

Effects of *Ascophyllum nodosum* Extract on Giant Reed  
(*Arundo donax* L.) Gene Expression and Cold Stress Tolerance

by

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## Abstract

### Effects of *Ascophyllum nodosum* Extract on Giant Reed (*Arundo donax* L.) Gene Expression and Cold Stress Tolerance

By Jingwen Zhao

Abstract: A new promising energy crop, giant reed (*Arundo donax* L), has the potential for high biomass production with low agricultural input. However, two field experiments completed in Nova Scotia showed that giant reed cannot survive the winter without protection. The present study focused on applying a biostimulant, *Ascophyllum nodosum* extract (ANE), to enhance cold resistance of giant reed. The gene expression of giant reed was analyzed by transcriptome analysis; the chlorophyll content and foliar electrolyte leakage were measured. The results showed that application of ANE up-regulated many genes including those related to light-harvesting and cellular stress. Low concentration of ANE (1 ml/L) increased chlorophyll content and decreased the leaf electrolyte leakage after freezing. Thus, the preliminary data of the present study suggests that the ANE treatment has significant effects on giant reed gene expression, and may increase its tolerance to cold stress.

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## Abbreviations

Abbrev.	Full Forms
<i>A. donax</i> L.	<i>Arundo donax</i> L.
ANE	<i>Ascophyllum nodosum</i> extracts
<i>A. nodosum</i>	<i>Ascophyllum nodosum</i>
BRs	Brassinosteroids
DEGs	Differentially expressed genes
DMSO	Dimethyl sulfoxide
OD	Optical density
mL	Milliliter
N	Nitrogen
P	Phosphorus
S	Sulfur
Fe	Iron
Cu	Copper
Mn	Manganese
SOD	Superoxide dismutase
APX	Ascorbate Peroxidase
TLRs	Toll-like receptor



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## **General Introduction**

Over the past several centuries, the discovery and use of fossil fuels have produced enormous social benefits as well as environmental pollution. Human activities are mainly responsible for increasing greenhouse gasses in the atmosphere. The majority of greenhouse gas emissions come from burning fossil fuels supporting heating, electricity and transportation purposes (Metz, 2007). Now, some developed countries are reducing their dependency on fossil fuels and tending to invest heavily in alternate fuels to protect ecological systems for sustainable development (Cottrell, 2015). Therefore, options for a long-term environmentally friendly renewable energy sources have to be developed, such as hydro, solar, wind, biomass, geothermal and so on (Omer, 2007). Biomass has the larger potential and can be considered as one of the best option for meeting the demand and insurance of future energy/fuel supply in a sustainable manner (Koçar, 2013). Agricultural biomass is a relatively broad category of biomass that includes the food based portion (oil and simple carbohydrates) and the non-food based portion (complex carbohydrates) of crops. The food-based portion of agricultural biomass includes crops, such as corn, sugarcane, and beets while the non-food portion includes leaves, stalks, corncobs, corn stover, orchard trimmings, rice husk, straw, etc. (Chandra, 2012). Perennial grasses (switchgrass, giant reed) and animal wastes are also non-food sources of agricultural biomass. Plant biomass has been known for decades to be one of the most promising renewable energy sources that can be used for the production of biofuels, which is an abundant resource having low CO<sub>2</sub> emissions and low cost (Zhao,

2009).

The feedstock for 99% biofuel production today is classified as “first generation,” which directly derives energy from starch, sugar or vegetable oil (Eijck, 2014). Concerns exist about the sourcing of “first generation” feedstock, including the impact it may have on biodiversity, land use, and competition with food crops (Naika, 2010). Therefore, it is recommended to have more efficient alternatives, “Second generation” or “next generation” (e.g. switchgrass, organic residues), produce biofuels from plant biomass referring largely to lignocellulosic materials, as this makes up the majority of the cheap and abundant non-food materials available from plants.

*Arundo donax* L., a new promising second generation biofuel crop grows well in a variety of environmental and soil conditions, producing high rates of biomass with little agricultural input (Papazoglou, 2007). However, there are still technical barriers to be solved for large-scale production, including how to improve its cold resistance in cold climates. The previous work on cultivating *A. donax* L. in Nappan, Nova Scotia indicated it could not survive the harsh Nova Scotian winter. Thus, this barrier needs to be overcome before the potential of *A. donax* L. can be realized in high latitude areas.

### 1.1 *Arundo donax* L.: A non-food biofuel crop

*A. donax* L. (giant reed) is a perennial and herbaceous plant originally cultivated in East Asia, that rapidly spread to the Mediterranean, North Africa, Southern Europe and North America in the 19th century (Perdue, 1958). *A. donax* L. is a sterile plant with asexual vegetative reproduction that allows it to spread quickly, and new plants can

generate every year directly from rhizomes, the underground stem of the plant (Ceotto, 2010). It has been traditionally used for musical instruments, but recently it became a promising second generation fuel crop by converting lignocellulosic biomass into ethanol through hydrolysis (Dhir, 2010).

#### 1.1.1 As a feedstock to produce bioenergy and bio-based compounds

As a bioenergy crop, *A. donax* L. is important not only for its remarkable biomass productivity, but also for its low agronomic input. Its higher biomass production is good for efficient biological fermentation for biogas and bioethanol (Ragaglini, 2014). Besides the fermentation needs, the industrial use and bio-based compounds also play a key role (Tracy, 1998).

Biogas is gas from anaerobic digestion of various biomass types in digesters/bioreactors. It contains 50-75% methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) and 25-50% other gasses such as hydrogen, carbon dioxide, nitrogen, ammonia, and hydrogen sulfide. *A. donax* is used for producing biogas through co-digesting with animal slurries (Corno, 2014). Available data indicate that *A. donax* has a higher anaerobic bio-gasification potential (ABP) than traditional energy crops such as corn, sorghum, rye and triticale (Schievano, 2015), due to its sterile productivity, there is no energy invested in seed production, resulting in increased energy within the plant biomass. For example, *A. donax* only produces about 75%, 94%, 77% and higher than 100% ABP of corn, rye, triticale and sorghum, respectively. However, its high biomass productivity per hectare determines that its bio-methane production is superior to those of other energy crops (Schievano, 2015).

Second generation bioethanol is obtained from lignocellulosic materials (Alvira,

2010). The principal advantages of second generation bioethanol are connected to the high biofuel yield per hectare, positive energetic balance and negative greenhouse gas emissions (Kheshgi, 2000). Thanks to the high production of biomass yield per hectare, *A. donax* L. can produce an extremely large amount of bioethanol. It was reported that compared with other bioenergy crops, *A. donax* L. produces around 11,000 L ha<sup>-1</sup> that is 50% more than ethanol coming from sugar cane and sugar beet and 20% more than *Miscanthus* production (Zhang, 2011). Other promising energy crops like cassava produce 45% less ethanol in comparison with *A. donax* L.

Besides its high quality for biofuel, *A. donax* L. also has great potential for direct industrial use and bio-based compounds applications. In the past, *A. donax* L. was directly used in musical instruments, paper pulp and building materials (Papazoglou, 2005). New research shows more efficient techniques for the extraction and isolation of raw materials from *A. donax* L. for industrial usage (Seca, 2000). Some chemical compounds, such as Levulinic acid and indole compounds, can be extracted from *A. donax* L. and can be used as intermediates for pharmacological preparation, plastic production and insecticide formulation (Galletti, 2013).

#### 1.1.2 The advantages and disadvantages of *Arundo donax* L.

Floral sterility is becoming an outstanding trait for a lignocellulosic plant: if the flowering state is delayed or prevented, it is a good period for effectively transforming stored energy into overall plant biomass (Ragauskas, 2006). *A. donax* L. is an excellent example of a plant exhibiting floral sterility. However, floral sterility has both advantages

and disadvantages for the plant itself. Because of the asexual vegetative reproduction, it may increase human labor input while cultivating into the field. This is still an obstacle for the large-scale of cultivation in farm's field.

The high environmental adaptability helps *A. donax* L. grow well in a variety soil conditions. To compare with other bioenergy crops, the biomass yield of *A. donax* L. is greater than any others per unit surface area. The first year aboveground dry matter yield is equal to or higher than 40 t ha<sup>-1</sup>, sometimes reaching to 50 t ha<sup>-1</sup> (Lewandowski, 2003). A study of three years aboveground dry matter yield of *A. donax* L. shows from 6.1 to 38.8 t ha<sup>-1</sup>, higher than 2.5 to 26.9 t ha<sup>-1</sup> of *Miscanthus x giganteus* (Greef et Deu.); and 24.7 t ha<sup>-1</sup> of *Cynara cardunculus* L. var. *altilis* D.C. cv. (Mantineoa, 2009).

*A. donax* L. can grow in all types of soils, ranging from heavy clay to loose sands, soils with low fertility and high salinity (Iris Lewandowski, 2003). The only challenge for cultivating *A. donax* L. is cold temperature (Pompeiano, 2015). *A. donax* L. uses the C<sub>3</sub> pathway for carbon assimilation, has a high photosynthetic capacity associated with the absence of light saturation and has an optimum temperature in the range of 24 – 30°C (Rossa, 1998). Cold hardiness is a primary concern for giant reed adaptation ability because winter injury and late frosts may cause important yield decreases, limiting the growth and distribution of the species (Thomashow, 2001).

