

Apricot Floral Development: Keys for a Good Yield

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ABSTRACT

Different aspects related to floral development have a close link to fruit set failures in apricot and other fruit trees. In this work we review studies on flower bud development, pollen viability and germinability, ovule development and longevity, fertilization, as well as on molecular bases of self- and cross-(in)compatibility. A high flower buds drop and a scarce flower bud production of some apricot cultivars affect negatively fruit set. Climatic conditions during flowering influence pollen germination and pollen tubes growth. A delay in the ovule development at anthesis has been found as genotype-dependent in apricot and this trait has been related to low percentages of fertilisation. Also differences in fruit set observed between cultivars may be related to the ability of the ovules to develop and mature after anthesis. Abnormal embryo sacs or ovules have been observed in apricot at different stages of flower development, which is a direct cause of low fruit set. Different plant growth regulators can be useful to regulate different processes. The knowledge of the incompatibility phenotype for many apricot cultivars has allowed advising about the planting of single-cultivar orchards. The study of the inheritance of this and other traits in apricot and other fruit trees has allowed planning of hybridisations to minimise or eliminate the production of undesirable seedlings, increasing the efficiency of the breeding programmes. Furthermore, molecular studies and characterization of S-alleles in apricot have allowed the development of molecular markers for self-(in)compatibility, a successful tool for breeding. All together, these studies on the floral development in apricot have provided valuable information to help select the appropriate cultivars for producers and to avoid losses caused by an inadequate cultivar selection.

Keywords: flower buds, fruit set, male sterility, ovule, pistil, pollen, self-(in)compatibility, S-RNases

Abbreviations: BA, benzyladenine; GA₃, gibberellic acid; PA, polyamine

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INTRODUCTION

Apricot (*Prunus armeniaca* L.) is a very appreciated fruit for its potential health benefit due to a high content of carotenoid and phenolic compounds that are present in many cultivars (Ruiz *et al.* 2005a, 2005b). Productivity is often erratic in many apricot cultivars depending of several and frequently unclear factors. It is known that fruit set is affected by climatological events prior or during flowering (Egea 1995). The influence of weather conditions on pollination, stigma receptivity, ovule fertility, ovule longevity and fruit set have been widely studied in many apricot varieties (Burgos *et al.* 2004).

There are many factors that affect productivity before blooming. Failure in bud development, inadequate bud production and high flower bud drop have a negative influence on fruit production and yield (Legave 1978).

Different aspects of reproductive biology such as self-compatibility, pollen viability, the stage of development of the ovules at bloom or the fertilization process are implicated in a successful yield. Pollen germination is strongly

influenced by environmental conditions such as high temperatures during flowering (Burgos *et al.* 2004). Yield of male-sterile apricot cultivars can be scarce due to inadequate pollen transfer from other cultivars. Male sterility is a heritable trait and can be avoided by breeders through selection of homozygous fertile parents (Burgos and Egea 2001). Delayed ovules that are not able to develop, produce low fertilization percentages of flowers in some apricot cultivars (Alburquerque *et al.* 2004b).

The presence of some plant growth regulators at specific levels prior or during flowering has been described as a positive influence on the development of reproductive organs in fruit tree flowers (Naylor 1984). Furthermore, treatments with different plant growth regulators have been applied to improve fruit set.

Traditionally the self-incompatibility has been identified as the main cause of poor crops in apricot, as in other fruit species. Nowadays, self-compatible apricot cultivars are required by farmers to avoid the use of pollinators. There are many studies about the inheritance of compatibility and consequently modern technologies have been deve-

loped to determine the genotypes of different cultivars (Halász *et al.* 2005; Vilanova *et al.* 2005).

Studies on the flower biology may help farmers to better choose cultivars well adapted to specific climatic conditions. This review tries to give an overview of the state of the art in the research on apricot floral biology and the different aspects that can influence on the final yield.

FLOWER BUDS

Flower bud drop has been widely studied in stone fruits, because it negatively affects flower production and therefore the final number of the fruits yielded (Hendrickson and Veihmeyer 1950; Weinberger 1956; Brown 1958; Monet and Bastard 1971; Legave 1978).

