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Genome-wide identification of the *Medicago* sativa L. MYB family and its transcriptional dynamics during pollen development



Zhenfei Yan¹, Yaqi Feng¹, Qi Yan¹, Pan Xu¹, Fan Wu¹, Caibin Zhang¹ and Jiyu Zhang^{1*}

Abstract

Background The myeloblastosis (MYB) gene family plays crucial roles in the development of anthers and the establishment of pollen morphology during plant growth. However, little is known about the role of MYB transcription factors in pollen development in alfalfa (*Medicago sativa* L.).

Results In this study, we identified 161 *MsMYBs* in the alfalfa genome, including 34 1R-MYBs, 123 R2R3-MYBs, 3 3R-MYBs, and 1 4R-MYBs (categorized by the number of repeats). These were classified into six subfamilies based on the phylogenetic analysis, conserved structural domains, and gene structures. All *MsMYBs* were predicted to be hydrophilic and localized in the cell nucleus. The promoter regions contained three classes of cis-regulatory elements related to pollen development, as well as a variable set of functionally diverse elements, including hormone responsiveness, growth and development, and stress responsiveness elements. A transcriptome and qRT-PCR analysis revealed 12 *MsMYBs* with anther-specific expression and exhibited distinct expression patterns. Some *MsMYBs* showed a close phylogenetic relationship with *Arabidopsis MYBs* related to pollen development, such as *MsMYB49* and *MsMYB100*, were found to be localized in the nucleus upon subcellular localization analysis. This genetic proximity suggests a potential role for these *MsMYBs* in the developmental processes of pollen.

Conclusions This study provides a comprehensive understanding of *MsMYBs* in alfalfa and elucidates their potential roles and expression patterns in pollen development.

Keywords Medicago sativa L., MYB gene family, Pollen development

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Background

Alfalfa (*Medicago sativa* L.), a widely cultivated perennial leguminous plant and important energy crop, plays a significant role not only in animal husbandry but also in soil improvement and ecosystem services [1]. To enhance the breeding of superior alfalfa varieties and the rate of variety renewal, heterosis is a highly effective approach. However, mechanical emasculation is not only time-consuming, labor-intensive, and costly but also detrimental to plant growth, leading to reduced yields of hybrid varieties, which poses a challenge to commercial breeding and seed production [2]. To address these issues, the



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development of efficient hybrid breeding methods is necessary. Mining genes that regulate pollen development, gene editing, and the use of male sterile lines for hybrid production is the most economical and effective method to utilize heterosis in alfalfa [3-5].

All eukaryotic organisms contain the MYB transcription factor (TF) family, which is one of the largest TF families in plants [6]. Its members contain a highly conserved MYB domain and regulate a variety of biological processes in plants, including cell differentiation, growth and development, secondary metabolism, and responses to biotic and abiotic stresses [7, 8]. MYBs can be divided into four types based on the number of repeat units: 1R-MYB (1-repeat), R2R3-MYB (2-repeats), R1R2R3-MYB (3-repeats), and 4R-MYB (4-repeats). Each repeat sequence contains 50-53 amino acids, encoding three alpha-helices, with the second and third helices forming a helix-turn-helix (HTH) structure [9]. 1-RMYBs play an important role in regulating plant transcription and maintaining chromosome structure. R2R3-MYB family genes contain two conserved R2 and R3 repeat sequences in the MYB domain, with transcriptional activation or repression abilities at the C-terminus. Its members are numerous and have a wide range of functions (e.g., cell differentiation, secondary metabolism, and environmental responses) [10]. R1R2R3-MYB subfamily genes are mainly involved in the regulation of cell differentiation and cell cycle progression [11]. The conserved structural domain of 4R-MYB subfamily genes consists of four R1/R2 repeat sequences; relatively little research has focused on this subfamily in plants.