## 1.2 ANE: *Ascophyllum nodosum* extract

*Ascophyllum nodosum* is a brown alga commonly referred as seaweed (Ugarte, 2006). It is a dominant ocean species in North America and Europe, especially in coastal



area without ice scour (Rayorath, 2008). *A. nodosum* is the most researched seaweed species. The benefits of this seaweed as a source of organic matter and nutrients has led to its use as a soil conditioner for centuries (Temple, 1988). It has been reported in recent years that the liquefying extract from the brown seaweed (ANE) could enhance the nutrient uptake (N, P, K, and S) in soybeans under rainfed conditions (Rathorea, 2009). Liquid extracts obtained from *A. nodosum* (ANE) have been used for more than 60 years to promote plant vigor, root growth and development (Khan, 2009). The *A. nodosum* extract contains many macro- and micro- nutrients, and some bioactive components including amino acids and vitamins that can increase the seed germination, plant growth, yield, biomass production, elevated resistance to biotic and abiotic stress, and enhanced postharvest shelf-life of perishable products (Norrie, 2006).

#### 1.2.1 The effects of ANE as a fertilizer on plant growth

In advancing the modern agricultural system, the goal is to increase production, reduce the negative environmental impact, and enhance the sustainability of the system. Marine bioactive substances extracted from marine algae are used in agricultural and horticultural crops, with many beneficial effects in the terms of enhancement of yield and quality have been reported (Pal, 2015). It is well documented that plants have a broad range of responses to ANE applications including soil treatment and foliar spray. The effects of ANE on plant growth can be divided into three aspects including increased plant shoot and root growth, promoted flowering and fruit set, and enhanced crop yield.

ANE, as a biostimulant, improves plant growth by promoting lateral root

formation and enhancing the volume of the root system. ANE application has enhanced biomass accumulation in tomato and cabbage seedlings by stimulating root growth (Crouch, 1992). Khana et al. showed that ANE-treated alfalfa root has an increased (69%) number of root nodulations per plant (Khana, 2013). To understand the mechanism of this action, early stages of root–rhizobia interactions were examined with positive results. Alfalfa (*Medicago sativa*) roots were treated with ANE and its organic compounds (organic sub-fractions methanol and chloroform) showed both the root hair growth of alfalfa and root nodules induced by *S. meliloti*, a synergistic soil bacterium with alfalfa, were improved (Khan, 2012). The results suggested that ANE and its components could promote the legume–rhizobia symbiotic relationship and plant signaling. ANE has been shown to benefit root and shoot growth in the model plant *Arabidopsis thaliana*, as root-tips of ANE treated samples grew dramatically in plants grown in medium. Additionally, the expression of *Arabidopsis thaliana* DR5: GUS, the DR5:GUS construct comprises a synthetic auxin-responsive promoter (DR5) fused to the GUS-encoding reporter gene (Yu, 2012), is a positive response to ANE components, indicating ANE may promote root growth by trigger auxin distribution in plants (Rayorath, 2007). The seaweed extracts may enhance general plant growth through improving efficiency of nutrient absorption by roots (Crouch, 1993).

Although plant roots and shoots share many developmental processes, they are entirely different plant organs and play different roles in plant growth. At opposite to the root, the major part of photosynthesis is exhibited by shoots (Fageria, 2013). Increasing chlorophyll content of tomato leaves may have been caused by betaines (components of

ANE) which is responsible for reducing chlorophyll degradation (Whapham, 1993). A soil application of ANE also improved plant growth and ultimately yield of onion through significantly greater shoot height and shoot number (Mandrada, 2012).

To examine the effect of ANE on fruit maturation, Fornes *et al.*, used two early ripening mandarins (Clausellina and Marisol) and Navelina orange as fruit samples. Results showed ANE enhanced fruit maturation earlier than the control (Fornes, 1995). ANE can also trigger flowering and fruit set at the early stage of some crop plants (Arthur, 2003). For example, the treatments of ANE were applied in different stages of growing peppers to compare their effects on yield and quality. ANE treatments showed significant differences in fruit yield, the most significant change was in first bloom stage (Eris, 1995). The application of ANE can also enhance tomato fruit yield when sprayed at the vegetative stage, which resulted in 30% larger size fruits than those of the control treatment (Crouch, 1992). Seaweed extracts derived from *A. nodosum* showed increased fruit production and berry weight and its biomass production (including shoot dry matter and root dry matter) was increased 27% and 76% respectively (Spinelli, 2010).

Tomato seedlings treated with ANE triggered more flowers earlier than control plants (Crouch, 1993). The mechanism of ANE triggering plant flowering and fruit set at the early stage is unclear, but when ANE extracts were applied at an early growth stage in maize, the plant yield increased and the response was similar to that of auxin, an important plant hormone (Jeannin, 1991). The similar response to auxin of plant yield

could be evidence of triggering the plant hormone system. In many studies, when the flowering and fruit set is promoted, the total plant yield will have increased as well. For example, ANE-treated strawberry plants *cv. Camarosa* showed marked increases in fruit size and yield, but the pH of fruit juice showed no significant difference (Roussos, 2009).

The main purpose of ANE application in agriculture is increasing crop yield and nutrient contents. In a broccoli field experiments, the total phenolic, flavonoid and isothiocyanate contents were higher in ANE-treated plants than control plants, indicating that ANE cannot only enhance broccoli yield but can increase the amount of phytochemicals and overall nutritional quality of broccoli (Lola-Luz, 2013). The application of ANE on yield and nutritional content of olive trees as well as the quality of olive oil showed positive results: the K, Fe and Cu concentration increased in olive leaves treated with ANE, and the concentration of Mn in olive leaves decreased in the control (Chouliaras, 2009). Two successive winter seasons' field experiments have suggested that spraying ANE at a higher rate could significantly enhance photosynthetic pigments and P and K content of celeriac plant, in addition, the total sugar content and NO<sub>3</sub> content will also increase dramatically (Shehata, 2011).

## 1.2.2 The effects of ANE on plant resistance to abiotic and biotic stress.

### 1.2.2.1. Resistance to abiotic stress

Abiotic stresses including drought, extremely high and low temperatures, salinity and soil with reduced nutrients are main factors limiting the crop production: 96.5% of global rural land areas are affected by environmental stresses (Cramer, 2011). Application of ANE on many crops has been proven to alleviate abiotic stress (Arioli, 2015). Even though the mechanisms of ANE to help plants increase resistance to drought, salinity and extremely temperatures are unclear, more research helps to provide evidence.

A pot experiment was conducted to examine the effect of *A. nodosum* extract spraying on the *Amaranthus tricolor* plants under salt stress conditions. After irrigation with 1000 ppm salt water, the ANE-treated plants showed significantly increased length and diameter of the stem, root length, number of leaves and fresh and dry weight (Aziz, 2011). Salt stress may result in yield decreasing, and low-quality in many crop plants, such as eggplant. Hegazi *et al.*, used ANE to alleviate the adverse results of salt stress. The highest concentration of ANE  $5.0 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ L}^{-1}$  is most effective to resist the salinity. The results indicated the ANE treatment slightly increased the activity of SOD and APX (superoxidase dismutase and ascorbate peroxidase of tall fescue) that belong to antioxidant defense systems, but significantly decreased K content (Hegazi, 2015).

Generally, the application of ANE alleviates environmental stress and is attributed to the presence of sugar, micro- or macro-elements, but plant hormones play an important role as well (Rengasamy, 2010). To study the mechanisms of *A. nodosum* extracts enhancing the ability to resist abiotic stress, the whole transcriptome of *Arabidopsis* under

salt stress has been analyzed. A Pectin Methyl Esterase Inhibitor gene was found to resist the salt stress, and it may be used as a novel regulator of abiotic stress in plants (Wally, 2012).

Many young crops will face drought-like conditions. The application of ANE on various young vegetables susceptible to drought extended the time before these vegetables began to succumb to their conditions. Additionally, ANE combined with fertilizer significantly improved the root and shoot development, root length and the volume of leaves (Neily, 2010). These results indicate the importance of ANE in commercial agricultural settings.

In addition, the application of ANE to alleviate drought stress may be caused by some bioactive molecules including antioxidants (Zhang, 1999). Plants endogenous antioxidants are responsive to the exogenous hormone-containing ANE application under water stress. Both the biochemical and the molecular of plants will change after ANE treatment. The glutathione reductase activity, superoxide dismutase and ascorbate peroxidase of tall fescue under water stress, are increased after being treated with ANE treated. The application of ANE in this study may play a major role in plants' endogenous antioxidant enzymes activity under water stress and could increase the plants protection system against active oxygen species (Ayad, 1998). It is reported that the plants treated with ANE showed improved drought resistance through hormonal up regulation of the plant's defense system against the oxidative stress. The application of ANE plus humic

acid to creeping bentgrass cultivars subjected to drought improved the root mass and foliar  $\alpha$ -tocopherol and zeatin riboside content (Zhang, 2003). Which was the first reported that ANE contain cytokinins and could increase the plant exogenous cytokinins to enhance the drought resistance

Temperature extremes, cold and heat, are the primary factors to affect in the rate of plant development and limiting crop productivity (Hatfield, 2015). Foliar application of ANE can reduce the visible injury after 72-96 hours of extreme heat conditions, while the treatment of ANE plus humic acid may decrease the heat injury and improve the post-transplant rooting of sod (Zhang, 2003). The foliar application of 10  $\mu$ g M ANEC (ANE based cytokinins) on turf grass under extreme heat conditions may increase leaf trans-zeatin riboside content and nitratase activity (Zhang, 2009).