Different factors may influence development and flower bud drop. So, in temperate fruits, such as peach (*Prunus persica* L. Batsch) (Erez and Lavee 1971), or apple (*Malus domestica* Borkh) (Jackson *et al.* 1983) the absence of adequate chilling or unfavourable spring temperatures have been related to reductions in growth rate and development and low yield. In sweet cherry (*Prunus avium* L.), improved flower quality and fruit set have been associated with increases in chilling requirements being satisfied (Mahmood *et al.* 2000). Limited winter chilling has also been considered a cause of flower bud drop in apricot when cv. 'Polonais' was studied (Legave 1978). However, other authors did not observe an influence of chilling on apricot flower bud drop or bud development. Viti and Monteleone (1991) indicated that the abnormalities found in flower buds of four apricot cultivars ('Polonais', 'Portici', 'Reale d'Imola' and 'Rival') can not be attributed to unsatisfied chilling requirements or late frost. Similarly, no correlation was found between lack of chilling and flower bud drop in the apricot cultivar 'Guillermo' (Albuquerque *et al.* 2003). In other crops, such as grape, high temperatures were associated with good production, since probably warm temperatures are required for flower bud initiation and development (Caprio and Quamme 1998).

Traditionally, problems in flower bud development have been associated with deficit irrigation treatments. Benzoni and Dunstone (1985) found that Jojoba plants (*Simmondsia chinensis* Link Schneid) need enough available water to complete flower bud morphogenesis. Furthermore, Benzoni *et al.* (1992) observed that the final steps of jojoba flower bud development were inhibited by water stress and that blooms were delayed.

The effects of timing and severity of postharvest water stress on productivity of different species are contradictory. So, in nectarine (*Prunus persica* L. Batsch) drought stress delayed flower bud development and flower buds with double pistils were found in the cultivar 'Snow Queen' (Naor *et al.* 2005). However, water-stressed pomelo trees (*Citrus grandis* L. Osbeck) showed an increase in the number of inflorescences, flower buds, and opened flowers, and the stress treatments had no effect on the percentage of fruit set (Nakajima *et al.* 1993). In the apricot cultivar 'Búlida' a significant decrease in yield was observed when drought stress was caused by withholding irrigation after harvest

(Ruiz-Sanchez *et al.* 1999). Authors indicated that the decrease in fruit yield was due to early fruit drop.

Some works indicate that irrigation deficit may cause abnormal apricot flower bud development (Brown 1952 1953; Uriu 1964) and, therefore their drop (Hendrickson and Veihmeyer 1950). However, Ruiz-Sánchez *et al.* (1999) found no differences in flower bud drop, which was high in all irrigation situations, or flower quality between water stress treatments during two consecutive years. Furthermore, when different irrigation doses and treatments were applied to one apricot cultivar there was no influence on flower bud drop and large flower bud drops were recorded in all treatments (Albuquerque *et al.* 2003).

A strong influence of apricot genotypes on flower bud drop has been reported by different authors. Cultivars 'Bergeron', 'Badami', 'Royal' and 'Stark Early Orange' showed a higher percentage of damages or flower buds drop than 'Priana', 'Colomer', 'Polonais' and 'Canino' (Legave *et al.* 1982). When nine apricot cultivars were studied (Albuquerque *et al.* 2004a) flower bud drop percentages were lower in the earliest flowering cultivars than in the rest, where more than 50% of flower buds drop was recorded, as average, in a three-year study (Table 1).

The type of shoot has a strong influence on bud drop and flower damage in apricot. Legave *et al.* (1982) recorded higher percentages of flower buds or young flower drop as well as damaged buds or flowers on long shoots than on spurs in 'Polonais'. Similar results were found for long shoots in 'Guillermo' (Albuquerque *et al.* 2003) due to heavy bud drop (more than 90%) and a high number of malformed flower buds. Therefore, long shoots should be eliminated by pruning to save trees resources used in unproductive branches.

Scarce flower bud production is indicative of poor productivity. The production of flower buds has been represented by flower bud density (number of flower buds per branch section). In peach, nectarine (Okie and Werner 1996) and apricot (Albuquerque *et al.* 2004a) flower bud density is highly genotype-dependent. Generally, early blooming apricots ('Palstein', 'Priana' and 'Beliana') showed the highest flower bud density, the best fruit set percentages and also the highest average productivity in a warm area during three consecutive years (Table 1).

Knowledge on the biological behaviour of flower buds provides important information, since floral biology may have a strong influence on the final crop.

POLLEN

Pollen viability plays an important role in the fertilization process. Apricot pollen shows a high percentage of viability and a high number of germinated pollen grains that reach the ovary and the ovule (Fig. 1) in a wide range of temperatures (Vachun 1981; Egea *et al.* 1992) and the amount of produced pollen, for most apricot cultivars tested, was enough for a correct pollination (Egea and Burgos 1993).