In flowering plants, normal development of the tapetal layer, pollen wall formation, and normal dehiscence of anthers are key steps to maintain plant fertility [12]. Errors in these processes can lead to male sterility. A large number of studies have shown that MYBs are involved in the development of the tapetal layer, pollen wall formation, and anther dehiscence. After the initial formation of the tapetal layer cells, AtMYB33 and AtMYB35 are strongly expressed in tapetal layer cells, pollen mother cells, and microspore cells [13, 14]. Mutations in these genes result in the abnormal development of the tapetal layer, leading to an inability to form pollen and a male-sterile phenotype. In an *atmyb35* mutant, the number of tapetal layer cell divisions increases significantly during meiosis, resulting in a non-uniform cell layer; in addition, the tapetal layer cannot secrete callose enzymes and the tetrads are continuously squeezed by the enlarged vacuolated tapetal layer until they are completely degraded [14]. The AtMYB26 protein is present in the anthers and is directly regulated by the auxin response factor ARF8.4. MYB26 functions upstream of NST1 and NST2, directly inducing the expression of NST1 and NST2, involved in secondary thickening in the anther [15]. It is speculated that AtMYB26 promotes anther dehiscence. Studies have also found that GhMYB24 transcript levels are high in anthers and mainly in pollen. Its overexpression in *Arabidopsis* leads to anthers not dehiscing and a reduction in pollen grains, causing male sterility. Additionally, GhMYB24 interacts with intracellular GhJAZ1/2, affecting the jasmonic acid pathway, thereby affecting stamen development [16]. Therefore, MYB genes affect pollen development directly as well as indirectly through hormonal pathways.

Although the alfalfa MYB gene family members were reported in 2019 [17], a comprehensive confirmation of their chromosomal distribution and detailed identification was not available. This was due to the scarcity of genomic and annotation data for alfalfa at that time. In addition, the expression patterns of MYBs in the pollen development in alfalfa have not been determined. Therefore, to address this knowledge gap, a comprehensive whole-genome and transcriptome sequencing analyses of the MYB family in alfalfa were performed. The results of this study provide a basis for further analyzing the functions of *MsMYBs* and clarifying their roles in the pollen development process. Furthermore, this study provides reliable target genes for gene editing to generate male sterile lines.

Results

Morphological characteristics of alfalfa anthers at different developmental stages

We collected flower buds at 8 days of growth. As the buds grew, gradual morphological changes were observed (Fig. 1A). Semi-thin sections were prepared for each stage of bud development. The tapetal layer mainly appeared at stages S8 and S9, at which point the anther locule microspore cells had not developed into mature pollen grains. At stage S10, the tapetal layer cells underwent programmed cell death and were nearly undetectable; however, mature pollen grains began to appear. At stage S11, the microspore cells completely developed into mature pollen grains, and the anther locule ruptured. At stage S13, the anther outer wall ruptured, and the pollen grains were released from the anther chamber (Fig. 1B).

Identification and analysis of alfalfa MsMYBs

In contrast to previous studies, our genomic analysis identified 161 MYB genes in the Zhongmu No.1 genome, a discrepancy likely attributable to underlying genomic variations. These MYBs were numbered in increasing order based on the alfalfa genome sequence and are designated as *MsMYB1* to *MsMYB161*. Detailed information about these MYB is presented in



Fig. 1 Examination of alfalfa anther phenotypes. (A) Epigenetic morphology of flower buds at various developmental stages. (B) Observation of anther morphology across different developmental stages. *E*, epidermis; *En*, endothecium, *T*, tapetum, *PG*, pollen grains

Table S2. The lengths of the *MsMYB* polypeptide chains varied from 89 to 1771 amino acids, as shown in Supplementary Table 1. Additionally, the predicted molecular weights ranged from 10.2 kDa to 196.1 kDa, and the theoretical pI values ranged from 4.25 to 10.33, as indicated in Table S2. All MsMYB proteins were hydrophilic, and the proteins were predicted to be localized in the cell nucleus.

Chromosomal localization of MsMYBs

Through DNA sequence annotation, the 161 *MsMYBs* were distributed across eight chromosomes (Fig. 2). The analysis showed that 25 *MsMYBs* were located on chromosome 1, 13 on chromosome 2, 22 on chromosome 3, 17 on chromosome 4, 21 on chromosome 5, 14 on chromosome 6, 27 on chromosome 7, and 19 on chromosome 8. In addition, chromosomal locations of 3 *MsMYBs* could not be determined. Notably, chromosome 7 contained the most *MsMYBs* (27), while chromosome 2 had the fewest (13).

Phylogenetic, gene structure, and motif pattern analyses of *MsMYBs* in alfalfa

To explore evolutionary relationships among MsMYB genes, a neighbor-joining phylogenetic tree was constructed using MEGA11 based on amino acid sequences (Fig. 3A,). The MsMYB genes formed six clades (A-F). Clade F was the largest, with 51 MsMYB members. Clade A had 13 MsMYB genes, clade B had 18 MsMYB genes, clade C had 17 MsMYB genes, clade D had 25 MsMYB genes, and clade E had 37 MsMYB genes. To investigate the evolutionary relationships between alfalfa MYB genes and their Arabidopsis counterparts, we constructed a phylogenetic tree, which classified both into six distinct subgroups (Fig. S1). Notably, Clade F harbored the largest number of MYB members and included functionally characterized AtMYB genes. This phylogenetic context provides critical insights for inferring potential roles of MsMYB genes. For instance, AtMYB35 and AtMYB80, located within Clade F, are well-documented to play crucial roles in anther tapetum development and pollen



Fig. 2 Distribution of MsMYB genes across the 16 chromosomes of the coconut genome. The scale indicates the length of the coconut chromosomes

maturation. Strikingly, their closely neighboring *MsMYB* homologs (*MsMYB48*, *MsMYB49*, and *MsMYB100*) exhibit analogous genomic positioning and expression patterns, strongly suggesting conserved functional importance during anther development.

