning time of 0.2s for range of m/z 30-400. FAMEs were identified by matching generated spectra with NIST 2011 and Wiley 10th edition mass spectral libraries. Identified compounds were confirmed by matching retention time and spectra of authentic standards procured from Sigma Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA). Identified compounds were quantified by GC-FID. Similar chromatographic conditions were maintained for GC-FID with detector temperature at 250 °C. Absolute quantification was done using internal standard by normalizing concentrations of all the FAMEs with that of tridecanoic acid methyl ester.

2.2.4.2 Qualitative and quantitative analysis of lactones

GC-MS and GC-FID analysis for lactones was carried out on similar instrument used for analysis of FAMEs. Aroma volatiles were separated on GsBP-5MS (General Separation Technologies, Newark, DE, USA) capillary column (30 m × 0.32 mm i.d. × 0.25 µm film thickness). Other chromatographic conditions were maintained as mentioned earlier in our previous studies (Kulkarni et al., 2012). Since fatty acids are known to be the precursors for lactone biosynthesis, qualitative and quantitative analysis for lactones alone was carried out in the present study. Lactones were identified by matching generated spectra with NIST 2011 and Wiley 10th edition mass spectral libraries. Identified compounds were confirmed by matching retention time and spectra of authentic standards procured from Sigma Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA). Absolute quantification was done using internal standard by normalizing concentrations of all the lactones with that of known concentration of nonyl acetate.

2.2.5 Statistical analysis

To validate data statistically tissue for each developing and ripening stages were collected from fruits of 3 independent trees for cv. Alphonso and 2 independent trees each for cv. Pairi and cv. Kent. These were considered as biological replicates. Extraction of FAMEs and volatiles was carried out twice for each tissue as technical replicates followed by duplicate GC-FID runs of each extracts as analytical replicates. Fisher's LSD test was performed separately for pulp and skin at $p \le 0.05$ by ANOVA for comparative analysis of quantity of each fatty acid during various developing and ripening stages from each cultivar. Also comparison was done for each fatty acid at individual stage among the three cultivars using StatView software, version 5.0 (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA). Similarly, ANOVA was carried out for lactone content of ripe pulp and skin from the three cultivars. Correlation analysis of total lactone content with individual fatty acid content and individual lactone content with individual fatty acid content from the pulp and the skin of three cultivars at ripe stage was studied using StatView software. Principle component analysis for whole data set of fatty acid content was carried out using Systat statistical software (Version11, Richmond, CA, USA).

2.3 Results

2.3.1 Fatty acid composition of mango pulp and skin

Total 17 different fatty acids were identified (Figure 2.1 and Figure 2.2) and quantified from the pulp and the skin tissues (Table 2.1, Table 2.2 and Figure 2.3) at various stages of development and ripening from three mango cultivars viz. Alphonso, Pairi and Kent. Collectively pulp and skin showed presence of 6 saturated fatty acids (myristic, palmitic, stearic, arachidic, behenic and lignoceric acid) having carbon chain length ranging from C14 to C24 at all the developing and ripening stages. Total four unsaturated fatty acids were detected through all the stages of pulp and skin of which two were mono-unsaturated (palmitoleic and oleic acid) and remaining two were poly-unsaturated viz. linoleic acid (LA) and α-linolenic acid (ALA). Seven unusual fatty acids were identified with respect to chain length, position of unsaturation and their abundance in nature. Odd chain fatty acids were 2, 4heptadienoic acid and 10-heptadecenoic acid of which the later was present only in the pulp of all the three cultivars. Similarly, 9, 12-hexadecadienoic acid and 9, 15octadecadienoic acids were exclusively present in the pulp tissue. Three unusual mono-unsaturated fatty acids with unsaturation at C11 viz. 11-hexadecenoic acid, 11octadecenoic acid and 11-eicosenoic acid were detected in the analysis and showed presence in the pulp as well as the skin of all the cultivars.

2.3.2 Variation in total fatty acid content of three mango cultivars

Quantitative analysis of all the fatty acids showed their variable contribution at each stage of the pulp and the skin of all the three cultivars as shown in the histogram (Figure 2.3). Increase in the total fatty acid content was observed in the pulp and the skin tissue of all the three cultivars as the ripening progressed. Total fatty acid content of Alphonso pulp was the lowest (2.85 mgg⁻¹) at table green stage and the highest (11.10 mgg⁻¹) at over ripe stage. The lowest fatty acid content in Pairi and Kent pulp was at mature raw (2.17 mgg⁻¹) and 60 DAP (1.12 mgg⁻¹) stages, and the highest content was at table green (5.17 mgg⁻¹) and over ripe (3.39 mgg⁻¹) stages, respectively. At ripe stage, total fatty acid content of Alphonso and Pairi pulp were 3.05 and 1.46 folds more than that in Kent, respectively. Skin of all the cultivars was rich in fatty acid content than the pulp at all the stages of development and ripening.

Total fatty acid content in Alphonso skin ranged from 5.48 to 11.93 mgg⁻¹, whereas for Pairi and Kent skin the values ranged between 7.64 to 13.09 mgg⁻¹ and 4.33 to 9.03 mgg⁻¹, respectively.

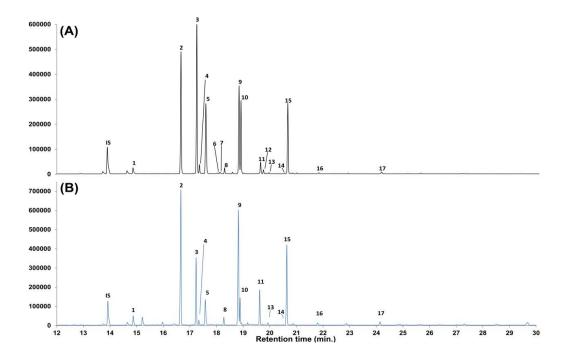


Figure 2.1 Representative fatty acid chromatograms

Representative chromatograms of fatty acids from mango pulp (a) and skin (b). Peak labels represent, compounds as IS: Internal standard, 1: Myristic acid, 2: Palmitic acid, 3: Palmitoleic acid, 4: 11-Hexadecenoic acid, 5: 2, 4-Heptadienoic acid, 6: 10-Heptadecenoic acid, 7: 9, 12-Hexadecadienoic acid, 8: Stearic acid, 9: Oleic acid, 10: 11-Octadecenoic acid, 11: Linoleic acid, 12: 9, 15 Octadecadienoic acid, 13: Arachidic acid, 14: 11-Eicosenoic acid, 15: α-Linolenic acid, 16: Behenic acid, 17: Lignoceric acid

Total saturated fatty acids from pulp (Figure 2.4) showed high levels during initial developmental stages i.e. 15DAP and 30DAP which decreased till mature raw stage for Pairi, 60 DAP for Kent and table green stage for Alphonso. Thereafter they increased till over ripe stage with their highest content 3.10, 1.10 and 0.84 mgg⁻¹ for Alphonso, Pairi and Kent, respectively (Figure 2.4). Skin shared more saturated fatty acid content than the pulp of respective cultivars at each stage. Alphonso and Pairi skin possessed the lowest saturated fatty acid content at 15 DAP and high levels at over ripe stage. Amid all the skin tissues analysed, Kent skin at mid ripe stage had the lowest (1.45 mgg⁻¹) saturated fatty acid content (Figure 2.4). Total unsaturated fatty acid content from the pulp of all the three cultivars was more than the total saturated fatty acid content at their respective stages (fold change varied between 1.5 and 3.5).

The highest unsaturated fatty acid content was evinced from Alphonso pulp at over ripe stage (Figure 2.4) which was 2.04 and 3.13 fold more than the highest levels of Pairi (table green) and Kent (over ripe) pulp, respectively. Total unsaturated fatty acid content from Kent and Alphonso pulp increased during ripening, whereas decreased in case of Pairi (table green to over ripe stage). Skin displayed high levels of total unsaturated fatty acids than the pulp at each stage of development and ripening of all the three mango cultivars and the highest level was clearly observed in Pairi skin (8.87 mgg⁻¹) at its ripe stage (Figure 2.4). Moreover, Pairi skin impressively displayed high level of total unsaturated fatty acids at every stage of development and ripening as compared to Alphonso and Kent skin.

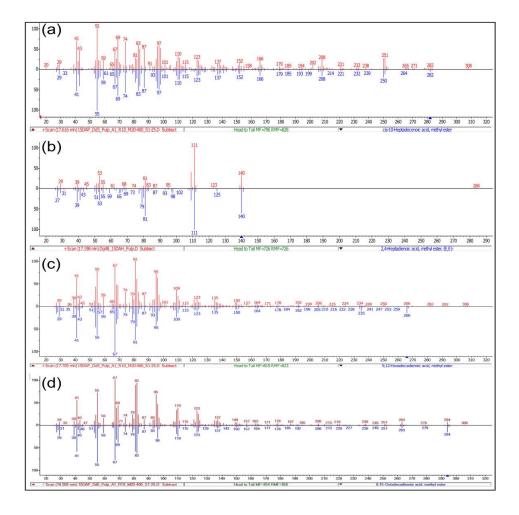


Figure 2.2 MS spectra of odd chain and unusual fatty acid methyl estersHead to tail alignment of spectra for 10-Heptadecenoic acid (a), 2, 4-Heptadienoic acid (b), 9, 12
Hexadecadienoic acid (c) and 9, 15 Octadecadienoic acid (d). Spectra in red color represent experimental spectra while spectra in blue color represent standard spectra from NIST 2011 library.

Table 2.1 Fatty acid composition of mango pulp

Fatty acid composition (μ gg-1 tissue) of pulp at various stages of fruit development and ripening from Alphonso, Pairi and Kent cultivars. Values shown are average of biological replicates sampled for the study. Difference between the stages was significant ($p \le 0.05$) if the alphabets (a, b, c....) after the quantity of the compounds are different. Difference between the cultivars for each compound at each stage was significant ($p \le 0.05$) if the alphabets (x, y, z) after the quantity of the compounds are different.

Compound		15 DAP	30 DAP	60 DAP	Mature гаw	Table green	Mid ripe	Ripe	Over ripe
Saturated fatty acids	•								
	Alphonso		5.95 ^{a,xy}	6.12 ^a	28.81 ^{a,y}	20.68 ^{a,x}	83.09 ^{b,z}	174.29 ^{c,y}	184.41 ^{c,y}
	Pairi	7.2 ^{a,xy}	7.73 ^{a,y}	6.23ª	24.66 ^{b,xy}	77.54 ^{d,y}	60.29 ^{c,y}	74.03 ^{cd,x}	77.56 ^{d,x}
	Kent	4.24 ^{a,x}	3.8 ^{a,x}	6 ^a	5.42 ^{a,x}	16.41 ^{b,x}	26.65 ^{c,x}	40.57 ^{d,x}	52.44 ^{e,x}
Palmitic acid ^a (C16:0)		1186.80 ^{a,y}	1302.72 ^{a,y}	1073.10 ^{a,y}	1097.93 ^{a,z}	922.36 ^{a,y}	1274.21 ^{a,y}	1933.43 ^{b,y}	2705.91 ^{C,y}
	Pairi	1534.97 ^{b,z}	1347.69 ^{b,y}	962.06 ^{a,y}	843.77 ^{a,y}	1117.85 ^{ab,y}	791.2 ^{a,x}	896 ^{a,x}	946.51 ^{a,x}
G : : 13 (C10 0)	Kent	830.61 ^{e,x}	456.04 ^{b,x}	290.26 ^{a,x}	517.62 ^{bc,x}	597.42 ^{c,x}	574.87 ^{c,x}	560.88 ^{c,x}	678 ^{d,x}
Stearic acid ^a (C18:0)	Alphonso		62.12 ^{b,y}	54.25 ^{ab,y}	41.49 ^{ab,z}	36.07 ^a	50.28 ^{ab,y}	75.63 ^{b,y}	115.93 ^{c,y}
	Pairi	84.9 ^{b,z}	81.52 ^{b,y}	49.14 ^{a,y}	26.92 ^{a,y}	39.04 ^a	30.13 ^{a,xy}	33.36 ^{a,x}	36.74 ^{a,x}
	Kent	57.29 ^{d,x}	21.92 ^{ab,x}	19.29 ^{a,x}	20.18 ^{ab,x}	40.05°	23.05 ^{ab,x}	29.76 ^{b,x}	25.27 ^{ab,x}
Arachidic acid ^a (C20:0)	Alphonso		33.66 ^{c,y}	23.93 ^{bc,y}	10.75 ^a	9.97 ^a	10.65 ^{a,y}	19.01 ^{b,z}	27.07 ^{c,y}
	Pairi	43.61 ^{c,z}	47.16 ^{c,y}	24.24 ^{b,y}	11.42 ^{ab}	8.53°	7.52 ^{a,xy}	7.2 ^{a,y}	6.25 ^{a,x}
n (Kent	19.89 ^{c,x}	7.91 ^{b,x}	4.78 ^{ab,x}	8.4 ^b	7.38 ^b	5.78 ^{ab,x}	3.2 ^{a,x}	6.47 ^{b,x}
Behenic acid ^a (C22:0)	Alphonso		49.96 ^{c,y}	33.10 ^b	8.06 ^a	8.22 ^a	14.33 ^{ab,y}	24.90 ^{b,y}	33.21 ^{b,y}
	Pairi	62.12 ^{c,y}	61.13 ^{c,y}	24.70 ^b	9.30 ^a	7.36 ^a	8.34 ^{a,xy}	8.88 ^{a,x}	8.33 ^{a,x}
	Kent	37.82 ^{c,x}	13.97 ^{b,x}	6.50 ^{ab}	8.66 ^{ab}	8.02 ^{ab}	5.74 ^{ab,x}	3.67 ^{a,x}	9.02 ^{b,x}
Lignoceric acid (C24:0)	Alphonso		50.46 ^{c,xy}	33.89 ^{b,y}	18.00 ^a	20.06 ^a	27.97 ^{ab}	35.85 ^{bc.y}	41.46 ^{bc}
	Pairi	52.36 ^b	67.32 ^{b,y}	33.18 ^{ab,xy}	18.30 ^a	23.23ª	23.60°	27.04 ^{a,x}	28.39 ^a
	Kent	48.53 ^{ab}	16.89 ^{a,x}	9.90 ^{a,x}	17.25ª	24.87ª	23.86ª	24.88 ^{a.x}	69.49 ^b
Mono-unsaturated fatty									
Palmitoleic acid ^a	Alphonso	11.79 ^{a,x}	9.15 ^{a,x}	11.79 ^{a,x}	463.26 ^{a,y}	293.57 ^{a,x}	1325.77 ^{b,v}	2881.90 ^{c,v}	4325.90 ^{d,y}
(C16:1, n-7)	Pairi	15.07 ^{a,y}	15.77 ^{a,xy}	21.6 ^{a,xy}	188.54 ^{a,x}	715.89 ^{b,y}	530.07 ^{b,×}	599.84 ^{b,x}	586.91 ^{b,x}
	Kent	13.52 ^{a,xy}	18.11 ^{a,y}	29.38 ^{a,y}	77.29 ^{b,x}	147.53 ^{c,x}	201.97 ^{d,x}	314.28 ^{e,x}	452.73 ^{f,x}
11-Hexadecenoic acid ^b	Alphonso	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	20.84 ^b	12.83 ^{ab,x}	74.79 ^{c,y}	146.22 ^{d,z}	174.44 ^{e,y}
(C16:1, n-5)	Pairi	n.d. ^a	n.d.ª	n.d.ª	14.71 ^b	59.37 ^{c,y}	45.13 ^{c,xy}	51.49 ^{c,y}	45.41 ^{c,x}
	Kent	n.d.ª	n.d. ^a	n.d. ^a	2.15 ^b	8.95 ^{c,x}	14.87 ^{d,x}	22.42 ^{e,x}	31.81 ^{f,x}
10-Heptadecenoic acid ^{a,b}	Alphonso		n.d. ^a	n.d.ª	6.93 ^{b,z}	6.10 ^{b,y}	7.84 ^{bc}	11.82 ^{c,z}	18.69 ^{d,y}
(C17:1, n-7)	Pairi	n.d.ª	n.d.ª	n.d.ª	n.d. ^{a,x}	n.d. ^{a,x}	5.15 ^b	8.76 ^{c,y}	7.94 ^{c,x}
	Kent	n.d.ª	n.d.ª	n.d.ª	2.08 ^{b,y}	4.31 ^{c,y}	4.31 ^c	3.76 ^{c,x}	5.64 ^{d,x}
Oleic acid [∂] (C18:1, n-9)		271.54 ^{ab,xy}	222.82 ^{ab,xy}	161.31 ^{a,x}	412.00 ^{b,y}	357.16 ^{ab,x}	759.02 ^{c,y}	856.59 ^{c,y}	1117.90 ^{d,y}
	Pairi	328.43 ^{a,y}	463.79 ^{ab,y}	282.07 ^{a,y}	364.83 ^{a,y}	1119.48 ^{c,y}	765.78 ^{b,y}	761.79 ^{b,y}	683.93 ^{b,xy}
	Kent	255.24b ^{c,x}	133.62 ^{ab,x}	97.01 ^{a,x}	198.28 ^{b,x}	285.4 ^{c,x}	304.1 ^{c,x}	261.3 ^{bc,x}	296.77 ^{c,x}
11-Octadecenoic acid ^{a,b}	Alphonso		32.88ª	33.01 ^{a,x}	364.47 ^{b,y}	289.59 ^b	590.53 ^{c,y}	646.48 ^{c,y}	767.85 ^{c,y}
(C18:1, n-7)	Pairi	112.82 ^{ab,z}	103.02 ^{ab}	85.8 ^{a,y}	144.54 ^{ab,x}	427.63 ^c	268.46 ^{b,x}	248.78 ^{b,x}	199.9 ^{b,×}
	Kent	46.48 ^{a,y}	45.21°	41.69°,×y	102.89 ^{b,x}	210.1 ^{cd}	177.94 ^{c,x}	176.61°,×	254.79 ^{d,×}
11-Eicosenoic acid ^D	Alphonso		9.04 ^{bc}	4.92 ^{ab}	1.65 ^{a,x}	1.94 ^a	3,44 ^{ab,y}	6.57 ^{b,y}	10.24 ^{c,y}
(C20:1, n-9)	Pairi	6.9 ^{bc}	8.67°	5.09 ^b	1.97 ^{a,xy}	3.04 ^{ab}	2.5 ^{a,xy}	2.39 ^{a,x}	2.06 ^{a,xy}
	Kent	5.87 ^c	4.67°	2.48 ^b	2.72 ^{b,y}	3.06 ^b	n.d. ^{a,x}	n.d.ª,×	n.d. ^{a,x}
Poly-unsaturated fatty a	icid								
9,12 Hexadecadienoic	Alphonso	n.d.ª	n.d.º	n.d.°	n.d.ª	n.d.°	15.38 ^{b,y}	33.86°4	52.02 ^d
acid ^b (C16:2, n-4)	Pairi	n.d. ^a	n.d. ^a	n.d.a	n.d.ª	n.d.a	9.12 ^{b,xy}	17.71 ^{b,x}	26.7 ^d
, , ,	Kent	n.d. ^a	n.d. ^a	n.d.ª	n.d. ^a	n.d. ^a	n.d. ^{a,x}	16.08 ^{b,x}	22.91 ^c
Linoleic acid ^a (C18:2,	Alphonso	1425.06 ^{cd,xy}	1707.67 ^{d,y}	1119.71 ^c	415.66 ^{ab}	471.57 ^{b,y}	115.73 ^{a,x}	83.58 ^{a,x}	79.46 ^a
п-6)	Pairi	1699.08€,٧	1575.41 ^{c,v}	953.05 ^b	400.89 ^a	198.49 ^{a,x}	138.39 ^{a,xy}	139.44 ^{a,y}	95.55 ^a
,	Kent	1178.94 ^{e,x}	546.53 ^{d,x}	260.25 ^b	388.18 ^c	387.2 ^{c,y}	158.96 ^{a,y}	80.05 ^{a,x}	95.98 ^a
9,15 Octadecadienoic	Alphonso	n.d. ^a	n.d. ^a	n.d. ^a	n.d.ª	n.d. ^a	30.20 ^{b,y}	61.58 ^{c,y}	85.94 ^{d,y}
acid ^b (C18:2, n-3)	Pairi	n.d. ^a	n.d. ^a	n.d. ^a	n.d. ^a	n.d. ^a	12.95 ^{b,xy}	20.24 ^{bc,x}	24.3 ^{c,x}
. , .	Kent	n.d. ^a	n.d. ^a	n.d. ^a	n.d. ^a	n.d. ^a	n.d. ^{a,x}	20.93 ^{b,x}	28.09 ^{c,x}
Hepta-2,4(E,E)-dienoic	Alphonso		54.86 ^{a,x}	52.45 ^{a,x}	117.22 ^{a,x}	80.16 ^{a,x}	727.71 ^c	698.01 ^c	481.16 ^b
acid ^b (C7:2, n-3)	Pairi	167.66 ^{a,y}	196.83 ^{a,y}	120.89 ^{a,y}	120.23 ^{a,x}	954.79 ^{b,z}	1120.84 ^b	662.32 ^{ab}	841.11 ^b
. , , , , ,	Kent	215.1°,z	233.39 ^{a,y}	248.32 ^{a,z}	247.62 ^{a,y}	441.4 ^{b,y}	604.7°	835.33 ^e	707.57 ^d
Linolenic acid [∂] (C18:3,	Alphonso		443.29 ^{b,y}	270.27ª	323.19 ^{a,z}	327.86 ^{ab}	803.64 ^{c,y}	840.37 ^{c,y}	881.25 ^{c,y}
	Pairi	394.56 ^{c,xy}	301.43 ^{b,xy}	202,99ª	237.76 ^{ab.y}	424.59 ^c	410.51 ^{c,x}	522.23 ^{d,x}	532,25 ^{d,x}
n-3)									

n.d.: not detected

^a Compounds identified by matching mass spectrum from NIST2011 and Wiley 10th edition mass spectral libraries and retention time and mass spectrum of authentic standard; remaining compounds were identified by matching mass spectrum from NIST2011 and Wiley 10th edition mass spectral libraries.

^b unusual fatty acids

Table 2.2 Fatty acid composition of skin

Fatty acid composition (μ gg⁻¹ tissue) of skin at various stages of fruit development and ripening from Alphonso, Pairi and Kent cultivars. Values shown are average of biological replicates sampled for the study. Difference between the stages was significant ($p \le 0.05$) if the alphabets (a, b, c...) after the quantity of the compounds are different. Difference between the cultivars for each compound at each stage was significant ($p \le 0.05$) if the alphabets (x, y, z) after the quantity of the compounds are different.

Compound		15 DAP	30 DAP	60 DAP	Mature raw	Table green	Mid ripe	Ripe	Over ripe
Saturated fatty acid	is								
Myristic acid [∂]	Alphonso	17.47 ^{a,xy}	14.84 ^{a,y}	14.6 ^{a,xy}	49.79 ^{a,y}	42.67 ^{a,y}	145.71 ^{b,y}	231.21 ^{c,x}	216.96 ^{c,x}
(C14:0)	Pairi	19.58 ^{a,y}	19.56 ^{a.y}	17.49 ^{a,y}	23.95 ^{a,x}	92.42 ^{ab,z}	168.01 ^{b,y}	295.16 ^{c,xy}	387.91 ^{d,y}
(/	Kent	9.96 ^{a,x}	8.99 ^{a,x}	11.58 ^{a,x}	12.58 ^{a,x}	22,49 ^{b,x}	51.14 ^{c,x}	323.9 ^{d,y}	538.8 ^{e,z}
Palmitic acid ^a		1738.73 ^{a,x}	2011.49 ^{a,y}	2139.59ab,x	2226.01 ^{ab,x}	2088.43 ^{a,x}	1890,39 ^{a,y}	2682.16 ^b	3253.66 ^{c,y}
(C16:0)	Pairi	2653.33 ^{a,y}	2768.19 ^{ab,z}	3309.13 ^{b,y}	3407.48 ^{b,y}	2938.97 ^{ab,y}	2958.08 ^{ab,z}	3460.13 ^b	3756.19 ^{b,y}
()	Kent	1944.53 ^{c,x}	1637.99 ^{b,x}	1921.57 ^{c,x}	2338.6 ^{d,x}	1898 ^{c,x}	1215.83 ^{a,x}	2883.29 ^f	2534.02 ^{e,x}
Stearic acid ^a	Alphonso		108.78°,×	122,28 ^{a,xy}	104.3°,×	103.52°,×	92.13 ^{a,×}	123.57°,×	189.51 ^{b,y}
(C18:0)	Pairi	172.83 ^{a,y}	168.75 ^{a,y}	153.24 ^{a,y}	135.52 ^{a,y}	156.64 ^{a,y}	166.39 ^{a,y}	238.57 ^{b,y}	263.01 ^{b,z}
()	Kent	130.25 ^{c,x}	93.98 ^{ab,x}	103.75 ^{b,x}	150.81 ^{d,y}	90.88 ^{ab,x}	82.32 ^{a,x}	116.39 ^{bc,x}	116.26 ^{bc,x}
Arachidic acid ^a	Alphonso		53.18 ^{b,x}	58.98 ^b	54.67 ^{b,x}	48.66 ^b	31.08 ^{a,×}	29.21 ^{a,x}	48.28 ^{b,xy}
(C20:0)	Pairi	80.59 ^b	86.02 ^{b,y}	81.04 ^b	64.21 ^{ab,xy}	55.21ª	56.9 ^{a,y}	55,24 ^{a,y}	60.27 ^{a,y}
(320.0)	Kent	61.9°	50.78 ^{b,x}	59.04 ^{bc}	72.13 ^{d,y}	58.39 ^{bc}	28.13 ^{a,x}	32.56 ^{a,x}	26.99 ^{a,x}
Behenic acid ^a	Alphonso		65.62 ^{b,y}	66.31 ^{b,xy}	45.24 ^{a,x}	41.88 ^a	40,38 ^{a,y}	43.83ª	83.07 ^{C,y}
(C22:0)	Pairi	90.76 ^{b,xy}	86.38 ^{b,z}	76.46 ^{b,y}	56.30 ^{a,xy}	53.27°	54.01 ^{a,z}	55.38 ^a	60.04 ^{ab,xy}
()	Kent	94.21 ^{d,y}	50.79 ^{bc,x}	52.60 ^{bc,x}	59.86 ^{c,y}	49.52 ^{bc}	29.01 ^{a,x}	43.73 ^b	46.97 ^{b,x}
Lignoceric acid	Alphonso		76.08 ^a	76.42 ^a	59.20 ^{a,x}	53.98 ^{a,x}	72.76 ^{a,xy}	86.16 ^a	192.83 ^{b,y}
(C24:0)	Pairi	110.84 ^{b,y}	101.31 ^{ab}	82.83 ^{ab}	60.52 ^{a,xy}	85.25 ^{ab,y}	110.56 ^{b,y}	117.24 ^b	149.49 ^{b,y}
(—)	Kent	115.19 ^{c,y}	68.11 ^b	72.40 ^b	79.44 ^{b,y}	66.49 ^{b,×}	50.17°,×	71.15 ^b	62.16 ^{ab,×}
M									
Mono-unsaturated Palmitoleic acid ^a	Alphonso		24.95 ^{a,x}	34.95 ^{a,x}	150.86a	152,43 ^{a,x}	736.63 ^{b,y}	1986.59 ^{c,y}	2265.38 ^{c,z}
(C16:1, n-7)	Pairi	50.48 ^{a,y}	46.57 ^{a,y}	55.57 ^{a,y}	75.68 ^a	189.08 ^{b,y}	296.74 ^{c,x}	533.59 ^{d,x}	697.64 ^{e,x}
(C10.1, 11-7)	Kent	48.93 ^{a,y}	60.04 ^{a,z}	91.5 ^{ab,z}	135.47 ^b	155.83 ^{b,x}	170.38 ^{b,x}	1527.72 ^{c,y}	1621.55 ^{d,y}
11-Hexadecenoic	Alphonso		n.d.*	n.d.ª	7.66 ^{b,y}	7.1 ^{b,×}	45.8 ^{c,y}	119.07 ^{d,y}	120.18 ^{d,y}
acid ^b (C16:1, n-5)		n.d. ^a	n.d.ª	n.d. ^a	8,4 ^{b,y}	19.06 ^{c,y}	33.24 ^{d,xy}	58.01 ^{e,x}	78.76 ^{f,x}
add (C10.1, 11-5)	Kent	n.d.ª	n.d.ª	n.d. ^a	n.d. ^{a,x}	10.84 ^{b,x}	14.11 ^{b,x}	147.05 ^{c,y}	160.5 ^{d,z}
10-Heptadecenoic	Alphonso		n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
acid ^{a,b} (C17:1,	Pairi	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
n-7)	Kent	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
Oleic acid ^a (C18:1,	Alphonso		251.48 ^{a,x}	278.99 ^{a,x}	785.17 ^{ab,y}	622.61 ^{a,x}	1532.67 ^{b,y}	2376.3 ^{c,y}	2982.71 ^{C,Y}
n-9)	Pairi	394.18 ^{a,y}	451.32 ^{a,y}	426.62 ^{az}	719.85 ^{b,xy}	1604.09 ^{c,y}	1764.73 ^{c,y}	2847.25 ^{d,y}	2587.84 ^{d,y}
11 3/	Kent	343.36 ^{b,xy}	241.6 ^{a,x}	349.46 ^{b,y}	500.19 ^{c,x}	461.87 ^{c,x}	310.41 ^{b,x}	778.48 ^{e,x}	700.8 ^{d,x}
11-Octadecenoic	Alphonso		54.94 ^{a,x}	71.09 ^{a,x}	179.86 ^{ab,xy}	181.97 ^{ab,x}	298.65 ^{b,y}	480.59 ^{c,y}	589.91 ^{C,Y}
acid ^{a,b} (C18:1,	Pairi	341.82 ^{c,z}	298.55 ^{bc,z}	225.38 ^{a,z}	213.48 ^{a,y}	231.02 ^{a,y}	253.48 ^{ab,y}	321.16 ^{c,x}	305.35 ^{bc,xy}
n-7)	Kent	103.73 ^{b,y}	71.75 ^{a,y}	94.98 ^{ab,y}	133.16 ^{bc,×}	142.92 ^{c,×}	93.29 ^{ab,x}	282.14 ^{e,×}	243.65 ^{d,×}
	Alphonso		4.79 ^{a,y}	3.89 ^{a,y}	5.16 ^{a,y}	4.03 ^{a,y}	6.98 ^{ab,y}	10.01 ^{b,y}	15.24 ^{c,y}
(C20:1, n-9)	Pairi	6.65 ^{b,y}	5.92 ^{ab,z}	4.33 ^{ab,y}	3.26 ^{a,x}	5.88 ^{ab,z}	8.37 ^{bc,y}	10.49 ^{b,y}	8.92 ^{bc,y}
(020,2,11 5)	Kent	4.78 ^{e,x}	2 ^{d,×}	1.66 ^{cd,x}	2,23 ^{d,x}	1,31 ^{c,x}	0.49 ^{b,x}	n.d. ^{a,x}	n.d.a,x
Dales consented for		•	_						
Poly-unsaturated fa 9,12 Hex-	Alphonso	n d	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
adecadienoic	Pairi	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
acid ^b (C16:2, n-4)		n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
Linoleic acid ^a	Alphonso		2671.6 ^{d,y}	11.u. 2446.85 ^{cd,xy}		1374.07 ^b	476.06 ^{a,x}	422.83 ^{a,x}	535.69 ^{a,x}
(C18:2, n-6)	Pairi	3104.44 ^c	2742.04 ^{bc,y}	2808.19 ^{bc,y}	2223.28 ^{b,y}	1516.53 ^a	1552.89 ^{a,z}	1956.03 ^{ab,z}	1941.42 ^{ab,z}
(0.2, 11-0)	Kent	2749.59 ^e	1735.03 ^{cd,x}	1860.57 ^{d,x}	1953.45 ^{d,y}	1583.19°	918.49 ^{a,y}	1277.41 ^{b,y}	856.52 ^{a,y}
9,15 Octadecadie-	Alphonso		n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
noic acid ^b (C18:2,		n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
n-3)	Kent	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
	Alphonso		28.07 ^{a,x}	31.6 ^{a,x}	63.06 ^{a,x}	60.94 ^{a,x}	426 ^{d,x}	265.93 ^{c,x}	142.11 ^{b,x}
noic acid ^b (C7:2,	Pairi	190.16 ^{a,z}	170.78 ^{a,y}	166.88 ^{a,y}	166.65 ^{a,y}	563.59 ^{b,z}	901.98 ^{c,z}	1152.72 ^{d,y}	621.23 ^{b,z}
n-3)	Kent	158.38 ^{a,y}	258.62 ^{b,z}	261.23 ^{b,z}	271.33 ^{b,z}	346.22 ^{c,y}	553.56 ^{d,y}	352.98°,×	335.56°×
Linolenic acid ^a	Alphonso		883.07 ^{a,z}	931.97 ^{ab}	1265.3 ^{b,y}	1196.94 ^{ab,xy}	1303.57 ^{b,y}	1149.88 ^{ab,x}	1299.23 ^{b,x}
	Pairi	866.49 ^a	724.08 ^{a,y}	805.88 ^a	868.83 ^{a,x}	1480.56 ^{b,y}	1487.2 ^{b,y}	1991.68 ^{c,y}	2181.91 ^{c,y}
(C18:3, n-3)									

n.d.: not detected

^a Compounds identified by matching mass spectrum from NIST2011 and Wiley 10th edition mass spectral libraries and retention time and mass spectrum of authentic standard; remaining compounds were identified by matching mass spectrum from NIST2011 and Wiley 10th edition mass spectral libraries.