ANE and its lipophilic components (LPC) have increased freezing tolerance in *in vitro* and *in vivo* assays. These components may generate stress response genes to protect the plant from freezing stress, in addition to enhancing membrane integrity (Rayirath, 2009). Gene expression revealed the lipophilic component of ANE to improve freezing tolerance in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. The LPC improving plant freezing tolerance may increase the concentration of total soluble sugar and mediate the increase of osmotic protectants priming of the plant (Nair, 2012).

#### 1.2.2.2. Resistance to disease and pest infection

Among biotic stresses, seaweed extracts may enhance plant defense against pest

and diseases directly and indirectly through the induction of some plant defense genes or enzymes. Jayaraman (2011) showed that the commercial extract of *A. nodosum* (Stimplex™) could reduce fungal diseases of greenhouse cucumbers by increasing the activity of the disease resistance-related enzymes (chitinase,  $\beta$ -1,3-glucanase, peroxidase, polyphenol oxidase, phenylalanine ammonia lyase and lipoxygenase) and the expression of the related genes (chitinase, lipoxygenase, glucanase, peroxidase and phenylalanine ammonia lyase). At the same time, an accumulation of the phenolic compounds was observed after the treatment with ANE (Jayaraman, 2011). Root treatment of *Arabidopsis thaliana* with three treatments including ANE, chloroform and ethyl acetate fractions, to alleviate the symptoms on leaves. The ANE treatment induced the expression of jasmonic acid related gene transcripts to respond to the Pst DC3000 infection (Subramanian, 2011). Compared with other fungicides or fungal agents, ANE treatment of strawberry can reduce the total incidence of fruit rot and anthracnose, while increasing the fruit yield (Washington, 1999).

ANE also show the ability to protect plants against bacterium diseases. Application of the 1% ANE on cabbage seedlings in advance would produce an amount of microbes that can protect against *P. ultimum* (Dixon, 2002). More, the 0.2% ANE treated on greenhouse grown carrots shows greatly reduced disease severity compared with control (water). And the ANE-treated plants also induced a higher level of defense genes or proteins as well as increased some defense pathway marker genes (Jayaraj, 2008). Foliar application of 0.5% ANE would reduce the incidence of foliar pathogens



including *Alternaria solani* and *Xanthomonas campestris pv vesicatoria* up to 63% and 44% respectively (Ali, 2016).

ANE application also promotes plant health by positively affecting the rhizosphere microbial community. *Arabidopsis thaliana* treated with the alkaline extract of *A. nodosum* could reduce the production of females of the root-knot nematode (Wu, 1998). Similarly, ANE-treated tomato samples also had decreased the root knot nematodes (Crouch, 1993a). However, seaweed extracts are not dependent on rhizospheric microorganisms: the application of ANE may induce a plant hormonal response to nematode infection.

Generally, disease control is attained through the use of fungicides, insecticides and bactericides, which reduce the diseases but can also be toxic to plants. Elicitors activate the chemicals in the plant to trigger the plant defense activities. Common active elicitors include salicylic acid, methyl salicylate, benzothiadiazole, benzoic acid, chitosan, when affect the production of phenolic compounds and activation of various defense-related enzymes in plants (Sohal, 2013).

Molecule such as oligo- and polysaccharides and lipids in ANE show response to plant diseases. For example, an oligosaccharide extract from brown algae was prepared and applied to show response against tobacco mosaic virus (Vera, 2011). After a few hours of being treated, the oligo-treated tobacco plant showed salicylic acid (SA) and the phytoalexin scopoletin expressed several pathogenesis-related (PR) proteins (Klarzynski, 2003). The effect of two elicitors laminarin and carrageenan of algal polysaccharides on tobacco were indicated but only the carrageenans efficiently induced signaling and

defense gene expression in tobacco leaves, which encodes the genes of chitinase and proteinase, the pathways of ethylene, jasmonic acid and salicylic acid (Mercier, 2001).

### 1.2.3 Bioactive Compounds of ANE

Some components extracted from ANE, such as macro- and micro-element nutrients, polysaccharides, amino acids, vitamins, cytokinins, auxins, and abscisic acid (ABA)-like growth substances affect cellular metabolism in treated plants, which may stimulate growth and crop yield (Durand, 2003). Tasco-Forage, an extract from ANE, showed the ability to improve the antioxidant enzymes activities both in plants and animals. The components of ANE proven to increase free radical production (Allen, 2001). Although many of the chemical components of seaweed extracts and their modes of action remain unknown. It is assumed that some components exhibit synergistic activity (Fornes, 2002). ANE provided all the essential mineral and their dry weight in seaweed is 20-50% (Kazutoshi, 2002). Except for some elements of seaweed, such as potassium, sodium, calcium, magnesium, zinc, seaweed, especially the brown seaweed is abundant with cell wall polysaccharides, vitamins and proteins (Mabeau, 1993).

#### 1.2.3.1. Growth hormones

According to studies of plant hormones derived from seaweed, there are four common plant growth hormones: Auxins, Abscisic acid, Cytokinins and Gibberellins. Only Auxins, Abscisic acid and Cytokinins often appear in *Ascophyllum nodosum*.

The first reported of auxins in marine algae gave a new picture of plant hormones

in algae (Van Overbeek, 1940). In the following years, auxins are found in brown, red, green algae (Buggeln, 1971). However, the content of indole-3-acetic acid (IAA) extracted from *A. nodosum* is very slight (Sanderson, 1987). Auxin may not be a significant compound in ANE treated plants to improve plant growth. As I mentioned above, when extracts were applied at an early growth stage of maize, the crop yield increased and this response was similar to that of auxin. The root-tips of ANE-treated samples dramatically increased and the *Arabidopsis thaliana* DR5: GUS expression is positive response to components of ANE, which may indicate that ANE promotes root growth by inducing auxins in plants.

Abscisic acid (ABA) was isolated from commercial brown algae *Ascophyllum nodosum*, at a concentration of 0.10–0.46 µg ABA per gram dry weight in ANE, more similar to the concentrations in higher plants (Boyer, 1987). ABA is common in algae, which can induce stomatal closure in drought, protein storage in seeds, gene transcription for proteinase inhibitors and inhibits shoot growth (Tanaka, 2006). The function of ABA in seaweed should be investigated more, as the role of ABA in terrestrial plants was indicated to encode a number of late embryogenesis abundant proteins, responsible for drought stress (Finkelstein, 2013).

Cytokinins were detected both in fresh seaweed and seaweed extracts (Brain, 1973). The formulation of cytokinins in seaweed commonly known as trans-zeatin and trans-zeatin riboside (Stirk, 1997). Cytokinins are a class of phytohormones that are responsible for the formation of roots and shoots, and play a central role in the cell cycle (Werner, 2001). Thus, Cytokinins associated with ANE improved the potato yield and

protein content as well as increased the ripening of lime fruits (Kumar, 2014). Cytokinins also increased creeping bentgrass tolerance to heat (Chang, 2016). Through a soybean callus assay and a mung bean rooting bioassay, cytokinin-like and auxin-like activities from ANE extracts were compared. The results indicated that all the treatments were increasing the root development, but only the cytokinin-like activity enhanced the most of the callus growth (Staden, 1997).

#### 1.2.3.2. Betaines

Blunden suggested that seaweed extract should have another component that functions similarly to cytokinins. Glycine betaine activity was found to be similar to cytokinins in many plants (Blunden G. C., 1986). ANE was applied through two methods: soil drench and foliar spray. All treated plants but one resulted in higher concentrations of chlorophyll in leaves. Very similar contents ( $\gamma$ -aminobutyric acid betaine 0.96 mg L<sup>-1</sup>,  $\delta$ -aminovaleric acid betaine 0.43 mg L<sup>-1</sup>, glycinebetaine 0.34 mg L<sup>-1</sup>) were found in ANE and betaine treatments (Blunden G. J.-W., 1996). Moreover, betaines and their analogs can improve plant tolerance to some abiotic and biotic stress.

Glycine betaine is an osmoprotectant in plants and animals, which many protect the plant photosynthetic apparatus to tolerate the abiotic stress (Holmström, 2000). Soil application of alkaline ANE on roots of tomato reduced the second stage of juveniles of *Meloidogyne javanica* and *M. iruognita* invading the roots (Wu, 1997). Improved methods were used to analyze common betaine and its analogs. The most common betaines including glycine betaine,  $\gamma$ -aminobutyric acid betaine,  $\delta$ -aminovaleric acid betaine and laminine were found from *A. nodosum* and *Fucus* and *Laminaria* species.

### 1.2.3.3. Polysaccharides and derived oligosaccharides

Plant oligosaccharides can activate or inhibit plant growth, and the development is now clearly established (John, 1997). There are many unusual and complex polysaccharides isolated from seaweed that are not present in land plants, including the three main polysaccharides in brown seaweeds: fucoïdan, alginate and laminaran that can trigger defense responses in plants, enhancing protection against pathogens (Lane, 2006).