The effect of withholding irrigation on pollen quality was evaluated during two postharvest periods in drip-irrigated 'Búlida' trees. The water stress treatment consisted

Table 1 Parameters of flower biology in nine apricot cultivars.^a

Cultivar	% Flower buds drop	Flower bud density (Nº buds/cm ²)	% Fruit set	Productivity (Nº fruits/Nº flower buds)
'Palstein'	52.78 ± 3.43	180.32 ± 10.20	53.77 ± 2.09	25.87 ± 2.42
'Bebeco'	49.41 ± 5.61	175.37 ± 31.55	36.37 ± 5.70	18.60 ± 6.35
'Goldrich'	72.23 ± 4.35	165.65 ± 13.80	12.08 ± 2.16	2.87 ± 1.30
'Beliana'	41.81 ± 6.03	145.42 ± 17.56	63.50 ± 3.30	45.23 ± 8.08
'Priana'	50.53 ± 5.40	133.92 ± 11.94	56.40 ± 2.91	39.93 ± 13.50
'Bergeron'	38.40 ± 4.84	112.16 ± 10.95	14.50 ± 3.08	9.53 ± 4.54
'Colorao'	11.29 ± 2.52	109.96 ± 21.31	7.95 ± 1.06	6.80 ± 1.93
'Pepito'	63.37 ± 3.26	71.34 ± 9.52	13.16 ± 2.33	5.20 ± 2.11
'Guillermo'	60.29 ± 2.86	62.71 ± 7.03	23.43 ± 1.35	11.40 ± 1.86

^a Data elaborated from results published by Albuquerque *et al.* 2004a

Data are means ± standard errors

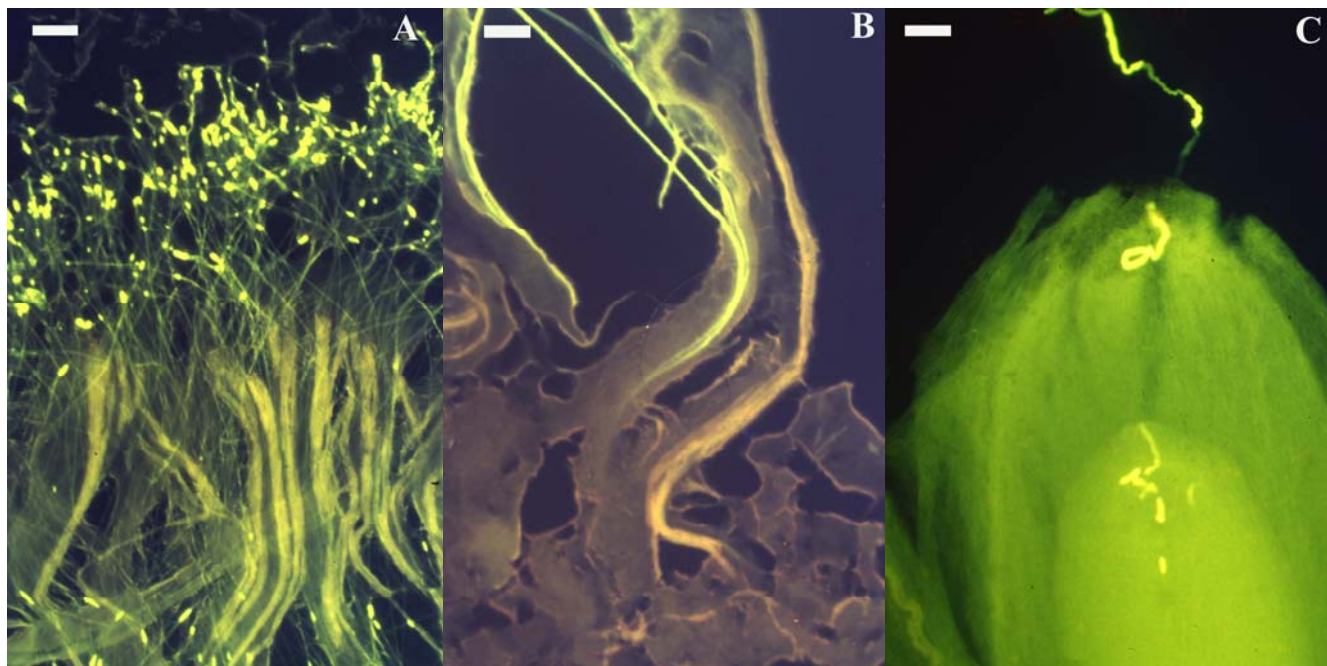


Fig. 1 Pollen germination in pistils of the apricot cultivar 'Pepito del Rubio'. Pollen tube germination on the stigma (A). Pollen tube growth in the style reaching the ovary (B) and detail of a pollen tube entering the ovule (C). Samples were processed 72 hours after pollination under controlled conditions of 20°C. Bars represent 50 µm in (A) and (B) and 10 µm in (C).

in withholding irrigation during 1.5 months immediately after harvest and was found to induce a decrease in pollen germination (Ruiz-Sanchez *et al.* 1999).