b unusual fatty acids

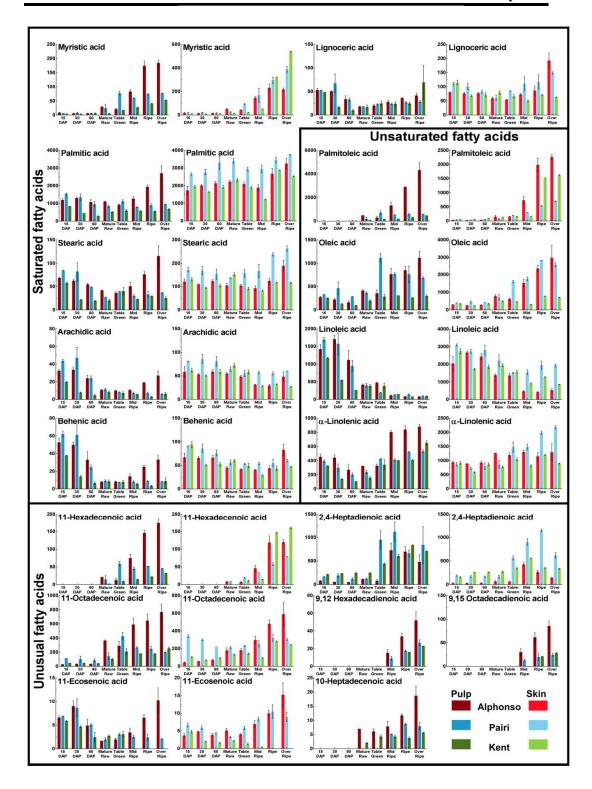


Figure 2.3 Fatty acid histogram

Content (µgg⁻¹) of individual fatty acid from pulp and skin through various developing and ripening stages of Alphonso, Pairi and Kent mango cultivars. Vertical bars at each data point represent standard error of measurement calculated for the biological replicates used in the study.

2.3.3 Saturated fatty acids

Total 6 saturated fatty acids were present in pulp as well as skin of all the three cultivars, out of which palmitic acid was found to be the most abundant. Palmitic acid shared its high concentration in the pulp at 15 DAP stage for Pairi (1534 μgg⁻¹) and Kent (830 μgg⁻¹) and at over ripe stage of Alphonso (2705 μgg⁻¹). Skin had higher share of palmitic acid than pulp. The highest palmitic acid content was observed in over ripe skin of Pairi (3756 μgg⁻¹), closely followed by its ripe skin (3460 μgg⁻¹) (Table 2.2). Myristic acid content of pulp was low during developing stages but showed significant increase during the ripening stages. Among all the stages of pulp, level of myristic acid varied between 3.8 to 184.41μgg⁻¹ (Table 2.1).

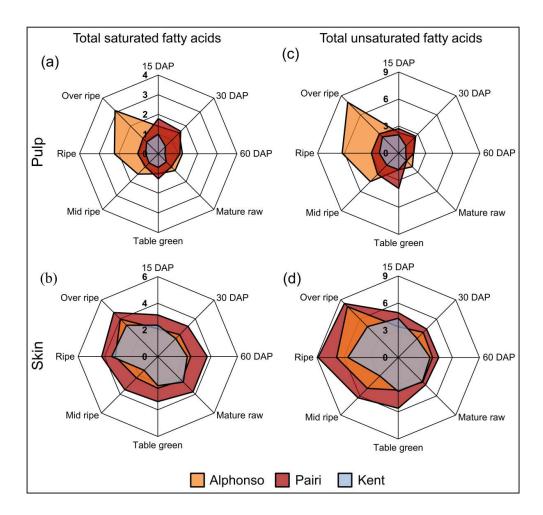


Figure 2.4 Radar plot representing contribution (mgg⁻¹) of total fatty acids

Total saturated fatty acids from pulp (a), total saturated fatty acids from skin (b), total unsaturated fatty
acids from pulp (c) and total unsaturated fatty acids from skin (d) at various developing and ripening
stages of Alphonso, Pairi and Kent mango cultivars.

Moreover, myristic acid levels in Alphonso pulp were significantly higher than those in the Pairi and Kent pulp during mid ripe, ripe and over ripe stages. Myristic acid content in the skin significantly increased during ripening; wherein Kent skin possessed significantly high levels than that of Alphonso and Pairi during ripe and over ripe stages. Stearic acid levels in the pulp of Pairi and Kent were maximum during the early developmental stages i.e. 15 DAP and 30 DAP, which significantly decreased further till over ripe stage. In case of Alphonso pulp stearic acid content significantly decreased from 15 DAP (67.97 µgg⁻¹) to table green stage (36.07 µgg⁻¹) which again increased significantly till over ripe stage (115.93 µgg⁻¹). Stearic acid content from skin tissues of Alphonso and Pairi showed no significant increase during developing and early ripening stages, which increased significantly at over ripe stage, respectively. Kent skin had the highest stearic acid content at mature raw stage amid its developing and ripening stages. Pairi skin possessed high levels of stearic acid than that in Alphonso and Kent skin tissues at all the stages, respectively. Long chain saturated fatty acids viz. arachidic, behenic and lignoceric acids were low abundance fatty acids in pulp with their highest share during early developmental stages. In skin arachidic acid showed high levels during early developmental stages of all the three cultivars, while behenic acid had its highest content at 15 DAP of Pairi and Kent and over ripe stage of Alphonso. Lignoceric acid content in the skin was the highest at over ripe stage for Alphonso and Pairi, while Kent had its highest content at 15 DAP stage.

2.3.4 Unsaturated fatty acids

Varieties of unsaturated fatty acids were evinced from the pulp and the skin of three mango cultivars. Six mono-unsaturated fatty acids, four di-unsaturated fatty acids and one tri-unsaturated fatty acid were detected in the analysis, out of which seven were unusual fatty acids. Unsaturated fatty acids fall amid the class of n-3, n-4, n-5, n-6, n-7 and n-9 fatty acids and are known to have nutritional and physiological importance.

2.3.4.1 Mono-unsaturated fatty acids

Among the 6 mono-unsaturated fatty acids, oleic acid (9-octadecenoic acid), 11-octadecenoic acid and palmitoleic acid (9-hexadecenoic acid) were abundant and showed their highest share during the ripening stages of the pulp and the skin of all

the three cultivars. Palmitoleic acid content significantly increased during the ripening stages in the pulp as well as the skin tissues of all the cultivars. It was the most abundant fatty acid in Alphonso pulp (4325 µgg⁻¹) at over ripe stage which was 7.3 and 9.5 folds more than that in the over ripe pulp of Pairi and Kent, respectively. At ripe stage palmitoleic acid contributed 33.9% to the total fatty acid pool of Alphonso pulp which was 4.8 and 9.1 folds higher than that in the pulp of Pairi and Kent, respectively. However, Alphonso skin had low share of palmitoleic acid compared to the pulp at respective ripening stage. Pairi had almost similar levels of palmitoleic acid at ripe and over ripe stages for the pulp and the skin. Kent skin possessed more palmitoleic acid than the pulp during ripe and over ripe stages. Oleic acid (9octadecenoic acid), the second abundant mono-unsaturated fatty acid which serves as the substrate for LA and ALA biosynthesis in plants was detected with elevated levels in the pulp and the skin during ripening stages of all the cultivars. Kent showed relatively lower content of oleic acid in the pulp and the skin than those of Pairi and Alphonso. Utmost levels of oleic acid in the pulp (1117 µgg⁻¹) and the skin (2982) µgg⁻¹) of Alphonso were detected at over ripe stage, whereas in case of Kent the highest levels in the pulp (304 µgg⁻¹) and the Skin (778 µgg⁻¹) were detected at mid ripe and ripe stage, respectively. For Pairi, peak levels of oleic acid were detected in the table green pulp (1119 µgg⁻¹) and the ripe skin (2847 µgg⁻¹), respectively.

Three mono-unsaturated fatty acids with unsaturation at C11 *viz*. 11-hexadecenoic acid, 11-octadecenoic acid and 11-eicosenoic acid were detected from the pulp and the skin of all the three cultivars. 11-hexadecenoic acid showed *de novo* appearance with significant increase during ripening. Its abundance was detected in Alphonso pulp and skin as well as in Kent skin. 11-octadecenoic acid was detected in the developing and the ripening tissues of all the three cultivars. Alphonso pulp and skin showed increase in its content during fruit development and ripening stages. However, the pulp and the skin tissue of Pairi and Kent fruits displayed varied pattern of its content during development and ripening. 11-hexadecenoic acid and 11-octadecenoic acid abundance was relatively very low compared to their isomers with unsaturation at C9 i.e. palmitoleic acid and oleic acid, respectively. Though 9-eicosenoic acid was not detected in the analysis, 11-eicosenoic acid showed its presence in the pulp as well as in the skin albeit with low abundance (maximum-15.24 µgg⁻¹) during developmental and ripening stages. Decreased levels of 11-eicosenoic

acid were detected during development and ripening of Pairi pulp while it was not detected in the late ripening stages of the pulp and the skin of Kent. Another unusual odd chain fatty acid i.e. 10-heptadecenoic acid was detected exclusively in the ripening pulp of all the three cultivars. Its maximum level was detected in the Alphonso (18.69 µgg⁻¹) at over ripe stage.

2.3.4.2 Poly-unsaturated fatty acids

Among various poly-unsaturated fatty acids four di-unsaturated and only one tri-unsaturated fatty acids were detected from mango. 9, 12-hexadecadienoic acid (n-4) and 9, 15-octadecadienoic acid (n-3) were detected utterly in the pulp of the three cultivars during ripening stages. Though rise in their levels were noted in late ripening stages, their amounts remained less than 52.02 µgg⁻¹ and 85.94 µgg⁻¹ for 9, 12-hexadecadienoic acid and 9, 15-octadecadienoic acid, respectively (Table 2.1). Another odd chain fatty acid, 2, 4-heptadienoic acid was detected in pulp as well as skin of all the three cultivars with significantly increasing levels during development and ripening. Pairi and Kent had higher levels of 2, 4-heptadienoic acid than Alphonso in the pulp and the skin.

Among the developing stages of all the three mango cultivars, LA/ 9, 12-octadecadienoic acid (n-6) was the highest contributor and shared 37-41% of total fatty acids of the pulp as well as the skin at 15 DAP stage. Levels of LA were high at 15 DAP stage in the pulp (1425, 1699 and 1178 μgg^{-1}) as well as in the skin (2054, 3104 and 2749 μgg^{-1}) from Alphonso, Pairi and Kent, respectively which reduced significantly through development and ripening. The lowest level of LA (79.46 μgg^{-1}) was detected in Alphonso pulp at over ripe stage.

The only tri-unsaturated fatty acid detected in the present study was ALA/ 9, 12, 15-octadecatrienoic acid (n-3), which is an essential fatty acid. ALA was detected in the pulp and the skin of all the three cultivars. Decrease in the ALA content was detected from early developmental stage to mature raw stage followed by a significant increase till over ripe stage except for Kent skin. Amid pulp, the highest amount of ALA was evinced from Alphonso (881 µgg⁻¹) while for the skin Pairi displayed the highest content (2181 µgg⁻¹) at the over ripe stage. At ripe stage, Alphonso pulp

contained 840 μ gg⁻¹ of ALA which was 1.6 and 2.05 fold higher than that of Pairi and Kent pulp, respectively at the same stage.

2.3.5 Principle component analysis

Quantitative variation of 17 different fatty acids in the pulp and the skin through development and ripening of Alphonso, Pairi and Kent cultivars was examined by principle component analysis (PCA). First 3 principle components achieved 83.5% of total variance of which the first two components accounted together for 74% of the noticed variance (Figure 2.5). PC1 had high positive loadings for all the saturated fatty acids along with oleic, linoleic, linolenic and 11-eicosanoic acid. Palmitoleic, 11-hexadecenoic and 11-octadecenoic acid had positive loading with lower scale, while rest had intermediate positive loadings for PC1. PC2 had the highest positive loading for palmitoleic acid followed by 11-hexadecenoic and 11-octadecenoic acid. Lignoceric, stearic, palmitic, 11-eicosenoic and linolenic acid showed low positive loading to PC2. Linoleic, arachidic and behenic acid had negative loading for PC2 and high positive loading for PC1. Ripening and pulp specific fatty acids such as 9, 12-hexadecadienoic acid, 9, 15-octadecadienoic acid, 2, 4-heptadienoic and 10heptadecenoic acid had negative loading across PC1 and high positive loadings across PC2. Based on these loadings, clear separation of ripening and developing stages across PC1 and separation of pulp and skin tissues across PC2 was evinced in the score plot (Figure 2.5), except for few overlapping stages. Thus, stages for ripening pulp, ripening skin, developing pulp and developing skin were separated in four different quadrants of the score plot. Mid ripe, ripe and over ripe stages of Alphonso pulp can be clearly seen separating from the ripening stages of the pulp of Pairi and Kent cultivars in the same quadrant due to high accumulation of palmitoleic acid in Alphonso pulp during ripening. Similarly, ripe and over ripe stages of Pairi skin and over ripe stage of Alphonso skin showed high positive loading to PC1 than other ripening stages of the skin from the three cultivars which could be credited to its high ALA content. All the developing stages of the pulp and the skin for all the three cultivars clustered in the third and the fourth quadrants with negative loadings for PC2 due to their higher content of linoleic acid.

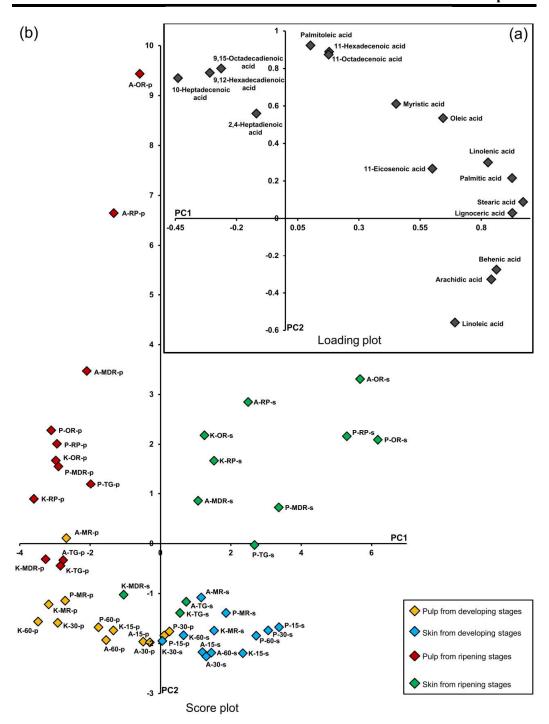


Figure 2.5 Loading plot (a) and Score plot (b) of PCA

Principle component analysis of 17 different fatty acids in the pulp and skin through various stages of fruit development and ripening from three mango cultivars, Alphonso, Pairi and Kent. Average values from biological replicates for each fatty acid were considered for the analysis. For the score plot (b) data labels represent, cultivars as A: Alphonso, P: Pairi and K: Kent, tissues as p: pulp and s: skin and stages as15: 15DAP, 30: 30DAP, 60: 60DAP, MR: mature raw, TG: table green, MDR: mid ripe, R: ripe and OR: over ripe.

2.3.6 Lactone content of three cultivars at ripe stage

Lactone content of pulp and skin of Alphonso, Pairi and Kent cultivars was analysed at ripe stage i.e. the highest lactone containing stage according to our previous study (Pandit et al., 2009b). Total 7 lactones were detected and quantified (Table 2.3) in the volatile analysis of the ripe pulp and skin of the three cultivars.

Table 2.3 Lactone content of ripe fruitLactone content (μgg⁻¹ tissue) of pulp and skin of Alphonso, Pairi and Kent at ripe stage.

T 4	Alphonso	Alphonso	Pairi	Pairi	Kent	Kent
Lactone	pulp	skin	pulp	skin	pulp	skin
γ-butyrolactone	1.39 ± 0.16	0.17 ± 0.01	0.30 ± 0.03	0.09 ± 0.01	Trace ^a	Trace ^a
γ-hexalactone	1.45 ± 0.16	0.28 ± 0.01	0.12 ± 0.04	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
δ-hexalactone	1.07 ± 0.17	0.13 ± 0.02	0.71 ± 0.05	0.26 ± 0.01	n.d.	n.d.
γ-octalactone	2.16 ± 0.20	1.49 ± 0.09	0.07 ± 0.01	0.28 ± 0.03	n.d.	n.d.
δ-octalactone	0.65 ± 0.05	0.15 ± 0.002	0.11 ± 0.03	0.14 ± 0.01	n.d.	n.d.
γ-decalactone	0.32 ± 0.28	0.33 ± 0.04	n.d.	0.35 ± 0.06	n.d.	n.d.
δ -decalactone	0.09 ± 0.01	0.61 ± 0.20	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
Total	7.12	3.16	1.3	1.12	n.d.	n.d.

^a Compound detected in traces in GC-MS analysis but not detected in GC-FID analysis

All the 7 lactones were present in the Alphonso pulp and skin, amid these γ octalactone had the highest contribution compared to the other lactones. However,
Pairi pulp was devoid of γ - and δ -decalactones while the skin was devoid of γ hexalactone and δ -decalactone. In Pairi δ -hexalactone and γ -decalactone were the
major contributors amid all lactones from pulp and skin, respectively. Kent showed
only traces of γ -butyrolactone, while rest of the lactones were not detected from pulp
and skin. Total lactone content was the highest in case of Alphonso pulp (7.12 μ gg⁻¹)
followed by Alphonso skin (3.16 μ gg⁻¹). Though Pairi was considered as lactone less
cultivar, Pairi showed low but detectable levels of lactones *viz.* 1.30 μ gg⁻¹ and 1.12

2.4 Discussion

2.4.1 Origin of unusual fatty acids

Various unusual fatty acids were detected in the present study. Three fatty acids with unsaturation at C11 viz. 11-hexadecenoic acid, 11-octadecenoic acid and 11eicosenoic acid were detected from the pulp and the skin of all the three cultivars. Such unusual unsaturation could be because of existence of $\Delta 11$ desaturase (Kleiman and Paynewahl, 1984) which synthesizes these compounds from their respective saturated fatty acids viz. 16:0, 18:0 and 20:0, respectively. Another probable pathway of biosynthesis of 11-hexadecenoic acid is by activity of $\Delta 9$ desaturase on myristic acid and further elongation. Whereas 11-octadecenoic acid (cis-vaccenic acid) can be synthesized from palmitoleic acid after elongation (Shibahara et al., 1989; Tsevegsuren et al., 2003) and its presence has been reported from 17 different fruits (Shibahara et al., 1987). Similarly, 11-eicosenoic acid is known to be present in different plant seeds and nut oils. It is one of the abundant fatty acids in the seed oil of Brassicaceae family (Romanus et al., 2008) and it is also probably synthesized from oleic acid after additional elongation step. One odd chain mono-unsaturated fatty acid i.e. 10-heptadecenoic acid was also identified in the present study. Such presence of 10-heptadecenoic acid was also evinced from Androsace septentrionalis seed oil (Tsevegsuren et al., 2003) but biosynthetic pathway for this odd chain (C17) fatty acid is not known and thus, insists further research.

Pulp specific unusual di-unsaturated fatty acids viz. 9, 12-hexadecadienoic acid and 9, 15-octadecadienoic acid were evinced in the analysis. Such presence of 9, 12-hexadecadienoic acid has been reported from various plants. Biosynthesis of this fatty acid might be the result of activity of $\Delta 12$ desaturase which accepts oleic acid as well as palmitoleic acid as substrate and synthesizes linoleic and 9, 12-hexadecadienoic acid, respectively (Tsevegsuren et al., 2003). Similarly, first report on presence of 9, 15-octadecadienoic acid was from mango pulp which proposed its synthesis either by the action of $\Delta 15$ desaturase which acts on oleic acid (non-natural substrate for $\Delta 15$ desaturase) or by the action of its another isoform which does not depend on the unsaturation at $\omega 6$ (Shibahara et al., 1993).

Another odd chain di-unsaturated unusual fatty acid i.e. 2, 4-heptadienoic acid was evinced from pulp as well as skin tissues of three cultivars with notable level during ripening. Synthesis of 2, 4-heptadienoic acid was reported in yeast (*Sporobolomyces odorus*) to study the synthesis of lactones by biotransformation while feeding labelled α -linolenic acid, which resulted in synthesis of radio labelled 2, 4-heptadienoic acid along with the δ -jasmin lactone and (Z,Z)-dodeca-6,9-dieno-4-lactone. Though exact biosynthetic pathway of this odd chain fatty acid is not known, it is proposed that its synthesis might be the result of fragmentation of even chain fatty acid (α -linolenic acid) in to two odd chain fragments (Haffner et al., 1996).

2.4.2 Fatty acids from mango fruit and their nutritional significance

Qualitative and quantitative analysis from three mango cultivars showed differential composition of fatty acids through various stages of mango fruit development and ripening. During analysis, perfect amalgamation of saturated, mono-unsaturated and poly-unsaturated fatty acids was observed. Developing stages were rich in saturated fats along with high levels of ω-6 linoleic acid, whereas ripening stages were enriched by mono-unsaturated fatty acids and ω-3 linolenic acid with reduced level of linoleic acid. Saturated fatty acids are good source of energy due to their high calorific values but are associated with coronary disorder as they tend to increase level of LDLcholesterol and therefore, should be consumed in lower amounts. However, dietary intake of mono-unsaturated and poly-unsaturated fatty acid is recommended as they increase the level of HDL-cholesterol and reduce LDL-cholesterol from blood stream (Ulbricht and Southgate, 1991). At each stage of mango fruit development and ripening total unsaturated fatty acids exceeded total saturated fatty acids in pulp as well as in skin (Figure 2.4) making mango fruit good source of unsaturated fatty acids. Mono-unsaturated fatty acids like oleic acid and palmitoleic acid are known to be antithrombotic than saturated fatty acids (Reaven et al., 1991; Willett et al., 1995). Increased levels of these mono-unsaturated fatty acids during mango fruit ripening make it more ideal for consumption.

Humans are known to have evolved on diet condition which contained $\omega 6/\omega 3$ essential fatty acid (EFA) ratio nearing 1 and is considered as good intake of essential fatty acids. Consumption of fatty acids with high $\omega 6/\omega 3$ ratio is associated with

susceptibility to many diseases like cardiovascular diseases, cancer, inflammatory and autoimmune diseases. However, intake of EFA with lower $\omega 6/\omega 3$ ratio decreases risk of these diseases (Simopoulos, 2002). Present analysis revealed increased level of ω -3 fatty acid and reduced level of ω -6 fatty acid during mango fruit ripening, which lead to the ratio of $\omega 6/\omega 3 \le 1$ at ripe stage (Table 2.4). Thus, ripened mango becomes perfect source of essential fatty acids.

Similarly, mango skin showed higher levels of all the fatty acids except few unusual fatty acids which were pulp specific. However, the skin of mango especially from ripening stages is not consumed and is discarded as waste of mango food processing industries (Ajila et al., 2007). Utilization of such unused mango skin has been studied for its pectin content (Berardini et al., 2005) and polyphenol, vitamin E and C, fiber and carotenoids content (Ashoush and Gadallah, 2011). Although skin is an enriched source of essential fatty acids, it has remained unnoticed till now and thus, can be utilized for oil extraction.

Table 2.4 Flavor and nutritional perspective of fatty acids

Table representing total lactone content (μ gg⁻¹), palmitic acid/palmitoleic acid (16:0/C16:1) ratio and linoleic acid/linolenic acid (ω 6/ ω 3) in pulp and skin at ripe stage of Alphonso, Pairi and Kent mango cultivars. Values shown are average of biological replicates sampled for the study. Difference between the tissues was significant ($p \le 0.05$) if the alphabets (a, b, c....) after the quantity of the lactone are different.

	Fla	Nutrition	
Ripe tissue	Total lactone content	C16:0/C16:1	LA/ALA (ω6/ω3)
Alphonso pulp	7.12 ^d	0.67	0.1
Pairi pulp	1.30 ^b	1.49	0.27
Kent pulp	nd ^a	1.78	0.2
Alphonso skin	3.16 ^c	1.35	0.37
Pairi skin	1.12 ^b	6.48	0.98
Kent skin	nd ^a	1.89	1.06

2.4.3 Fatty acid content and flavor qualities of mango cultivars

Flavor is the combined perception of taste, aroma, texture and visual appearance of food. Lactones- an important class of aroma volatiles; contribute fruity, creamy, coconut and peach like notes to mango flavor and are derived from fatty acid

metabolism. Though exact biosynthetic pathway for lactone is not known, these compounds are supposed to be synthesized from unsaturated fatty acids (Goff and Klee, 2006; Haffner et al., 1996; Xi et al., 2012). Thus, presence of high unsaturated fatty acids content in Alphonso pulp might play a crucial role in its flavor generation through increased lactone content. Moreover, they might as well contribute to the pulp texture by means of viscosity and lubricity. Studies on human and animal behaviour suggested that "fatty" may be one of the taste attributes other than well known five tastes (Mattes, 2009a). Thus high fatty acid content in Alphonso pulp than Pairi and Kent cultivars might be one of the important features responsible for highly favoured nature of Alphonso mango.

Development of sweet, fruity aroma of ripened fruits has earlier been correlated to the conversion of palmitic acid to palmitoleic acid (Bandyopadhyay and Gholap, 1973b; Gholap and Bandyopadhyay, 1975). In the present study, we have attempted to correlate this conversion to lactone content of the three cultivars. This is mainly because unsaturated fatty acids are considered to be precursor for lactone biosynthesis. In case of ripe Alphonso pulp the lowest (0.67) palmitic acid/palmitoleic acid (C16/C16:1) ratio and maximum lactone content was observed (7.12 µgg⁻¹). Whereas, in Pairi pulp C16:0/C16:1 ratio was ~1.5 and moderate levels of lactones (1.30 µgg⁻¹) were detected. In this study volatile extraction was carried out from the pulp and the skin separately, whereas in our previous work (Pandit et al., 2009a) whole fruit (pulp and skin together) was used for volatile extraction. Also sensitivity of GC-MS instrument used in both the study was different. These might be the reasons for detection of lactones in Pairi in the present study. In case of Kent pulp this ratio was high (1.78) and lactones were not detected (Table 2.4). Similar correlation can be seen in the skin of Alphonso and Kent except that of Pairi where C16:0/C16:1 was very high (6.48) still lactones were detected. This could be because of overall high fatty acid content of Pairi skin and excessive accumulation of palmitic acid (~1.2 fold higher) than Alphonso and Kent skin at ripe stage.

In the correlation analysis between total lactone content and individual fatty acid content from ripe pulp and skin of three cultivars, palmitoleic acid, 11-octadecenoic acid and 9.15- octadecadienoic acid showed strong correlation (r = 0.847, 0.954 and 0.76, respectively) as shown in the correlation analysis (Table 2.5).

This signifies the probable role of conversion of palmitic acid to palmitoleic acid and palmitoleic acid to 11-ocadecenoic acid in the increased lactone content.

Table 2.5 Correlation analysis 1

Correlation analysis of total lactone content (μgg^{-1} tissue) and individual fatty acid content from the pulp and the skin tissues of Alphonso, Pairi and Kent cultivars at ripe stage. Values represent correlation coefficient (r), Values in bold represent strong positive correlation (0.7 \leq r) between fatty acid and lactone.