Alginate as one of the main components in the cell walls of brown seaweeds where they can account for 17 to 45% of the seaweed's dry weight (Mabeau, 1987). Hien found the sodium alginate could promote the net rate of the photosynthesis and the ability of carbon assimilation in rice (Hien, 2000). Aftab reported that irradiated sodium alginate (ISA) sprayed on the *Artemisia annua* leaves at the concentration of 80 mg/L can increase growth, capacity of the photosynthesis and the artemisinin content in the leaves (Aftab, 2011). The alginate-derived oligosaccharides reduced the electrolyte leakage and the concentration of the malonaldehyde (MDA) in drought-treated tomato seedlings, and enhanced the content of the free proline and the total soluble sugar (Liu, 2013). Moreover, oligo-alginate has a dual beneficial effect on tobacco plants to enhance growth and defense against pathogens, suggesting that signaling pathways involved in plant growth and defense may be interconnected (Laporte, 2007).

Laminaran is a (1,3)- $\beta$ -D glucan with  $\beta$ -(1,6) branching and has been proven to stimulate natural defense responses in plants and is involved in the induction of genes encoding different pathogenesis-related (PR) proteins with antimicrobial properties

(Zvyagintseva, 1999)

Although the effect of polysaccharides and their derived oligosaccharides on plant growth and the defense system is well studied, the potential plasma membrane receptors and the associated signaling pathways have not yet been identified. In *Arabidopsis thaliana* and rice genomes, some of plasma membrane receptors with protein kinase activity could be encoded with plant cell genomes and some are structurally related to animal TLRs. Thus, it is possible that some oligosaccharides may interact with a specific receptor structurally related to TLR4 and/or TLR2 or with another yet unidentified receptor with protein kinase activity (Shiu, 2004). In addition, it has been demonstrated that brassinosteroids, a kind of polyhydroxylated plant steroidal hormone, with suggested-involvement in stem elongation, leaf development, pollen tube growth, and photomorphogenesis (Clouse, 2002). Brassinosteroids bind to a specific receptor located in the plasma membrane (Nam, 2002).

Table 1. Major components of *Ascophyllum nodosum* (Craigie, 2011).

<b>Compound</b>	<b>Content (% dry wt)</b>	<b>Content (% wt)</b>
<b>N-free carbohydrates</b>		46-60
<b>Alginic acid</b>	15-30	
<b>Laminaran</b>	0-10	
<b>Fucoidan</b>	4-10	
<b>Other carbohydrates</b>	10	
<b>Protein</b>	5-10	5-10
<b>Fats</b>	2-7	
<b>Tannins</b>	2-10	
<b>Organic</b>	65.7	
<b>Moisture</b>		12-15
<b>Crude ash</b>	21.1	17-20
<b>Klason lignin</b>	18.6	
<b>Total dietary</b>	50.3	
<b>Sugars</b>	Fuc=6.60; Xyl=1.68; Gal=0.69; Glc=4.48; Man=3.84; Uronic acid=14.44	

### 1.3 Brassinosteroids (BR): growth hormones

Plant growth and development are governed by complex interactions between environmental signals and internal factors. The full range of growth responses induced by seaweed extracts implies the presence of more than one group of plant growth-promoting hormones (Mazorra, 2002). Brassinosteroids (BRs), are a group of plant steroids that are known to elicit remarkable growth responses and are found in almost every parts of plants, such as pollen, flower buds, fruits, seeds, vascular cambium, leaves, shoots and roots (Bajguza, 2003). Many studies of BRs show that they play an important role in a range of developmental processes, e.g. stem and root growth, floral initiation, and the development of flowers and fruits (Fariduddin, 2009)

The exogenous application of BRs modified antioxidant enzymes such as superoxide dismutase, catalase, glutathione peroxidase, ascorbate peroxidase and non-enzymatic antioxidants to increase tolerance with low and/or high temperature stress, drought stress and moisture stress (Sairam, 1994; Li, 1998). When maize (*Zea mays*) seedlings treated with BR were subjected to water stress, the activities of superoxide dismutase (SOD), catalase (CAT), ascorbate peroxidase (APX), as well as ascorbic acid and carotenoids contents increased (Vardhini, 2015). BRs enhanced the activity of CAT and reduced the activities of peroxidase and ascorbic acid oxidase under osmotic stress conditions in sorghum (*Sorghum vulgare*) (Vardhini, 2003).

It is still unclear whether BRs directly or indirectly modulate the responses of plants to oxidative stress. At present, some studies suggested BRs have a cross-talk with other phytohormones, to alternate the expression of some hormone biosynthetic genes



and/or signals, which influence the stress responses of plants (Bishop, 2002). In addition, recent studies have unveiled some interactions of plant immune system and growth regulating hormones like auxins, gibberellins, and ethylene (Bruyne, 2014). However, there is little evidence of BRs cross link with the immune system, but a point that there is a link of growth-promoting hormone responses to MAMP (microbe-associated molecular patterns) signaling is the LRR-RK BRI1-Associated Kinase 1 (BAK1), a leucine-rich repeat receptor-like kinase (Bajguz, 2009). BAK1, the most potent steroid hormone in plants, binds brassinolide (BL), identified as an inter-actor of the LRR-RK Brassinosteroid-Insensitive 1 (BRI1). It is also suggested that BR biosynthesis and signaling can be rate-limiting modulators of BAK1-mediated MAMP responses (Belkhadir, 2012).

#### 1.4 Mechanism of cold-induced oxidative stress injury

There is an almost a 50% decrease in productivity of major crops due to abiotic stresses (Cramer, 2011). Considering the abiotic stresses in Canada, cold temperature is the most prominent issue, resulting in millions of dollars decreased in revenue. Many commercial crops such as maize, cotton, soybean, tomato and some fruits (bananas, mangoes, grapes, oranges) are all sensitive to low temperature (Sharma, 2005).

Chilling and freezing interfere with both photosynthetic and non-photosynthetic processes in the cell. The low-temperature stress will induce chilling and freezing injuries in plants. Chilling injury occurred in susceptible species, such as tropical plants, which are sensitive to temperatures above the freezing point but below a critical threshold

temperature. The chilling-injured tissues will induce cellular dysfunctions including pitting, water soaking and reduce the crop yields and quality of harvest plants.

Freezing injury occurs as the temperature drops low enough for ice crystals to form within the tissue. The freezing-injured plants will have a drastic effect on the whole plant resulting in plant death. Acclimation is a developmental process in response to environmental conditions which leads to increased tolerance to low temperature stress (Shewfelt, 1992).

Actions have indicated that reactive oxygen species (ROS) can mediate at least one of the effects of low-temperature stress in plant system (Bowler, 1992). It is suggested the electron transport chains of mitochondria and chloroplasts like well-documented sources of ROS in plant cell (Osswald, 1994). So if under long-time oxidative stress conditions, ROS can cause lipid peroxidation, DNA damage and protein denaturation (Scandalios, 1993). To keep ROS at low steady-state levels, plant cells contain some antioxidant metabolites and enzymes (Asada, 1992). It is reported that overexpression of antioxidant enzymes, such as SOD (Gupta, 1993) can protect the cell against ROS. It was also suggested  $H_2O_2$  can play a role in regulating chilling tolerance in maize (Prasad, 1994) and plant defense against pathogen infection (Chen, 1993).

The plant cell wall with a complex mechanism of cell expansion determines the cell size and shape. The plant cell can be divided into two types: type one is a structure of cellulose microfibrils mostly consisting of xyloglucans and amount of polysaccharides; type two mainly contains glucuronoarabinoxylans and  $\beta$ -glucan interact with cellulose microfibrils (Carpita, 2008). Those cell-wall related proteins, such as xyloglucan endo- $\beta$

transglucosylases/hydrolases (XET/XTHs; GH16), endo-1,4- $\beta$ -D-glucanase (EGase, GH9), and expansins may stimulate cell wall expansion (Sénéchal, 2014). Cold stress will change the cell wall polysaccharide composition and cell wall-associated kinases (WAKs) that could bind either oligogalacturonides or pectin in cell walls (Zhang, 2012).

It is reported that some gene/protein, such as xyloglucan endo- $\beta$ -transglucosylases/hydrolases (XET/XTH), pectin methylesterase (PME), hydroxycinnamyl alcohol dehydrogenase (CAD), cell wall peroxidases (PRX), arabinogalactan protein (AGP) and wall-associated kinase (WAK) in cell wall may response to cold (Gall, 2015).

## 1.5 Transcriptome

With the rapid development of massively parallel sequencing (next-generation sequencing) (Margulies, 2005) and the maturation of analytical tools during the last few years, the sequencing method situation has changed dramatically. Whole-genome or whole transcriptome analyses has become a realistic option for genetic non-model organisms, even for individual laboratories (Ellegren, 2012). The characterization of a species' transcriptome is descriptive and generates little biological insight, it is often an important first step and constitutes a valuable resource for further analyses. RNA-seq, also called whole-transcriptome shotgun sequencing, refers to the use of high-throughput sequencing technologies for characterizing the RNA content and composition of a given sample which is randomly decomposed into short reads of several hundred base pairs. To align the hundred pairs, there are two situations that need be solved. One is that the

transcripts or genomes' information is available, which can directly align to the existing reference genome (Wang, 2009); another is the sample without a reference transcripts or genome information, in the absence of transcripts of the sample that needs to be reconstructed from these reads (or read pairs), which is referred to *as de novo* assembly (Haas, 2013).