Additionally, 3D structural predictions indicated that, in most cases, members of the MYB gene family have similar 3D structures, with particularly high similarity among members within the same group (Fig. S2). For instance, the four gene family members *MsMYB22*, *MsMYB85*, *MsMYB86*, and *MsMYB133* in clade F exhibited a very high degree of similarity in three-dimensional structures.

To examine the organization of exons and introns, the genomic and cDNA sequences of all MsMYB members were compared. The majority of the coding sequences were interrupted by introns, with the number of introns ranging from 0 to 23 (Fig. 3A). The intron-exon structures of *MsMYBs* in clade B had the greatest diversity; MsMYB115, MsMYB56, MsMYB81, and MsMYB97 did not contain introns, while MsMYB5 had the most exons (22) and introns (23). The remaining MsMYBs had intron numbers ranging from 1 (MsMYB54) to 15 (MsMYB159). Clades A, C, D, E, and F had relatively similar intronexon structures; most genes had 1 to 5 exons, while MsMYB18 and MsMYB52 contained 10 and 11 exons, respectively, indicating a conserved intron distribution within these *MsMYBs* lineages. The differences in the composition of MsMYBs suggest significant biases within the M. sativa genome. Additionally, 20 MsMYBs across all clades contained both 5' and 3' UTRs, while the remaining lacked either the 5' or 3' UTR, indicating that the expression of *MsMYB* genes is influenced by at least three different post-transcriptional regulatory processes.

To further understand the functions of *MsMYBs*, conserved motifs were analyzed. Ten motifs were identified. Based on the phylogenetic analysis, many closely related proteins exhibited common motifs in the same arrangement and position, suggesting that MYB members within a subgroup have similar biological functions (Fig. 3A). The most common conserved motifs in R2R3-MYB genes were motif 1, motif 2, motif 4, motif 5, and motif 6, which were 15, 19, 21, 15, and 16 amino acids (Table S3), respectively. The HTH (helix-turn-helix) structure was formed by regularly spaced tryptophan residues, consistent with previous findings in other species [18].

Cis-acting regulatory elements in the MsMYB promoter regions

Genes with similar expression patterns may share common transcriptional regulatory mechanisms and binding sites for trans-acting factors. Cis-acting DNA sequences play a key role in the transcriptional control of spatiotemporal gene expression in response to developmental and environmental cues [19]. Moreover, differences in cis-acting elements among members of a gene family can provide insight into functional divergence after gene duplication. Therefore, we analyzed the promoter regions of each MsMYB for cis-acting regulatory elements (CAREs) by searching 2 kb upstream sequences (Fig. 4). We identified three types of CAREs: hormone responsiveness, growth and development, and stress responsiveness (Fig. S3). Hormones are crucial in the development of pollen; in the hormone response category, 11 cis-elements were detected (Fig. S4), including ABRE (34.5%) related to abscisic acid (ABA), CGTCA-motif and TGACG-motif (34.1%) related to jasmonic acid methyl ester (MeJA), four cis-elements related to auxin response (AuxRR-core, AuxRE, TGA-element, and TGA-box)



Fig. 3 Polygenic relationship, gene structure, and motif composition of the MsMYBs in alfalfa. (A) The phylogenetic tree was constructed using MEGA11.0 with the Neighbor-Joining (NJ) method. Ten motifs are displayed in colored rectangles. The exon-intron structures of the 161 putative MsMYB genes are shown, with exons represented by green rectangles and introns by black lines. Yellow rectangles denote untranslated regions (UTRs) of mRNA, upstream of the start codon (5'-UTR) and downstream of the stop codon (3'-UTR). (B) Distribution of ten conserved motifs within MsMYB genes, each represented by a numbered colored box. Sequence logos of the amino acid residues of the ten conserved motifs of MsMYB proteins are also presented



Fig. 4 Analysis of cis-regulatory element distribution in the MsMYB promoters. Cis-elements in the MsMYBs are marked with different colors

(9%), P-box and GARE-motif related to gibberellin (GA) responsiveness (5.8%), SARE and TCA-element related to salicylic acid (SA) (10.5%). Promoter regions of four *MsMYBs* contained all of these cis-regulatory

elements. In the plant growth and development category, seven cis-regulatory elements were retrieved, including the Meristem expression element (CAT-box), endosperm expression element (GCN4_motif), and circadian elements, with three *MsMYBs* containing all of these elements. In the stress responsiveness category, four ciselements were detected, including anaerobic induction element (ARE), low-temperature responsiveness (LTR), defense and stress responsiveness (TC-rich repeats), and (MYB) drought-inducibility (MBS), with ten *MsMYBs* containing all of these elements.