Fatty acid	Correlation coefficient
Myristic acid	-0.008
Palmitic acid	0.064
Stearic acid	-0.064
Arachidic acid	-0.043
Behenic acid	0.027
Lignoceric acid	-0.144
Palmitoleic acid	0.847
11-Hexadecenoic acid	0.547
10-Heptadecenoic acid	0.633
Oleic acid	0.078
11-Octadecenoic acid	0.954
11-Eicosenoic acid	0.477
9,12-Hexadecadienoic acid	0.645
Linoleic acid	-0.385
9,15-Octadecadienoic acid	0.76
2,4-Heptadienoic acid	-0.099
Linolenic acid	-0.053

Similarly, correlation analysis between individual lactone content and individual fatty acid from ripe pulp and skin of three cultivars showed strong correlations with unsaturated fatty acids as shown in the Table 2.6. γ -butyrolactone and γ -hexalactone showed strong correlations with palmitoleic acid, 10-heptadecenoic acid, 11- octadecenoic acid, 9, 12- hexadecadienoic acid and 9, 15-octadecadienoic acid. δ -hexalactone showed strong correlations with 10-heptadecenoic acid, 9, 12- hexadecadienoic acid and 9, 15- octadecadienoic acid. γ and δ - octalactone showed strong correlations with palmitoleic acid and 11-octadecenoic acid, additionally δ - octalactone had strong correlation with 10-heptadecenoic acid, 9, 12- hexadecadienoic acid and 9, 15- octadecadienoic acid. γ -decalactone own strong correlations with 11- octadecenoic acid and 11- eicosenoic acid, whereas δ - decalactone showed moderate correlation (0.3 \leq r \leq 0.7) with

palmitoleic acid, 11- octadecenoic acid and 11-eicosenoic acid. Though such correlation can be seen at substrate level, genes involved in lactone biosynthesis and their transcript levels may also play an important role in differential accumulation of lactones in these tissues. However, lack of information about lactone biosynthesis restricts further discussion and in depth study needs to be aimed to identify probable lactone biosynthetic pathway in mango fruit.

Table 2.6 Correlation analysis 2 Correlation analysis of individual lactone and individual fatty acid content from the pulp and the skin tissues of Alphonso, Pairi and Kent cultivars at ripe stage. Values represent correlation coefficient (r), Values in bold represents strong positive correlation $(0.7 \le r)$ between fatty acid and lactone content.

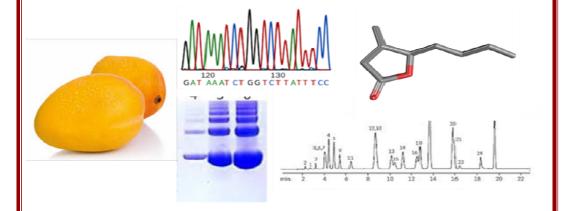
	Palmitoleic	10-Hepta	11-Octa	11-	9,12-	9,15-
Lactone	acid	decenoic	decenoic	Eicosenoic	Hexadeca	Octadeca
	acid	acid	acid	acid	dienoic acid	dienoic acid
γ-Butyrolactone	0.752	0.813	0.828	0.229	0.823	0.91
γ-Hexalactone	0.832	0.73	0.885	0.259	0.77	0.878
δ-Hexalactone	0.487	0.9	0.622	0.202	0.808	0.825
γ-Octalactone	0.888	0.416	0.974	0.566	0.457	0.592
δ-Octalactone	0.77	0.706	0.893	0.405	0.724	0.836
γ-Decalactone	0.496	-0.058	0.748	0.953	-0.035	0.118
δ-Decalactone	0.452	-0.283	0.472	0.558	-0.287	-0.22

2.5 Conclusion

In conclusion, fatty acid content of fruits from three mango cultivars at various stages displayed significant variation. Overall mango fruit possessed high fatty acid nutritional value during various stages of fruit development and ripening. The pulp and the skin of the ripening mango fruits are good source of ω -3, mono and diunsaturated essential fatty acids with relatively lower share of saturated fatty acids. Present study also gives insights in to the probable fatty acid precursors for lactone biosynthesis in mango. The study has also explored high fatty acid content of mango skin which can be an ideal raw material for nutritionally enriched food products.



Chapter 3



Isolation and characterization of 9lipoxygenase and epoxide hydrolase 2
genes: Insight into lactone
biosynthesis in mango fruit
(Mangifera indica L.)

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Chapter 3 Isolation and characterization of 9lipoxygenase and epoxide hydrolase 2 genes: Insight into lactone biosynthesis in mango fruit (Mangifera indica L.)

3.1 Introduction

Acceptability and preference of food items is based on human organoleptic perception, which is a combined impression of visual appearance, texture, aroma and taste of a specific item. A collective olfaction of aroma and taste through retronasal and orthonasal receptors and taste buds decides flavor of the food. It is well known that aroma compounds mainly contribute to the flavor of the food. Most of the aroma related studies have been carried out on various fruits, as they possess unique aroma with large diversity in their respective flavor profile.

Aroma volatile analysis of *Mangifera indica* L. (Anacardiaceae) has shown presence of variety of compounds viz. alkanes, alkenes, aldehydes, alcohols, monoterpenes, sesquiterpenes, oxygenated monoterpenes, oxygenated sesquiterpenes, non-terpene hydrocarbons, furanones and lactones (Dar et al., 2016; Idstein and Schreier, 1985; Pandit et al., 2009b). Alphonso, one of the most favoured and exported Indian mango cultivars has revealed qualitative abundance and blend of volatiles among various Indian and non Indian mango cultivars analysed (Pandit et al., 2009a). Among these groups of volatile compounds lactones and furanones are notably important due to their ripening specific temporal and spatial appearance in mango fruits (Pandit et al., 2009b). Volatile blend of Alphonso mango showed presence of fourteen different lactones (Idstein and Schreier, 1985; Wilson et al., 1990). Structurally these lactones are cyclic esters characterized by a closed ring consisting of four or five carbon atoms and a single oxygen atom, with a ketone group (C=O) in one of the carbons adjacent to oxygen in the ring. Lactones impart sweet fruity flavor, a characteristic feature of fully ripened mango fruit (Wilson et al., 1990). Despite the structural and functional characterization of these vital flavor metabolites, the pathway of their biosynthesis remains elusive.

Earlier attempts to identify probable precursors of lactone biosynthesis, even if in other organisms, can form a basis to reveal lactone biosynthesis in mango. For example, studies in various yeasts, moulds and bacteria suggest that fatty acids and keto acids might be the precursors at initial steps of lactone biosynthesis. The hydroxy fatty acids then synthesized (probably upon microbial reduction) from various γ and δ keto acids (C8 – C12) could be converted into lactones by simple heating (Muys et al., 1962). Deuterium labelling studies in yeast (Sporobolomyces odorus) have revealed involvement of unsaturated fatty acids such as linolenic acid as precursors for δ-Jasmin lactone and (Z,Z)-Dodeca-6,9-dieno-4-lactone synthesis (Haffner et al., 1996). Also, our studies as detailed in Chapter 2 describe dynamic nature of various fatty acids in developing and ripening stages of fruits of Alphonso, Pairi and Kent cultivars of mango and correlation of certain unsaturated fatty acid levels with that of lactones in these cultivars. Metabolism of epoxy octadecanoic acid by epoxide hydrolase (EH) for production of γ -decalactone and γ -dodecalactone has also been proposed through deuterium labelling studies in Sporidiobolus salmonicolor (Haffner and Tressl, 1998). Further, a study in nectarines has illustrated that administration of ¹⁸O labelled epoxy acid-5 (9-10 epoxy heptadecanoic acid) produced undecano-4lactone. This important observation has suggested possible involvement of epoxy fatty acids in lactone production by the activity of EH (Schottler and Boland, 1996). Comparative EST analysis from ripening Prunus persica L. Batsch has later supported EH as the key gene responsible for lactone biosynthesis (Vecchietti et al., 2009). These epoxy fatty acids in plants are synthesized by the activity of peroxygenase (PGX) enzyme (Fuchs and Schwab, 2013; Meesapyodsuk and Qiu, 2011). A report in Oat PGX (AsPGX1) revealed that it catalyzes epoxidation of oleic acid with the cumene hydroperoxide as an oxidant. Similarly, AsPGX1 utilizes products of 9-lipoxygenase (9LOX) viz. 9-hydroperoxy-octadecadienoic (9-HOPD) 9-hydroperoxy-octadecatrienoic (9-HOPT) acids as oxygen (Meesapyodsuk and Qiu, 2011) generating their respective monohydroxy fatty acids. Also, involvement of lipoxygenase (LOX) to form oxygenated chiral fatty acids leading to production of γ and δ lactones upon beta oxidation has been reported (Cardillo et al., 1989). Significance of hydroxy fatty acid synthesized from products of 9LOX i.e. hydroperoxy fatty acid in the formation of lactone is also reported (Huang and Schwab, 2011).

These initial efforts insinuate involvement of LOX and EH enzymes in lactone biosynthesis. The present chapter therefore, focuses on isolation and transcript profiling of 9-lipoxygenase (Mi9LOX), epoxide hydrolase 2 (MiEH2), peroxygenase (MiPGXI), hydroperoxide lyase (MiHPL) and acyl-CoA-oxidase (MiACO) genes during various developmental and ripening stages in fruit of Alphonso, Pairi and Kent cultivars having differential levels of lactones. Further, molecular and biochemical characterization of Mi9LOX and MiEH2 in mango fruit and probable role of these two enzymes in lactone biosynthesis have been investigated based on their over-expression by agroinfiltration approach followed by metabolite analysis.

3.2 Materials and methods

3.2.1 Plant material

All the tissues of fruit development and ripening stages for Alphonso, Pairi and Kent mango cultivars were similar as collected for the fatty acid analysis described in Chapter 2 (Section 2.2.1). In addition for transient expression studies ethylene treated fruits were collected as described earlier (Chidley et al., 2013). For ethylene treatment 20 mature raw fruits of Alphonso mango were collected from mango orchard of Dr. Balasaheb Sawant Konkan Agriculture University at Dapoli, Maharashtra, India (17.747823 N, 73.184961 E). These fruits stacked in plastic crates were further kept inside a closed chamber (3 m × 3 m × 3 m) and ethylene gas was sprayed inside the closed chamber to a final concentration of 100 ppm. The chamber was closed for 24 h and maintained at 30 °C and 85–90% humidity. Post ethylene treatment fruits were kept in hay containing boxes and allowed to ripen at ambient temperature. At 3DAH stage these fruits were used for the transient expression study.

3.2.2 RNA isolation and cDNA synthesis

Total RNA was isolated for all the tissues sampled for current study using RNeasy Plus mini kit (Quiagen, Venlo, The Netherlands). Two microgram of total RNA was reverse transcribed for synthesis of cDNA using High Capacity cDNA reverse transcription kit (Applied Biosystem, Carlsbad, CA, USA).

3.2.3 Isolation of open reading frames of *Mi9LOX*, *MiHPL*, *MiPGX1*, *MiEH2* and *MiACO*

Full length gene sequences of *peroxygenase* (*PGX*), *hydroperoxide lyase* (*HPL*) and acyl-CoA-oxidase (ACO) were isolated from Alphonso mango using degenerate primer (Table 3.1) approach. RACE reactions with gene specific primers (Table 3.1) were carried out to obtain ends of *PGX*, *HPL* and *ACO* cDNAs. The terminal primers (Table 3.1) were designed for each gene and the full-length genes were isolated and sequenced. These were blasted against the NCBI database for respective genes.

For isolation of partial gene sequence of EH2 from Alphonso mango, degenerate primers viz. EHDeF1 and EHDeR4 (Table 3.1) were designed by homology based approach aligning nucleotide sequences of EH2 from other plant species available in NCBI database. Amplification was carried out using ripe stage cDNA as template. Amplicon with expected size was purified from agarose gel, cloned in pGEM-T easy vector (Promega, Madison, WI, USA) and sequenced to confirm partial cDNA sequence of EH2. Gene specific primers, EHRCF2 and EHRCR1 (Table 3.1) were designed from the obtained sequence and used for rapid amplification of cDNA ends (RACE) to acquire the 5' and 3' ends using the SMARTTM RACE cDNA Amplification Kit (Clontech, CA, USA). Those amplicons were cloned and sequenced to design terminal gene specific primers, EHtrFland EHtrR1 (Table 3.1) for the isolation of complete open reading frame (ORF) of EH2. For isolation of 9LOX, gene specific primers were designed from its available partial gene sequence (EU513272.1) from our previous study (Pandit et al., 2010). The same protocol as that of isolation of EH2 ORF was further followed using LF1 and LR1 primers (Table 3.1) to obtain cDNA ends and terminal primers LOX TF1 and LOX TR1 (Table 3.1) to amplify complete ORF of 9LOX. Ripe mango cDNA as template and Advantage2 polymerase mix (Clontech, CA, USA) were used to get complete ORFs of both the genes (MiEH2 and Mi9LOX) from mango, cloned in to pGEM-T easy vector and transformed in to E. coli (Top 10) cells. In both the cases presence of complete ORF was confirmed by sequencing plasmid inserts from number of positive colonies for each. Encoded proteins from these genes and other plant 9LOX, 13LOX, EH1 and EH2 from NCBI database were used for phylogenetic

analysis. Neighbour joining tree was constructed by bootstrap test (1000 replicates) using MEGA 5.05.

3.2.4 Quantitative real-time PCR

Quantitative real-time PCR was performed using Fast Start Universal SYBR Green master mix (Roche Inc. Indianapolis, Indiana, USA) and *elongation factor 1α* (*EF1α*) as an endogenous control employing the primers reported earlier (Pandit et al., 2010). Transcripts of *Mi9LOX*, *MiEH2*, *MiPGX1*, *MiHPL and MiACO* were amplified using gene specific primers (Table 3.1) and quantification was done by ViiATM 7 Real-Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems) having thermal cycle program of initial denaturation at 95 °C for 10 min with subsequent 40 cycles of 95 °C for 3 sec and 60 °C for 30 sec followed by a dissociation curve analysis of transcripts. The analysis was carried out for pulp and skin tissues from all the developing and ripening stages of Alphonso, Pairi and Kent mango fruits.

Transcripts of *Mi9LOX* and *MiEH2* were also analysed in a similar way from the test and the control tissues obtained from transient over-expression experiments to understand changes in the transcript profiles upon *Agrobacterium* infiltration.

3.2.5 Cloning and recombinant expression of *Mi9LOX* and *MiEH2* in *E. coli*

The full-length sequences of *Mi9LOX* and *MiEH2* amplified from the ripe Alphonso fruit cDNA using the Q5 High fidelity DNA polymerase (New England Biolabs Inc., Ipswich, MA, USA) and Advantage2 polymerase mix, respectively and the relevant terminal primers LOXpET101D F1/LOXpET101D R1 and EHTOPO_F1/EHTOPO_R1 (Table 3.1) were cloned in the pET101D and pEXP5-CT/TOPO expression vectors (Invitrogen), respectively. After confirming the correct orientation of the insert and the presence of an uninterrupted reading frame by sequencing, the recombinant plasmids of *Mi*9LOX and *Mi*EH2 were transformed in the BL21(DE3) pLysS Rosetta cells (Novagen, Madison, WI, USA), for recombinant gene expression.

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Table 3.1 List of primers used in the studyPrimers used in gene isolation, cloning and real time analysis. Classes represented as A: degenerate primers, B: gene specific primers to carry out RACE reaction, C: terminal primers, D: primers for bacterial expression cloning, E: primers for transient expression cloning in pBI121, F: Primers used in real time analysis

Mi9LOX LF1 B GGGATCCGGACAATGGCAAACC LR1 B GAAGCTATCCATATGATTATGGTGC LOX_TF1 C ATGGGGACAGTGGTGTTGATGAAG LOX_TR1 C CTAAATTGAAACACTGTTTGGAATTCC LOXpET101DF1 D CACCATGGGGACAGTGGTGTTGATGAAG LOXpET101DR1 D AATTGAAACACTGTTTGGAATTCCTTTG LOXpBI121F1 E AAAAAAAGGATCCCTAGGGGACAGTGGTGTTGATGAAG LOXpBI121R1 E AAAAAAAGGATCCCTAAATTGAAACACTGTTTTGGAATTC LOXRTF4 F GACAAGAAAGATGAGCCCTGGTGGC LOXRTR4 F AAATTGACAGCAGCATGGAGAGCGG MiEH2 EHDeF1 A CTYTGGTAYTCVTGGCG EHDeR4 A CCHRYCCATGGHSC EHRCF2 B GTGGCTTCGGTGATACTGACGC EHRCR1 B CCTGATCAGAGGCAACGACGTC	
LOX_TF1 C ATGGGGACAGTGGTGTTGATGAAG LOX_TR1 C CTAAATTGAAACACTGTTTGGAATTCC LOXpET101DF1 D CACCATGGGGACAGTGGTGTTGATGAAG LOXpET101DR1 D AATTGAAACACTGTTTGGAATTCCTTTG LOXpBI121F1 E AAAAAAGGATCCATGGGGACAGTGGTGTTGATGAAG LOXpBI121R1 E AAAAAAGGATCCCTAAATTGAAACACTGTTTGGAATTC LOXRTF4 F GACAAGAAAGATGAGCCCTGGTGGC LOXRTR4 F AAATTGACAGCAGCATGGAGAGCGG MIEH2 EHDeF1 A CTYTGGTAYTCVTGGCG EHDeR4 A CCHRYCCATGGHSC EHRCF2 B GTGGCTTCGGTGATACTGACGC	
LOX_TR1 C CTAAATTGAAACACTGTTTGGAATTCC LOXpET101DF1 D CACCATGGGGACAGTGGTGTTGATGAAG LOXpET101DR1 D AATTGAAACACTGTTTGGAATTCCTTTG LOXpBI121F1 E AAAAAAGGATCCATGGGGACAGTGGTGTTGATGAAG LOXpBI121R1 E AAAAAAGGATCCCTAAATTGAAACACTGTTTGGAATTC LOXRTF4 F GACAAGAAAGATGAGCCCTGGTGGC LOXRTR4 F AAATTGACAGCAGCATGGAGAGCGG MIEH2 EHDeF1 A CTYTGGTAYTCVTGGCG EHDeR4 A CCHRYCCATGGHSC EHRCF2 B GTGGCTTCGGTGATACTGACGC	
LOXpET101DF1 D CACCATGGGGACAGTGGTGTTGATGAAG LOXpET101DR1 D AATTGAAACACTGTTTGGAATTCCTTTG LOXpBI121F1 E AAAAAAGGATCCATGGGGACAGTGGTGTTGATGAAG LOXpBI121R1 E AAAAAAGGATCCCTAAATTGAAACACTGTTTGGAATTC LOXRTF4 F GACAAGAAAGATGAGCCCTGGTGGC LOXRTR4 F AAATTGACAGCAGCATGGAGAGCGG MIEH2 EHDeF1 A CTYTGGTAYTCVTGGCG EHDeR4 A CCHRYCCATGGHSC EHRCF2 B GTGGCTTCGGTGATACTGACGC	
LOXpET101DR1 D AATTGAAACACTGTTTGGAATTCCTTTG LOXpBI121F1 E AAAAAAGGATCCATGGGGACAGTGGTGTTGATGAAG LOXpBI121R1 E AAAAAAGGATCCCTAAATTGAAACACTGTTTGGAATTC LOXRTF4 F GACAAGAAAGATGAGCCCTGGTGGC LOXRTR4 F AAATTGACAGCAGCATGGAGAGCGG MIEH2 EHDeF1 A CTYTGGTAYTCVTGGCG EHDeR4 A CCHRYCCATGGHSC EHRCF2 B GTGGCTTCGGTGATACTGACGC	
LOXpBI121F1 E AAAAAAGGATCCATGGGGACAGTGGTGTTGATGAAG LOXpBI121R1 E AAAAAAGGATCCCTAAATTGAAACACTGTTTGGAATTC LOXRTF4 F GACAAGAAAGATGAGCCCTGGTGGC LOXRTR4 F AAATTGACAGCAGCATGGAGAGCGG MIEH2 EHDeF1 A CTYTGGTAYTCVTGGCG EHDeR4 A CCHRYCCATGGHSC EHRCF2 B GTGGCTTCGGTGATACTGACGC	
LOXpBI121R1 E AAAAAAGGATCCCTAAATTGAAACACTGTTTGGAATTC LOXRTF4 F GACAAGAAAGATGAGCCCTGGTGGC LOXRTR4 F AAATTGACAGCAGCATGGAGAGCGG MIEH2 EHDeF1 A CTYTGGTAYTCVTGGCG EHDeR4 A CCHRYCCATGGHSC EHRCF2 B GTGGCTTCGGTGATACTGACGC	
LOXRTF4 F GACAAGAAAGATGAGCCCTGGTGGC LOXRTR4 F AAATTGACAGCAGCATGGAGAGCGG MIEH2 EHDeF1 A CTYTGGTAYTCVTGGCG EHDeR4 A CCHRYCCATGGHSC EHRCF2 B GTGGCTTCGGTGATACTGACGC	
LOXRTR4 F AAATTGACAGCATGGAGAGCGG MiEH2 EHDeF1 A CTYTGGTAYTCVTGGCG EHDeR4 A CCHRYCCATGGHSC EHRCF2 B GTGGCTTCGGTGATACTGACGC	C
MiEH2 EHDeF1 A CTYTGGTAYTCVTGGCG EHDeR4 A CCHRYCCATGGHSC EHRCF2 B GTGGCTTCGGTGATACTGACGC	
EHDeR4 A CCHRYCCATGGHSC EHRCF2 B GTGGCTTCGGTGATACTGACGC	
EHRCF2 B GTGGCTTCGGTGATACTGACGC	
EHRCR1 B CCTGATCAGAGGCAACGACGTC	
EHtrF1 C ATGGAAGATATACAGCACAGAATTGTG	
EHtrR1 C TCAGAACTTCTGAAAAAAGTTGTATATG	
EHTOPO_F1 D ATGGAAGATATACAGCACAGAATT	
EHTOPO_R1 D GAACTTCTGAAAAAAGTTGTATATG	
EHpBI121F1 E AAAAAAGGATCCATGGAAGATATACAGCACAGAATTG	ΓG
EHpBI121R1 E AAAAAAGGATCCTCAGAACTTCTGAAAAAAGTTGTATA	TGTGC
EHRTF4 F CCTTGGGCCGGGAGTCAAATAAAGG	
EHRTR4 F AATGGCACATCTCGCTTGAACCCAC	
MiPGX1 PGX_De_F A MWGAGYGTBCTKCARCAGCATG	
PGX_De_R A AMTCRAACAARCTMCCATC	
PGX_RC_F B GGGATCATTTACCCTTGGGAGAC	
PGX_RC_R B CCCCTTTACTTGCAATCCAGCC	
MiPGX_Tr_F C ATGGACGGGGATGCAATGGCAACC	
MiPGX_Tr_R C TTAAATCATCTTAGCTGCAGCGCCTGC	
MiPGX1_RT_F1 F AAGGAAGGTACATGCCTGCAAACCT	
MiPGX1_RT_R1 F CGGTTTCCCTCAGTCATGTCCCAAA	
MiHPL HPL_RC_F B GACCGCTGGCTCGCCC	
HPL_RC_R B CCTCGTTGCACCACCTCG	
MiHPL_Tr_F C ATGATGATCAAATCCATGAGC	
MiHPL_Tr_R C TCATTTTGCCTTTTCAACGGCTG	
MiHPL_RT_F F TGAGCCACAACACGCTAAGA	
MiHPL_RT_R F AAGCCTGCAGAACCCTTCTC	
<i>MiACO1</i> MiACO_De_F A CTKGARACCACTGCAACWTTTGATC	
MiACO_De_R A CCAYTCACYAACRAAYCTGAAAGCATA	
MiACO_RC_F B TGGTGGCCTGGTGGATTGGGTAAAG	
MiACO_RC_R B TGACGAACATACACCATAGTGCCATAAA	
MiACO1_TF C ATGGCTGGCGTTGATTATCTTGCTGACG	
MiACO1_TR C TCAGAGTCTTGCTGTTCGGAGCTGTTG	
MiACO1_RT_F1 F ACCTCTACGAGGAAGCTTGGAAGGA	
MiACO1_RT_R1 F AGAGTCTTGCTGTTCGGAGCTGTTG	
MiEF1α EF1_F F AATACGACTCACTATAGGGCAAGCAG	
EF1_R F ATACGACTCACTATAGGGCTCCTTCTC	

Starter culture was initiated in 20 ml terrific broth (TB) with 100 μgml⁻¹ ampicillin and grown at 37 °C with 180 rpm for 24 hrs. Expression culture was started with 1L TB medium inoculated with 1% final concentration of starter culture with 100 μgml⁻¹ ampicillin at 37 °C with 180 rpm shaking speed. Expression of recombinant protein was induced by 0.2 mM IPTG at 0.6 OD₆₀₀. After induction expression culture was kept at 16 °C, 120 rpm for 12 to 14 hrs and cells were harvested by centrifugation, resuspended in100 mM phosphate buffer, pH 7 with 20 mM imidazole. The cells were lysed by sonication and the 6x-His tagged recombinant proteins were purified on Ni-NTA matrix (Invitrogen) wherein non-specifically bound proteins were removed by low molarity imidazole containing phosphate buffer washes. Recombinant proteins were eluted in 100 mM phosphate buffer with 250 mM imidazole (pH 7). In case of eluted *Mi*9LOX, low molecular weight contaminant proteins were removed by passing eluted fractions through Amicon Ultra centrifugal filters with NMWL 50 kDa membrane (Merck Millipore, Darmstadt, Germany). Purified recombinant proteins were checked by SDS-PAGE for their purity.

3.2.6 Enzyme assays of recombinant Mi9LOX and MiEH2

Mi9LOX activity assay was initially performed in 250 µl final volume of 100 mM phosphate citrate buffer, pH 7.0 containing 200 µM substrate i.e. linoleic acid (LA) or α-linolenic acid (ALA) and 0.005% Tween20 at 30 °C. The activity was measured by formation of the conjugated diene at 234 nm, applying an extinction coefficient 25000 M⁻¹cm⁻¹ for both the substrates. A₂₃₄ at 0th min for each reaction was considered as blank and subtracted from A₂₃₄ for given time (t). Similar activity assay was carried out for both the substrates with protein expressed from an empty vector. Optimum pH and temperature of the recombinant protein were determined by calculating Mi9LOX activity either at varied range of pH in phosphate citrate buffer at 30 °C or in phosphate citrate buffer, pH 7 at various temperatures, respectively. After spectrophotometric measurement of catalytic activity of Mi9LOX, products were extracted in chloroform: methanol (2:1); completely dried in vacuum evaporator and reconstituted in methanol. These assay extracts were then used for UPLC coupled Q Exactive orbitrap HRMS (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) analysis for the product confirmation. Extracted compounds from the assay reactions were separated by water (A): methanol (B) solvent gradient, at 0 min with 70% (A)/30% (B); 0-2 min

50% (A)/50% (B); 2-12 min 0% (A)/100% (B), held for 2 min and again back to 70% (A)/30% (B) in 3 min with 2 min hold at flow rate 500 μ l min⁻¹.

Recombinant MiEH2 activity assay was carried out in 500 µl assay reaction in similar way as that of Mi9LOX using substrates cis-stilbene oxide (CSO), transstilbene oxide (TSO) and 12(13) epoxide of linoleic acid [(12) 13 EpOME]. Temperature and pH optimization was also carried out in a similar way. Products formed in the assay were extracted in chloroform: methanol (2:1); evaporated till dryness, reconstituted in 200 µl methanol and HRMS analysis was carried out by accurate mass (molecular ion) identification. Identified products from assay reaction were confirmed with the mass and retention time indices of authentic standards R,Rhydrobenzoin and meso hydrobenzoin. Extracted compounds from CSO and TSO assay reactions were separated by water (A): methanol (B) solvent gradient, 0-1 min with 80% (A)/20% (B); 1-2 min 60% (A)/40% (B); 2-4 min 40% (A)/60% (B); 4-11 min 20% (A)/80% (B); 11-16 min 0% (A)/100% (B), held for 2 min and again back to 80% (A)/20% (B) in 3 min with 2 min hold at flow rate 500 µl min⁻¹. Compounds from assay reactions of 12(13) EpOME were separated by using similar gradient program as that for Mi9LOX assay reaction. Graphs plotted with standard compounds were used for quantitative analysis of CSO and TSO products generated by recombinant MiEH2. Full scans for both the programs were acquired on positive ion mode with AGC target value of 1E6, resolution of 70,000 at scan range 100 -500 m/z, and maximum ion injection time (IT) of 250 ms.

3.2.7 Transient over expression of *Mi9LOX* and *MiEH2* in Alphonso mango fruits

The sequences of *Mi9LOX* and *MiEH2* were cloned separately at *Bam*HI restriction site in pBI121 plant expression vector between CaMV 35S promoter and *GusA* gene using terminal primers (Table 3.1). The resulted correctly oriented construct (A) pBI121+ *Mi9LOX*, construct (B) pBI121+ *MiEH2* and (C) pBI121 empty vector were transformed in *Agrobacterium tumefacience* GV3101 strain for transient expression studies. Separate *A. tumefacience* cultures (5 mL) were initiated for each construct from individual colonies in YEB medium (0.5% beef extract, 0.1% yeast extract, 0.5% peptone, 0.5% sucrose, 2 mM MgSO4) with 100 μgml⁻¹ rifampicin and

kanamycin antibiotics and incubated overnight at 28 °C. This culture was transferred to 50 ml induction medium, (YEB with 20 mM acetosyringone and 10 mM MES, pH 5.6) with 100 µgml⁻¹ rifampicin and kanamycin antibiotics, and again grown overnight. Cultures were then recovered by centrifugation and re-suspended in infiltration medium (10 mM MgCl2, 10 mM MES, 200 mM acetosyringone, pH 5.6) till optical density reached to 1.0. This suspension was again incubated at 28 °C with gentle agitation for 2 hr. Over-expression studies for Mi9LOX and MiEH2 were carried out by Agrobacterium mediated infiltration in ethylene treated mango fruits at 3DAH stage by using hypodermic syringe. Equal volumes of (A) or (B) and (C) were used for infiltration in the two halves of the same mango fruit separated by fruit stone. During initial trials it was confirmed that, Agrobacterium mediated infiltration did not spread beyond fruit stone. Thus, control (C) and test (A/B) over-expressions were carried out in the same fruit. Five distinct mango fruits, each were used for the overexpression study of Mi9LOX and MiEH2. Infiltrated fruits were kept at 25 °C for 2 days in 12 hr dark and light conditions each. After 2 days; a part from each of the fruit halves was checked by Gus staining (Kapila et al., 1997; Spolaore et al., 2001) to confirm expression of Mi9LOX and MiEH2 each under 35S promoter along with GusA and remaining part of the fruit pulp was stored in -80 °C until used for the lactone analysis by gas chromatography.

3.2.8 Qualitative and quantitative analysis of metabolites

Aroma volatile extraction was carried out from 5g of each tissue obtained from the transient over expression experiment by solvent extraction method as mentioned in Chapter 2 (Section 2.2.3). To understand the effect of transient over expression of *Mi9LOX* and *MiEH2* on lactone biosynthesis, qualitative and quantitative analysis of lactones alone was carried out in the present study in similar fashion as described in Chapter 2 (Section 2.2.4.2).