#### 1.6 Electrolyte leakage

As cell membranes are the first target to respond to abiotic stresses, and the degree of the cell membrane injury stimulated by cold stress is often measured by electrolyte leakage from the cell (Bajji, 2001). Electrolyte leakage is an index of stress response in plant cells, it is used to instantaneously detect the injury factor triggered by stresses, including extreme temperatures, drought, pathogen attack and salinity (Lee, 2010). The mechanism of electrolyte leakage may be induced by the oxidative degradation of the lipid bilayer or the activation of K<sup>+</sup>-permeable channels, which K<sup>+</sup> may play an important role in anabolic reaction to trigger catabolic processes and save energy for adaptation and repair needs (Demidchik, 2014).

#### 1.7 Chlorophyll content

Chlorophyll, including chlorophyll a and b, which is an import pigment involved in plant photosystems that can help to covert light to energy. Photosynthetic efficiency is determined by the amount of solar radiation absorbed by the plant. Thus, the chlorophyll content indicates the nutritional status and direct response to environmental stresses

(Gitelson, 2003).

## Objectives

1. To explore the regulation of plant cold tolerance and plant growth promoting genes expressions effect of ANE by gene expression changes.
2. To compare the effect of ANE and BR on plant gene expressions by transcriptome analysis.
3. To evaluate the effect ANE on *A. donax* L. cold stress tolerance by measuring electrolyte leakage, chlorophyll content after 24 hours' freezing treatment.
4. To assess the effect of ANE and chitosan on *A. donax* survival rate over the winter.

## **Material & Methods**

*In vitro* propagated plants of *Arundo donax* L. (provided by Nile Fiber Atlantic Canada Inc.) were chosen for this study, based on their phenotype and their lignocellulosic content, which determines their worth as biomass for ethanol production. Plants were propagated through tissue culture propagation for ten weeks in a growth chamber (Fig 2a). Plants were placed into 36-hole trays filled with a peat-based mix and grown in the greenhouse for 4 weeks at 22°C with a 12 h photoperiod (Fig 2b). Plants were watered daily to prevent wilt and fertilized weekly with a Hoagland's solution (S1). Two independent experiments were conducted to characterize the plants' response to cold stress.

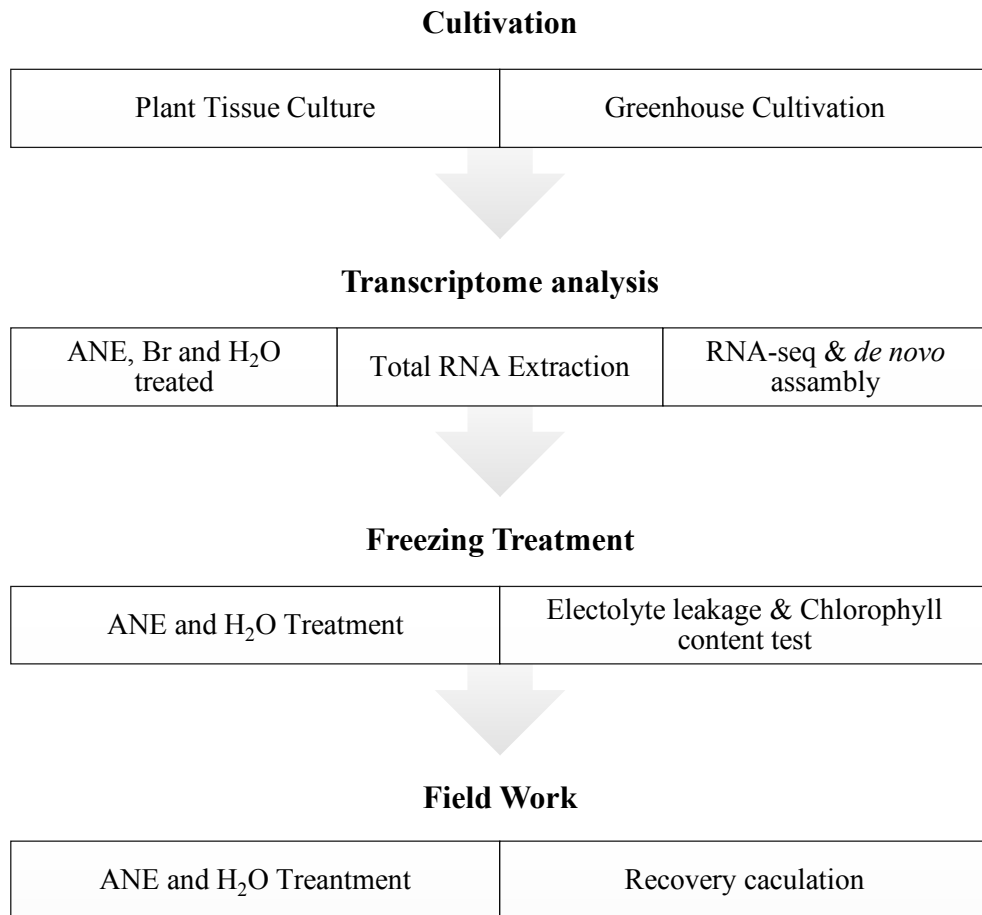
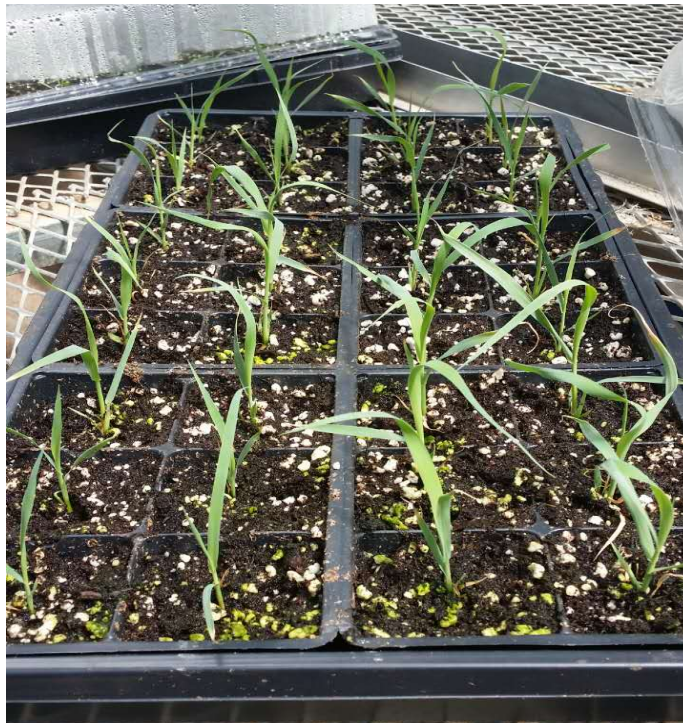


Figure 1. The workflow of present study.





a



b

Figure 2. The plant tissues were transferred into new medium for root growth (a); The

ten-weeks plants were transferred into greenhouse (b).

## 2.1. Transcriptome analysis

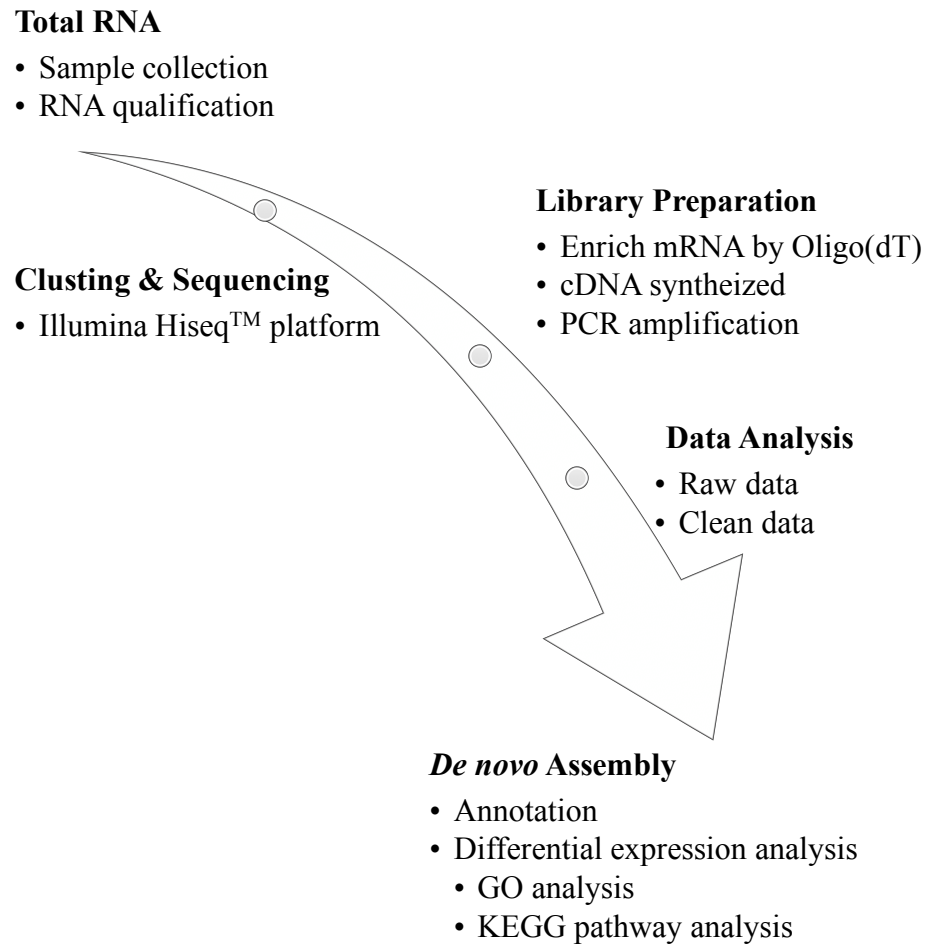


Figure 3. The workflow of *A. donax* L. transcriptase analysis in present study.