Climatic conditions during flowering influence pollen germination and pollen tube growth in different fruit trees such as apricot, apple or pear (*Pyrus communis*) (Burgos *et al.* 2004). Recently, the influence of temperature on sweet cherry pollen germination was evaluated. High temperatures reduced pollen germination only one day after anthesis (Hedhly *et al.* 2003). When several sweet cherry genotypes ('Bing', 'Stark Hardy Giant', 'Van', 'Hedelfingen', 'Blanca de Provenza', 'Burlat', 'Reverchon', 'Talaguera Brillante' and 'Ambrunés') were tested, a different behaviour of the pollen tube growth was found depending on the female cultivar (Hedhly *et al.* 2005a). Furthermore, in that work a significant temperature-genotype interaction affecting the number of pollen tubes reaching the base of the style was reported. In the sweet cherry cultivars 'Sunburst' and 'Cristobalina' increases in temperature reduced pollen germination, but accelerated pollen tube growth. However, pollen tube response was genotype dependent and the number of pollen tubes reaching the base of the style was reduced at 30°C for 'Sunburst' and at 10°C for 'Cristobalina', a cultivar native to Southeastern Spain and adapted to warm conditions (Hedhly *et al.* 2004).

In the peach cultivar 'Hakuho' a negative effect of constant high temperatures (above 25°C) on pollen germination was observed. However, the pollen tube growth in the pistil was faster than at 15 or 20°C (Kozai *et al.* 2004). Accordingly, pollen germination and pollen tube growth kinetics was accelerated when temperature was increased from 10°C to 20°C and 30°C, and a higher number of pollen tubes were found at the base of the style in the peach cultivars 'Rose Diamond', 'Pavía Amarilla de Tolosa' and 'Moret' (Hedhly *et al.* 2005b).

Male sterility is defined as the failure of plants to produce functional anthers, pollen or male gametes (Kaul 1988). When apricot pollen fertility was studied in many cultivars, only three male sterile cultivars ('Arrogante', 'Colorao de Moxó' and 'Colorao') were described (García *et al.* 1988; Burgos 1991). Also the cultivar 'Trevatt Blue' showed anthers containing degenerated microspores, with some failure in tapetal breakdown, which was related to its low fruit set (Lillecrapp *et al.* 1999).

Burgos and Ledbetter (1994) proposed a preliminary

model for the inheritance of male sterility in apricot after observing a relatively high number of male-sterile trees in progenies from controlled hybridisations among fertile cultivars in apricot. This trait is controlled by one recessive gene, which was confirmed in a later work (Burgos and Egea 2001). Other mode of inheritance of male-sterility has been described in several fruit trees (Yamamoto *et al.* 1997; Besnard *et al.* 2000; Yaegaki *et al.* 2003) based in cytoplasmic genes interacting with nuclear genes (gene-cytoplasmic type).

Nowadays, monoculture apricot production seems to be the best option for farmers and cultivars that do not need cross-pollination are chosen. In the case of male-sterile cultivars, yield could be restricted because their production depends on an adequate pollen transfer from other cultivars. This trait can be avoided by breeders through selection of homozygous fertile parents. Also, the information about the inheritance of male sterility has been used to develop molecular markers that will allow detection and elimination of male-sterile plants at the seedling stage (Badenes *et al.* 2000).

OVULES

The stage of development of the ovule at anthesis (just when the flower opens) and its influence on the reproductive process until fruit set have been studied in different species and important differences have been found between them. Thus, in sweet cherry (Eaton 1962; Stösser and Anvari 1982), sour cherry (Stösser and Anvari 1982; Furukawa and Bukovac 1989) or plum (Thompson and Liu 1972) a well developed embryo sac at anthesis was found. However in other *Prunus* species, such as almond (Pimienta and Polito 1983) or apricot (Eaton and Jamont 1964; Toyama 1980; Egea and Burgos 1994; Lillecrapp *et al.* 1999; Albuquerque *et al.* 2002a) a genotype-dependent delay in ovule development has been described.