Qualitative and quantitative analysis of *Mi*9LOX and *Mi*EH2 products from tissues obtained after transient over expression was carried out on UPLC coupled Q-Exactive orbitrap HRMS (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) in a similar way done for the *Mi*9LOX and *Mi*EH2 assay products. Extraction of these intermediate compounds was carried out from 0.5 g tissue obtained from the transient over

expression experiment. Tissue was crushed in liquid nitrogen and added to 2ml of 80% methanol, vortexed and sonicated for 5 min and fatty acid intermediates were extracted in 1 ml of hexane. Hexane layer was removed and evaporated to complete dryness and metabolites were reconstituted in 100 μ l of 100% methanol and further used for HRMS analysis.

3.2.9 Statistical analysis

Experiments for each developing and ripening stages were performed from fruits of 3 independent trees for cv. Alphonso and 2 independent trees each for cv. Pairi and cv. Kent. These were considered as biological replicates. Quantitative real time PCR analysis was carried out in triplicate for each biological replicate from Alphonso, Pairi and Kent cultivars. ANOVA was carried out for comparison of Mi9LOX, MiEH2, MiPGX1, MiHPL and MiACO transcripts at various fruit development and ripening stages from pulp and skin tissues of Alphonso, Pairi and Kent cultivars using Stat View software, version 5.0 (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA). Extraction of volatiles in transient over expression studies was carried out twice for each tissue as technical replicates followed by duplicate GC-FID runs of each extract as analytical replicates. Fisher's LSD test was performed at $p \le 0.05$ and $p \le 0.1$ by ANOVA for comparative analysis of lactone content in control and test tissues in transient expression analysis using Stat View software, version 5.0 (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA).

3.3 Results

3.3.1 *In silico* analysis of isolated genes from *Mangifera indica* L.

EH from mango depicted ORF of 957 nucleotides with 74 and 241 nucleotides long 5' and 3' UTR regions, respectively. While in case of LOX, ORF of 2526 nucleotides with only 3' UTR (167 nucleotides) was evident. These mango genes showed similarity with linoleate 9-lipoxygenase and soluble EH2 reported from other plant species with maximum similarity with Citrus sinensis (80%) and Prunus persica (75%), respectively. Further phylogenetic analysis of encoded protein sequences of LOX and EH genes in our study along with the other plant 9LOX, 13LOX, EH1 and EH2 sequences reported in the NCBI database showed four distinct clusters in

cladogram each representing 9LOX, 13LOX, EH1 and EH2, respectively (Figure 3.1); wherein mango LOX and EH grouped in clads of other plant 9LOX and EH2, respectively. Hence these were named as *Mi9LOX* (Appendix 1; KX090178) and *MiEH2* (Appendix 1; KX090179), respectively.

The other three genes from mango, viz. peroxygenase, hydroperoxide lyase and acyl-CoA-oxidase upon in silico analysis showed presence of complete ORF's of 708, 1485 and 1995 bp, respectively. Sequence analysis of respective genes confirmed their maximum similarities with reported sequences of peroxygenase (80%), hydroperoxide lyase (76%) and acyl-CoA-oxidase (86%) from Citrus sinensis and thus named as MiPGXI (Appendix 1; KX090180), MiHPL (Appendix 1; KX090181) and MiACO (Appendix 1; KX090182), respectively.

3.3.2 Expression of *Mi9LOX*, *MiHPL*, *MiPGX1*, *MiEH2* and *MiACO* in fruits of three mango cultivars

Transcript abundance of five candidate genes, viz. Mi9LOX, MiHPL, MiPGXI, MiEH2 and MiACO was studied in pulp and skin tissues of fruit of Alphonso, Pairi and Kent cultivars at various stages of fruit development and ripening. Transcript levels of the individual genes from three cultivars at their maxima were not significantly different; however their differential expression was evinced at various ripening stages and in pulp and skin tissues of the three cultivars. Transcript level of each gene at its maximum expression was considered as 1 and its relative expression in the pulp and the skin of various stages was represented across cultivars (Figure 3.2 and Figure 3.3). All the three cultivars showed ripening specific appearance of Mi9LOX, MiPGX1 and MiACO transcripts (Figure 3.2 and Figure 3.3). Relative quantification of MiPGX1 showed optimum transcripts at mid ripe stage in the pulp as well as the skin tissues of Alphonso and Pairi cultivars, which later reduced significantly till over ripe stage. Whereas, MiPGXI transcript level in the pulp and the skin tissues of Kent cultivar increased continuously from table green stage to over ripe stage. MiPGXI transcript abundance from the skin tissue of Kent was very low compared to that in the pulp tissue. However, MiPGX1 expression level was almost similar in the case of pulp and skin tissues of Pairi and 25% low in the case of Alphonso pulp than the skin tissue.

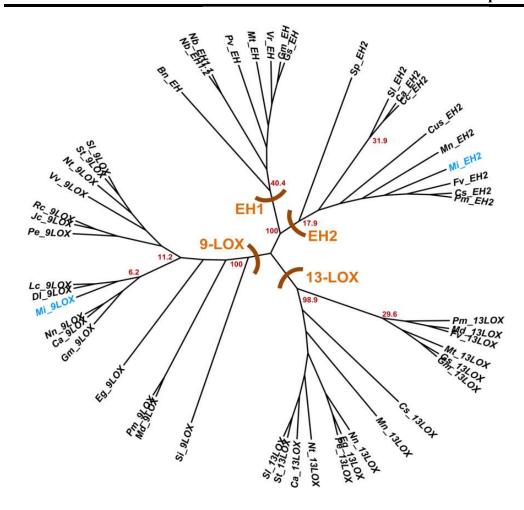


Figure 3.1 Phylogenetic analysis of lipoxygenase and epoxide hydrolase genes Cladogram representing phylogenetic analysis by neighbor-joining of encoded proteins by Mi9LOX and MiEH2 (blue color) genes with that of other plant 9LOX, 13LOX, EH1 and EH2 sequences. Node label represents name of the enzyme followed by two letters representing initials of botanical name of the plant. The numbers (red color) at the branch nodes signify the bootstrap scores acquired after 1000 trials. Details of sequence of plant species, enzyme and NCBI accession in parenthesis are as follows; Nicotiana benthamiana_EH1.2 (ACE82566), Nicotiana benthamiana_EH1.1 (ACE82565), Phaseolus vulgaris_EH (AKJ75509), Glycine max_EH (CAA55294), Medicago truncatula_EH (XP_003626202), Glycine soja EH (KHN43314), Vigna radiata EH (AlJ27456), Brassica napus EH (NP 001302895), Citrus sinensis EH2 (XP 006489040), Prunus mume EH2 (XP 016647751), Cicer arietinum EH2 (XP_004508197), Fragaria vesca_EH2 (XP_004290776), Cajanus cajan_EH2 (KYP58120), Cucumis sativus_EH2 (XP_004134492), Solanum lycopersicum_EH2 (XP_004252913), Solanum pennellii_EH2 (XP 015077274), Morus notabilis_EH2 (XP_010105136), Vitis vinifera_9LOX (XP_010659859), Malus domestica 9LOX (NP 001281030), Prunus mume 9LOX (XP 008246456), Glycine max 9LOX tuberosum 9LOX (NP 001274916), (XP 003521704), Solanum Nicotiana tabacum 9LOX (XP 016433823), Dimocarpus longan 9LOX (ANF89411), Corylus avellana 9LOX (CAD10740), Litchi chinensis_9LOX (AEQ30071), Populus euphratica_9LOX (XP_011023610), Eucalyptus grandis_9LOX (XP_010025195), Jatropha curcas_9LOX (XP_012089053), Ricinus communis_9LOX (XP_002512386), Solanum lycopersicum_9LOX (XP_004244890), Sesamum indicum_9LOX (XP_011087404), Nelumbo nucifera_9LOX (XP_010256003), Malus domestica_13LOX (NP_001280985), Prunus mume_13LOX (XP_008228181), Medicago truncatula_13LOX (XP_003627308), Solanum tuberosum_13LOX (NP_001275115), Glycine soja_13LOX (KHN39622), Fragaria vesca_13LOX (XP_004303702), Morus (XP 010086794), grandis_13LOX (XP 010033729), Eucalyptus notabilis 13LOX Populus euphratica_13LOX (XP_011035732), Nelumbo nucifera_13LOX (XP_010273845), Capsicum annuum_13LOX (NP 001311748), Nicotiana tabacum 13LOX (XP 016495606), sinensis 13LOX (XP 006465905), Solanum lycopersicum_13LOX (AAB65767), Glycine max_13LOX (XP 014624448).

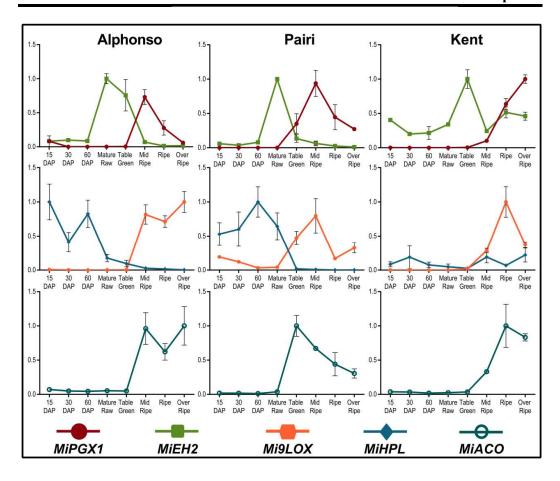


Figure 3.2 qPCR analysis from pulp tissue

Transcript profiles of Mi9LOX, MiHPL, MiPGX1, MiEH2 and MiACO from pulp tissue of various fruit development and ripening stages of Alphonso, Pairi and Kent mango cultivars. Vertical bars at each data point represent standard error in the relative quantification among the biological replicates. X axis represents fruit development and ripening stages and Y axis represents relative transcript abundance.

MiEH2 transcripts in Alphonso were found to be the highest during mature raw and table green stages of the pulp and the skin tissues. These levels were almost 50% lower in the skin tissue as compared to the pulp. In case of Pairi MiEH2 transcripts were optimum at mature raw stage of the pulp tissue, which reduced by 60% at 60 DAP stage of the skin compared to the pulp. Interestingly, the pulp and the skin tissues of Kent showed expression of MiEH2 throughout the developing and ripening stages. MiHPL transcripts were abundant in the developing tissues of Alphonso and Pairi, which further reduced to nearing zero at post table green stage. In case of Kent MiHPL transcripts were present throughout the developing and the ripening stages of the pulp and the skin tissues. Relative transcript profiles of Mi9LOX and MiACO from Alphonso pulp revealed their high abundance through mid ripe stage to over ripe stage, whereas, slight reduction in their level was observed at post

mid ripe stage in case of the skin tissue. *Mi9LOX* and *MiACO* transcripts from Pairi pulp and skin tissues showed their maximum level at table green stage except for optimum level for *Mi9LOX* at mid ripe stage of Pairi pulp. Reduction in the *Mi9LOX* and *MiACO* level was evinced in further ripening stages of Pairi tissues. In the case of Kent pulp, *Mi9LOX* and *MiACO* transcript abundance was the highest at ripe stage, whereas in case of Kent skin tissue transcript level was higher at over ripe stage. Interestingly, co-expression of *MiPGX1* and *MiEH2* was observed for short duration in Alphonso fruits from table green stage to ripe stage (10 days) and in Pairi fruits from mature raw stage to ripe stage (8 days). While in case of Kent fruits co-expression of *MiPGX1* and *MiEH2* was noted throughout the ripening stages.

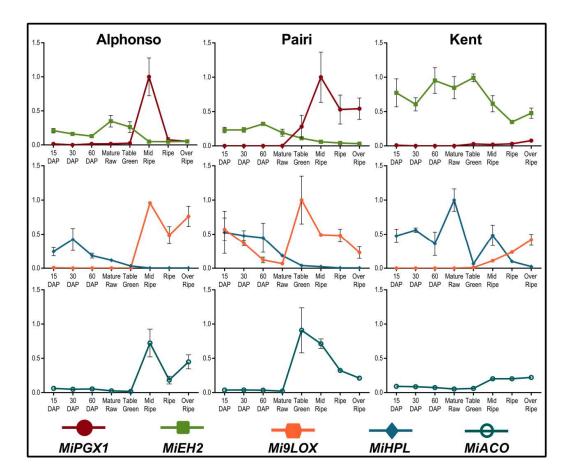


Figure 3.3 qPCR analysis from skin tissue

Transcript profiles of Mi9LOX, MiHPL, MiPGX1, MiEH2 and MiACO from skin tissue of various fruit development and ripening stages of Alphonso, Pairi and Kent mango cultivars. Vertical bars at each data point represent standard error in the relative quantification among the biological replicates. X axis represents fruit development and ripening stages and Y axis represents relative transcript abundance.

3.3.3 Heterologous expression and catalytic activities of proteins encoded by *Mi9LOX* and *MiEH2*

The *Mi9LOX* gene from Alphonso mango encoded protein of 841 aa with calculated molecular weight of ~96.3 kDa and 78% similarity with 9LOX of *Litchi chinensis*. Presence of conserved substrate binding and oxygen binding domains (Santino et al., 2005) were also revealed when the amino acid sequence alignment and secondary structure prediction of *Mi9LOX* was performed with that of *Glycin max* (PDB- 2iuj), *Vitis vinifera*, *Solanum lycopersicum* and *Litchi chinensis* using ESpript 3.0 software (Figure 3.4).

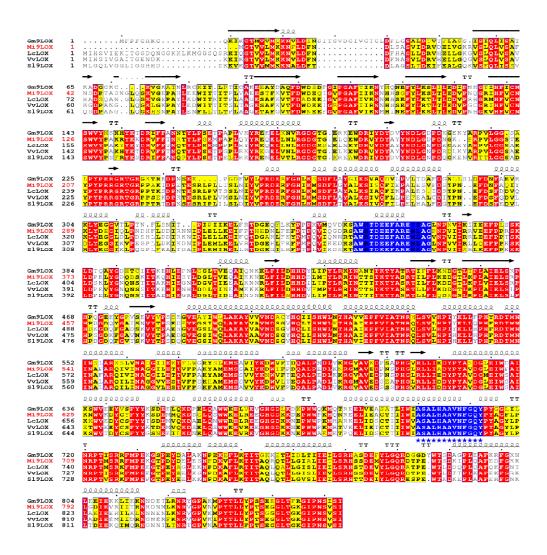


Figure 3.4 Secondary structure prediction of *Mi*9LOX

Alignment of *Mi*9LOX protein sequence with other lipoxygenases from *Glycin max* (PDB- 2iuj), *Litchi chinensis* (AEQ30071), *Vitis vinifera* (AGU28274) and *Solanum lycopersicum* (NP_001234856). Amino acids highlighted in blue color represent conserved substrate binding domain and amino acids highlighted in blue with underlined blue stars represent conserved oxygen binding domain.

MiEH2 from Alphonso mango encoded 318 aa long protein with calculated molecular weight of ~35.9 kDa and 81% similarity with predicted bifunctional epoxide hydrolase 2 from Citrus sinensis. Further secondary structure prediction and alignment of MiEH2 with epoxide hydrolases from other plants, viz. Solanum tuberosum (PDB-2cjp), Citrus sinensis and Nicotiana benthamiana showed conserved catalytic residues (Figure 3.5) (Bellevik et al., 2002b).

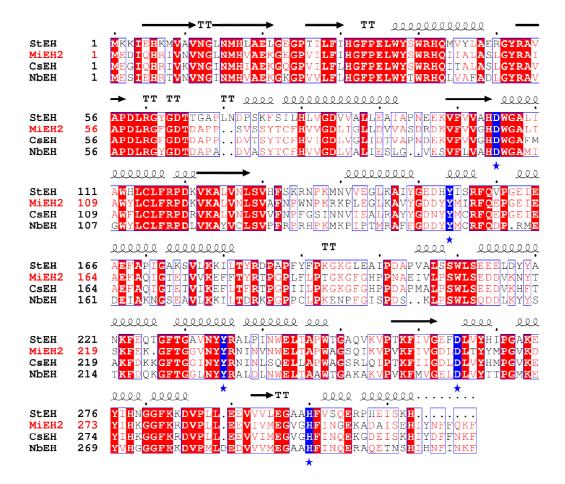


Figure 3.5 Secondary structure prediction of *Mi*EH2

Alignment of *Mi*EH2 protein sequence with other epoxide hydrolases from *Solanum tuberosum* (PDB-2cjp), *Citrus sinensis* (XP_006489041) and *Nicotiana benthamiana* (ACE82566). Amino acids highlighted in blue color represent conserved catalytic residues from enzyme active site.

The encoded protein sequences of *Mi*9LOX and *Mi*EH2 were also analysed on **PRO**tein **SO**lubility evaluator (PROSO) to understand solubility of the expressed recombinant proteins. Both, *Mi*9LOX and *Mi*EH2 belonged to the solubility class with probability of 0.696 and 0.506, respectively. SDS-PAGE analysis indicated recombinant *Mi*EH2 protein purity to be good (Figure 3.6a) to carry out enzymatic

activity studies, whereas *Mi*9LOX eluted fractions had low molecular weight nonspecific proteins, which were eliminated by further purification step (Figure 3.6b and Figure 3.6c).

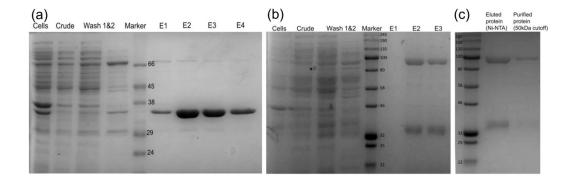


Figure 3.6 Purified recombinant *Mi9LOX* and *MiEH2*CBB stained SDS-PAGE gels representing purified recombinant proteins *MiEH2* (a) and *Mi9LOX* (b) by Ni-NTA affinity purification and purified fraction of *Mi9LOX* after passing through 50 kDa cut-off column (c).

The enzymatic activity of purified recombinant *Mi*9LOX using linoleic acid (LA) and linolenic acid (ALA) as substrates revealed formation of 9HpODE and 9HpOTrE products, respectively (Figure 3.7). Biochemical characterization of *Mi*9LOX revealed considerably high activity between pH 6 to 8 with optima at pH 6.5 and over 40% reduction in the activity at pH 5 and 9 (Figure 3.8). Activity profile of *Mi*9LOX at varied temperatures showed stable activity of the enzyme between 37 to 45 °C, with temperature optima at 37.0 °C (Table 3.2) while 75 and 69% reduction in the activity at 35 and 50 °C, respectively. The enzyme kinetics for *Mi*9LOX with LA and ALA revealed more affinity towards ALA than LA based on the calculated Km values (Table 3.2) from *in vitro* studies. Similarly, Vmax/Km values of recombinant *Mi*9LOX showed higher catalytic efficiency with ALA than LA (Table 3.2).

Purified recombinant *Mi*EH2 showed activity towards *cis*-Stilbene oxide (CSO), *trans*-Stilbene oxide (TSO) and 12(13) EpOME [12(13) epoxide of octadecamonoenoic acid/12(13) epoxide of linoleic acid] (Figure 3.9) indicating its efficiency to utilize and hydrolyse aromatic and fatty acid epoxides. Biochemical characterization revealed stable activity of *Mi*EH2 between pH 7 to 8 with optima at pH 8 and >40% reduction in activity below pH 6 and above pH 9. Activity profile of *Mi*EH2 at varied temperatures showed optima at 45 °C; while >40% reduction in the

activity between 25 to 40 °C. Over 50% reduction in the activity was noted at 50 °C with complete inactivation at 60 °C and above (Figure 3.8). The MiEH2 revealed higher Km and lower Vmax/Km value for CSO than TSO suggesting higher affinity and catalytic efficiency towards TSO (Table 3.2). Assay of MiEH2 with 12(13) **EpOME** as substrate produced 12(13) DiHOME (12,13 dihydroxy octadecamonoenoic acid) as a product (Figure 3.9) confirming utilization of fatty acid epoxides as substrates. Vmax/Km value for 12(13) EpOME suggested its intermediate catalytic efficiency towards fatty acid substrates with respect to CSO and TSO (Table 3.2).

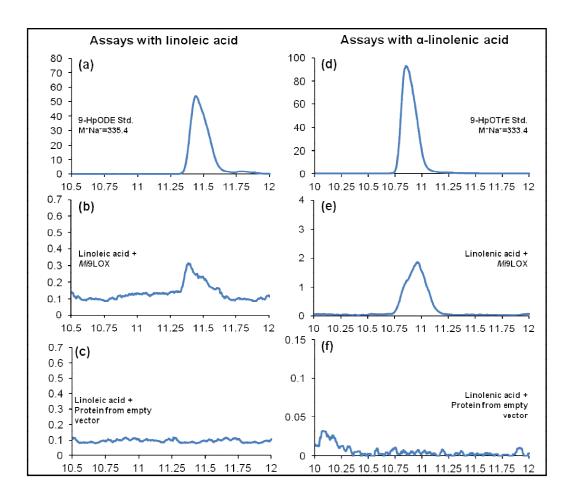


Figure 3.7 Recombinant enzyme activities of *Mi9LOX*

Extracted ion chromatograms from HRMS analysis for product identification of *Mi*9LOX assay reactions, HpODE standard (a); HpOTrE standard (d); products formed in assay reactions of *Mi*9LOX with substrate linoleic acid (b) and linolenic acid (e). (c) and (f) represent assay reactions for the protein expressed from empty vector with substrates linoleic acid and linolenic acid, respectively. X-axis represents retention time (min) and Y-axis represents relative intensity.

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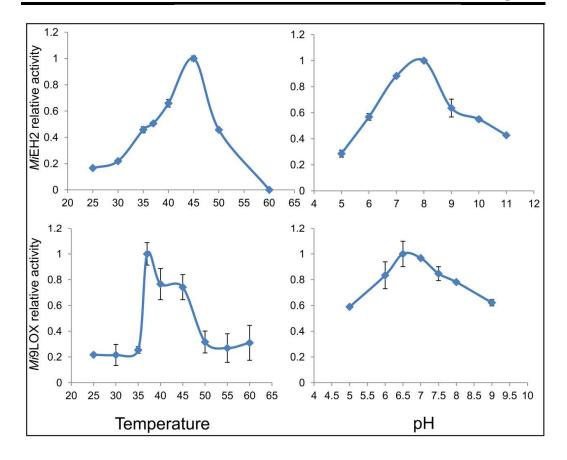


Figure 3.8 Biochemical characterisation of *Mi***9LOX and** *Mi***EH2**Line graphs representing changes in the activity of *Mi***9LOX** and *Mi*EH2 at different pH and temperatures.

Table 3.2 Biochemical characterization and enzyme kinetics

Enzymes	Mi9LOX		Mi EH2		
Substrates	LA	ALA	CSO	TSO	12(13) EpOME
Vmax (µM min ⁻¹ mg ⁻¹)	611.11 ± 55.55	279.84 ± 5.87	26.53 ± 4.81	1055.55± 55.55	26.70 ± 0.04
Km (mM)	0.35 ± 0.03	$0.06 \pm 8E^{-5}$	0.17 ± 0.04	0.11 ± 0.003	$0.004 \pm 4.49 \; \text{E}^{-5}$
Vmax/Km min ⁻¹ mg ⁻¹)	1.73	4.56	0.16	9.34	6.19
Optimum temperature	37°C	37°C	45°C	45°C	_
Optimum pH	6.5	6.5	8	8	_

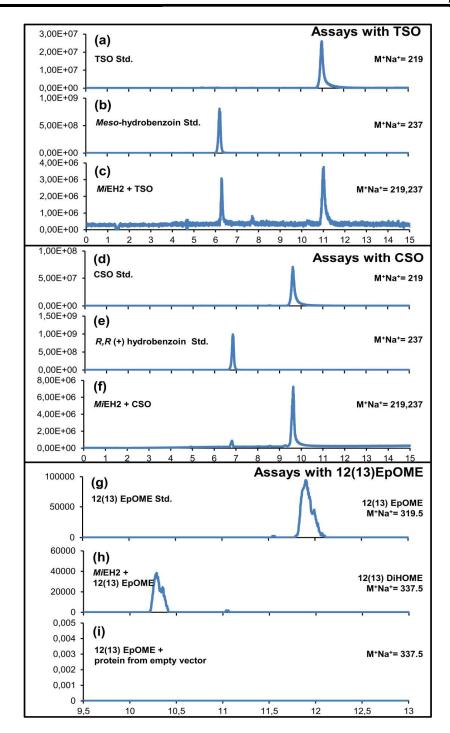


Figure 3.9 Recombinant enzyme activities of MiEH2

Extracted ion chromatograms from HRMS analysis for product identification of *Mi*EH2 assay reactions, standards; TSO (a), meso hydrobenzoin (b), CSO (d), *R*, *R* (+) hydrobenzoin (e) and 12(13) EpOME (g). Chromatogram representing product formation by *Mi*EH2 with substrates TSO (c), CSO (f) and 12(13) EpOME (h). Assay reaction of protein expressed from empty vector with 12(13)EpOME substrate (i). X axis represents retention time (min) and Y axis represents relative intensity.

3.3.4 Transient over-expression of *Mi9LOX* and *MiEH2* resulted in elevated lactone levels in mango fruit

Agrobacterium inoculation for test and control constructs was carried out in two halves of the same ethylene treated fruits as described (Figure 3.10a), while Figure 3.10b depicts a part of fruit checked by Gus staining to confirm expression of *GusA* along with the *Mi9LOX* or *MiEH2* after two days of *Agrobacterium* infiltration. The remaining tissue was used for the analysis of lactone content and gene expression to avoid error due to indigenous variation in lactone content and gene expression.

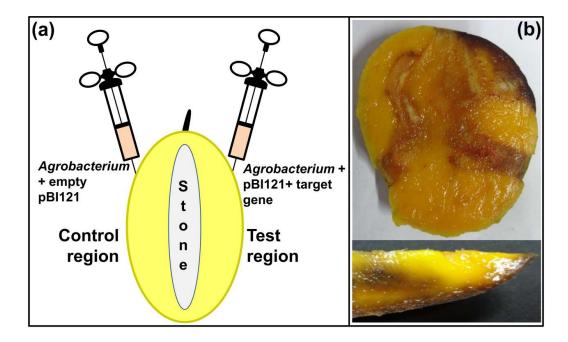


Figure 3.10 Agroinfiltration and Gus staining

Diagrammatic representation of Agroinfiltration of empty pBI121 and pBI121+ target gene constructs in

two different regions of the same mango fruit separated by fruit stone (a). Representative pictures of Alphonso mango fruit after Agroinfiltration and Gus staining (b)

Mi9LOX and MiEH2 transcripts from test tissues upon Agrobacterium infiltration showed significant increase of 1.73 and 8.3-fold, respectively as compared to the control tissues (Figure 3.11a). Intermediate metabolite analysis of these tissues by HRMS revealed significant increase of 1.9 folds in the 9HpOTrE upon Mi9LOX over-expression (Figure 3.11b), whereas 9HpODE was not detected in the present analysis from control as well as test tissues. MiEH2 over-expression resulted in significant increase (2.57 folds) in the DHSA (DiHydroxy Stearic Acid) concentration (Figure 3.11c). Another peak at mass 335.2, probably equivalent to exact mass of

DiHODE (M⁺+Na⁺) was also detected with significant increase (2.62 fold) in the test tissue as compared to the control.

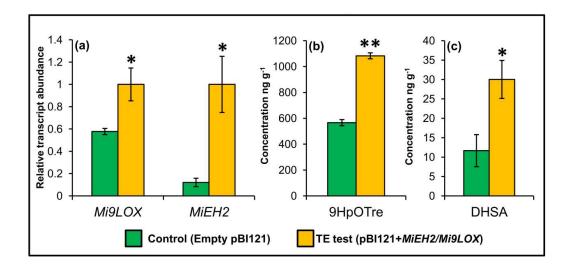


Figure 3.11 Effect of transient over expression on transcripts and metabolites Histogram representing changes in the Mi9LOX and MiEH2 transcripts level in the control and test tissues after agroinfiltration (a). Histogram representing changes in the 9HpOTre (9-Hydroperoxy Octadeca Trienoic Acid) and DHSA (Di-Hydroxy Stearic Acid) content with respect to control upon transient over expression of Mi9LOX (b) and MiEH2 (c), respectively. Vertical bars represent standard error in the values of lactones from used data set, significance is represented as single star if $p \le 0.1$ and two stars if $p \le 0.05$

Volatile metabolite analysis by GC-MS of all these tissues indicated presence of eight lactones *viz*. γ-butyrolactone, δ-valerolactone, γ-hexalactone, δ-hexalactone, γ-octalactone, δ-octalactone, γ-decalactone and δ-decalactone while quantitative analysis by GC-FID showed increased levels of few lactones in both the sets (Figure 3.12a and Figure 3.12b). *Mi9LOX* transient over-expression resulted in significant increase at *p*-value ≤ 0.1 in the δ-valerolactone (0.075 μgg^{-1} to 0.082 μgg^{-1}) and δ-decalactone (0.043 μgg^{-1} to 0.064 μgg^{-1}) content (Figure 3.12a). While *MiEH2* transient over-expression depicted significant increase at *p*-value ≤ 0.1 in δ-valerolactone (0.09 μgg^{-1} to 0.13 μgg^{-1}) and γ-hexalactone (0.37 μgg^{-1} to 0.72 μgg^{-1}) and highly significant increase at *p*-value ≤ 0.05 in δ-hexalactone (0.53 μgg^{-1} to 1.04 μgg^{-1}) compared to that in the control tissue (Figure 3.12b).

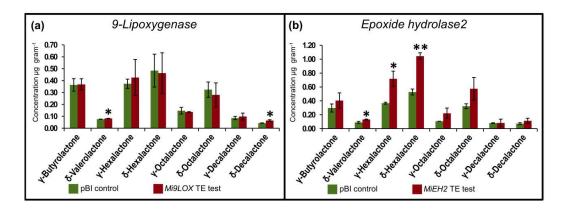


Figure 3.12 Changes in the lactone content upon transient over expression Histogram representing changes in the lactone content with respect to control upon transient over expression of Mi9LOX (a) and MiEH2 (b). Vertical bars represent standard error in the values of lactones from used data set, significance is represented as single star if $p \le 0.1$ and two stars if $p \le 0.05$

3.4 Discussion

3.4.1 *Mi*9LOX and *Mi*EH2 reveal catalytic properties similar to those of other plant 9LOX and EH2 enzymes

Lipoxygenase gene family, omnipresent to plant and animal kingdom comprises 9LOX and 13LOX as the most abundant classes (Feussner and Wasternack, 2002). The recombinant Mi9LOX protein characterized in the present study revealed optimum pH and temperature as well as thermal inactivation properties similar to that of other reported 9LOX enzymes (Baysal and Demirdöven, 2007; Huang and Schwab, 2011; Padilla et al., 2012; Santino et al., 2005). However, more affinity of Mi9LOX towards ALA than LA similar to that of olive 9LOX (Padilla et al., 2012) suggested probable tuning of this enzyme to in vivo availability of the substrate, as increased ALA content was observed during ripening of mango fruit (Chapter 2).