Synteny analysis of MsMYBs

Gene duplication is an important mechanism underlying functional diversity. To identify duplication events in MsMYBs, we performed a collinearity analysis using MCScanX software. A total of 158 MYBs had 37 pairs of segmental duplications, with the most duplications on chromosome 7 (Fig. 5A, Table S4). The expansion of the MsMYB family on the chromosomes indicates that whole-genome duplication (WGD) led to balanced gene drive [20]. By calculating the ratio of non-synonymous to synonymous substitutions (K_{a}/K_{s}) , we estimated the rate of evolution and selective pressure of the MsMYB family. The K_a/K_s ratio was less than 1 for all genes, with values ranging from 0 to 0.91, indicating that *MsMYBs* in the *M*. sativa genome mainly evolved under purifying selection, in which deleterious mutations are removed from the population [21].

Using MCScanX, we analyzed synteny between MsMYB and MYB in three closely related species and one distant species (*Arabidopsis, Cicer arietinum, Trifolium pratense* L., and *Medicago truncatula*). The genome sizes of these species were as follows: *Arabidopsis* (115 Mb), *C. arietinum* (513 Mb), *T. pratense* (399 Mb), and *M.*

truncatula (414 Mb). There were 194 pairs of homologs between *M. sativa* and *T. pratense*, followed by 192 pairs in comparisons with *M. truncatula*, 170 pairs with *C. arietinum*, and 95 pairs with *Arabidopsis* (Fig. 5B, Table S5). These results indicate that *M. sativa* is more closely related to *T. pratense* than to the other three species.

Transcriptomic profiles and differential expression of *MsMYBs* in alfalfa anthers at different developmental stages

To explore transcriptomic dynamics during the development of mature pollen grains from microspore cells, we collected anthers from stages S8 to S11 for transcriptome sequencing. Compared with levels at stage S8, 290 genes were significantly upregulated and 307 were downregulated at stage S9, 1641 genes were significantly upregulated and 1326 were downregulated at stage S10, and 3136 genes were significantly upregulated and 2145 were downregulated at stage S11. A Venn diagram showed that 193 differentially expressed genes (DEGs) were commonly upregulated and 135 DEGs were commonly downregulated at stages S9, S10, and S11 (Fig. 6A). Heatmaps and a principal component analysis (PCA) revealed that the transcriptomic profiles at S8-S10 were relatively similar and differed significantly from the transcriptome at stage S11 (Fig. 6B). Based on the state of pollen development, we speculate that the complete development of microspore cells into mature pollen grains is a key event associated with changes in anther transcriptome dynamics.



Fig. 5 Chromosome covariance analysis of MsMYB genes. (**A**) Circos plot illustrating the distribution of MsMYB genes among eight scaffold chromosomes and synteny analysis within the alfalfa genome. Annotations on the fragments represent different chromosomes, with numbers in the outer circle indicating their positions. The approximate gene positions are marked with short black lines. Paralogous MsMYBs in alfalfa are mapped to their respective locations in the circular diagram. Blue-green and grey lines indicate segmental duplication pairs between MsMYBs and within the whole genome, respectively. (**B**) Synteny analysis of MsMYB genes between alfalfa and four other species. Gray lines in the background signify collinear blocks within alfalfa and other plant genomes, while red lines highlight syntenic MsMYB gene pairs



Fig. 6 Differential MsMYBs expression in anther development stages. (**A**) Venn diagram displaying the intersection of significantly up-regulated and down-regulated DEGs between stages S9, S10, and S11. (**B**) Heatmaps and principal component analysis (PCA) reveal the relationships between transcriptomes. (**C**) GO enrichment bubble chart of upregulated DEGs during stages S9, S10, and S11. (**D**) Expression patterns of MsMYBs during anther development. Color scales with Z scores beside the heatmap indicate gene expression levels, with low and high transcript abundance indicated by blue and red, respectively. Error bars represent standard deviation, and asterisks denote significant differences between control and treatments, with *P < 0.05, **P < 0.001, ***P < 0.001, ***P < 0.001