Frequently, over-maturity of the megagametophyte has been considered a cause of poor fruit set (Eaton 1962; Marro 1976; Stösser and Anvari 1982). However, the delay in embryo sac development at anthesis has also been related to low percentages of fertilisation in apple (Sato *et al.* 1988) and fructification in pear (Jaumien 1968; Herrero 1983), sour cherry (Furukawa and Bukovac 1989) or apricot (Lillecrapp *et al.* 1999). The influence of the cultivar on the deve-

lopmental stage of the ovules was greater than the year in nine apricot cultivars studied (Albuquerque *et al.* 2002a). In those cultivars with low chilling requirements, more than 50% of functional ovules were recorded. However, late-blooming cultivars, with high chilling requirements, had most of their ovules non functional at anthesis and often showed a low fruit set. In a later work, approximately 50% of apricot ovules were found at very immature stages 5 and 6 days after anthesis, which seems to indicate that ovules stopped their development at early maturation steps (Albuquerque *et al.* 2004b). These suggest that a certain degree of ovule development at anthesis is required for a successful fertilisation. Work by other authors supports this hypothesis and an incapacity of immature ovules to attract pollen tubes has been described (Cerovic and Micic 1999; Shimizu and Okada 2000). Different signals provided by the ovary and the ovule are necessary to orient and direct pollen tube growth to the right course (Herrero 2001), and particular secretions from ovary cells, along the pollen tube pathway, are required for the pollen tube to proceed towards the embryo sac (Herrero 2000). Furthermore, changes in the megagametophyte seem to play an important role in the entry of pollen tubes into the ovule. In cotton (*Gossypium hirsutum*), the structure and composition of synergid cells change between pollination and the arrival of pollen tubes (Jensen *et al.* 1983), which enter the ovule through the synergid, causing its degeneration. In *Arabidopsis thaliana* it has been suggested that the egg and synergid cells are necessary to attract the male gametophyte toward the ovule. Also, non-functional or abnormal embryo sacs or ovules with delayed embryo sac development were unable to attract pollen tubes (Ray *et al.* 1997). Pollen tubes lost their way before entering the micropylar channel, which suggests that a functional and well-developed megagametophyte is responsible for pollen tube attraction.

The fertilization process of apricot ovules is poorly understood. The biochemical and genetic events that are implicated or the hormonal changes that occurs during this process have not been deeply studied. There are some works related to changes of starch contents in apricot flowers or in ovules. The high values of photoassimilates stored at anthesis in the flowers decreased whereas the

ovary size increased (Rodrigo *et al.* 2000). When the ovules were observed, primary ovule growth was inversely related to starch content and independent of the pollination (Rodrigo and Herrero 1998). The results of these works suggest a self-supported development of the ovary on its own carbohydrate content.

Different development anomalies of the embryo sac have been observed at different stages of flower development in different species, including apricot (Table 2). Twin nucellus or shortened integuments was the most frequent malformation observed in several apricot cultivars at anthesis. The frequency of malformed apricot ovules was higher when they were analysed few days after anthesis than at full bloom (Burgos and Egea 1993; Burgos *et al.* 1995). In later works, ovules without megasporocyte and with a failure of elongation of the embryo sacs several days after anthesis were classified as malformed (Albuquerque *et al.* 2000) and the presence of ovules without mother cell and embryo sacs were higher than the degenerated ovules at six days from anthesis (Albuquerque *et al.* 2004b).

From the extensive studies carried on, it can be concluded that the frequency of malformed ovules from anthesis to ten days after anthesis in apricot is a trait with a strong genotype influence.

INFLUENCE OF PLANT GROWTH REGULATORS

Plants produce hormones that play a regulatory role in growth, development and reproduction process. Different plant growth regulators can be useful to regulate bud development, initiation or termination of bud dormancy, promotion or delay of flowering, thinning of flowers, fruit set and fruit development, etc. (Naylor 1984).

Promalin® is a mixture of the cytokinins 6-benzyladenine (BA) and gibberellins GA₄ and GA₇, which has been applied to different fruit trees to improve fruit set and also the fruit quality (Rai and Bist 1991; Son and Kuden 2005).

The effect of different gibberellins was observed on flower bud development in peach (Reinoso *et al.* 2002). The treatment with the gibberellin 16,17-dihydro GA₅ was the best and more consistent for enhancing flower bud development. Gibberellic acid (GA₃) applied at late developmental

Table 2 Percentages of malformed ovules or aborted ovaries found in different fruit tree crops.