Epoxide hydrolase genes fall in to two classes *EH1* and *EH2*, which catalyse hydrolysis of aromatic epoxides and epoxides of fatty acids as well as aromatic compounds, respectively (Huang and Schwab, 2013; Wijekoon et al., 2008). The *Mi*EH2 in our study exhibited its promiscuous nature towards utilization of variety of substrates. It showed activity on CSO, TSO and 12(13) EpOME, however, more affinity towards TSO similar to EH2 reported from other plant species was observed (Bellevik et al., 2002a; Bellevik et al., 2002b; Huang and Schwab, 2013).

3.4.2 Role of *Mi9LOX* and *MiEH2* in biosynthesis of lactones in Alphonso mango

The hydroperoxy and hydroxy fatty acids produced by Mi9LOX and MiEH2 upon catalytic conversion of $\Delta 9$ unsaturated fatty acids (LA and ALA) and epoxy fatty acids, respectively are the potential precursors for lactone biosynthesis (Cardillo et al., 1989; Haffner and Tressl, 1998). We performed transient over expression of Mi9LOX and MiEH2 through Agrobacterium infiltration experiment to get insights in to role of these genes in de novo biosynthesis of lactones in ripened mango fruits. Ethylene treated fruits were found to be ideal for transient expression to avoid the risk of bacterial and fungal infection owing to fruit injury during infiltration. Moreover, accelerated ripening and early appearance of lactones with no quantitative variation in Alphonso mango fruits upon exogenous ethylene treatment is known from our earlier studies (Chidley et al., 2013). Transient expression has been established as an efficient tool for functional characterization of genes (Orzaez et al., 2006; Spolaore et al., 2001) and clearly depicts its efficiency in the present study. Over expression of Mi9LOX and MiEH2 resulted in the significant increase in the content of their products 9HpOTrE and DHSA, respectively from the test tissue compared to the control. This confirms increased Mi9LOX and MiEH2 enzyme activity in the tissue of transient over expression of the respective genes; although the actual enzyme levels could not be assayed due to insufficient tissue availability. Further significant increase in the lactone content specifically δ -valerolactone (1.46 fold), γ -hexalactone (1.96 fold) and δ -hexalactone (1.98 fold) after MiEH2 over expression and, δ -valerolactone (1.08 fold) and δ -decalactone (1.48 fold) content upon *Mi9LOX* over expression, respectively was evinced, which confirms involvement of these genes in the lactone biosynthesis from mango fruit. Relatively less increase in δ-valerolactone content upon Mi9LOX over expression might be because of less Mi9LOX transcripts post infiltration compared to MiEH2 transcripts (Figure 3.11a). Similarly, 9LOX is much upstream to the final product lactone and conversion of its products i.e. hydroperoxy fatty acids to hydroxy fatty acids by peroxygenase could be rate limiting.

3.4.3 Temporal expression of *Mi9LOX*, *MiHPL*, *MiPGX1*, *MiEH2* and *MiACO* genes correlates with variable lactone content in fruit of mango cultivars

Lactone content varies amid the fruits of different mango cultivars (Pandit et al 2009a). To get real insights of lactone biosynthesis in mango, three cultivars viz. Kent, Pairi and Alphonso with no, low (pulp, 1.3 µgg⁻¹; skin, 1.12 µgg⁻¹) and high (pulp, 7.12 µgg⁻¹; skin, 3.16 µgg⁻¹) lactone content, respectively were compared (Chapter 2). In Alphonso pulp and skin tissues the highest transcript abundance of Mi9LOX, MiPGX1 and MiACO was observed at mid ripe stage (10 DAH stage), which correlates with our earlier report of the first appearance of lactones at 10 DAH stage during Alphonso mango ripening (Kulkarni et al., 2012; Pandit et al., 2009b). In case of Pairi high abundance of Mi9LOX and MiPGXI transcripts detected at mid ripe stage but higher level of MiACO transcripts seen at table green stage (Figure 3.2 and Figure 3.3) indicates early onset of fatty acid degradation before the high abundance of Mi9LOX and MiPGX1 transcripts. This probably makes reduced fatty acid substrate availability for lipoxygenase and peroxygenase resulting in low lactone content in Pairi fruits. Further significant reduction of MiHPL transcripts in these ripening tissues of Alphonso and Pairi suggests supply of hydroperoxy fatty acid pool to peroxygenase instead of HPL pathway. Previous studies on Alphonso have affirmed this by abundance of products of HPL pathway in the fruit developing stages than in the ripening stages (Pandit et al., 2009b). Contrary to this in Kent higher expression of Mi9LOX, MiPGX1 and MiACO during the late ripening stages (ripe and over ripe stages) indicates delayed events for lactone biosynthesis (Figure 3.2 and Figure 3.3). Moreover, presence of MiHPL transcripts during fruit ripening signifies its coexpression with lipoxygenase diverting pool of hydroperoxy fatty acid to HPL pathway instead of peroxygenase pathway. This probably reasons the lactone less nature of Kent fruit.

Thus, altogether higher expression of *Mi9LOX*, *MiPGX1* and *MiACO* at mid ripe stage with adjournment of HPL pathway may result in high lactone content in Alphonso fruits. Early onset of fatty acid degradation may lead to low lactone content in Pairi. While delayed expression of *Mi9LOX*, *MiPGX1* and *MiACO* and depletion of hydroperoxy fatty acids by HPL pathway in combination with lower fatty acid content

(Chapter 2) may be the reason for no lactone content of Kent cultivar. In addition to this, variable *in vivo* conditions in the fruit of three cultivars might be responsible for differential catalytic efficiency of respective enzymes (though similar transcript abundance at respective maxima) leading to variation in lactone content. Further structural studies of these enzymes and *in vivo* substrate-product analysis using tracer technology might give better clarity about lactone biosynthesis in mango.

3.4.4 Proposed lactone biosynthesis pathway in mango

Based on present results and available information probable pathway of lactone biosynthesis can be proposed in mango fruit (Figure 3.13). *Mi*EH2 and *Mi*9LOX are part of mono-oxygenase (peroxygenase) and di-oxygenase (lipoxygenase) pathways, respectively (steps A1 and B2; Figure 3.13).

Probable pathway of lactone biosynthesis in mango fruit

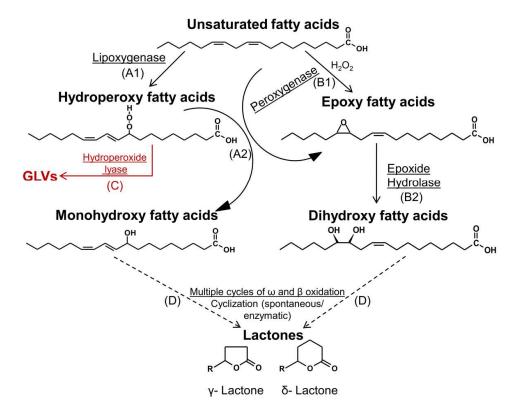


Figure 3.13 Proposed lactone biosynthesis pathway in mango fruit

Proposed pathway of lactone biosynthesis in mango fruit, words in bold represent metabolites; words underlined represent enzymes; A1, A2, B1, B2 and D steps are favourable for lactone biosynthesis. Step C; red in color suggests unfavoured step for lactone biosynthesis.

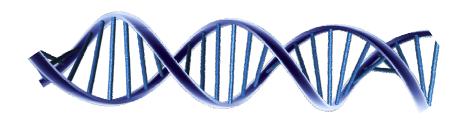
Products of lipoxygenase are diverted to multiple pathways including hydroperoxide lyase (HPL) pathway (step C; Figure 3.13), which produces C6 aldehydes and ketones responsible for fresh green leafy aroma volatiles (Huang and Schwab, 2011, 2012). This may divert hydroperoxy fatty acid pool to HPL pathway which is an unfavourable step for lactone biosynthesis. Products of lipoxygenase are also diverted to peroxygenase pathway. It is known that peroxygenase catalyzes epoxidation of unsaturated fatty acids using reactive oxygen (step B1; Figure 3.13). Similarly it also utilizes hydroperoxy fatty acids as co-substrates or oxygen donor to produce epoxy and monohydroxy fatty acids (step A2; Figure 3.13) (Babot et al., 2013; Fuchs and Schwab, 2013; Meesapyodsuk and Qiu, 2011). These epoxy fatty acids are further catalyzed by epoxide hydrolase to produce dihydroxy fatty acids (step B2; Figure 3.13). In fungi the importance of fatty acid degradation in production of lactones from monohydroxy and dihydroxy fatty acids are well reported (Cardillo et al., 1989; Endrizzi et al., 1996; Haffner and Tressl, 1998; Schottler and Boland, 1996). Also in peach fruit post harvest temperatures influenced lactone content by regulation of acyl-CoA-oxidase, an important gene from β oxidation pathway of fatty acid degradation (step D; Figure 3.13) (Xi et al., 2012). These findings insinuate that along with the *lipoxygenase* (Mi9LOX) and *epoxide hydrolase* (MiEH2), other genes viz. peroxygenase (MiPGXI), hydroperoxide lyase (MiHPL) and acyl-CoA-oxidase (*MiACO*) also play important role in lactone biosynthesis in mango (Figure 3.13).

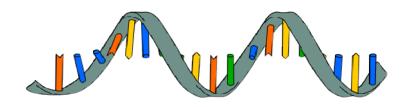
3.5 Conclusion

The genes encoding Mi9LOX, MiEH2, MiHPL, MiPGX1 and MiACO were isolated from mango fruit. Variable lactone content of Alphonso, Pairi and Kent mango cultivars was elucidated by the expression analysis of these five genes during various fruit development and ripening stages of pulp and skin tissues of all the three cultivars. Among these Mi9LOX and MiEH2 were characterized from Alphonso fruit, which divulged metabolism of unsaturated fatty acids leading to production of hydroperoxy fatty acids and hydroxy fatty acids, respectively. Increased lactone content upon transient over-expression of Mi9LOX and MiEH2 ascertained their probable role in lactone biosynthesis in mango fruit. Finally, probable lactone biosynthesis pathway in mango was proposed.



Chapter 4





Transcriptional transitions in Alphonso mango (*Mangifera indica* L.) during fruit development and ripening explain distinct aroma and shelf life characteristics

Chapter 4 Transcriptional transitions in Alphonso mango (Mangifera indica L.) during fruit development and ripening explain distinct aroma and shelf life characteristics

4.1 Introduction

Mango (Mangifera indica L.) is one of the popular and highly favoured fruit. Global mango production has been reported to be 43.3 million metric tons in 2013 preceding banana, apples, grapes and oranges. (https://www.statista.com/statistics/237064/topworld-producers-of-selected-fresh-fruit-by-value-2009/). There are thousands of mango cultivars worldwide, amid which Alphonso, Keitt, Kent, Lilli, Zill, Osteen, Haden, Kesar, Pairi, Dashehari, Langra and Banganapalli are well known. These varieties vary in their fruit color, size, shape, flavor, taste and ripening period and pattern. To understand composition and biosynthesis of their unique flavor and complex ripening process, various studies have been carried out at metabolic (Gil et al., 2000; Pandit et al., 2009a), proteomic (de Magalhães Andrade et al., 2012; Fasoli and Righetti, 2013; Renuse et al., 2012), genetic (Chidley et al., 2016b; Kulkarni et al., 2013a; Kulkarni et al., 2013b; Martínez et al., 2001; Pandit et al., 2010; Pandit et al., 2007; Sane et al., 2005; Singh et al., 2011) and post harvest processing (Chidley et al., 2016a; Chidley et al., 2013; González-Aguilar et al., 2007; Hofman et al., 1997; Jiang and Joyce, 2000) levels. Whole genome sequencing and RNA sequencing (RNAseq) are the two important high throughput technologies adopted recently to understand complex cellular and physiological processes in fruits such as citrus (Wu et al., 2014a), tomato (Consortium, 2012), and strawberry (Shulaev et al., 2011) while domestication and diseases tolerance in citrus (Martinelli et al., 2012; Wu et al., 2014a). Although mango genome sequence is not yet available, few recent studies have described the transcriptomic analysis of various tissues of few mango cultivars. The first report from Zill mango (Wu et al., 2014b) provided extensive transcriptomic and proteomic profiling from pulp and skin tissues of four fruit developing stages using pooled RNA but not stage specific and differentially expressed transcripts. Another study of leaf transcriptome and chloroplast genome sequencing from cultivar Langra provided information about the production of many bioactive compounds (Azim et al., 2014). Transcriptome analysis from two (raw and ripe) and three (raw,

mid ripe and ripe) stages of Kent (Dautt-Castro et al., 2015) and Dashehari fruit pulp (Srivastava et al., 2016), respectively gave important insights in to the ripening process and flavor biogenesis in these mango cultivars.

India is the highest producer and exporter of mango with 40.6% share in international mango market (http://www.fao.org). Amongst Indian mango cultivars Alphonso is globally favored and highly exported mango due to its unique and attractive flavor, low fiber containing pulp and high carotene content (Tharanathan et al., 2006a; Veda et al., 2007). Ripening duration of Alphonso mango is 15 days from harvest, which is the highest amid all mango cultivars, viz. ripening duration for Kent and Dashehari mango fruit is 10 and 6 days, respectively (Dautt-Castro et al., 2015; Srivastava et al., 2016). Fruit ripening in Alphonso mango progresses from skin towards stone leading to attractive skin color and easy monitoring of ripening progress. On the other hand various mango varieties, viz. Haden, Keitt, Kent, Tommy Atkins (National Mango Board, USA; http://www.mango.org) and Dashehari (Srivastava et al., 2016) show polarity of their ripening from fruit stone to skin making it difficult to identify ripened fruits. Longer ripening duration and shelf life of Alphonso mango provides sufficient time for its transportation. Mechanisms underlying these unique properties of Alphonso mango need to be explored in depth at spatial and temporal level of fruit development and ripening using transcriptomic, proteomic and metabolomic approaches as they can be correlated to the specific phenotype. Present study focuses on the transcriptome analysis of Alphonso mango through eight different tissues such as flower, whole fruit at 30 and 60 DAP (Days After Pollination), pulp and skin of 90 DAP fruit (mature raw fruit) and pulp from three fruit ripening stages i.e. 5 DAH (Days After Harvest): table green stage; 10 DAH: mid ripe stage and 15 DAH: ripe stage to analyze various fruit developing and ripening processes in Alphonso mango.

4.2 Materials and methods

4.2.1 Plant material

Flower and fruits of cv. Alphonso were collected from three individual biological replicates from the Mango Research Sub Centre, Deogad (16.528336 N, 73.344790 E)

affiliated to Dr. Balasaheb Sawant Konkan Agricultural University, Dapoli, Maharashtra, India. Flowers from inflorescence were collected and snap frozen. Fruits from developing stages were collected at 30, 60 and 90 days after pollination (DAP). Fruits from 30 and 60DAP were analysed as whole fruit in the present study after removing fruit stone, whereas at mature raw stage (90 DAP) pulp (mesocarp) and skin (exocarp) were separated, snap frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C until further use. A set of fruits were additionally harvested at their mature raw stage and kept in the hay containing boxes at ambient temperature for ripening and only pulp tissue for ripening stages as table green, mid ripe and ripe were collected at 5, 10 and 15 days after harvest (DAH), respectively. At each ripening stage fruits were removed from the box, pulp and skin were separated and pulp was frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C till further use.

4.2.2 RNA isolation and cDNA synthesis

Total RNA isolation was carried out for all the tissues sampled for current study using RNeasy Plus mini kit (Quiagen, Venlo, The Netherlands). RNA quality as 260 nm/280 nm ratio was checked using Nanodrop (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, Massachusetts, USA) and RNA integrity was checked using Bioanalyzer (BioRad). Two microgram of total RNA was used to carry out reverse transcription for synthesis of cDNA using High Capacity cDNA reverse transcription kit (Applied Biosystem, Carlsbad, CA, USA).

4.2.3 Library preparation and sequencing

One microgram of total RNA from each stage was used to prepare 8 individual libraries from sampled tissues. mRNA purification was carried out using polyT oligo beads. The purified mRNA was fragmented in the range of 100 to 140 bases with optimum at around 120 bases from which the cDNA was synthesized. End repair, A-Tailing, Adapter ligation and the library preparation were performed using Tru Seq RNA sample preparation kit v2 (Illumina) as per manufacturer's instructions. PCR enrichment was performed for 15 cycles and the sample was validated on the bioanalyzer. Libraries were sequenced in a Paired End 100 base run, using TruSeq SBS Kit v3-HS (Catalog No.: FC-401-3001) for sequencing on the Illumina

HiSeq1000 platform at Centre for Cellular and Molecular Platforms (C-CAMP), Bangalore according to manufacturer's recommended protocols (http://www.illumina.com/systems/hiseq systems/hiseq 2000 1000/kits.ilmn).

4.2.4 Bioinformatic data analysis

Paired end RNA sequencing was performed using Illumina Hiseq 2000. Quality check data files was performed using FastQC computational (http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/). Adapter free, quality reads ($Q \ge 30$; min read length=85) were obtained using Cutadapt (Martin, 2011). Alphonso transcriptome for each stage was assembled using Velvet-Oases (Schulz et al., 2012) with K-mers 67, 75, 83 and merging them at 27 k-mer. Additionally, a merged transcriptome was also generated using k-mer 55. Further, for all the merged assembled transcripts Transdecoder was used (https://transdecoder.github.io/) to extract potential candidate coding regions within transcripts. Partial cds were discarded and only those transcripts with start and stop codon were made non redundant based upon sequence identity cut-off 90% using CD-HIT-est (Li and Godzik, 2006) and used for downstream analyses.

Further, merged full length transcripts (from merged assembly) were used as reference to map back all the raw reads from each stage using default parameters of Bowtie (Langmead et al., 2009). DESeq2 was used to identify differentially expressed transcripts (Love et al., 2014) and were filtered based upon p-value ≤ 0.05 and expression value >0. All those transcripts having mapping count zero were excluded for further analysis such as in identification of uniquely expressed transcripts in a particular stage or a specific set of stages (e.g. developing and ripening stages). Unique and common list of transcripts were represented using Venny (http://bioinfogp.cnb.csic.es/tools/venny/). Full length transcripts (from merged assembly) were used as reference for differential expression analysis using DESeq2 (Love et al., 2014).

Annotation, enzyme code distribution and GO mapping and interproscan were carried out in the BLAST2GO 3.1.3 workbench (Biobam Bioinformatics S.L., Valencia, Spain) as described in the user manual (Conesa et al., 2005). GO

enrichment analysis was carried out in given test and reference sets by Fisher's exact test in BLAST2GO with *p*-value (0.001) and FDR filters.

4.2.5 Quantitative real-time PCR

Quantitative real-time PCR was performed using Fast Start Universal SYBR Green master mix (Roche Inc. Indianapolis, Indiana, USA) and *elongation factor 1α* (*EF1α*) as an endogenous control employing the primers reported earlier (Pandit et al., 2010). Various transcripts selected from transcriptome data were amplified using gene specific primers (Appendix 2) and quantification was done by ViiATM 7 Real-Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems) having thermal cycle program of initial denaturation at 95 °C for 10 min with subsequent 40 cycles of 95 °C for 3sec and 60 °C for 30 sec followed by a dissociation curve analysis of transcripts. Relative quantification (ΔΔCT method) and statistical analysis was carried out using DataAssistTM v3.01 software (Applied Biosystem, Carlsbad, CA, USA).

4.3 Results

4.3.1 Alphonso mango transcriptome

Alphonso mango transcriptome was screened through 8 tissue samples. To map differentially expressed transcripts a merged assembly was generated from the reads of all the tissues, which reflected upon overall Alphonso mango flower and fruit transcriptome. For each tissue read numbers were more than 100 million, which were assembled using k-mers 67, 75 and 83 separately and then merged for individual tissue. Average number of unique transcripts post assembly was 76,043 and with n-50 and n-80 values as 1,835 and 1,008 bp, respectively (Annexure 1_Supplementary file 1). The minimum and maximum lengths of transcript from these assemblies were 100 and 17342 bp, respectively (Annexure 1_Supplementary file 1). Average number of transcripts was 11,925 upon filtering for redundancy and identifying candidate coding regions with maximum 90% identity and minimum 70% coverage (Table 4.1).

Table 4.1 Number of non redundant transcripts/sample

Assembly	No of NR	
	transcripts	
Flower	15778	
30 DAP	14622	
60 DAP	14090	
90 DAP pulp	9382	
90 DAP skin	12664	
5 DAH	10084	
10 DAH	9748	
15 DAH	9032	

Unique transcripts from each assembled and filtered tissue were subjected to BLASTx against the non-redundant dataset from NCBI (www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov). From total of 20,755 unique transcripts from merged assembly, 92.22% transcripts were annotated while, 954 transcripts (4.59%) coded for hypothetical proteins and 659 (3.17%) remained unidentified. BLASTx statistics revealed maximum hits from *Citrus sinensis* and *C. clementina* followed by *Theobroma cacao, Jatropha curcas, Vitis venifera* and *Ricinus communis* (Figure 4.1a). Total 74,330 GO terms related to various biological processes (BP), molecular functions (MF) and cellular components (CC) were assigned to these 20,755 unique transcripts. Metabolic, cellular and single organism processes followed by biological regulation and localization were the most abundant terms under the BP category, binding and catalytic activity related terms under MF while, organelle, membrane and macromolecular complex terms under CC, respectively (Figure 4.1b, Figure 4.2).

Unique transcripts were assigned enzyme commission (EC) number to identify involvement of these transcripts in various BPs. Total 4,611 ECs were assigned from oxidoreductase, transferase, hydrolase, ligase, lyase and isomerase, wherein, transferases were the most abundant followed by hydrolases in all the eight tissues (Figure 4.3). These assigned ECs represented 142 known pathways from KEGG database (http://www.genome.jp/kegg/pathway.html), which are potentially functional in Alphonso mango fruit development and ripening. Most of these pathways were saturated with higher number of annotations from transcriptome data e.g. metabolism

of starch, sucrose and various amino acids including methionine and biosynthesis pathway of ethylene, phenylpropanoids and flavonoids (Appendix 3).

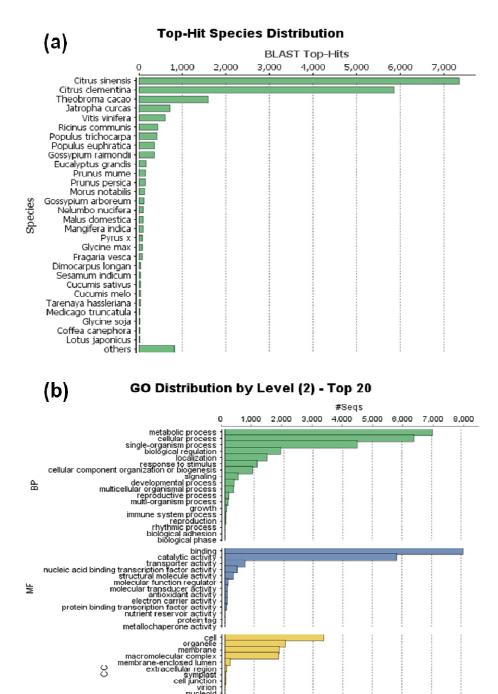


Figure 4.1 Blast2GO statistics

Blast statistics showing distribution of top hit species (a) and distribution of top gene ontologies from BP: biological processes, MF: molecular functions and CC: cellular components (b)

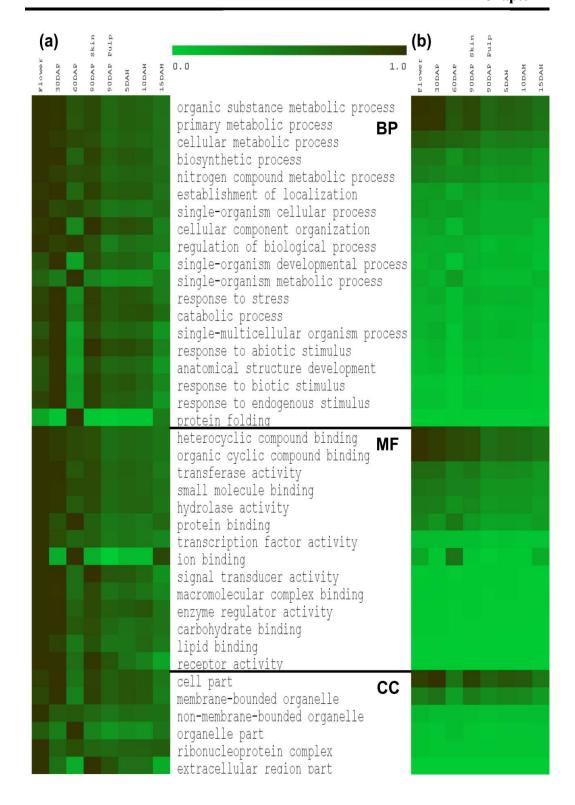


Figure 4.2 Heatmap representing expression profiles of various gene ontologies Biological process (BP), molecular function (MF) and cellular components (CC) in different tissues analysed were represented. Stage wise normalization (a) for each GO and global normalization (b) for each GO category presented.

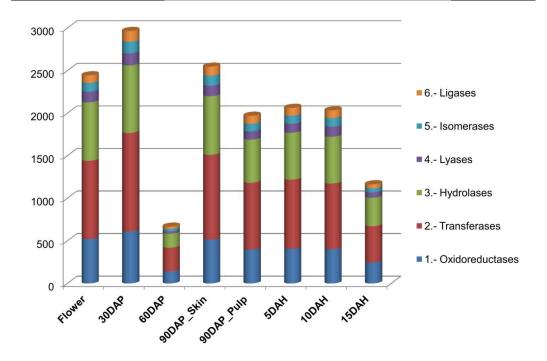


Figure 4.3 Enzyme code distribution

Number of transcripts (Y-axis) coding for six classes of enzymes through various stages of Alphonso mango fruit development and ripening (X-axis)

4.3.2 Transcriptome changes through flower to fruit and fruit development to ripening

Variations in the transcriptome were studied using number of parameters, such as differentially expressed transcripts, transcripts distinctive to a stage and gene ontology enrichment during flower to fruit transition and through process of fruit development and ripening.

4.3.2.1 Differentially expressed transcripts

Comparison between adjacent tissue stages was carried out to identify differentially expressed transcripts at each stage of fruit development and ripening (Table 4.2, Annexure 1_Supplementary file 2). Between flower to fruit of 30DAP, 524 transcripts were down regulated while 181 were up regulated. Amid the down regulated transcripts alpha-amylase and subtilisin inhibitor-like (contig_6593), carbonic anhydrase (contig_5377), chitinase (contig_4907) and maternal effect embryo arrest 59 (contig_4949) were with the highest fold change, while homeodomain-like protein (contig_12912 and 12913), cytochrome p450 - cyp72a219-like (contig_4083), heat

shock cognate 70 kDa protein (contig_5948) and inositol-3-phosphate synthase (contig_9620) were highly up regulated. Transition from 30 DAP to 60 DAP resulted in up regulation of 73 and down regulation of 7 transcripts. Important down regulated transcripts were, n-acetyltransferase (contig_1261), 9-cis-epoxycarotenoid dioxygenase (contig_1680), protein reversion-to-ethylene sensitivity (contig_9164) and ethylene receptor 2 (contig_6147). While important up regulated transcripts were nucleotide sugar transporter family protein (contig_6337), beta-xylosyltransferase (contig_4150), various cellulose synthase catalytic subunits and laccases.

Table 4.2 Number of differentially expressed transcripts

Comparison	Up regulated	Down regulated
30DAP vs Flower	181	524
60DAP vs 30DAP	73	7
90DAP pulp vs 60DAP	31	158
90DAP skin vs 60DAP	4	93
90DAP skin vs 90DAP pulp	54	4
5DAH vs 90DAP pulp	42	52
10DAH vs 5DAH	191	418
15DAH vs 10DAH	30	12

Comparison between 60 DAP fruit tissue with 90 DAP pulp and skin tissue, respectively revealed down regulation of beta-xylosyltransferase, beta-d-xylosidase, cellulose synthase and galacturonosyl transferase; whereas spx and exs domain-containing protein was up regulated in 90 DAP pulp and skin both. Up regulation of homeobox protein sbh1, gdsl esterase lipase, caffeoyl shikimate esterase, hydroperoxide lyase, udp-rhamnose:rhamnosyl transferase and pectinesterase inhibitor was evinced from 90 DAP pulp tissue compared to that in 60 DAP fruit tissue. Evaluation of differentially expressed transcripts between pulp and skin of 90 DAP revealed very few transcripts down regulated in skin with none of them showing change more than 2-fold, while 54 transcripts were up regulated in 90 DAP skin tissue including the important ones as DNA mismatch repair protein msh5, acyl carrier protein, amino-acid permease, calcium-transporting ATPase, isoflavone reductase and various disease resistance proteins.

During ripening of Alphonso pulp from 90 DAP to 5 DAH, 42 transcripts were up regulated (>2-fold) including methyltransferase, amino-acid permease, chloroplastic 9-cis-epoxycarotenoid dioxygenase, beta-galactosidase and protein phosphatase mainly, whereas 52 transcripts were down regulated, important ones being few disease resistance proteins, peroxidase, sucrose synthase and glycerol-3phosphate dehydrogenase. The highest level of differential expression was evinced through transition from 5 DAH to 10 DAH among all the ripening tissues, wherein 418 transcripts were down and 191 were up regulated. Prominently down regulated transcripts were phospholipase A LCAT3, sugar phosphate exchanger, auxinresponsive protein IAA9, abscisate β-glucosyltransferase and membrane-associated kinase regulator with more than 3-fold change, while up regulated were aspartic proteinase nepenthesin, UDP-glucose 6-dehydrogenase, 1-aminocyclopropane-1carboxylate oxidase, peroxidase, bidirectional sugar transporter sweet1-like, omega-6 fatty acid desaturase and squalene monooxygenase. During the transition from 10 DAH to 15 DAH stage increased phosphate metabolism was evident. Total 30 transcripts were up regulated mainly including phospholipase-d, inorganic pyrophosphatase, phosphate transporter, transcription factor glk2 and DNA translocase, whereas 12 transcripts were down regulated and important ones were aspartic protease, plastocyanin-like domain protein, annexin d2-like and glucuronosyltransferase (>2-fold).