### 2.1.1. Sample collection and preparation

#### 2.1.1.1. RNA quantification and qualification

The quantification and qualification of RNA extracted from *A. donax* L. is necessary for further analysis. First, the RNA degradation and contamination was monitored on 1% agarose gels. Then, the NanoPhotometer® spectrophotometer (IMPLEN, CA, USA) was used to check the RNA purity. RNA concentration and integrity was measured using Qubit® RNA Assay Kit in Qubit® 2.0 Fluorimeter (Life Technologies, CA, USA) and the RNA Nano 6000 Assay Kit of the Agilent Bioanalyzer 2100 system (Agilent Technologies, CA, USA).

#### 2.1.1.2. Library preparation for Transcriptome sequencing

After the quality control (QC) procedure, 1.5 µg RNA per sample was prepared for sample preparations. Following the manufacturers' recommendations, sequencing libraries were generated using NEBNext® Ultra™ RNA Library Prep Kit and index codes were added to attribute sequences to each sample. Briefly, the Poly-T oligo-attached magnetic beads were used to purify mRNA from total RNA.

To carried out fragmentation, the divalent cations were used under increased temperature in NEBNext First Strand Synthesis Reaction Buffer (5X). The first strand of cDNA was synthesized by applying a random hexamer primer and M-MuLV Reverse Transcriptase (RNase H-) while the second strand of cDNA was synthesized using Polymerase I and RNase H. The exonuclease/polymerase activities help remaining

overhangs to convert into blunt ends. For hybridization, the NEBNext Adaptor with hairpin loop structure was ligated after adenylation of 3' ends of DNA fragments. To select 150~200 bp cDNA fragments preferentially, using the AMPure XP system (Beckman Coulter, Beverly, USA) to purify the library fragments. Before PCR, the size-selected and adaptor-ligated cDNA were mixed with 3 µl USER Enzyme (NEB, USA) at 37°C for 15 minutes followed by 5 minutes at 95 °C. Then PCR was performed with Phusion High-Fidelity DNA polymerase, Universal PCR primers and Index (X) Primer. Finally, the Agilent Bioanalyzer 2100 system applied to assess the PCR products and library quality. The workflow chart is as follows (Fig 4).

#### 2.1.1.3. Clustering and sequencing

TruSeq PE Cluster Kit v3-cBot-HS (Illumina) was used for clustering the index-coded samples on the Cluster Generation System. After successfully clustering samples, they were sequenced to generate paired-end reads and the library preparations were available on an Illumina HiSeq platform.

#### 2.1.2. Data analysis

##### 2.1.2.1. Quality control

The original raw data (raw reads) from Illumina HiSeq™ are transformed to Sequenced Reads by base calling. Raw data are recorded in a FASTQ file, which contains sequence information and corresponding sequencing quality information. Raw data of FASTQ format were processed through in-house Perl scripts. The containing adapter,

poly-N contained reads and low-quality reads were removed from raw data to generate clean data (clean reads). At the same time, the quality standards were calculated to evaluate the clean data, such as Q20, Q30, GC-content and sequence duplication level. The clean, high quality data with high quality is key for the downstream analyses.

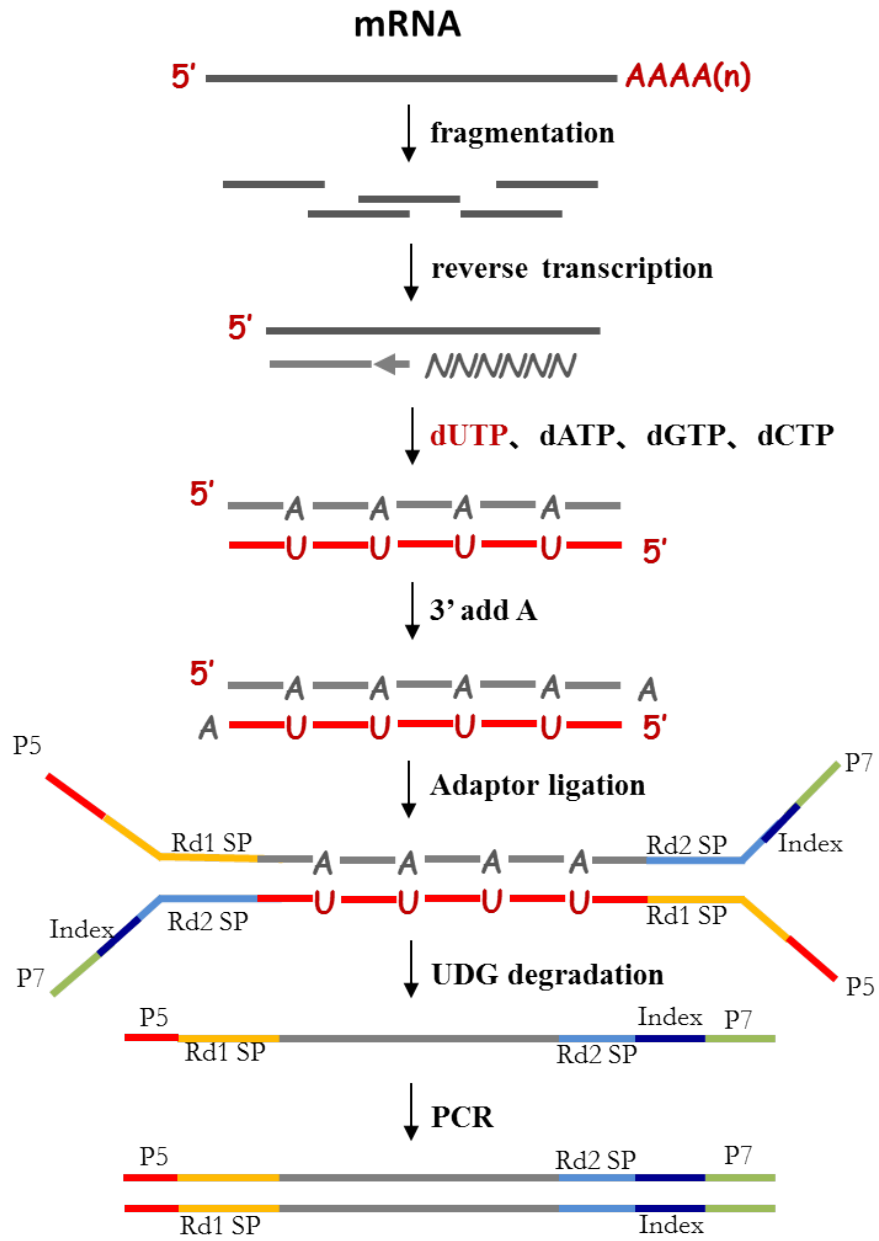


Figure 4. The library preparation and construction workflow of RNA-seq.

#### 2.1.2.2. *De novo* Transcriptome assembly

Differing from the “Mapping first” approaches, such as Scripture or Cufflinks, a reference (genome) is needed first for mapping. If the genome is available, this is the most sensitive way for transcriptome assembly. “Assembly first” (*de novo*) approaches are more suitable for samples without a reference genome (Grabherr, 2011). Trinity, a new and robust *de novo* reconstruction is used for *A. donax* L. transcriptomes. It is built in the three super software modules: Inchworm, Chrysalis and Butterfly (Fig 5). In the first step, Inchworm decomposes all the reads into overlapping k-mers (in practice,  $k = 25$ ), selects the most frequent seeding k-mer in the dictionary and extends the seed in each direction to form a contig assembly (Fig 5a). Second, Chrysalis clusters minimally overlapping Inchworm contigs into sets of connected components, and constructs complete de Bruijn graphs for each component. A collection of Inchworm contigs based on each component that are likely to be derived from alternative splice forms or closely related paralogs (Fig 5b). Finally, Chrysalis with the original reads and paired ends generates the individual de Bruijn graphs, which should be reconciled during the Butterfly component, where full-length, linear transcripts are reconstructed. It reconstructs distinct transcripts for splice isoforms and paralogous genes, and resolves ambiguities stemming from errors or from sequences  $>k$  bases long that are shared between transcripts (Fig 5c)