Specie/cultivar	%	Examined ovules	Type of malformation	Reference
Pear/ 'Decana del Comizio'	25	500	Embryo sacs with necrosis, ovules with two embryo sacs	Bini 1972; Jaumien 1968
Avocado/ 'Fuerte'	20.7	692	Twin ovules and embryo sacs, extra-ovary ovules, intra-ovary abnormal positions, additional nuclei and immature ovules	Tomer <i>et al.</i> 1976
Avocado/ 'Ettiger'	40	1.400		
Avocado/ 'Hass'	15.6	416		
Avocado/ 'Tova'	15.3	431		
Olive/ 'Manzanillo'	12	158	Ovules with a small cavity at the ovule micropylar end	Rallo <i>et al.</i> 1981
Olive/ 'Rubra'	10	134		
Olive/ 'Swan Hill'	84	289		
Apple/ 'Golden Delicious'	24	50	Two or less completely developed embryo sacs	Forino <i>et al.</i> 1987
Apple/ 'Starkrimson'	23	62		
Sweet cherry/ 'Windsor'	4.8	21	Degenerated embryo sacs	Eaton 1959
Almond/ 'Nonpareil'	-	-	Delayed ovule development	Pimienta and Polito 1982, 1983
Banana/ 'Chinese Cavendish'	-	-	Protusion of the nucellus and nucellar cap through the micropyle	Fortescue and Turner 2005
Banana/ 'Hsien Jen Chaio'	-	-		
Apricot/ 'Moniquí'	0	80	Twin nucellus or shortened integuments, which leave part of the nucellus in contact with the ovary wall	Egea and Burgos 1994
Apricot/ 'Pepito del Cura'	0	40		
Apricot/ 'Gitano'	1.25	80		
Apricot/ 'Velazquez fino'	1.5	80		
Apricot/ 'Pepito del Rubio'	2.5	80		
Apricot/ 'Velazquez tardío'	0	40		
Apricot/ 'Carrascal'	0	80		
Apricot/ 'Candelo'	1.25	80		
Apricot/ 'Velazquez fino'*	18.5	302	"	Burgos <i>et al.</i> 1995
Apricot/ 'Gitano'*	24.3	321		
Apricot/ 'Moniquí Fino'*	18.8	341	"	Burgos and Egea 1993
Apricot/ 'Palstein'*	1	20	Ovules without megasporocyte or no elongated embryo sacs	Albuquerque <i>et al.</i> 2000
Apricot/ 'Goldrich'*	2	20		

*Ovules collected from the day of anthesis to several days later

stages also hastened floral bud development and shortened the time to bloom. Also gibberellins may inhibit flowering in fruit trees. It is thought that these plant regulators, produced by seeds in developing fruits, move from fruits to nearby nodes and, there, they inhibit development of new flower primordia (Webster and Spencer 2000). The application of exogenous GA₃ can be used as an indirect thinning method, reducing thinning costs, since during flower bud induction may affect the floral process and partially reduce flowering in different species such as Japanese plum (*Prunus salicina* Lindl. cvs. 'Black Diamond' and 'Black Gold') (González-Rossia *et al.* 2006), the 'Springlady' peach and the 'Zincal 5' nectarine (González-Rossia *et al.* 2007) or the 'Patterson' apricot (Southwick *et al.* 1995). Additionally, gibberellin application combined with high temperatures has been found to induce early embryo sac degeneration in the sweet cherry cv. 'Satohnishiki' (Beppu *et al.* 2001).

Blooming time is very important to avoid risk of frost damage. Delayed blooming times have been produced by using plant growth regulators (Dennis 1976; Sedgley 1990). In a recent work, the application of gibberellic acid and ethephon at high concentrations delayed full bloom and reduced percentages of opened flowers and fruit set in the apricot cv. 'Shahroudi' (Moghadam and Mokhtarian 2006).

Polyamines (PAs) are involved in stimulation of cell division, regulation of rhizogenesis, embryogenesis, floral induction and differentiation of floral organs (Evans and Malmberg 1989; Martin-Tanguy 1996; Kakkar *et al.* 2000). Exogenous application of putrescine extended ovule longevity and the effective pollination period in pear (Crisosto *et al.* 1988, 1992). PAs has been suggested to stimulate fruit set and the initial phase of fruit development for several fruits, such as apple (Costa and Bagni 1983; Biasi *et al.* 1991), pear (Crisosto *et al.* 1986, 1988) and olive (*Olea europaea* L.) (Rugini and Mencuccini 1985), among others. Kushad and Orvos (1990) found that the main percentage of the total PA content was localized in the reproductive organs, and there were changes in conjugated and free PAs related to *Citrus* flower growth. Pritsa and Voyiatzis (2004) studied the fluctuations of free and conjugated spermidine and spermine in different organs of two olive cultivars, finding a relationship between PA fluctuations and developmental processes such as floral differentiation, shoot growth, anthesis, fertilisation and fruit growth.