4.3.2.2 Idiosyncratic transcripts for the stage

Various transcripts unique to each of these stages (Figure 4.4, Table 4.3 and Annexure 1_Supplementary file 3) representing multiple stage specific processes were identified during this comparative analysis, Total of 388 transcripts were identified as unique to flower tissue which mostly included various transcription and translation factors, late embryogenesis abundant proteins, stress-sensitive and dehydration-responsive element-binding protein-1b and various ribosomal proteins. Similarly distinct transcripts specific to fruit developing and ripening stages were identified, wherein 1,090 and 27 transcripts were idiosyncratic to the fruit developing and ripening stages, respectively (Annexure 1_Supplementary file 3). Various auxin and gibberellin induced and regulated proteins, many proteins responsible for various vacuole activities, multiple disease resistance proteins and various terpene synthases were

distinct to the developing stages. Transcripts coding for multiple transcription and translation factors during Alphonso fruit development were also detected. Interestingly multiple ethylene responsive transcription factors along with the protein reversion-to-ethylene sensitivity were uniquely revealed in the developing stages. Whereas, NIN-like protein, respiratory burst oxidase homolog protein d-like, rhamnogalacturonate lyase b-like, lectin receptor kinase, gag protein and methionine Y-lyase were exclusive to the Alphonso ripening stages. Similarly, WRKY transcription factor 43, b3 domain-containing val3 and ap2 ERF domain-containing transcription factors were uniquely identified from the ripening stages. Many hypothetical and uncharacterized proteins were also found to be Alphonso ripening specific and their characterization might help to reveal ripening process in Alphonso.

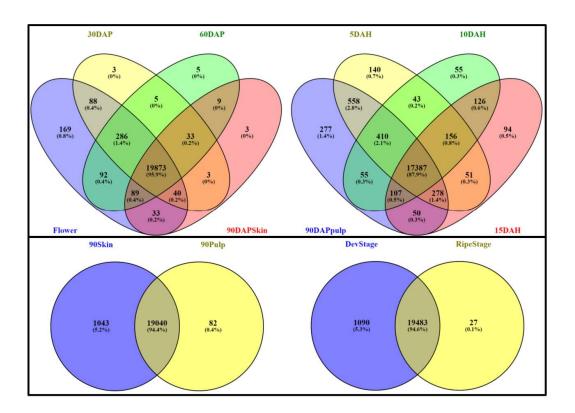


Figure 4.4 Distribution of common and distinct transcriptsVenn diagrams representing common and distinct transcripts through various stages

Table 4.3 Number of distinct transcripts for a stage amid various comparisons

Comparison	Stage/s	No. of unique transcripts
30DAP vs Flower	Flower	383
	30DAP	44
60DAP vs 30DAP	30DAP	134
	60DAP	195
90DAP pulp vs 60DAP	60DAP	1306
	90DAP pulp	36
90DAPskin vs 60DAP	60DAP	388
	90DAP skin	79
90DAP skin vs 90DAP pulp	90DAP pulp	82
	90DAP skin	1043
5DAH vs 90DAP pulp	90DAP pulp	489
	5DAH	390
10DAH vs 5DAH	5DAH	1027
	10DAH	343
15DAH vs 10DAH	10DAH	563
	15DAH	473
Devlopment vs Ripening	Development	1090
	Ripening	27

4.3.2.3 Gene ontology (GO) enrichment

Fisher's exact test was performed to understand over and down represented GOs (p-value ≤ 0.001) during the transition, which gave an overall picture of the Alphonso mango development and ripening (Figure 4.5). During the flower to 30 DAP fruit transition certain GOs were overexpressed, such as post-embryonic developmental and anatomical structure morphogenesis process, response to abiotic stimulus and various plastid and thylakoid processes. At the same time hydrolysis of O-glycosyl compounds and UDP-glycosyltransferase activity along with the methyltransferase, sucrose metabolic and lipid biosynthetic activities coding GOs were down represented. 30 to 60 DAP transition described enriched GOs for starch and sucrose metabolic process, fatty acid, cellulose and vitamin biosynthetic processes, protein glycosylation, response to oxidative stress and heat along with HSP binding. During the same event cell differentiation, growth and cell death in addition to the anatomical structure morphogenesis, secondary metabolic process and response to biotic stimulus coding GOs were observed to be decreased.

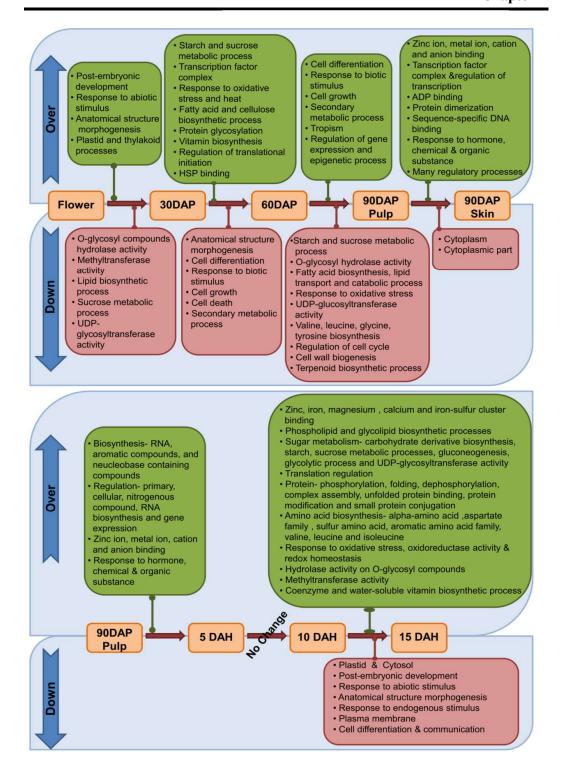


Figure 4.5 Gene ontology enrichment

Over and down expressed gene ontologies (GO) between stages of development and ripening

Comparison between 60 DAP fruit and 90 DAP pulp revealed over represented GOs for cell differentiation and cell growth, response to biotic stimulus, secondary metabolic process, tropism and regulation of gene expression. While, starch sucrose metabolic processes, O-glycosyl hydrolase UDPglucosyltransferase activities, fatty acid biosynthesis and catabolic processes along with the lipid transport, various amino acid and terpenoid biosynthesis and cell wall biogenesis were down represented. 90 DAP pulp and skin tissues showed over expression of various ion, ADP and sequence-specific DNA binding activities along with the response to hormone, chemical and organic substances in the skin tissue; whereas only cytoplasm and cytoplasmic part related GOs were found to be down expressed in the skin compared to that in the pulp at 90 DAP.

Transition of 90 DAP pulp and 5 DAH pulp revealed only over representation of GOs such as biosynthesis of RNA, aromatic compounds, and nucleobase containing compounds; binding of various ions; regulation of primary, cellular, nitrogenous compounds, RNA biosynthesis processes and gene expression and response to hormone, chemical and organic substance. Surprisingly none of the GOs showed significant enrichment during the transition from 5 to 10 DAH and reflected as the stationary phase of Alphonso mango ripening. 10 DAH (mid ripe stage) to 15 DAH (ripe stage) transition showed over expression of many GOs such as binding of various ions; phospholipid, glycolipid, amino acid, co-enzyme and water soluble vitamin biosynthetic processes; methyltransferase, UDP-glycosyltransferase and Oglycosyl hydrolase activities; starch, sucrose metabolic processes, gluconeogenesis and glycolytic process; protein phosphorylation, dephosphorylation, folding, protein modification and small protein conjugation along with the regulation and response to oxidative stress, oxidoreductase activity and redox homeostasis. While GOs related to plastid and cytosol; post embryonic development; response to abiotic and endogenous stimulus; anatomical structure morphogenesis, plasma membrane, cell differentiation and communication were down represented.

4.3.3 Spatial changes in transcriptome at 90 DAP

In case of Alphonso mango, 90 DAP stage is a mature raw stage of the fruit and is considered as the right stage of fruit harvest (0 Days After Harvest) for further

artificial ripening of the fruit (Pandit et al., 2009b). Hence transcriptome analysis of skin and pulp were separately carried out at this stage. Overall 90 DAP skin was found to be metabolically more active compared to the 90 DAP pulp with respect to differentially expressed genes (Annexure 1 Supplementary file 2), unique genes (Annexure 1 Supplementary file 3) and enriched GOs (Figure 4.5). In the skin 54 transcripts were up regulated whereas only 4 were down regulated compared to the pulp. Among the up regulated transcripts isoflavone reductase, transcription and translation regulatory proteins, hydrolases, methyltransferase etc. were more prominent. Whereas four down regulated transcripts were membrane and cytoplasm related GOs. Unique transcripts upon comparison between 90 DAP pulp and skin showed carotene and xanthophylls biosynthesis related contigs, beta-carotene hydroxylase and anthocyanidin 3-o-glucosyltransferase, flavor related various terpene synthases and ripening related contigs such as ethylene-responsive transcription factors, pectate lyase, pectin esterase and cellulase as unique to skin compared to pulp. These findings highlight initiation of Alphonso ripening process from skin and its probable progress towards fruit stone, which is the important characteristic of Alphonso mango.

4.3.4 Genes involved in the flavor biogenesis in Alphonso mango

Quantitatively mono-terpenes are abundant in Alphonso followed by sesqui-terpenes (Pandit et al., 2009a; Pandit et al., 2009b). Present data revealed 6 contigs coding for mono-terpene synthases (limonene synthase1, limonene synthase2, beta ocimine synthase1, beta ocimine synthase2, isoprene synthase1 and isoprene synthase2), 5 contigs coding for the sesquiterpene synthases (germacreneD synthase1, germacreneD synthase2, nerolidol synthase1, nerolidol synthase2 and alpha farnesene synthase) and 3 contigs coding for the di-terpene synthases (ent-kaurene synthase and casbene synthase (E,E)-geranillinalool synthase). Phylogenetic analysis (Figure 4.6) of these genes along with the other plant terpene synthases (TPS) showed distribution of these genes in to the TPS-a, TPS-b, TPS-e and TPS-f clades, respectively (Sallaud et al., 2009).

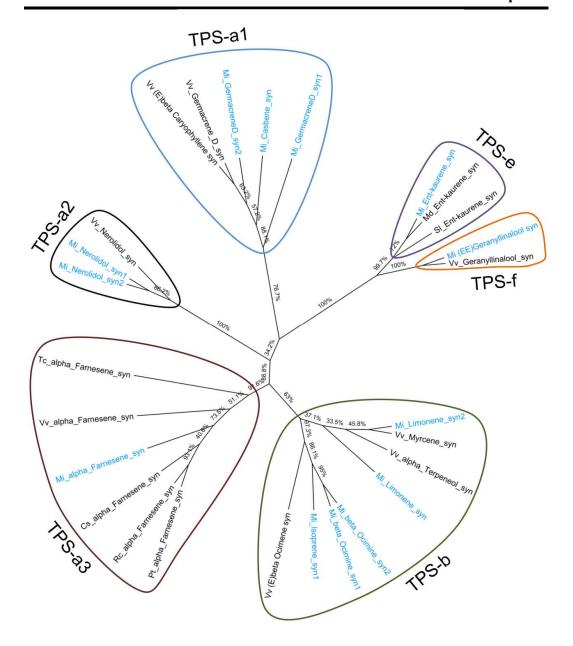


Figure 4.6 Phylogenetic analysis of terpene synthases

Cladogram representing phylogenetic analysis by neighbor-joining of encoded proteins by various terpene synthases from present study (blue color) along with the terpene synthases from other Angiosperm plants. Node label represents name of the enzyme followed by two letters representing initials of botanical name of the plant. Details of sequence of plant species, enzyme and NCBI accession in parenthesis are as follows *Vitis vinifera*_(E)-beta-caryophyllene synthase (ADR74192.1), *Vitis vinifera*_germacrene D synthase (ADR74198.1), *Vitis vinifera*_nerolidol synthase (ADR74211.1), *Vitis vinifera*_(E,E)-geranyl linalool synthase (ADR74219.1), *Malus domestica*_ent-kaurene synthase (AFG18184.1), *Solanum lycopersicum*_ent-kaurene synthase (AEP82778.1), *Vitis vinifera*_(E)-beta-ocimene synthase (ADR74204.1), *Vitis vinifera*_Alphaterpeneol synthase (ADR74202.1), *Vitis vinifera*_myrcene synthase (NP_001268009), *Citrus sinensis*_alpha-farnesene synthase (XP_002317269.2), *Ricinus communis*_alpha-farnesene synthase (XP_015574261.1), *Theobroma cacao*_alpha-farnesene synthase (EOY28527.1) and *Vitis vinifera* alpha farnesene synthase (NP_001268183.1)

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Furaneol and mesifuran are the two furanones from Alphonso mango and their synthesis by enone oxidoreductase (EO) and O-methyltransferase (OMTS), respectively are described earlier (Chidley et al., 2016b; Kulkarni et al., 2013a). Multiple contigs coding for quinone oxidoreductase and O-methyltransferases were detected in the present analysis. Phylogenetic analysis of these contigs with the characterized genes revealed another similar transcript variant for the MiEO (Figure 4.7), whereas none of the contigs showed similarity to the *MiOMTS* (Figure 4.8). Green grassy aroma of unripe fruits is due to the C6 volatiles formed during the lipoxygenase and hydroperoxide lyase (HPL) pathways. In the present study single contig coding for the hydroperoxide lyase and 6 contigs coding for the 13lipoxygenase were detected. Involvement of 9-lipoxygenase (Mi9LOX) and epoxide hydrolase 2 (MiEH2) in the biogenesis of lactones from Alphonso mango has also been confirmed (Chapter 3). One more transcript encoding 9-lipoxygenase similar to that of the characterized Mi9LOX (Figure 4.9) and 3 contigs coding for epoxide hydrolase 2 grouping with the MiEH2 (Figure 4.10) were additionally detected in the present study. Three more novel contigs coding for epoxide hydrolase were also detected but neither grouped with the other EH1 or EH2 from different plant species (Figure 4.10).

Differential expression of all these flavor related genes was analysed in terms of transcript abundance in flower and fruit developing and ripening stages (Figure 4.11). Amid these contigs coding for various TPS were abundant in flower and during early developing stages. Interestingly, many contigs coding for EH (contigs 8280, 3904, 3901, 14123 and 8281), LOX (contigs 18105, 12748, 12747 and 12385) and EO (contigs 8026, 5618, 15594, 14137 and 13600) were found to be ripening specific and might be playing crucial role in generating unique aroma volatiles during Alphonso fruit ripening.

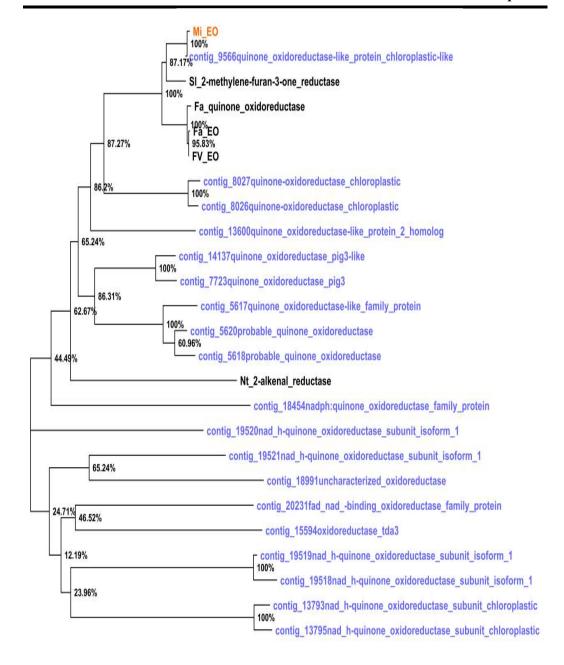


Figure 4.7 Phylogenetic analysis of transcripts encoding enone oxidoreductase Phylogenetic analysis by neighbor-joining of encoded proteins by Enone oxidoreductase (gi|387135418) involved in the biosynthesis of furaneol from *Mangifera indica* (orange color) and other contigs representing quinone oxidoreductases from present study (blue color) along with the other characterized oxidoreductases (black color) from *Nicotiana tabacum* 2-alkenal_reductase_(gi|75206691), *Fragaria vesca*_Enone_oxidoreductase (gi|613785129), *Solanum lycopersicum*_2-methylene-furan-3-one_reductase (gi|823630988), *Fragaria* × *Ananassa*_ Enone_Oxidoreductase (gi|480312155) and *Fragaria* × *Ananassa*_ quinone oxidoreductase (gi|29468088)

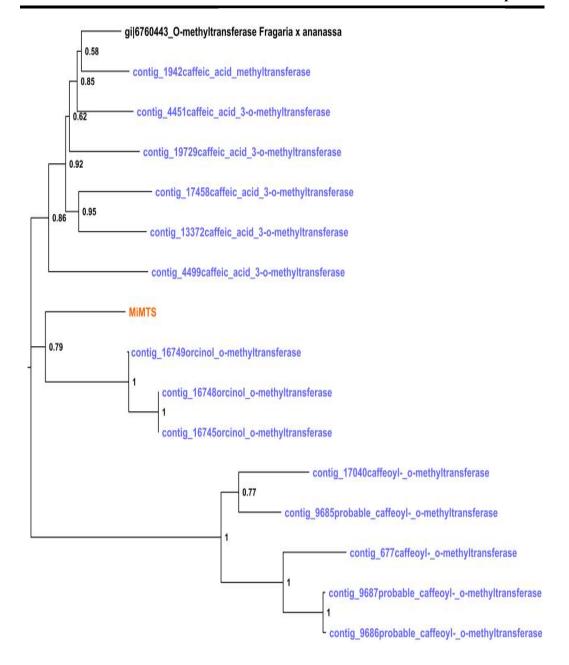


Figure 4.8 Phylogenetic analysis of transcripts encoding O-methyltransferase Phylogenetic analysis by neighbor-joining of encoded proteins by *O-methyltransferase* (KP993176) involved in the biosynthesis of mesifuran from *Mangifera indica* (orange color) along with the characterized *O-methyltransferase* (black color) from *Fragaria x ananassa* (AAF28353) and other contigs representing *O-methyltransferase* from present study (blue color).

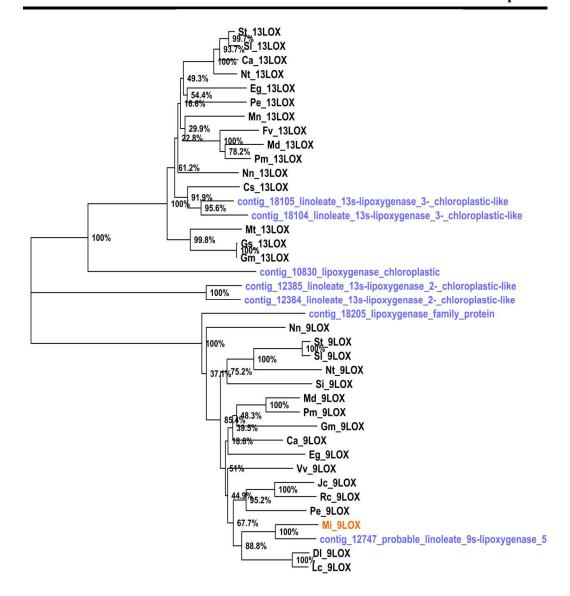


Figure 4.9 Phylogenetic analysis of transcripts encoding lipoxygenase

Phylogenetic analysis by neighbor-joining of encoded proteins by 9-lipoxygenase (KX090178) involved in the biosynthesis of aroma volatiles from Mangifera indica (orange color) and other contigs representing lipoxygenases from present study (blue color) along with the other plant 9 and 13lipoxygenases (black color) from Vitis vinifera 9LOX (XP 010659859), Malus domestica 9LOX (NP_001281030), Prunus mume_9LOX (XP_008246456), Glycine max_9LOX (XP_003521704), Solanum tuberosum_9LOX (NP_001274916), Nicotiana tabacum_9LOX (XP_016433823), Dimocarpus longan 9LOX (ANF89411), Corylus avellana 9LOX (CAD10740), Litchi chinensis 9LOX (AEQ30071), Populus euphratica 9LOX (XP 011023610), Eucalyptus grandis 9LOX (XP 010025195), Jatropha (XP_002512386), (XP_012089053), Ricinus communis 9LOX lycopersicum 9LOX (XP 004244890), Sesamum indicum 9LOX (XP 011087404), nucifera_9LOX (XP_010256003), Malus domestica_13LOX (NP_001280985), Prunus mume_13LOX (XP_008228181), Medicago truncatula_13LOX (XP_003627308), Solanum tuberosum_13LOX (NP_001275115), Glycine soja_13LOX (KHN39622), Fragaria vesca_13LOX (XP_004303702), Morus notabilis_13LOX (XP_010086794), euphratica_13LOX (XP_011035732) grandis_13LOX Eucalyptus (XP 010033729), **Populus** Nelumbo nucifera_13LOX (XP_010273845), (XP 011035732), Capsicum (XP 016495606), annuum 13LOX (NP 001311748), Nicotiana tabacum 13LOX sinensis 13LOX (XP 006465905), Solanum lycopersicum 13LOX (AAB65767), Glycine max 13LOX (XP_014624448).

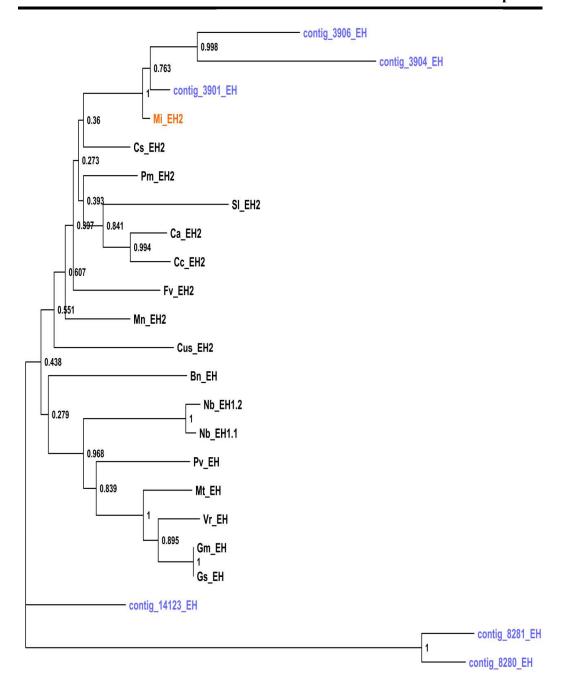


Figure 4.10 Phylogenetic analysis of transcripts encoding epoxide hydrolase

Phylogenetic analysis by neighbor-joining of encoded proteins by *epoxide hydrolase* 2 (KX090179) involved in the biosynthesis of aroma volatile lactones from *Mangifera indica* (orange color) and other contigs representing *epoxide hydrolases* from present study (blue color) along with the other plant *epoxide hydrolases* (black color) from *Nicotiana benthamiana*_EH1.2 (ACE82566), *Nicotiana benthamiana*_EH1.1 (ACE82565), *Phaseolus vulgaris*_EH (AKJ75509), *Glycine max*_EH (CAA55294), *Medicago truncatula*_EH (XP_003626202), *Glycine soja*_EH (KHN43314), *Vigna radiata*_EH (AIJ27456), *Brassica napus*_EH (NP_001302895), *Citrus sinensis*_EH2 (XP_006489040), *Prunus mume*_EH2 (XP_016647751), *Cicer arietinum*_EH2 (XP_004508197), Fragaria vesca_EH2 (XP_004290776), *Cajanus cajan*_EH2 (KYP58120), *Cucumis sativus*_EH2 (XP_004134492), *Solanum lycopersicum*_EH2 (XP_004252913) and *Morus notabilis*_EH2 (XP_010105136).

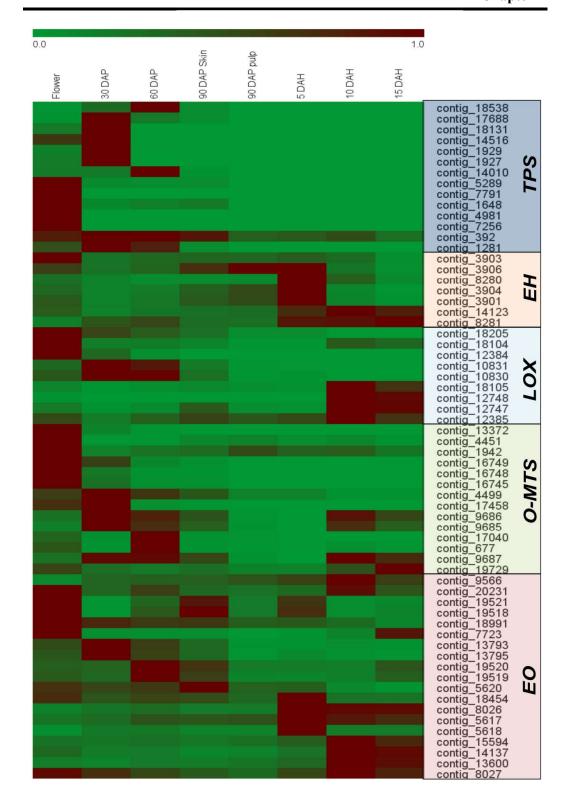


Figure 4.11 Heat map representing differential expression of flavor related genes

Heat map representing differential expression of various contigs coding for genes involved in aroma biosynthesis (TPS: terpene synthase, EH: epoxide hydrolase, LOX: lipoxygenase, O-MTS: O-methyltransferase and EO: enone oxidoreductase) through various stages.

4.3.5 Glycosidases and cell wall degrading enzymes from Alphonso mango

Glycosidases are involved in variety of functions such as hydrolysis of complex carbohydrates (storage and structural) to mono-saccharides, removal of sugars from various glycans including glycosidically bound aroma volatiles which serve as storage pool for the aroma compounds. In the present study many glycosidases were detected acting on various sugars i.e. glucose, galactose, mannose, fructose, xylose, fucose and rhamnose. Among these, class glucosidase with the highest number of contigs (51 contigs) was observed to be containing 28 and 21contigs coding for glucan βglucosidase and general β-glucosidase, respectively. Two contigs coding for αglucosidases were identified of which one coded for glucan α-glucosidase and the other for general α-glucosidase. Among these, at 30 DAP stage contig 7442 and contig 7857 were found to be down regulated (>3-fold) compared to those in flower. Contig 16888 was down regulated whereas contig 17138 was upregulated at 10 DAH than those in 5 DAH. At 15 DAH contig 9072 was down regulated (1.5-fold) compared to that in 10 DAH. Among the galactosidase class, 9 contigs encoding αgalactosidase and 21 contigs encoding β -galactosidase were detected. Two of these were down regulated (contig 1095 and contig 1096) in 30 DAP compared to those in flower. Contig 3844 was down regulated in 90 DAP pulp compared to 60 DAP. Transition from 90 DAP to 5 DAH reflected in to up regulation of contig 3844 (2.72fold) whereas, contig 1525 coding for α-galactosidase was found to be down regulated in 10 DAH compared to that in 5 DAH. In the mannosidase class, 5 αmannosidase and 8 endo-β -mannosidase coding contigs were identified out of which two encoding for endo-beta-mannosidase (contig 15554 and contig 15558) were down regulated in 10 DAH compared to 5 DAH, rest didn't show differential regulation. Among 2 α-xylosidase and 5 β-xylosidase from Alphonso mango only contig 1633 showed differential regulation which was up regulated in 60 DAP compared to 30 DAP and was further down regulated in both the 90 DAP tissues. Two transcripts coding for the acid beta-fructofuranosidase (contig 12501 and contig 12502) were detected but did not show any differential regulation in various tissues analysed. Also, 7 contigs coding for the alpha-l-fucosidase were identified from Alphonso mango but did not show differential regulation.

Degradation of plant cell wall components, namely cellulose, hemi-cellulose and pectin by cellulases and glucanases in ripening fruits is responsible for the fruit softness. Cellulases encoding five contigs were identified amid which one coded for acidic cellulase and found to be abundant during flower and early fruit developing stages. Total 18 contigs encoding glucanase were detected of which contig 4148 was up regulated in flower compared to 30 DAP, where as 4 transcripts (contig 9268, contig 19283, contig 9267 and contig 17145) were down regulated (>2-fold) in 10 DAH compared to 5 DAH. Pectin is another component of fruit cell wall and is degraded by a set of enzymes viz. pectate lyase (PL), pectin esterase (PE), polygalacturonase (PG) and rhamnogalacturonate lyase. In the present study 17 PL, 25 PG and 10 PE coding transcripts were detected. However, only few were differentially expressed, for example, only PL contig 7696 was down regulated in 30 DAP fruit compared to flower and PL contig 9578 was up regulated in 10 DAH fruit than 5 DAH. PG non-catalytic subunit jp650 coding contig 9895 was down regulated in 5 DAH pulp than in 90 DAP pulp, whereas PG contig 3471 was down regulated and PG contig 1614 up regulated in 10 DAH compared to 5 DAH stage. Also, PE contig 7997 was down regulated and contig 9162 was up regulated in 30 DAP stage compared to flower. Similarly, 8 transcripts encoding rhamnogalacturonate lyase were detected of which two (contig 7745 and contig 7746) were distinct to the ripening stages (Annexure 1 Supplementary file 3).

4.3.6 Transcriptome analysis identified novel enzyme inhibitors from Alphonso mango

We identified various classes of enzyme inhibitors (Appendix 4 and Figure 4.12) such as α- amylase inhibitor (2 contigs), inhibitor of proliferation pds5, apoptosis inhibitor (2 contigs), bax inhibitor (4 contigs), lipid transfer protein inhibitor (6 contigs), various kinase inhibitors (16 contigs), cysteine proteinases inhibitor (4 contigs), interalpha-trypsin inhibitor (3 contigs), serine protease inhibitor, kunitz family trypsin and protease inhibitor, guanosine nucleotide diphosphate dissociation inhibitor, nf-kappab inhibitor (2 contigs), pectinesterase inhibitor (12 contigs), polygalacturonase inhibitor, proteasome inhibitor, protein transport inhibitor (4 contigs), protein phosphatase inhibitor and rho gdp-dissociation protein inhibitor (4 contigs).

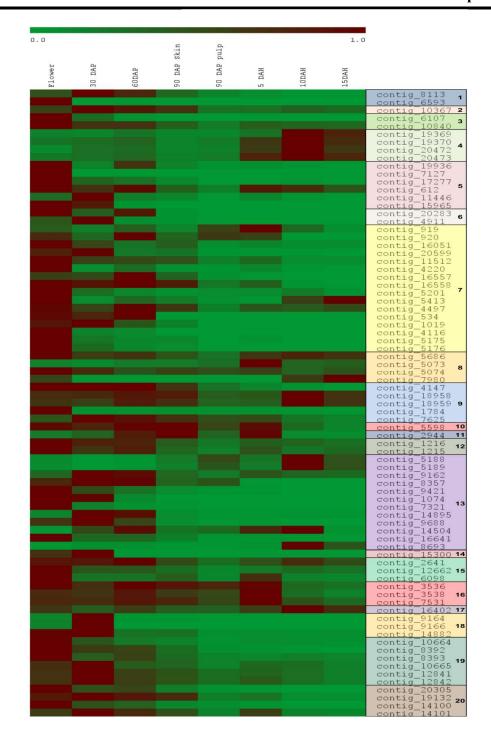


Figure 4.12 Heat map representing differential expression of various inhibitors

Various contigs coding for 20 different groups of inhibitors. Description for group 1-20 as follows, 1: alpha-amylase inhibitor, 2: androgen induced inhibitor of proliferation pds5, 3:apoptosis inhibitor, 4:bax inhibitor, 5:bifunctional inhibitor of lipid-transfer protein seed storage, 6:cell wall and vascular inhibitor of beta-fructosidase, 7:kinase inhibitor, 8:cysteine proteinase inhibitor, 9:trypsin inhibitor, 10:guanosine nucleotide diphosphate dissociation inhibitor, 11:macrophage migration inhibitory factor, 12:nf-kappa-b inhibitor, 13:pectinesterase inhibitor, 14:polygalacturonase inhibiting protein, 15:phosphoprotein phosphatase inhibitors, 16:plasminogen activator inhibitor 1 rna-binding, 17:proteasome inhibitor, 18:protein reversion to ethylene sensitivity, 19:protein transport inhibitor and 20:rho gdp-dissociation inhibitor.