Fig. 7 Expression analysis of MsMYB genes in various tissues and phylogenetic trees of MYB proteins. (A) Heatmap of differentially expressed MsMYBs in leaf, root, stem, bud, and anther. Color scales with Z scores beside the heatmap indicate gene expression levels, with low and high transcript abundance indicated by blue and red, respectively. (B) Phylogenetic tree of MYBs in *Arabidopsis, Pisum sativum, Trifolium pratense* L., *Medicago truncatula*, and *Medicago sativa* L, classified into seven subgroups labeled from Clade A to Clade G with different colors. Different symbols represent different species. (C) MsMYB49 and MsMYB100 are localized in nucleus. Marker represents a known marker protein localized in nucleus

Enrichment analysis of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) revealed that, in comparison to stages S9 and S11, DEGs at stage S10 were significantly enriched in processes related to cell wall remodeling and lipid synthesis metabolism, indicating the critical nature of this stage in the maturation of pollen grains from microspore cells in alfalfa (Fig. 6C).

Heatmap and quantitative real-time PCR (qRT-PCR) analyses identified 12 alfalfa MYB (MsMYB) transcripts with significant expression changes during microspore development into mature pollen grains (Fig. 6D). Notably, *MsMYB49, MsMYB108,* and *MsMYB152* exhibited a progressive increase in expression throughout development, while *MsMYB14* and *MsMYB126* showed a decline. Early in anther development (S8), key processes include tapetal layer cell development and the breakdown of the tetrad callose structure. The tapetal layer synthesizes and transports nutrients to the anther chamber, supporting meiosis in pollen mother cells and microspore development. At S8, the tapetal layer commences degradation, and lipids like sporopollenin, essential for pollen wall formation, are synthesized and transported to

microspore surfaces via Ubisch bodies, ensuring pollen wall stability and viability. As pollen matures, the anther chamber ruptures, releasing pollen. We hypothesize that early-expressed *MsMYB* genes participate in tapetal layer and tetrad development and degradation, late-expressed *MsMYB* genes contribute to pollen wall synthesis, and those with intermediate expression patterns may play a role in overall pollen development.

Expression patterns of *MsMYBs* in different tissues and subcellular localization

To explore the expression patterns of these 12 *MsMYB* genes across various tissues, transcriptome data for roots, leaves, stems, and buds were retrieved from the alfalfa database. The heatmap and qRT-PCR analysis revealed that these 12 *MsMYB* genes were highly expressed exclusively in anthers and minimally in other tissues (Fig. 7A, Table S6). Interestingly, analysis of the promoter cis-acting elements of these 12 *MsMYBs* revealed that they contain a significantly higher number of hormone-responsive cis-acting elements compared to other *MsMYBs*. Given the critical role of hormones in anther development and

the proper establishment of pollen wall morphology, this may represent a potential mechanism underlying the anther-specific expression of these 12 MsMYBs. To investigate the potential biological functions and evolutionary relationships of these MsMYBs during pollen development, homologs were identified in Arabidopsis, Pisum sativum, Trifolium pratense L., and Medicago truncatula, and a phylogenetic tree was constructed using MEGA11. These genes clustered with MYBs from other plant species, forming seven distinct clades (Fig. 7B). Previous studies have implicated AtMYB35 and AtMYB80 in pollen development; accordingly, we found that these genes, along with AtMYB35 and AtMYB80, were grouped in clade F. MsMYB49 and MsMYB100 cluster within the same phylogenetic clade and exhibit high sequence homology to AtMYB80 and AtMYB35, with conserved three-dimensional protein structures (Fig. S5, Fig. S6)., were subjected to subcellular localization in alfalfa protoplasts (Fig. 7C). The results mirrored those in Arabidopsis thaliana, with both MsMYB49 and MsMYB100 localized to the nucleus, suggesting potential similar functions that warrant further experimental investigation.