In apricot polyamine levels varied differently with ovary development depending on the cultivar (Alburquerque *et al.* 2006). The exogenous application of putrescine to 'Bergeron' flowers, which had delayed ovules at anthesis, increased the percentage of functional ovules. These results support that exogenous polyamine application may hasten ovary and ovule development.

SELF-(IN)COMPATIBILITY

Incompatibility is the inability of a fertile seeded-plant to produce zygotes after self- or cross-pollination (self- or cross-incompatibility). This reaction is an active, regulated constraint of pollen tube growth where, depending on the species and the system operating, the process may be blocked at the initial steps of pollen hydration and germination on the stigma (Dickinson 1995), during pollen tube growth in the style (Matton *et al.* 1994) or further down in the ovary (Sage *et al.* 1994).

Recognising and rejecting their own pollen before fertilisation allows self-incompatible plants to promote outcrossing and improve genetic variability, which is considered to play an important role in the evolutionary success of the angiosperms. Outcrossing establishes a regulated degree of heterozygosity in the population.

Although, traditionally, the European group of apricot (within which the apricots grown in Europe, North America, South Africa and Australia are included) has been described as self-compatible (Mehlenbacher *et al.* 1991), in the last two decades many widely-cultivated apricot cultivars have been described as self-incompatible (see review by Burgos *et al.* 2004). In fruit trees, incompatibility complicates horticultural practices because self-incompatible clones require the addition of pollinators and the yield depends on abundant pollen transfer among the trees.

Most of the new apricot selections are self-compatible. However, in breeding programmes some self-incompatible parentals from the USA have been used to introduce virus resistance. Characterization for this trait in the progenies generated may allow detection of self-incompatible plants at the seedling stage and reduce cost considerably. Also, this information can help to avoid cross-incompatibility, which appears due to a short genetic base and reduced number of parentals used in crosses.

Genetic control

In *Prunus*, the incompatibility system operating in most of the studied species is controlled by one gene with several different alleles. Pollen is rejected when its *S*-allele is present in the genotype of the style (Fig. 2A, 2B) and may grow if the *S*-alleles are different (Fig. 2C). Hence, an incompatibility reaction will occur between two plants if their genotypes at the *S* locus do not differ in at least one allele (Heslop-Harrison 1975).

Sweet cherry was the first *Prunus* species where this model was described (Crane and Brown 1937). The same mechanism has been demonstrated in almond (Dicenta and García 1993) and apricot (Burgos *et al.* 1997). However, a different mode of inheritance was found in Japanese plum, for which it has been proposed that two genes with epistatic relationships control the trait (Arora and Singh 1990).

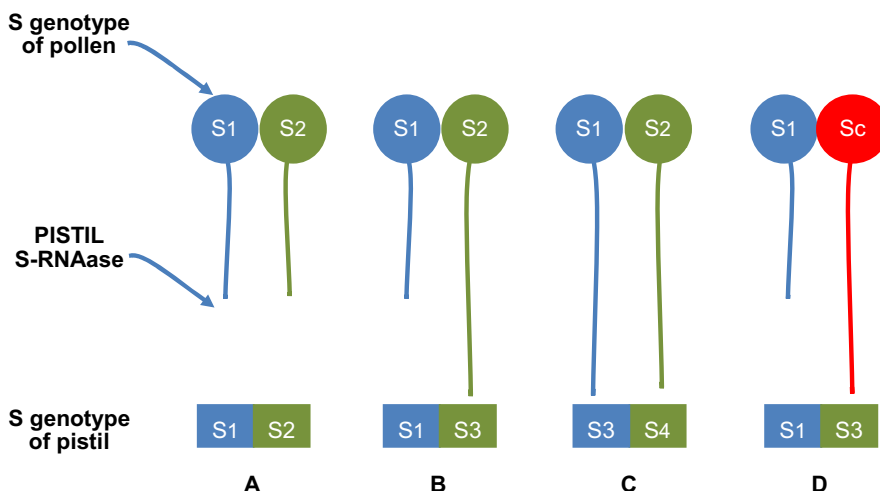


Fig. 2 Representation of the self-(in)compatibility system in apricot. After self-pollination pollen tube growth is arrested in the style (A). After cross-pollination only pollen tubes with *S*-alleles of different genotype that is found in the style, will grow (B) and (C). During a self-compatibility reaction, pollen tubes with the *Sc* genotype will grow in any pistil (D).