Along with these, contigs coding for protein reversion-to-ethylene sensitivity (3 contigs), cell wall and vascular inhibitor of beta-fructosidase (2 contigs) and macrophage migration inhibitory factor were also identified from Alphonso transcriptome. These inhibitors showed their differential regulation during fruit development and ripening (Figure 4.12). Most of the inhibitors were found to be expressing throughout all the stages except for the group 4 (coding for bax inhibitor), which were abundant only during fruit ripening stages of Alphonso mango and probably played important role in ripening physiology of Alphonso mango.

4.3.7 Transcriptome validation through qPCR

Transcriptomic data was validated by qPCR analysis of 38 genes selected from various metabolic pathways such as carbohydrate metabolism (cellulose synthase, chitinase and pectate lyase), fatty acid metabolism (omega 3 fatty acyl desaturase, omega 6 fatty acyl desaturase, glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate acyl transferase, alcohol dehydrogenase and long chain fatty acyl CoA ligase), terpene metabolism (monoterpene synthases, sesqui-terpene synthases and di-terpene synthases) and proteins such as ethylene responsive factors and disease resistance proteins. Various transcript variants of these genes were selected wherever available to confirm the accuracy of assembly. qPCR analysis revealed similar differential expression pattern of these transcripts through all the eight stages. Transcript variants confirmed the accurate assembly and showed differential expression of these variants from each other through various tissues analysed (Figure 4.13 and Figure 4.14).

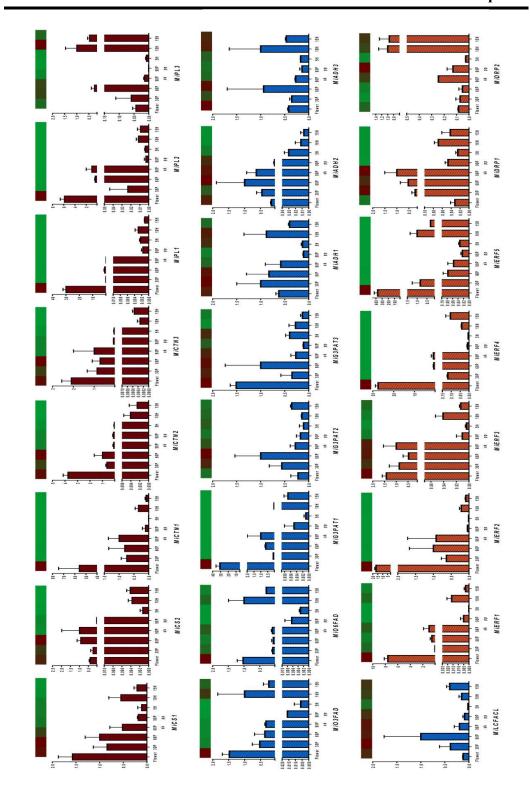


Figure 4.13 Real time validation data of various transcripts

qPCR analysis of various genes (obtained through RNAseq data) from carbohydrate (red) and lipid (blue) metabolism as well as ethylene responsive factors and disease resistance proteins (orange) through various tissues. Vertical bars at each data point represent standard error in the relative quantification among the biological replicates. X-axis represents fruit development and ripening stages and Y-axis represents relative transcript abundance. Heat map above each histogram represents RNAseq data for the same transcript.

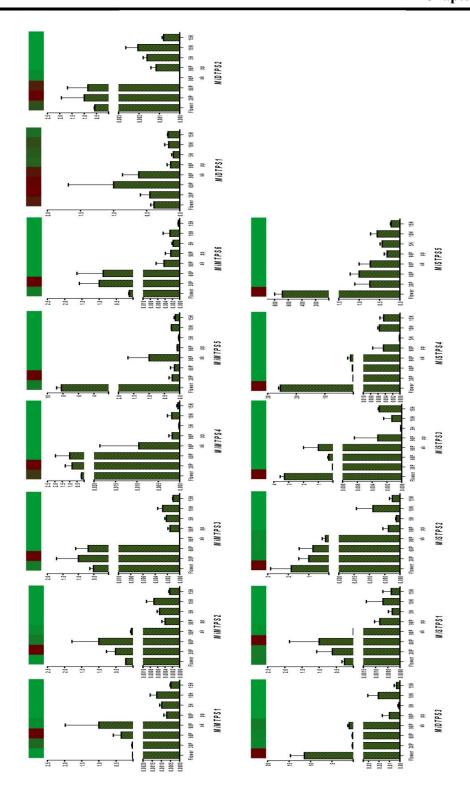


Figure 4.14 Real time validation of various transcripts from terpene metabolism qPCR analysis for genes from terpene metabolism (green) through various tissues. Vertical bars at each data point represent standard error in the relative quantification among the biological replicates. X-axis represents fruit development and ripening stages and Y-axis represents relative transcript abundance. Heat map above each histogram represents RNAseq data for the same transcript.

4.4 Discussion

Recently transcriptome studies on mango cultivars namely, Zill (Wu et al., 2014b), Langra (Azim et al., 2014), Kent (Dautt-Castro et al., 2015) and Dashehari (Srivastava et al., 2016) have put forth important information regarding fruit and leaf physiology. These studies have identified genes encoding multiple enzymes involved in various pathways of primary and secondary metabolism such as, citrate cycle, glycolysis and gluconeogenesis from carbohydrate metabolism; fatty acid biosynthesis, beta oxidation and salicylic acid biosynthesis from fatty acid metabolism; biosynthesis and degradation of various amino acids as well as ethylene biosynthesis from methionine. Genes involved in the flavonoid biosynthesis, vitamin biosynthesis (β -carotene and α -tocopherols) as well as terpenoid backbone synthesis (mevalonate pathway) have also been well explored. In the present study genes involved in all these pathways were identified and their differential expression was also evident through various stages of the Alphonso mango fruit development and ripening (Annexure 1 Supplementary file 2). In addition present study revealed some novel findings highlighting better understanding of various processes involved in mango fruit development and ripening and some unique to most favoured Alphonso mango fruit, which are discussed below.

4.4.1 Novel flavor related genes from Alphonso mango transcriptome

Quantitative abundance of terpenes in mangos is well known (Pandit et al., 2009a; Pandit et al., 2009b), transcriptome and gene expression studies in mango have explored the terpene biosynthesis pathway till GPP, FPP and GGPP synthesis (Azim et al., 2014; Dautt-Castro et al., 2015; Kulkarni et al., 2013b; Srivastava et al., 2016; Wu et al., 2014b). Here 6, 5 and 3 genes encoding mono-terpene synthases (MTPS), sesqui- terpene synthases (STPS) and di-terpene synthases (DTPS), respectively involved in biosynthesis of specific terpene molecules have been identified (Figure 1.10 from Chapter 1). These genes were abundant in the flower tissue followed by 30 DAP. Further, the transcript abundance of many of these terpene synthase genes in the present study has been depicted to be idiosyncratic to the developing stages leading to their least expression in the ripening stages of Alphonso fruit (Figure 4.14 and Annexure 1_Supplementary file 3). Previous aroma volatile analysis from Alphonso

mango supports this observation wherein flower had the highest concentration of mono- terpenes, oxygenated mono- terpenes and sesqui- terpenes which decreased through the fruit development (Pandit et al., 2009b).

Another flavor related pathway is lipoxygenase (LOX) followed by HPL pathway (Baysal and Demirdöven, 2007; Huang and Schwab, 2011, 2012), which produces C6 GLVs and lactones through peroxygenase pathway (Chapter 3). Transcriptome analyzed from Kent and Dashehari mangos reported presence of 6 and 5 genes coding for the LOX family, respectively (Dautt-Castro et al., 2015; Srivastava et al., 2016). Here detailed annotation of Alphonso mango LOX genes has been reported, wherein 2 code for the 9-LOX and 6 for the 13-LOX. Peroxygenase and epoxide hydrolase (EH) genes have been well studied for biosynthesis of cutin biopolymer (Blee and Schuber, 1993) and defence related compounds (Masui et al., 1989; Ohta et al., 1990), while results from Chapter 3 have shown involvement of these genes in the production of lactones. In spite of their biological significance none of the previous transcriptome studies in mango identified presence of peroxygenase and epoxide hydrolase genes. On the contrary in the current study various contigs coding for novel EH (3 contigs), EH2 (4 contigs) and peroxygenase (3 contigs) were detected. Similarly, multiple transcripts encoding enone oxidoreductase and *O-methyltransferase*, having role in furanone biosynthesis (Chidley et al., 2016b; Kulkarni et al., 2013a) were also identified and expression profiles of many of them were shown to be ripening specific (Figure 4.11). Abundance and ripening related expression of large number of these unique flavor related genes in Alphonso mango (Figure 4.11) signifies their role in synthesis of diverse aroma volatiles and their unique blend giving sweet and fruity flavor in Alphonso as shown by our previous studies (Kulkarni et al., 2012; Pandit et al., 2009b).

4.4.2 Possible role of various enzyme inhibitors in slow ripening and longer shelf life of Alphonso mango fruit

Fruit ripening is a complex physiological process and can be characterized by means of fruit softening due to changes in the cell wall structure (Atkinson et al., 2012; Gross and Sams, 1984; Lunn et al., 2013), increased sugar content by polysaccharide hydrolysis (Chidley et al., 2016a) and changes in the aroma volatiles (Pandit et al.,

2009b). Starch and pectin are the major storage and structural polysaccharides in the mango fruit, respectively. Various hydrolases and lyases are known to carry out polysaccharide and cell wall hydrolysis (Ali et al., 2004; Atkinson et al., 2012; Chourasia et al., 2006b; Fischer and Bennett, 1991; Lizada, 1993; Peroni et al., 2008) while amylases degrade the starch in to soluble sugars during ripening. We identified 4 α -amylase, 3 isoamylase and 1, 3 β -amylase coding transcripts. Only one transcript coding for α -amylase (contig_1439) was down regulated through flower to 30 DAP fruit transition while others were expressed throughout the fruit developing and ripening stages. On the other hand, transcriptome analysis of Kent mango revealed identification of 4 β -amylase and 3 α -amylase transcripts out of which only 2 β -amylase coding transcripts were found to be up regulated in ripe tissue, none of the other showed differential expression (Dautt-Castro et al., 2015).

Secondly, in the present study large number of PL, PG and PE encoding transcripts known to be responsible for degradation of complex heteropolysaccharide, pectin (Ali et al., 2004) were detected (Appendix 5). Most of these were steady in their expression and only few were differentially expressed in Alphonso mango. These results are in contrast to the observations from the Kent (Dautt-Castro et al., 2015) and Dashehari (Srivastava et al., 2016) mango transcriptomic data in terms of number of unigenes detected and their differential regulation. In case of Dashehari mango 4 PL and none of the PE or PG were up regulated, whereas in Kent mango 4 PL, 6 PE and 6 PG coding unigenes were reported to be up regulated. These results signify controlled steady activity of pectin degradation leading to slow and balanced transitions in Alphonso fruit ripening physiology and may be one of the reasons for its longer shelf life.

Third interesting observation was, 79 contigs coding for 20 different inhibitor classes were also identified from Alphonso mango (Figure 4.12). Surprisingly, only 3 unigenes coding for the cysteine proteinase inhibitor were reported from Langra leaf transcriptome, while no presence of such inhibitors from Zill (Wu et al., 2014b), Kent (Dautt-Castro et al., 2015) and Dashehari (Srivastava et al., 2016) mango transcriptomes was reported. Overall Alphonso mango transcriptome was observed to be rich in these inhibitors throughout the fruit development and ripening.

Thus, presence of large number of amylase, PL, PE and PG transcripts with very few of them differentially regulated, perpetual expression of most of the starch and cell wall hydrolyzing transcripts along with the persistent presence of inhibitors for amylase, pectinesterase (Figure 4.15), polygalacturonase and ethylene sensitivity can be cumulatively suggested to play a crucial role in controlled and slow ripening and longer fruit shelf life of Alphonso mango.

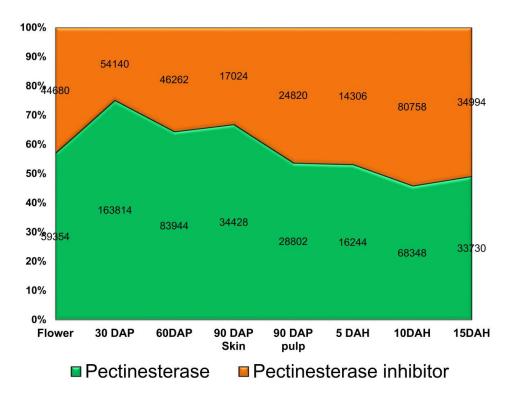


Figure 4.15 Balance between pectinesterase enzyme and its inhibitorSummary of transcripts coding for pectinesterase and pectinesterase inhibitor at various stages. Numbers at each stage in green and orange zone represent sum of total transcripts coded by various contigs of pectinesterase and pectinesterase inhibitor, respectively.

Additionally oxidative burst, oxidoreductase activities and oxidative stress related gene ontologies were observed during the ripening. These factors are responsible for the generation of reactive oxygen species and lead to cell death and fruit damage. Such reactive oxygen species induced cell death is suppressed by Bax inhibitor and was well studied in *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Kawai-Yamada et al., 2004). Four contigs coding for Bax inhibitor in Alphonso mango showed ripening specific expression probably responsible for preventing cell death in ripening fruits and thus longer shelf life. Further detailed study on these inhibitors might help to understand

jelly formation in Dashehari mangos due to excessive ripening and spongy tissue formation due to uneven ripening in Alphonso mangos (Shivashankar et al., 2007; Srivastav et al., 2015).

4.4.3 Defence mechanism in Alphonso from flower to fruit

Ripened fruits are prone to be attacked by various pathogens (Coates and Johnson, 1997). A well distinct defence mechanism was observed in Alphonso mango wherein various defence related proteins (227 contigs) and chitinases (19 contigs) acting on fungal cell wall (Daulagala, 2014) were differentially regulated (Annexure 1_Supplementary file 2). Chitinases were found to be accumulated in the flower and in the early fruit developing stages. Insect driven pollination has the risk of fungal infection to flower and further spore accumulation around ovary causing internal infection to the fruit. This might be restricted by the presence of various chitinases in Alphonso mango. Similarly various disease resistance proteins might play role during fruit development and ripening process to defend infections.

4.5 Conclusion

Transcriptome of Alphonso mango analysed through eight stages of flower to fruit development and ripening transitions revealed various differentially regulated and stage specific genes. Unique transcript profiles probably responsible for distinct and favourable characteristics of Alphonso mango fruit such as flavor, color, ripening duration, skin to stone ripening pattern and longer shelf life were identified and analysed. This study provides large data sets for further functional validation of fruit ripening process.

Ph.D.Thesis Summary

Summary and Future Directions

Alphonso mango the only fruit which shows the highest diversity in its lactone content was analyzed along with low lactone containing and lactoneless cultivars Pairi and Kent, respectively at metabolite and molecular level. Further transcriptome of Alphonso mango was analyzed across eight different stages to identify novel transcripts and pathways involved in the Alphonso mango ripening and flavor biogenesis. Results obtained from the present thesis work and their future directions are summarized below.

Fatty acid profiles of three mango cultivars

Fatty acid profiling was performed to identify probable precursors for lactone biosynthesis. A total of 17 different fatty acids were identified and quantified from pulp and skin tissues at various stages of mango fruit development and ripening from three cultivars viz. Alphonso, Pairi and Kent with high, low and no lactone content at ripe stage, respectively. Present analysis revealed increase in the unsaturated fatty acid content in pulp and skin during fruit ripening, making fruits more nutritious with addition of considerable levels of α-linolenic acid in all the cultivars and ratio of $\omega 6/\omega 3 \le 1$ at ripe stage suggesting ripened mango fruits as perfect source of essential fatty acids. Study also emphasizes fatty acid rich nature of mango skin, which remains unused from mango food processing industries and can be utilized for nutritional enrichment of other food products. In the present data, a decrease in C16:0/C16:1 ratio and increase in the fatty acid derived flavor compounds, lactones, were evinced from Alphonso pulp and skin and Pairi pulp. Similarly, palmitoleic acid, 11octadecenoic acid and 9, 15- octadecadienoic acid showed strong correlation with total lactone content from the ripe pulp and skin tissues of three cultivars, whereas various unsaturated fatty acids showed strong correlation with content of all the eight lactones individually.

Lactone biosynthesis in mango

Quantitative real-time analysis of 9-lipoxygenase (Mi9LOX), epoxide hydrolase 2 (MiEH2), peroxygenase (MiPGX1), hydroperoxide lyase (MiHPL) and acyl-CoA-oxidase (MiACO) genes during various developmental and ripening stages in fruit of

Ph.D.Thesis Summary

Alphonso, Pairi and Kent cultivars with high, low and no lactone content and explains their variable lactone content. Study also covers isolation, recombinant protein characterization and transient over-expression of Mi9LOX and MiEH2 genes in mango fruits. Recombinant Mi9LOX utilized linoleic and linolenic acids, while MiEH2 utilized aromatic and fatty acid epoxides as their respective substrates depicting their role in fatty acid metabolism. Significant increase in concentration of δ-valerolactone and δ-decalactone upon Mi9LOX over-expression and that of δ-valerolactone, γ-hexalactone and δ-hexalactone upon MiEH2 over-expression further suggested probable involvement of these genes in lactone biosynthesis in mango.

Transcriptome analysis of Alphonso mango

Transcriptome of Alphonso mango was analysed through Illumina sequencing from eight stages of fruit development and ripening including flowers. Total transcriptome data generated from all the eight stages ranged from 65.45 – 143 Mb. About 20,755 unique transcripts were identified from Alphonso mango and 92.22% of them were annotated. 4,611 unique transcripts were assigned Enzyme Commission number which code for 142 biological pathways. Differential regulation (p-value ≤ 0.05) of thousands of unique transcripts was observed through various stages of Alphonso fruit development and ripening. Novel transcripts coding for genes involved in monoterpene, sesquiterpene and diterpene biosynthesis were identified along with various flavor related genes involved in ripening specific furanone and lactone biosynthesis. Further, differential expression of various genes in 90 DAP skin and pulp reveals polarity of Alphonso ripening from skin towards fruit stone. Cell wall modifying enzymes were encoded by large number of transcripts. Only few of them were found to be differentially regulated and most of these remained steady through all the stages. Simultaneously, their activities were regulated by various inhibitors encoded by the set of transcripts throughout Alphonso fruit development and ripening. The present study reveals the secrete of slow ripening and longer shelf life of Alphonso mango with identification of 79 novel transcripts coding for various inhibitors for the enzymes involved in the fruit softening and other metabolic activities.

Ph.D.Thesis Future Directions

Future Directions

The results from present thesis work revealed many novel features of mango ripening and flavor biogenesis such as ω -3 fatty acid rich nature of ripening mangoes especially mango skin, possible precursor fatty acids and key genes involved in lactone biogenesis and various novel transcripts related to flavor biogenesis, transcriptional factors and various inhibitor playing their role in unique aroma and long shelf life of Alphonso mango. Thus, present work with these useful insights may provide foundation for future research work and its industrial application, which is discussed below.

• ω-3 fatty acid rich food products

Nutritionally important ω -3 fatty acid (α -linolenic acid) rich nature of mango skin, which remains unused from food processing industries suggests its utilization by various industries to produce nutritionally enriched food products.

Metabolite labeling studies

Fatty acids showing strong correlation with various lactones should be further analyzed with isotope labeling and their infiltration in mango fruits to identify exact precursor and intermediates for each lactone in its biosynthesis.

• In planta studies

Various genes involved in proposed lactone biosynthesis pathway from mango can be studied in model plants such as *Arabidopsis* or *Nicotiana* for further functional characterization.

Addressing spongy tissue formation in Alphonso mango

Alphonso is a well known famous mango cultivar but its export is sometimes affected due to physiological disorders such as spongy tissue formation. Various ripening related enzymes, transcription factors and inhibitors were

Ph.D.Thesis Future Directions

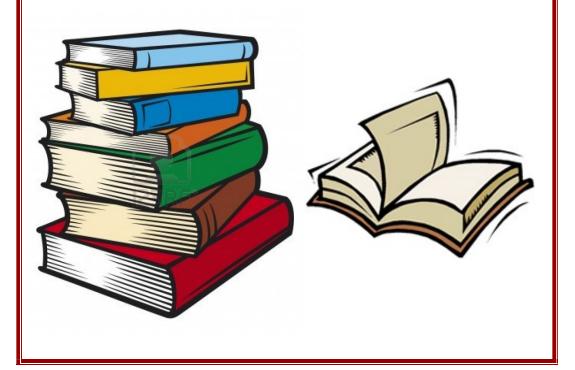
identified from Alphonso mango transcriptome. Further analysis of these transcripts will be helpful to address this physiological disorder.

• Functional studies on novel inhibitors

Functional studies on various novel inhibitors will help to understand slow ripening and longer shelf life of Alphonso mango. These inhibitors can also be used as future markers in various mango breeding programs for the selection of slowly ripening new mango variety with longer shelf life.



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Appendices

Appendix 1: cDNA sequences of *Mi9LOX*, *MiEH2*, *MiPGX1*, *MiHPL* and *MiACO*. Characters in bold and underlined represent 5' and 3' UTRs if any.

>KX090178[organism= Mangifera indica] Mangifera indica cultivar Alphonso 9-lipoxygenase mRNA, complete cds.

ATGGGGACAGTGTTGATGAAGAAGAATTTTTTGGACTTCAATGACCTCAGTGCATCGGTTATTGATCG TGTTGATGAACTGGTTGGTAAAAGAGTCTCTTTGCAGCTCGTTAGTGCTTTTAACTCTGACCCTACTGCAT GTAGCAGAGGAATCGACATTCAAGGTCACATTTGATTGGGATGAACAGATTGGAGTTCCAGGAGCATTCAT AATAAAGAACAATCATCACAGTGGATTTTACTTGAAATCTCTCACACTTGAGGATGTTCCTAATCAGGGTC AACAAGACATACCTTCCAGGTGAAATGCCGGCACCATTACAATATTATAGAGAGCAAGAACTCCTAAACTT GAGAGGAGATGGAACTGGAGAGCTTCAAGAATGGGACAGAGTCTATGACTATGCGTACTATAATGATTTGG GTGATCCGGACAATGGCAAACCACGACCAGTTCTTGGAGGGTCTACTGAGTATCCTTATCCTCGTAGGGGA AGAACAGGCAGACCACCAGCAAAAACAGATCCTGAGACTGAGAGCAGGCTGCCACTTCTGACGAGCTTAAA CCATATCTCAATTCATTGAGCCAGCGTTGGAATCTGTATTTGACAGCACCCCAAATGAATTTGACAACTTT GCTCAAATATACAAACTCTACGATGAAGGGATTCAGCTTCCTAATGACCATTTTCTTGATGATATTAGAAA TGATCAAGATAGTAAGATAACCAAACAGCACATAGAGAGCTACTTAGATGGGCTGACTGTAGAGCAGGCAA TTGAGAAGAACAAGCTATTCATATTGGATCACCATGATTCACTGATGACATACTTGAGAAGGATAAACACT ACTTCCACAAAGACTTATGCATCCAGGACAATCCTTTTCTTAAAAGAGGATGGAACTTTGAAACCACTGGC AATTGAATTGAGCAGGCCACATCCTGATGGAGATCAATATGGTGCCATCAGCAACGTTTACACGCCATCAG ${\tt AAGATGAAGTTGGAAGGTTCCATATGGCAGCTGGCTAAAGCTTATGTGGCTGTAAATGACTCTGGTGTTCAT}$ CAGCTCATCAGCCACTGGTTGAAGACTCATGCAGCAATTGAGCCATTTGTGATAGCAACAAATCGGCAACT GAGTGTGCTTCACCCAATTTATAAGCTTCTGCAACCTCATTTCCGTGACACAATGAATATAAATGCGTTTG CTCGTCAGATCGTCATTAATGCGGGTGGAATTCTGGAAACTACGGTTTTCCCTGCAAAGTATGCCATGGAA ATGTCATCTGCAATCTACAAAGACTGGACTTTTCCAGATCAGGCACTTCCTGAAGACCTCAAGAATAGAGG AATGGCAGTTGAGGACCCCAACTCTCCACATGGTCTTCGCCTACTGATAGCAGACTACCCATATGCTGTTG ATGGGCTTGAAATCTGGTTTGCAATAAAAACTGGGTCAAAGACTATTGCTACTTCTACTACAAAAGCGAT GAAAGATGAGCCCTGGTGGCCTAAAATGCAAAATCGTGAAGAGCTGATAGAGGCATGCACCATAATCATAT

>KX090179 [organism= Mangifera indica] Mangifera indica cultivar Alphonso epoxide hydrolase-2 mRNA, complete cds.

ACGCGGGGATATAACGCTACACAATCCACAGCTTTCAACTGCTCCAACAACGAAACTTCAACCCAGAATCA

GCGATGGAAGATATACAGCACAGAATTGTGAATGTCAATGGCTTAAACATGCACGTGGCAGAGAAAGGCGA AGGTCCAGTCATTCTCTTCATTCACGGTTTTCCCGAACTGTGGTACTCCTGGCGGCATCAGATCATCGCCT TGGCTTCCCTCGGCTACCGAGCCATTGCTCCGGATCTACGTGGCTTCGGTGATACTGACGCGCCGCCGTCT GTCTCGAGTTACACGTGTTTCCACGTGGTGGGGGACCTCATTGGACTTCTCGACGTCGTTGCCTCTGATCG GGATAAGGTTTTCGTGGTGGGCCATGATTGGGGTGCTCTTATTGCTTGGTACTTGTTCTTTTAGACCGG ATAAGGTCAAAGCTTTGGTCAACTTGAGTGTTTGCGTTTAATCCCTGGAACCCCAAGAGGAAGCCACTTGAG GGTTTGAAAGCTGTTTATGGTGACGATTATTACATGATCAGATTTCAGGAGCCTGGTGAGATAGAAGCTGA TCCCTACAGGTAAAGGATTTGGACATCCCCCAAATGCTGAAATTGTCTTACCCTCTTGGCTATCAGAGGAT GATGTTAAAAACTACACCAGCAAATTTGAGAAAGGCTTTACAGGAGGAGTGAACTATTACCGTAATATAAA CGTGAACTGGGAACTTACAGCTCCTTGGGCCGGGAGTCAAATAAAGGTTCCTGTTAAGTTCATCGTGGGTG CCATTATTGGAAGAGTGATTGTAATGGAAGGTGTAGGTCACTTCATTAATGGAGAAAAGGCTGATGCAAT CAGTGAGCACATATACAACTTTTTTCAGAAGTTCTGATATGTTATTTGGTTTTTTAGTAGAGTTTTCACTTC ATTTGGGTTGTTTTGCGGCAGTGCAACAGGAGTTGTTAAGTATTTTATTTCAAGCATTAATAATTGTATTT GGGTTGTTTTCAGAGTTCAGAGTGCAATGCTAGTTGTTTGAAATAAGCCATGGTGTAATGGTGTATGT

>KX090180 [organism= Mangifera indica] Mangifera indica cultivar Alphonso peroxygenase-1 mRNA, complete cds.

>KX090181 [organism= Mangifera indica] Mangifera indica cultivar Alphonso hydroperoxide lyase mRNA, complete cds.

ATGATGATCAAATCCATGAGCTTAAGTCCCGGCATGCCATCTTCATCTTCACCCTTGTCTTCTCCACCTCC ACTCTCCACCGCCTCACCGCCCGCCACTTCCCTCCCACTTCGCACAGTACCCGGATCCTACGGCTGGCCTT TGCTTGGCCCCATCTCTGACCGCCTTGACTACTTCTGGTTCCAGGGTCCGGCTACCTTCTTTAAGAAGCGT ATAGAGAAGCACAAAAGCACGGTGTTCCGAACAAACATGCCGCCGACGTGGCCACTCTTTCTGGGTGTTAA $\tt CCCGAATGTTATTGCTGTTCTTGACTGTAAGTCATTTTCGCATCTTTTTGATATGGAGATCGTGGAGAAGA$ AGAATATTCTTGTTGGTGATTTCATGCCTAGTGTCAAATTTACTGGAAATTTAAGAACTTGCGCTTATCTT GATACTTCTGAGCCACAACACGCTAAGATCAAGAACTTCGTCCTTGACATTCTGAAACGCAGTTCAACAGT GTGGCTTACAGCGCTCAAGTCGAACCTCGACACATTGTTTGACACCATTGAAACGAATATCTCCGAGAAGG GTTCTGCAGGCTTTTTATTCCCTTTACAAAAATGCTTGTTCAACTTCCTCACAACGGCCATCGTTGGAGCT GATCCCACAACCGACCCTAACATCGCCGACTCCGGCTATGCCATGCTGGACAGCTGGCTCGCCCTACAGAT $\verb|CCTCCCCACCGTCAAAATTGGAATCTTACAGCCTCTTGAAGAGATTTTTCTTCACTCTTTTGCTTACCCCT|\\$ TTGCCCCGTAAGTGGAGGCTACAATAAGCTTTATAACTTCGTTGAAAAACAAGGCAACGAGGTGGCGCAA CGAGGTGTCACCGAGTTTGGACTCACTAAAGAAGAAGCTACCCATAATTTGTTGTTCACGCTAGGCTTTAA TGCCTTTGGTGGTTCTCTGTGTTTTTACCTACTTTAATCGGCACCATTGCTAGTGATAAAACTGGAATAC AGAAGAAACTTAGAAAAGAAGTTAAAGAAAAAATTGGATCTTCAAGTTTGAATTTTGAGTCGGTCAAAGAT TTGGAACTTGTTCAGTCTTTTGTTTATGAGACTTTGAGAGTCAACCCTCCGGTCCCTCTTCAGTACGGCAG GGCAAGGAAGGATTTTCAACTGAGTTCGCATGACTCGGTGTATGATATCAAGAAAGGTGAGTTGCTTTGTG GGTACCAGTCTCAGATAATGAAAGACTCGAAGGTGTTTGAAGATCCAGAGACTTTTAAAGCGGAGAGGTTT ATGGGTGAAAAAGGAAGAGCTGCTGAATTACTTGTACTGGTCAAACGGGCCACAGACTGGATCACCCAC CGGGTCGAATAAACAGTGTGCAGGTAAAGATGTGGTTACTCTGACGTCGTTTTTTGATCGTTGCTTACATAT TTCAAAGATATGAATCGATCAGTGGGAGCTCTTCTTCAATCACAGCCGTTGAAAAGGCAAAATGA

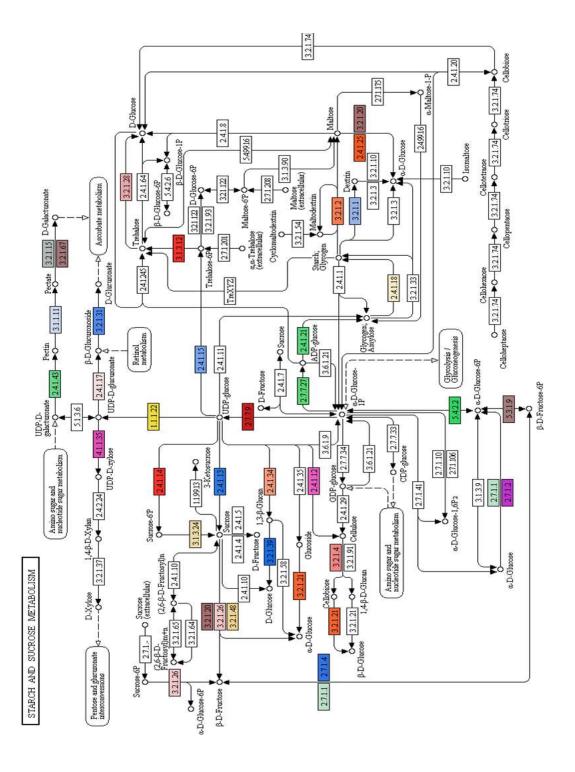
>KX090182 [organism= Mangifera indica] Mangifera indica cultivar Alphonso acyl-CoA-oxidase mRNA, complete cds.