Discussion

MYBs belong to one of the largest families of TFs in plants. Ample research has shown that MYBs are involved in cell cycle regulation, anther and pollen development, plant hormone responses, and stress responses in plants [22, 23]. They are essential for plant survival and are found across a wide range of plant taxa. In this study, 161 MsMYBs were identified through systematic phylogenetic and homology analyses with the whole genome sequences of Arabidopsis and Medicago sativa. The MYB genes could be divided into six clades. Many MYB TFs have been identified in plant genomes, consistent with their key functions [24–26]. For example, 196 MYBs have been identified in Arabidopsis [27], 197 in Populus trichocarpa [28], 179 in Cocos nucifera [18], 264 in Primulina swinglei [29], and 293 in Brassica rapa [30]. Differences in gene family size among species may be due to gene family contraction or expansion in various lineages. In addition, the protein sequences of MsMYB family members exhibit different lengths, ranging from 89 (MsMYB70) to 1347 (MsMYB41) amino acids, with an average length of 362 amino acids. Their molecular weights also varied, from 10.26 kDa (MsMYB145) to 151.36 kDa (MsMYB5), with an average molecular weight of 41.10 kDa. The theoretical isoelectric point ranged from 4.25 (MsMYB68) to 10.33 (MsMYB107), with an average theoretical isoelectric point of 7.02. In a study of *Primulina eburnean* [31], the amino acid lengths ranged from 75 to 1056, with an average length of 386 amino acids, the molecular weight ranged from 18.64 kDa to 99.01 kDa, and the isoelectric point ranged from 4.92 to 10.2. This previous research and the results of our study further support the hypothesis that the MYB family shows significant evolutionary conservation across plant species.

Gene structure analyses are useful for studying the evolutionary relationships within gene families. Our analyses of gene structure and conserved protein motifs show that mosts, like those of other plant species, consisted of 2-5 exons and 1-5 introns; however, there was considerable variation in the number and length of introns and UTRs among the 161 MsMYBs. Similar results have been found in Cocos nucifera L [18]. and Primulina eburnean [31]. UTRs play an important role in the post-transcriptional regulation of gene expression, such as controlling the stability, localization, and translation of mRNA [32, 33]. Specific regulatory elements in introns can also affect gene expression patterns [34]. Genes with more and longer introns may have a slower rate of transcription because the splicing process takes longer to complete. This could lead to lower mRNA and protein levels as well as a longer mRNA half-life in certain tissues or developmental stages. In addition, longer introns may also contain regulatory elements that affect gene expression, such as enhancers and silencers [35]. These factors can affect the transcription rate and alter the spatiotemporal expression patterns of genes. In contrast, genes with fewer and shorter introns may have a faster transcription rate. This could lead to higher mRNA levels and potentially higher protein levels as well as a shorter half-life of mRNA in other tissues or developmental stages. However, shorter introns may also have fewer regulatory elements, which could limit responsiveness to environmental and developmental cues. Therefore, the highly differentiated exon-intron and UTR structures among MsMYBs may lead to functional differences. Three types of CARES were detected in the promoter regions of MsMYBs, i.e., those involved in hormone responsiveness, growth and development, and stress responsiveness. Previous studies have shown that hormones and stress responses have an important impact on pollen wall synthesis and anther dehiscence [36, 37], which may explain why some MYBs contribute to anther development.

Pollen development is a complex and intricate process. Semi-thin sections revealed that by the S10 stage, most microspore cells developed into mature pollen grains. In anthers, lipid metabolism was the most common functional group identified in a Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment analysis. Lipid metabolism, primarily lipid biosynthesis and lipid transport, plays a crucial role in reproductive development, including anther development and dehiscence, in plants [38]. Notably, lipids are mainly synthesized in the tapetal layer cells, which constitute the innermost layer of the anther wall and are transferred to the pollen or other anther wall layers to promote anther development [39]. Compared with the S9 and S11 stages, significant enrichment for lipid metabolism was observed during the S10 stage. Therefore, we inferred that S10 is a critical period for the formation of the pollen wall in alfalfa, and *MsMYB24* was related to this process in a functional enrichment analysis, suggesting that it plays a role in maintaining lipid metabolism during anther development.

We characterized the phylogenetic relationships of 12 anther-specific MsMYBs with homologs in four other species. The motifs of MsMYBs were highly conserved with those of MYBs from other species; however, there were interspecific differences, indicating both conservation and diversity within the MYB family. We also found that AtMYB26, AtMYB35, AtMYB80, and AtMYB99, which play important roles in pollen development, are clustered in the evolutionary tree. AtMYB35 and AtMYB80 affect pollen development by influencing tapetal layer development [14, 40]. AtMYB26 promotes anther dehiscence by inducing the expression of NST1 and NST2, leading to secondary thickening within the anther [41]. Transcriptome sequencing also revealed that AtMYB99 regulates pollen wall biosynthesis in conjunction with the NAC gene *At1g61110* [42]. Therefore, MsMYBs in adjacent clades may exhibit similar functions, and qRT-PCR subsequently confirmed their specific expression in anthers. Extensive research has shown that genes associated with tapetal layer development show decreases in expression levels after the tapetal layer undergoes programmed cell death, while genes related to pollen wall synthesis and anther dehiscence exhibit gradual increases in expression. In this study, we used qRT-PCR to evaluate the expression of 12 MsMYBs across four developmental stages of anthers, indicating their involvement in different stages of anther development and pollen maturation. During the process of microspore cells developing into pollen grains, MsMYB49, MsMYB108 and MsMYB152 levels increased gradually, suggesting that these MsMYBs are involved in pollen wall formation or anther dehiscence. In contrast, MsMYB14 and MsMYB126 levels decreased gradually, with the highest expression at the S8 stage, suggesting that these genes are involved in early anther developmental processes, such as tapetal layer cell development or tetrad callose degradation.