In apricot, alleles for self-compatibility would allow pollen tube growth in any style (**Fig. 2D**). Self-incompatibility alleles would stop pollen tube growth if the same allele was present in the pistil and the pollen grain (Burgos *et al.* 1997). Therefore, cross-incompatibility will occur if two cultivars do not differ in at least one S allele. Two groups of cross-incompatible cultivars have been described after controlled pollinations. One of them includes three Hungarian apricot cultivars (Nyéki and Szabó 1995) and the other the North American cultivars 'Lambertin', 'Goldrich' and 'Hargrand' (Egea and Burgos 1996).

Molecular aspects of incompatibility

Within the Rosaceae, a correlation between known genotypes for self-(in)compatibility and bands resulting from electrophoresis of stylar extracts has been found in Japanese pear (Sassa *et al.* 1992; Hiratsuka *et al.* 2001) where the proteins have been characterised as glycoproteins with RNase activity (Hiratsuka 1992; Sassa *et al.* 1993; Hiratsuka *et al.* 1995; Hiratsuka and Okada 1995). Similar results have been found in apple (Sassa *et al.* 1994), and European and Chinese pears (Tomimoto *et al.* 1996).

In *Prunus*, similar studies have been carried out in sweet cherry (Mau *et al.* 1982; Boskovic and Tobutt 1996; Boskovic and Tobutt 2001) and almond (Boskovic *et al.* 1997; Tao *et al.* 1997; Certal *et al.* 2002). In our laboratory, a good correlation was established between RNases from stylar extracts and the available information on (in)compatibility genotypes of different apricot cultivars. It was also demonstrated that these proteins were inherited as if they were the products of the S gene (Burgos *et al.* 1998) and this methodology was used to genotype unknown cultivars and selections from the breeding programme (Albuquerque *et al.* 2002b).

A further step in the molecular research on S-alleles in fruit trees was the use of a combination of S-allele-specific primers, designed from non-conserved sequences from each allele in apple, and the digestion of PCR products with S-allele-specific restriction enzymes (Janssens *et al.* 1995). Results from this approach to the identification of S-alleles correlated perfectly with information on genotypes from phenotypic and RNases analyses and it is a rapid and useful method for determination of the genotype of different apple cultivars (Sakurai *et al.* 1997, 2000). In apple 15 different S-alleles have been identified using this methodology (Broothaerts 2003).

The same strategy, with or without modifications, has been used to design specific primers for S-alleles in almond (Tamura *et al.* 2000; Channuntapipat *et al.* 2003), pear (Zuccherelli *et al.* 2002), sweet cherry (Tao *et al.* 1999; Yamane *et al.* 2000; Wiersma *et al.* 2001; Sonneveld *et al.* 2001) and Japanese apricot (Yaegaki *et al.* 2001).

The applicability of the S-gene-specific consensus PCR primers designed from sweet cherry sequences was tested in apricot (Halász *et al.* 2005). Cherry consensus primers amplified 11 out of 16 possible alleles.

In apricot, the alleles S₁, S₂ and S₄ have been sequenced completely (Romero *et al.* 2004) and were found to be highly haplotype-specific. Additionally, the S-RNases were expressed only in style tissues but not in pollen or leaves whereas the F-box allelic variants (probably the pollen determinants) were only expressed in pollen. All these results support these genes as candidates for the pistil and pollen determinants of genetic incompatibility in apricot. A further step in this research allowed the design of primers from these sequences in order to amplify different S-alleles in apricot. Combining two sets of consensus primers to amplify fragments containing the first and the second S-RNase introns all S-alleles could be distinguished (Vilanova *et al.* 2005), including the self-compatibility allele that has been found in all self-compatible apricot cultivars tested to date (Albuquerque *et al.* 2002b) including self-compatible Iranian cultivars (Hajilou *et al.* 2006).

A recent study goes further inside the molecular charac-

teristics of the self-compatibility allele and found that whereas the *Sc-RNase* is unaltered, an insertion was found in the *SFBc* gene, resulting in the expression of a truncated protein. Additionally, the allele S₂ from the cultivar Canino (S₂Sc) was found, by PCR analysis of its progenies, to overcome also the incompatibility barrier. However, differences were not found with the wild allele at the S locus and therefore other factors, independent from this locus, are also required for gametophytic self-incompatibility in apricot (Vilanova *et al.* 2006).

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