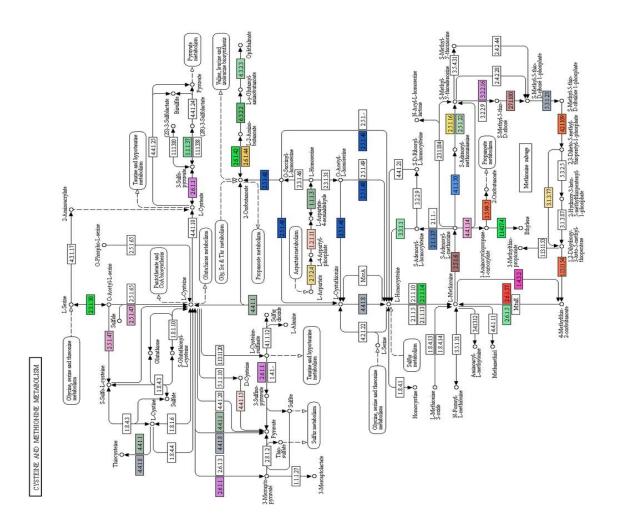
 $\tt CTGGGCCGGCTCTCGCACGCCTTCGAACTCTCAGATCGGATTTCTCGACTCGTCGCCAGTGATCCGGCCT$ TTCGAAAGGATAACAGACCTATGCTAAGTAGGAAGGAGTTGTTTAAGAACACTCTGAGAAAGACGGCTCAT GCTTGGAAACGGATTAATGAGCTCCGTCTAACTGAAGAAGAGGCAAATAAGCTAAGGTTTTATGTTGATGA ACCTGCTTTTGCGGATCTTCATTGGGGAATGTTTGTGCCGGCTATAAAAGGACAAGGGACTGATGAGCAGC ACCAGAAGTGGTTGCCATTGGCATATAAGATGCAAATAATCGGATGCTATGCACAAACTGAGCTAGGTCAT GGCTCCAATGTTCAAGGGCTTGAAACCACTGCAACATTTGATCCTCAGACTGATGAGTTCATCATCACAG TCCTACACTGACTTCAAGCAAATGGTGGCCTGGTGGATTGGGTAAAGTTTCTACCCATGCTGTTTTTATG CTCGTCTAATAACAGATGGCAAGGACCATGGAGTGCATGGTTTTATTGTTCAGCTACGGAGCCTGGATGAT CACTCACCTCTTCCTGGCATAATAGTTGGAGACATTGGAATGAAGTTTGGAAATGGGGCCATATAACACTAT GGATAATGGTGTTTTGAGATTTGATCATGTGCGTATCCCTAGGAATCAAATGTTGATGCGGGTTTCACAAG TTACAAGGGAAGGGAAATATAAACAATCAAATGTTCCTCGGCAATTAGTTTATGGCACTATGGTGTATGTT CGTCAAGTGATTGTATCTGATGCTTCTTATGCCCTATCACGAGCAGTTTGTATTGCCACAAGGTACAGTTG TTTGAAGTCTCTGACTACTTCTGCCACAGCTGATGGGATTGAGGAATGTCGAAAATTATGTGGTGGCCATG GTTACTTGTGTAGCAGCGGACTTCCAGAACTATTTGCAGTATATGTCCCTGCTTGTACATATGAAGGAGAC ${\tt AACACTGTGCTACTTTTACAGGTTGCAAGGTTTCTCATGAAAACTGTCTCTCAACTGGGGTCTGGAAAGAA}$ GCCTGTTGGGACAATATCTTACATGGAACAAGCGGAGCATTTGATGAAATGTCGTTGTGAGGTTCAAAGAG $\tt CTGAGGATTGGTTAAAGCCTTCTGTAATACTGGAGGTTTTTGAAGCAAGGGCCACTAGGATGTCTGTTGCA$ TGTGCTCAAAACCTGAGCAAGTTCGCAAATCCAGAAGAGGGCTTTTCAGAACTCTTAGCTGATTTAGTTGA GGCAGCAATTGCTCATTGCCAGTTAATTGTTTGTTTCAAAGTTTATTGAGAAATTGCGACAAGACATACCTG GAAAGGGGGTGAAACAAGTGTTAGGAATGCTCTGCAACATTTATGCTTTGCATATTCTGCACAAAAATCTG CAGTCCTTGGCCGGTATGATGGAAACGTGTATCCAAACCTCTACGAGGAAGCTTGGAAGGATCCTCTCAAT GATTCTGTTGTACCTGATGGCTACCATGAATACATCCGCCCCATTCTGAAACAACAGCTCCGAACAGCAAG ACTCTGA

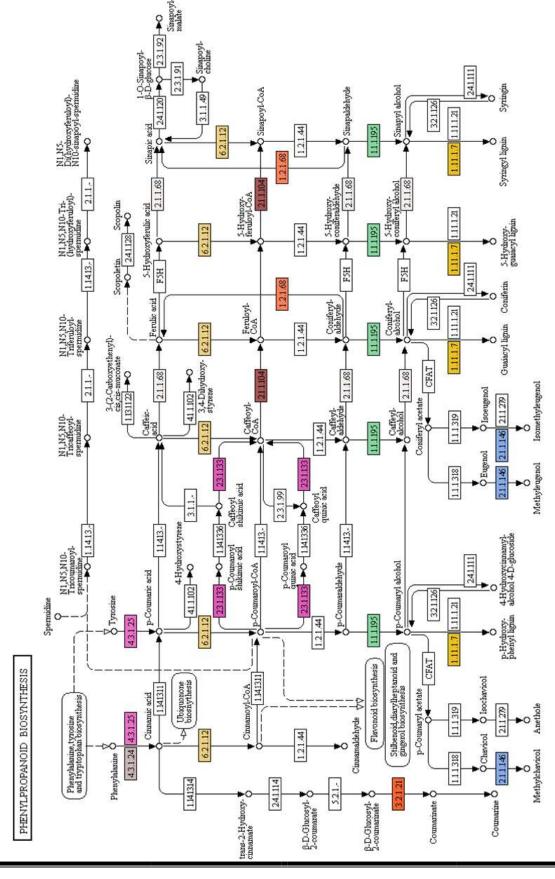
Appendix 2: Details of primers used in qPCR analysis (Chapter 4).

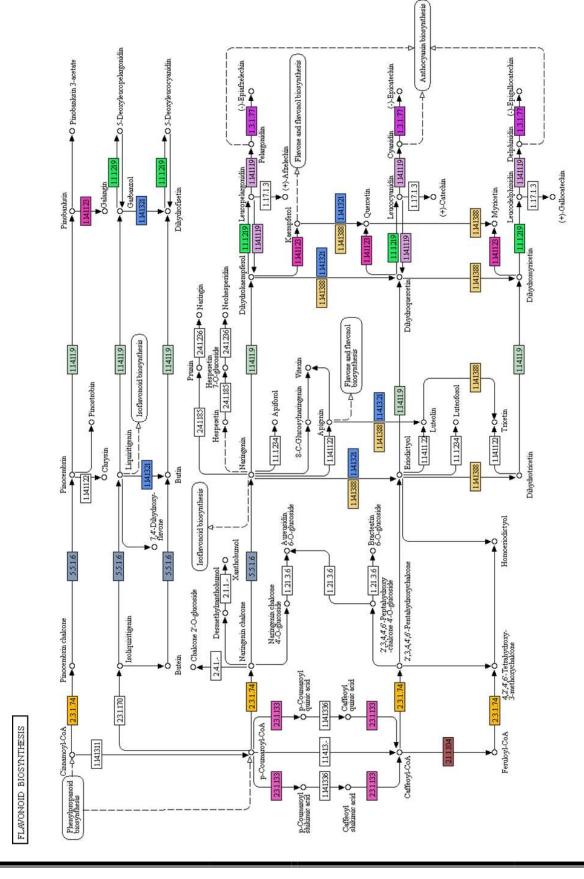
No.	Primer	Sequence	No.	Primer	Sequence
1	MiCS1_RT_F	TGCACCAAGTTCTGAGATGGGCT	39	MiERF3_RT_F	GTCGGACGCTGGAATGGGGATAG
2	MiCS1_RT_R	GGTGTAAGCAAGCCTCTCAAGCCA	40	MiERF3_RT_R	TCCCCCAAAACGGCGTATCCAAG
3	MiCS2_RT_F	AAAGGGAGTCCGAGAGTGGAGGG	41	MiERF4_RT_F	GCAAATGGGCAGCGGAGATACGA
4	MiCS2_RT_R	GCCACATGCACCTGCTTGTTCTT	42	MiERF4_RT_R	TTGAACCTCAGCGCCGCTTCATC
5	MiCTN1_RT_F	TGGGACTACCTGCGTCTCCTGAA	43	MiERF5_RT_F	CTGGTCAGTTGAGGATCGGCTCG
6	MiCTN1_RT_R	GCCTTGACCAGAGCATGACACCT	44	MiERF5_RT_R	CTGCCCACTTTCCCCATGGTCTT
7	MiCTN2_RT_F	GCAATGGCGATGACCACGAATCC	45	MiDRP1_RT_F	AGTGCCATTTTCAGCTTCCTTCCA
8	MiCTN2_RT_R	AAAGCCTTTTGTTGGCCACAGCC	46	MiDRP1_RT_R	CTCAACTGCATCAAGCTTCTAGCCA
9	MiCTN3_RT_F	TGTGGCTCACGCAACAGGTTTCT	47	MiDRP2_RT_F	ATTGTGGTGGCGTTCCTCTAGCA
10	MiCTN3_RT_F	CTCCTTCTGGCCCTTGAGCTTCC	48	MiDRP2_RT_R	TATCCCTCTCTCGATCTTGCCCCC
11	MiPL1_RT_F	AGCCATGGAAGTAACCCGGCAAG	49	MiMTPS1_RT_F	GCTTGCAACACCCTTGCTCCTTG
12	MiPL1_RT_R	CCTCCCTCGCACAGACAAACCTC	50	MiMTPS1_RT_R	GAGTGGTGGCTGAACACCAAACC
13	MiPL2_RT_F	TACCATGTGAGGCGGTGGAGGTT	51	MiMTPS2_RT_F	GGCGATCGGCCAATTACCAACCT
14	MiPL2_RT_R	CAGGCAGGCTCATCACACCAGAA	52	MiMTPS2_RT_R	AGCGTCAGCCTCACTTCTTCCTT
15	MiPL3_RT_F	CGGTCGAGGTGCCAGTGTTCATA	53	MiMTPS3_RT_F	GCGCTGATTGCTTCTGCATGGTT
16	MiPL3_RT_R	CCCTCACCATGGCATTTCCTCCT	54	MiMTPS3_RT_R	TACTGAGCCATCCTGGCCAGATTCA
17	MiO3FAD_RT_F	GCTGCGTTGCTTGCCGGTTTATC	55	MiMTPS4_RT_F	GGCATTGCAAGTGAAGCACGCAA
18	MiO3FAD_RT_R	GTCGTGACCATGGTGATGCAGGT	56	MiMTPS4_RT_R	TTGGCAAGCTCGAGTAGACGGTG
19	MiO6FAD_RT_F	AGGCCTTTCTCAGCGGAATCTGG	57	MiMTPS5_RT_F	CGTGACAGCGACTACACCAACCT
20	MiO6FAD_RT_R	TGAAGATGGTGCGACTGGAACGG	58	MiMTPS5_RT_R	CTTCATCCACGTCATCAGCCCGT
21	MiG3PAT1_RT_F	TGCACGCATAGGACCCTTTTGGA	59	MiMTPS6_RT_F	AAGCGTGGCAAGACACATGCAAA
22	MiG3PAT1_RT_R	GCCTTACGGTTCTAATCGGGGCT	60	MiMTPS6_RT_R	GAACCAACATGACTGCCCCCGAA
23	MiG3PAT2_RT_F	ATAAGGCATCGCCCAATGACCCC	61	MiDTPS1_RT_F	AGAGGTGGGTTGCACAGTACAGG
24	MiG3PAT2_RT_R	TCGCAACACGACAGCACTCAGAA	62	MiDTPS1_RT_R	GCGGGCATCAGATAGTTCAGGGG
25	MiG3PAT3_RT_F	ACAACATGAGAAGGGTTGCAGAACA	63	MiDTPS2_RT_F	TGGTTTCAAAATGTCTTGCGGCGT
26	MiG3PAT3_RT_R	ACCGCCCTTCTCTCTCCAATTTCT	64	MiDTPS2_RT_R	CCGTGCAATCTGAAGTGGGAAGC
27	MiADH1_RT_F	ATTTTTGGCCATGAAGCGGGAGG	65	MiSTPS1_RT_F	GATGGCTTTACGCTTCCGGCTTC
28	MiADH1_RT_R	AGTGACGACACTCCCTGCACTCT	66	MiSTPS1_RT_R	TTGCGTCATTTGCCAGTGTGACC
29	MiADH2_RT_F	ACTGACCTCCCCTCTGTGGTTGA	67	MiSTPS2_RT_F	CTCCAGTGCCTCTGCTTGATCGT
30	MiADH2_RT_R	CAAACCCTGCCCCTTCTCCATGA	68	MiSTPS2_RT_R	TGGGGTCTCTGAGCATTGAAGCA
31	MiADH3_RT_F	GTCTTGGTGCGGCATGGAATGTG	69	MiSTPS3_RT_F	TGAAACCCTAAAGCCACGGAAGCA
32	MiADH3_RT_R	TGCCCCTCTGAGTTTAGCACCTTG	70	MiSTPS3_RT_R	CCCCTACTTTTGACGGACGACCA
33	MilCFACL_RT_F	AACTCGCAGTTTCCTTCCCCTGT	71	MiSTPS4_RT_F	AGCGACAAGGTGTACAAGGAGCA
34	MilCFACL_RT_R	CCGAGTTCCAAGCAAGCGCCTAT	72	MiSTPS4_RT_R	AGGCATGCTCCCATCAGTGAACC
35	MiERF1_RT_F	CCACCACCAACAGTGGCGATCAA	73	MiSTPS5_RT_F	AAGGAGTGCCTCTCTCCCAACCC
36	MiERF1_RT_R	TCTTATCTCCGCCGCCCATTTCC	74	MiSTPS5_RT_R	GAGACCTGGAAGCCGTTGGTTGT
37	MiERF2_RT_F	GAGAGCCACTCGATCAGCCACAA	75	MiSTPS6_RT_F	AGGACACAGAGGAAACGGCACAT
38	MiERF2_RT_R	TTACCCATGTGGGTTTCTCCGGC	76	MiSTPS6_RT_R	TCACCTCTCTCTAGCTCAGCCGT

Appendix 3: Important pathways, such as starch and sucrose metabolism, cysteine and methionine metabolism and ethylene biosynthesis, phenylpropanoid biosynthesis and flavonoid biosynthesis from KEGG database which are functional in Alphonso mango.









Appendix 4: List of transcripts encoding various inhibitors

Contig	Annotation
contig 8113	alpha-amylase inhibitor alpha subunit family protein
contig 6593	alpha-amylase subtilisin inhibitor-like
contig 10367	androgen induced inhibitor of proliferation pds5 isoform 1
contig 6107	apoptosis 1 inhibitor-like
contig 10840	apoptosis inhibitor 5-like
contig 19369	bax inhibitor 1-like
contig 19370	bax inhibitor 1-like
contig 20472	bax inhibitor 1-like
contig 20473	bax inhibitor 1-like
contig 19936	bifunctional inhibitor lipid-transfer protein seed storage 2s
contig_7127	bifunctional inhibitor lipid-transfer protein seed storage 2s
contig_17277	bifunctional inhibitor lipid-transfer protein seed storage 2s
contig_612	bifunctional inhibitor lipid-transfer protein seed storage 2s
contig_11446	bifunctional inhibitor lipid-transfer protein seed storage 2s
contig_15965	bifunctional inhibitor lipid-transfer protein seed storage 2s
contig_919	bri1 kinase inhibitor 1
contig_920	bri1 kinase inhibitor 1
contig_20283	cell wall and vascular inhibitor of beta-fructosidase
contig_4911	cell wall vacuolar inhibitor of fructosidase 2-like
contig_16051	cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor 3-like
contig_20599	cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor 3-like
contig_11512	cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor 5-like
contig_4220	cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor 7
contig_16557	cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor 7-like isoform x2
contig_16558	cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor 7-like isoform x2
contig_5201	cyclin-dependent protein kinase inhibitor sim-like
contig_5413	cyclin-dependent protein kinase inhibitor smr1
contig_4497	cyclin-dependent protein kinase inhibitor smr3
contig_534	cyclin-dependent protein kinase inhibitor smr3-like
contig_1019	cyclin-dependent protein kinase inhibitor smr3-like
contig_4116	cyclin-dependent protein kinase inhibitor smr3-like
contig_5175	cyclin-dependent protein kinase inhibitor smr3-like
contig_5176	cyclin-dependent protein kinase inhibitor smr3-like
contig_5686	cysteine proteinase inhibitor 12
contig_5073	cysteine proteinase inhibitor 6-like
contig_5074	cysteine proteinase inhibitor 6-like
contig_7980	cysteine proteinase inhibitor b-like
contig_5598	guanosine nucleotide diphosphate dissociation inhibitor 2
contig_4147	inter-alpha-trypsin inhibitor heavy chain-

Contig	Annotation
contig_18958	inter-alpha-trypsin inhibitor heavy chain h3 isoform x1
contig_18959	inter-alpha-trypsin inhibitor heavy chain h3 isoform x1
contig_1784	kunitz family trypsin and protease inhibitor protein
contig_2944	macrophage migration inhibitory factor homolog
contig_1216	nf-kappa-b inhibitor-like protein 2 isoform 1
contig_1215	nf-kappa-b inhibitor-like protein 2 isoform 2
contig_9162	pectinesterase pectinesterase inhibitor 26
contig_9688	pectinesterase pectinesterase inhibitor 51
contig_16641	pectinesterase pectinesterase inhibitor ppe8b-like
contig_2641	phosphoprotein phosphatase inhibitors
contig_12662	phosphoprotein phosphatase inhibitors
contig_8693	plant invertase pectin methylesterase inhibitor superfamily protein
contig_3536	plasminogen activator inhibitor 1 rna-binding
contig_3538	plasminogen activator inhibitor 1 rna-binding
contig_7531	plasminogen activator inhibitor 1 rna-binding
contig_15300	polygalacturonase inhibiting protein
contig_5188	probable pectinesterase pectinesterase inhibitor 12
contig_5189	probable pectinesterase pectinesterase inhibitor 12
contig_8357	probable pectinesterase pectinesterase inhibitor 34
contig_9421	probable pectinesterase pectinesterase inhibitor 34
contig_1074	probable pectinesterase pectinesterase inhibitor 40-like
contig_7321	probable pectinesterase pectinesterase inhibitor 47
contig_14895	probable pectinesterase pectinesterase inhibitor 51
contig_14504	probable pectinesterase pectinesterase inhibitor 7
contig_16402	probable proteasome inhibitor
contig_6098	protein phosphatase inhibitor 2 isoform x2
contig_9164	protein reversion-to-ethylene sensitivity1 isoform x2
contig_9166	protein reversion-to-ethylene sensitivity1 isoform x2
contig_14882	protein reversion-to-ethylene sensitivity1 isoform x2
contig_10664	protein transport inhibitor response 1
contig_8392	protein transport inhibitor response 1-like
contig_8393	protein transport inhibitor response 1-like
contig_10665	protein transport inhibitor response 1-like
contig_20305	rho gdp-dissociation inhibitor 1
contig_19132	rho gdp-dissociation inhibitor 1 family protein
contig_14100	rho gdp-dissociation inhibitor 1-like
contig_14101	rho gdp-dissociation inhibitor 1-like
contig_7625	serine protease inhibitor family protein
contig_12841	transport inhibitor response 1-like protein
contig_12842	transport inhibitor response 1-like protein

Appendix 5: Summary of contigs coding for pectate lyase (PL), pectinesterase (PE) and polygalacturonase (PG)

Pectate lyase (PL)

Contig	Annotation
contig_16459	pectate lyase
contig_9578	pectate lyase 22 precursor family protein
contig_9579	pectate lyase 22 precursor family protein
contig_17156	pectate lyase family protein
contig_7696	pectate lyase-like
contig_18874	pectate lyase-like
contig_488	probable pectate lyase 12
contig_773	probable pectate lyase 4
contig_17157	probable pectate lyase 4
contig_10554	probable pectate lyase 5
contig_10555	probable pectate lyase 5
contig_13983	probable pectate lyase 8
contig_13984	probable pectate lyase 8
contig_13985	probable pectate lyase 8
contig_13986	probable pectate lyase 8
contig_13987	probable pectate lyase 8
contig_13988	probable pectate lyase 8

Pectinesterase (PE)

Contig	Annotation
contig_11605	pectinesterase 3
contig_19630	pectinesterase 31
contig_5249	pectinesterase 63
contig_7997	pectinesterase 63
contig_11000	pectinesterase family protein
contig_8936	pectinesterase pectinesterase
contig_3139	probable pectinesterase 53
contig_8066	probable pectinesterase 67
contig_5524	probable pectinesterase 68-like
contig_11297	thermostable pectinesterase

Polygalacturonase (PG)

Contig	Annotation
contig_13192	polygalacturonase adpg2
contig_14447	polygalacturonase at 1g48100
contig_14448	polygalacturonase at1g48100
contig_1614	polygalacturonase at1g48100-like
contig_7066	polygalacturonase at1g48100-like
contig_5206	polygalacturonase qrt3
contig_12817	polygalacturonase qrt3-like
contig_7503	polygalacturonase-like
contig_7792	polygalacturonase-like
contig_188	probable polygalacturonase
contig_3471	probable polygalacturonase
contig_5508	probable polygalacturonase
contig_5747	probable polygalacturonase
contig_6329	probable polygalacturonase
contig_7757	probable polygalacturonase
contig_7758	probable polygalacturonase
contig_7759	probable polygalacturonase
contig_10975	probable polygalacturonase
contig_18096	probable polygalacturonase
contig_20376	probable polygalacturonase
contig_4736	probable polygalacturonase at1g80170
contig_15509	probable polygalacturonase at1g80170 isoform x2
contig_7176	probable polygalacturonase at3g15720
contig_9895	probable polygalacturonase non-catalytic subunit jp650
contig_18002	probable polygalacturonase non-catalytic subunit jp650

Curriculum Vitae

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India

Education

Degrees Obtained	Board/University	Marks obtained	Year
B.Sc. (Biotechnology, Biochemistry, Genetics)	Bangalore University	80.50%	2007
M.Sc. Biochemistry	I.Sc. Biochemistry Bangalore University		2009
P.G. Diploma in Intellectual Property Rights Law	National Law School of India University, Bangalore	B+ Grade	2009
National Eligibility Test (NET)	CSIR-UGC	JRF+ Lectureship	June 2010
National Eligibility Test (NET)	CSIR-UGC	Lectureship	June 2011

Ph.D. Thesis: Mango (*Mangifera indica* L.) Flavor Biogenesis: Metabolic Profiling and Molecular Analysis (submitted to Academy of Scientific and Innovative Research, New Delhi, India., AcSIR)

Research Experience

Minor research project titled "Study of esterase activity with respect
to different phenotypes of pea (Pisum Sativum) seed and effect of
esterase on different substrates." sanctioned by UGC (University
Grant Commission), Delhi, India. (Funding-Rs. 1,75,000/-) during
lectureship (Not availed)

on "Molecular and biochemical analysis of mango flavor biogenesis" project. Technical expertise achieved in molecular biology (Gene isolation, cloning, recombinant expression, transient expression, protein purification and enzyme kinetics), Metabolomics (Isolation of primary and secondary metabolites, GCMS and HRMS analysis of metabolites) and Transcriptomic analysis.

Specialized Skills

- Extraction of primary and secondary metabolites
- Gas chromatography (GC-MS and GC-FID), Q-Exactive Orbitrap HRMS
- DNA and RNA isolation, cDNA synthesis and gene isolation
- Recombinant and expression cloning, recombinant expression in *E.coli*
- Transient expression by *Agrobacterium* mediated infiltration
- Purification of recombinant enzymes and enzyme assays
- Gene expression profiling- qPCR analysis
- Transcriptome analysis/ RNASeq data analysis
- Statistical analysis
- Teaching experience to graduate and post graduate students

Publication Highlights

Journal Publications

1. **Ashish B. Deshpande**, Hemangi G. Chidley, Pranjali S. Oak, Keshav H. Pujari, Ashok P. Giri, Vidya S. Gupta: *Data on changes in the fatty acid composition during fruit development and ripening of three mango cultivars (Alphonso, Pairi and Kent) varying in lactone content*. Data in Brief 09/2016; 9. DOI:10.1016/j.dib.2016.09.018

- 2. **Ashish B. Deshpande**, Hemangi G. Chidley, Pranjali S. Oak, Keshav H. Pujari, Ashok P. Giri, Vidya S. Gupta: *Isolation and characterization of 9-lipoxygenase and epoxide hydrolase 2 genes: Insight into lactone biosynthesis in mango fruit (Mangifera indica L.).* Phytochemistry (In press). DOI:10.1016/j.phytochem.2017.03.002
- 3. Hemangi G. Chidley, **Ashish B. Deshpande**, Pranjali S. Oak, Keshav H. Pujari, Ashok P. Giri, Vidya S. Gupta: *Effect of postharvest ethylene treatment on sugar content, glycosidase activity and its gene expression in mango fruit: Effect of postharvest ethylene treatment on mango ripening*. Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture 06/2016; DOI:10.1002/jsfa.7912
- 4. Hemangi G. Chidley, Pranjali S. Oak, **Ashish B. Deshpande**, Keshav H. Pujari, Ashok P. Giri, Vidya S. Gupta: *Molecular cloning and characterization of O-methyltransferase from mango fruit (Mangifera indica cv. Alphonso)*. Molecular Biotechnology 04/2016; 58(5). DOI:10.1007/s12033-016-9933-2
- 5. Ram Kulkarni, Hemangi Chidley, **Ashish Deshpande**, Axel Schmidt, Keshav Pujari, Ashok Giri, Jonathan Gershenzon, Vidya Gupta: *An oxidoreductase from 'Alphonso' mango catalyzing biosynthesis of furaneol and reduction of reactive carbonyls*. SpringerPlus 10/2013; 2(1). DOI:10.1186/2193-1801-2-494

Book Chapters

1. Dar, S. M., Oak, P., Chidley, H., **Deshpande**, **A**., Giri, A., Gupta, V., 2016. Chapter 19 - *Nutrient and Flavor Content of Mango (Mangifera indica L.) Cultivars: An Appurtenance to the List of Staple Foods* In: Nutritional Composition of Fruit Cultivars. (Eds. Preedy, Monique S.J. SimmondsVictor R.) Academic Press, San Diego, pp. 445-467.;

2. Gupta V. S., Giri A. P., Pandit S. S., Kulkarni R. S., Chidley H. G., **Deshpande A. B.**, Dar M. S. and Oak P. S., 2013, *Alphonso mango flavor: Blend and Biosynthesis*, In: Biotechnology Beyond Borders (Eds. MV Deshpande and J Ruiz-Herrera) CSIR-NCL, Pune, India, pp 103-121.

Patents:

Sr.	Title	Country	Application No
No			
1	A nucleotide sequence of 9-	IN	201611011374
	lipoxygenase gene from mango		
2	A nucleotide sequence of epoxide	IN	201611011975
	hydrolase2 gene from mango		
3	A nucleotide sequence of <i>o-methyl</i>	IN	1795/DEL/2015
	transferase gene from Alphonso		
	mango		
4	A nucleotide sequence of o-methyl	WO	PCT/IN2016/050184
	transferase gene from Alphonso		
	mango		

Workshops and Conferences

- International Symposium on "Proteomics Beyond Ids... and 4th annual meeting of Proteomics Society (India)"; 22-24 November 2012 at CSIR-NCL, Pune
- National Seminar on "Exploring Strategies for Enhancement of Secondary Metabolites in Medicinal Plants"; 13-14 February 2013 at Department of Botany, University of Pune
- Symposium on "Accelerating Biology 2013"; 20-22 February 2013 at C-DAC, Pune
- Hands-on training: Implementing NGS for genomics and epigenetics studies; 24th -27th February 2014 at IISER, Pune
- A one day workshop on "Insights in Biology 2025"; October 29, 2015 at CSIR-NCL, Pune

Posters and Awards

• A poster titled "Study of lactone biosynthesis in Alphonso mango" presented during 26- 27 February 2013, as a part of National Science Day celebrations 2013 at CSIR-NCL, Pune

NCL RF- Agnimitra Memorial Best Poster Award 2015 received in the area of Biological Sciences for the poster titled "Recombinant and Transient Expression of Epoxide hydrolase gene from Alphonso Mango" presented on 25th and 26th February 2015, as a part of National Science Day celebrations 2015 at CSIR-NCL, Pune