Through transcriptome sequencing and qRT-PCR analyses, we identified that *MsMYB49* and *MsMYB100* are specifically expressed in alfalfa anthers. Notably, *MsMYB49* exhibits a gradual increase in expression during microspore development, while *MsMYB100* shows a progressive decline in expression coinciding with tapetal programmed cell death. Phylogenetic analysis revealed that *MsMYB49* and *MsMYB100* share high sequence homology and conserved three-dimensional protein structures with *AtMYB35* and *AtMYB80* from

Arabidopsis. Furthermore, they exhibited identical subcellular localization patterns and similar spatiotemporal expression dynamics throughout anther development [14, 40].

In *Arabidopsis*, RNA in situ hybridization demonstrated that *AtMYB35* expression in the tapetum gradually decreases during microspore maturation, whereas *AtMYB80* expression is initially low in early tapetal cells, peaks at the onset of cellular degradation, and subsequently declines. Based on these parallels in expression specificity and structural conservation, we hypothesize that *MsMYB49* and *MsMYB100* likely perform conserved functional roles in alfalfa pollen development. Future studies employing gene knockout and complementation assays in *Arabidopsis* mutants approaches will elucidate their detailed mechanistic contributions to pollen and tapetal development.

Conclusion

This study successfully identified 161 MYBs within the alfalfa genome through a comprehensive, genome-wide screening approach. A detailed investigation examined the genomic architecture, genetic lineages, chromosomal localization, gene duplication events, conserved motifs, and expression patterns across various tissues and anther developmental stages, pinpointing key periods for alfalfa pollen maturation. Additionally, quantitative qPCR analysis of 12 selected MsMYBs revealed their tissue-specific expression in anthers and distinct expression patterns at different developmental stages. These findings offer valuable insights into the fundamental functional differences among MsMYBs in diverse alfalfa tissues and identify them as potential candidate genes for pollen development in this significant crop. Moreover, this study provides a comprehensive understanding of the MYB gene family in alfalfa, establishing a robust foundation for further exploration of their functions and evolutionary dynamics.

Materials and methods

Plant material and semi-thin section

The "Lanmu No. 2" alfalfa variety cultivated at Lanzhou University was used. Harvesting began on the eighth day of bud development from a single alfalfa, with collections every other day. Inflorescences at different time points were fixed with formalin-acetic acid for 2-3 days and embedded in Spurr's resin. Semi-thin sections with a thickness of 1 mm were cut and stained for 5 min in a 0.01% toluidine blue/sodium borate solution at 45 °C. After rinsing off the excess solution with water, images of the sections were obtained under bright field using an Olympus BX51 fluorescence microscope. Inflorescences from day 8 to day 11 were taken, and anthers were

removed and frozen in liquid nitrogen for transcriptome sequencing.

Collection and identification of MsMYB genes in alfalfa

The reference genome and gene model annotation files were sourced from public databases [43], available at ht tps://figshare.com/articles/dataset/Medicago_sativa_g enome and annotation files/12623960. To acquire all MYB sequences of alfalfa, BLASTp homology searches were conducted on the alfalfa genome dataset using the protein sequences of Arabidopsis MYB as the query. Candidate MYB genes were selected based on an E-value threshold of $< 10^{-10}$. These candidate genes' amino acid sequences were then analyzed by retrieving the Myeloblastosis oncogene family (PF00249) from the Inter-Pro Protein Characterization database [44], accessible at https://www.ebi.ac.uk/interpro/. Subsequently, the HMMER3.0 software [45] was utilized to analyze the genes and retrieve related and aligned sequences from the alfalfa genomic dataset, available at https://www.ebi .ac.uk/Tools/hmmer/. Additional details regarding the number of amino acids, molecular weight (MW), and isoelectric point (pI) of each MYB protein were obtained through the ExPASy proteomic website [46], found at ht tps://web.expasy.org/compute_pi/. The CELLO tool [47] was employed to predict the intracellular distribution of all MsMYB genes. The tertiary structure of each MYB protein was predicted using SWISS-MODEL [48], accessible at https://swissmodel.expasy.org/interactive.