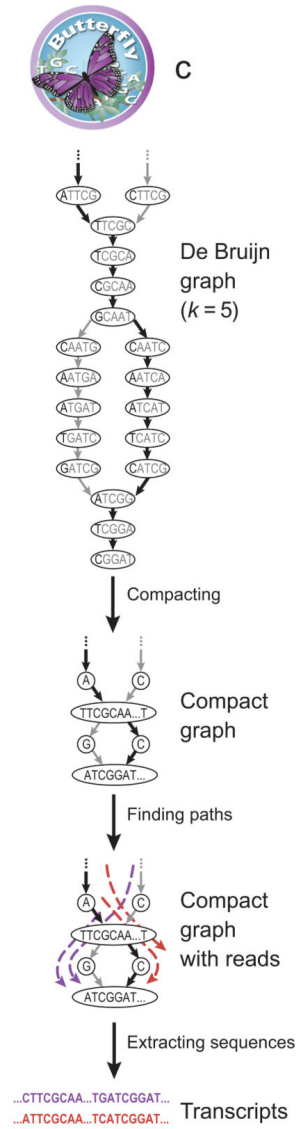
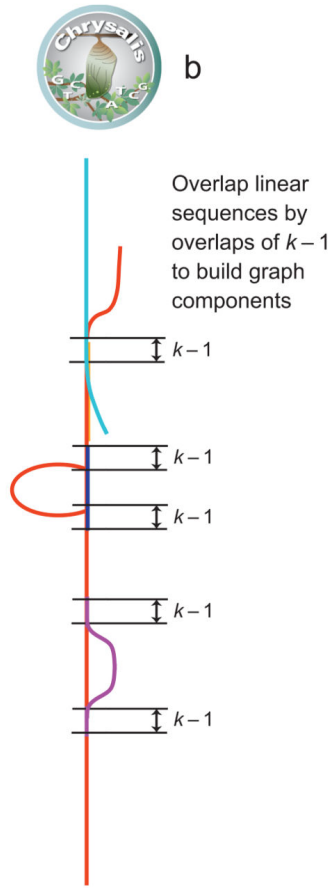
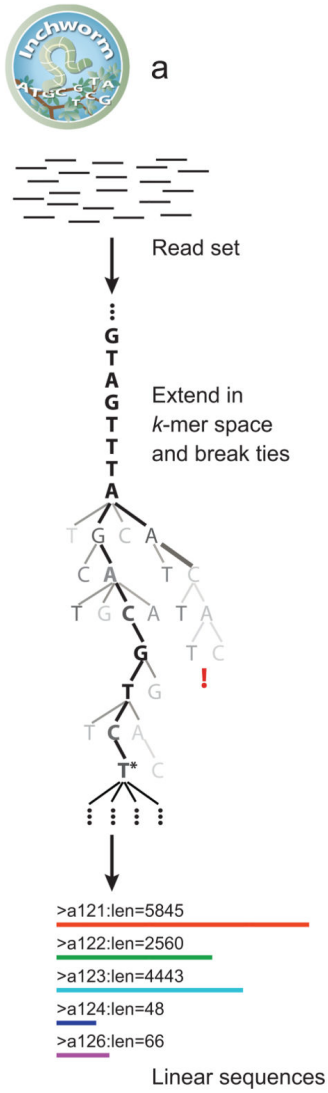




Figure 5. Overview workflow of Trinity modular method. (a) Inchworm assembles the read data set (short black line, top) by greedily searching for paths in a k-mer graph (middle), resulting in a collection of linear contigs (color lines, bottom), with each k-mer present only once in the contigs. (b) Chrysalis pools contigs if they share at least one k-1-mer and reads span the join, and builds individual de Bruijn graphs from each pool (colored lines). (c) Butterfly takes each de Bruijn graph from Chrysalis (top), and trims spurious edges and compacts linear paths (middle). It then reconciles the graph with reads (dashed colored arrows, bottom) and pairs (not shown), and outputs one linear sequence for each splice form and/or paralogous transcript reflected in the graph (bottom, colored sequences). (Grabherr, 2011).

### 2.1.2.3. Gene Function annotation

Gene function was annotated based on the following databases: Nr (NCBI non-redundant protein sequences); Nt (NCBI non-redundant nucleotide sequences); Pfam (Protein Family); KOG/COG (Clusters of Orthologous Groups of proteins); Swiss-Prot (A manually annotated and reviewed protein sequence database); KO (KEGG Ortholog database); GO (Gene Ontology).

NR, NT, SwissProt, KOG were used NCBI blast 2.2.28+. For NR, NT and SwissProt databases, the e-value threshold is  $1e-5$  (Each unigene shows top 10 alignment results), and  $1e-3$  for KOG. The top 10 alignment results will be shown for each unigene; Pfam, the most comprehensive database of protein domains and families, consists of two components: Pfam-A and Pfam-B. Pfam-A represents high quality, manually curated families. To comprehensively understand the known proteins, the PRODOM database is often used as a supplement. These automatically generated entries are called Pfam-B (Finn, 2006). GO is the established standard for the functional annotation of gene products, the annotations are based on the protein results from the databases NR and Pfam: Blast2GO v2.5 (Götz, 2008), the e-value threshold is  $1e-6$ . KEGG, a robust database, is used to understand high-level functions and utilities of the biological system, including the cell, the organism and the ecosystem. It contains KEGG PATHWAY, KEGG DRUG, KEGG DISEASE, KEGG MODULE, KEGG GENES, KEGG GENOME and KO system (KEGG ORTHOLOG) combines each KEGG annotation system. KEGG has established a complete KO annotation system which can accomplish the function annotation of the genome/transcriptome of a newly sequenced species, the e-value

threshold is  $1e-10$ .

#### 2.1.2.4. Quantification of gene expression levels

Gene expression levels were estimated by RSEM (Dewey, 2011) for each sample: Clean data were mapped back onto the assembled transcriptome, and read count for each gene was obtained from the mapping results.

#### 2.1.2.5. Differential expression analysis

For the samples without biological replicates: prior to differential gene expression analysis, for each sequenced library, the read counts were adjusted by the edge R program package through one scaling normalized factor. Differential expression analysis of two samples was performed using the DEGseq (2010) R package. The P value was adjusted using q value (Storey, 2003).  $qvalue < 0.005$  &  $|\log_2(\text{foldchange})| > 1$  was set as the threshold for significantly differential expression. For differentially expressed gene, if  $\log_2 \text{Foldchange} > 0$ , we defined it is up-regulated and vice versa.

To analyze the differential gene expression genes (DEGs), volcano plots can be used to infer the overall distribution of differentially expressed genes: the threshold is normally set as  $[\log_2(\text{Fold Change})] > 1$  and  $q\text{-value} < 0.005$ ; The Venn diagram presents the number of genes that are uniquely expressed differentially within each group, with the overlapping regions showing the number of genes that are expressed in two or more groups. Cluster Analysis is used to find genes with similar expression patterns under various experimental conditions. By clustering genes with similar expression patterns, it

may be possible to discern unknown functions of previously characterized genes or the function of unknown genes. In hierarchical clustering, areas of different colors denote different groups (clusters) of genes, and genes within each cluster may have similar functions or take part in the same biological process.

#### 2.1.2.6. GO enrichment analysis

Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment analysis of the differentially expressed genes (DEGs) was implemented by the GOrse R packages based on the Wallenius non-central hyper-geometric distribution (Young, 2010), which can adjust for gene length bias in DEGs.

#### 2.1.2.7. KEGG pathway enrichment analysis

KEGG (Kanehisa, 2008) is a database resource for understanding high-level functions and utilities of the biological system, such as the cell, the organism and the ecosystem, using molecular-level information (especially large-scale molecular datasets) generated by genome sequencing and other high-throughput experimental technologies (<http://www.genome.jp/kegg/>). KOBAS (Mao, 2005) software was used to test the statistical enrichment of differential expression genes in KEGG pathways.

#### 2.1.3. Freezing Treatment

After four weeks of growing in the greenhouse at Saint Mary's University, *A.*

*donax* L. plants were sprayed with 15mL of 3ml/L ANE and H<sub>2</sub>O. All the plants were treated with ANE or water during 12 hours prior to being transferred into -4°C growth chamber for 24 hours. After 24 hours, the leaves were ready for the next experiment of completely randomized design. After all of the experiments on plants leaves, the plants were transferred to the green roof under natural climatic conditions.

#### 2.1.4. Electrolyte Leakage

This electrolyte leakage method is based on (Sukumaran, 1972) and later modified by (Ristic, 1993). Firstly, fully developed leaves were excised and cut into 1.0 cm<sup>2</sup> discs. For this experiment, I used the second leaves counting from the top to bottom. It is important to have the same weight and development stages of leaves during this experiment, as the freezing stress is based on leaf order and development stage (Takagi, 2003). Then, the discs were placed into tubes with 16 mL deionized water. The tubes were then covered and shaken using a horizontal shaker (150 cycles / minute) at 25 °C for 1 hour. After shaking, the solutions were firstly measured by an electrical conductivity meter. The results were marked as Lt. Before the second measurement (Ltm), the tubes were autoclaved in 121 °C for 15 minutes. Finally, the percentage of electrolyte leakage as the ratio of the conductivity before and after autoclaving was calculated. The formula is:

$$Rt \% = (Lt/Ltm)100$$

### 2.1.5. Chlorophyll

The extraction with dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO) has proven more efficient for the analysis of chlorophyll content of plants (Hiscox, 1979). 100mg leaves of *A. donax* L. were prepared and 7 mL DMSO added. Then all the tubes with leaves inside were incubated for 24 hours. Filled up DMSO to each tubes at 10 mL after incubation. Finally, 1.0 mL samples of chlorophyll extract were transferred to a cuvette and measured at 645 nm and 663 nm of OD value. Calculation used Arnon's (1949) equation:

$$\text{Chla (g l}^{-1}\text{)} = 0.0127 \times A_{663} - 0.00269 \times A_{645};$$

$$\text{Chlb (g l}^{-1}\text{)} = 0.0229 \times A_{645} - 0.00468 \times A_{663};$$

$$\text{Tot Chl (g l}^{-1}\text{)} = 0.0202 \times A_{645} + 0.00802 \times A_{663}.$$

### 2.1.6. Field Work

All the plants were moved after freezing treatments to the green roof and planted in three big boxes under normal climatic conditions. The boxes were located on the green roof above the library at Saint Mary's University. Before the winter, the soil was drenched with 3 mL/L ANE, 75 ppm chitosan and H<sub>2</sub>O and then above-ground biomass was harvested 5 cm above the soil surface. To monitor the soil temperature during the winter, electronic thermometers were placed in the middle and at the edge of one of the three boxes. The boxes were then covered with plastic to mimic the soil conditions in a Nova Scotian winter. (Fig 7).