Phylogenetic analysis

Arabidopsis AtMYB protein sequences were sourced from the TAIR database, available at https://www.arabid opsis.org/. Protein sequences for *Pisum sativum* PsMYB, *Trifolium pratense* L. TpMYB, and *Medicago truncatula* MtMYB were obtained from NCBI (https://www.ncbi. nlm.nih.gov). Multiple alignments of protein sequences from *Arabidopsis, Pisum sativum, Trifolium pratense* L., *Medicago truncatula*, and alfalfa were performed using MEGA11 software [49]. Phylogenetic trees were constructed employing the neighbor-joining (NJ), minimal evolution (ME), and maximum parsimony (MP) methods with bootstrap values based on 1000 replicates.

Exon/intron structure, conserved motifs and promoter analysis

Gene structures were visualized by aligning CDSs to Rab gene sequences using the GeneStructure Display Server [50]. Conserved motifs of MYB proteins were identified using the MEME Version 4.11.4 program (https://me me.ebi.ac.uk/meme/tools/meme) with parameters set for motif width of 6-200 and a maximum of 10 motifs. Upstream DNA sequences of 2.0 kb from the ATG were analyzed using PlantCARE [51] to predict cis-acting regulatory elements.

Chromosomal location and gene synteny analysis

Chromosomal locations for *Arabidopsis, Cicer arietinum, Trifolium pratense* L., and *Medicago truncatula MYB* genes were obtained from the NCBI database. Synteny among alfalfa MYB family members and the aforementioned plants was analyzed using MCScanX and TBtools [52, 53].

RNA isolation and transcriptome sequencing analysis

Anthers provided the source material for total RNA extraction, performed with the RC401 assay kit following the manufacturer's guidelines from Vazyme Biotech Co., Ltd. The quality of the extracted RNA was confirmed utilizing an Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer. Construction of transcriptome libraries adhered to the Illumina RNAseq protocol (Illumina, Inc., San Diego, CA, catalog no. RS-100-0801). Sequencing of RNA and DNA libraries was conducted using 150 bp paired-end Illumina technology, with inserts of 350 bp for the libraries. For RNAseq, the fastp software (version 0.12.2) was employed with default parameters to filter and remove raw reads containing poly-N sequences, adapters, or exhibiting low quality [54]. High-quality filtered reads were mapped to the Zhongmu No.1 genome using Hisat2 (version 2.1.0) with the parameters (-dta, -x), followed by genetic annotation in GTF format [55]. Genes were considered expressed if they had a minimum FPKM value of greater than 1 in any sample. Differentiation of expressed genes was determined using a P-value of 0.05 and DEseq2 for differential gene analysis. FPKM values underwent a Log(FPKM+1) transformation for comparative analysis, and heatmap generation for gene expression was completed using TBtools software [56]. Functional annotation was achieved through GSEA analysis with the GO database [57].

qRT-PCR analysis

At four developmental stages of anther growth, namely S8, S9, S10, and S11, total RNA extraction was carried out. Primers designed with Primer 5 were employed for qRT-PCR expression analysis of selected genes (Table S1), with the list provided in Supplementary Table 5. The expression of the alfalfa ACTIN gene 2 (18 S rRNA) served as an internal control. qRT-PCR assays were conducted using SYBR Premix Ex Taq II (TaKaRa), repeated a minimum of three times, and data analysis was performed using the $-2-\Delta\Delta$ Ct method [58].

Supplementary Information

The online version contains supplementary material available at https://doi.or g/10.1186/s12870-025-06542-6.

Supplementary Material	1	
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Supplementary Material 2

Author contributions

Conceptualization, J.Z. and Z.Y.; methodology, Z.Y.; software, Y.F and P.X.; validation, Z.Y., S.W., C.Z and Q.Y.; formal analysis, Z.Y.; investigation, Z.Y.; resources, Z.Y.; data curation, Z.Y.; writing—original draft preparation, Z.Y.; writing—review and editing, F.W.; visualization, J.Z.; supervision, J.Z.; project administration, J.Z.; funding acquisition, J.Z. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

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Data availability

Transcriptome sequencing data generated in this study have been deposited in the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (SRA) database under accession number PRJNA1117211.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

Alfalfa is not endangered or a protected species in China, and it cultivated at Lanzhou University and planted in a light incubator. The seeds are collected by Professor Jiyu Zhang in Lanzhou University. All the study procedures were carried out in accordance with relevant guidelines.

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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