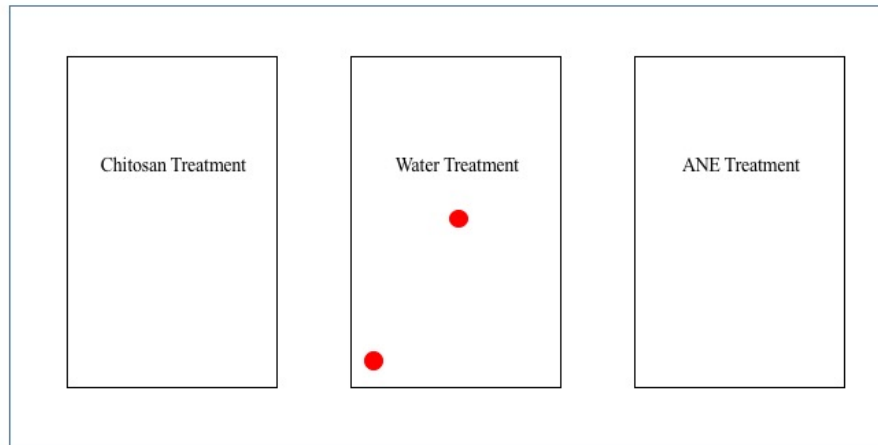


Figure 6. The chitosan, water and ANE-treated *A. donax* L. after freezing treatment were cultivated in three boxes; The red dots represent the thermometers.



Figure 7. To achieve the field soil conditions in the winter, the boxes were covered a layer of plastic.

## Results

### 3.1. Transcriptome analysis

#### 3.1.1. Transcriptome sequencing and *De novo* assembly of the *Arundo donax* L.

##### 3.1.1.1. Illumina transcriptome sequencing

The original raw data from Illumina HiSeq™ 2500 were transformed to Sequenced Reads by base calling. Overall, 208,414,413 paired-end (PE) reads were obtained for filtering. All the reads with adaptor contamination, low quality nucleotides or the uncertain nucleotides constituted more than 10% of the total reads (N>10%) and were removed. Thus, the downstream analyses are based on clean reads (totaling 199,502,584 (95.7%)) after filtering. To evaluate the corrected sequencing data by average sequencing rate (read error), percentages of bases whose correct base recognition rates are greater than 99% and 99.9% in total bases (Q20, Q30 which an error probability of 0.01 and 0.001). GC content is the percentages of G and C in total bases. In total, there are 62,525,110 raw reads of ANE; 74,012,716 of BR raw reads and 71,876,612 of H<sub>2</sub>O raw reads were trimmed. After trimming, the file sizes of clean bases were 7.45G for ANE, 8.89G for BR and 8.59G for H<sub>2</sub>O with only 0.03% error rates. The quality of Q20, Q30 and GC content in all treatments were accepted for further downstream *de novo* transcript assembly (Table 2).

##### 3.1.1.2. *De novo* transcriptome assembly

For samples with no reference genome, clean reads need to be assembled to get a



reference sequence for the following analysis. Clean reads were reconstructed by Trinity, which is the software chosen to complete the transcriptome reconstruction process without a reference genome, to get a full-length transcriptome. The longest transcript of each gene is selected as the unigene. Our assembly generated 186,282 transcripts that further translated into 123,000 unigenes for downstream analyses. The length distribution of transcripts and unigenes ranged from 201bp to 1.3kb (Fig 8). The most number of transcripts and unigenes are located in 200-500bp, with a mean length transcript of 758bp and an N50 (the average length of sequences ) of 1263bp of transcripts and unigenes' mean length is 572 with 837bp N50 (Table 3)

Table 2. Summary of Illumina transcriptome sequencing data for *Arundo donax* L.

<b>Sample</b>	<b>Raw Reads</b>	<b>Clean Reads</b>	<b>Clean Bases</b>	<b>Error(%)</b>	<b>Q20(</b>	<b>Q30(%)</b>	<b>GC Content(%)</b>
<b>ANE</b>	62,525,110	59,612,862	7.45G	0.03	95.27	90.46	56.3
<b>H<sub>2</sub>O</b>	71,876,612	68,749,188	8.59G	0.03	95.38	90.76	53.97
<b>BR</b>	74,012,716	71,140,534	8.89G	0.03	95.73	91.45	50.54

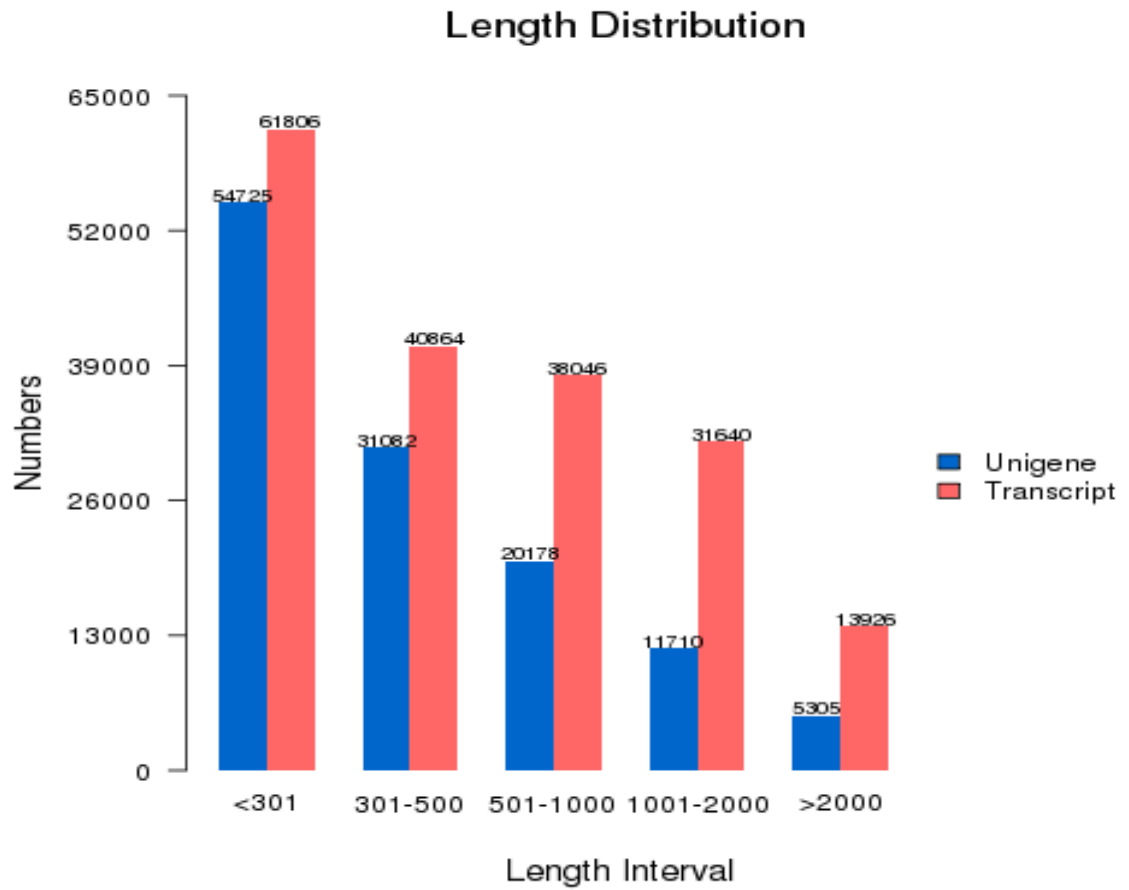


Figure 8. Length of transcripts and unigenes. X-axis indicates length interval of transcript and unigene; Y-axis indicates the number of transcript and unigene in each length interval.

Table 3. Summary of the *de novo* assembly of *Arundo donax* L.

<b>Sample</b>	<b>Min length</b>	<b>Mean length</b>	<b>Median length</b>	<b>Max length</b>	<b>N50</b>	<b>Total Nucleotides</b>
<b>Transcripts</b>	201	758	433	12,938	1263	141,272,636
<b>Unigenes</b>	201	572	326	12,938	837	70,379,041

### 3.1.2. Gene Functional Annotation.

#### 3.1.2.1. Gene functional annotation

To achieve the comprehensive understanding of gene functional annotation, the 123,000 unigenes were analyzed by seven databases (Nr, Nt, Pfam, KOG/COG, Swiss-Prot, KO, GO). The successfully annotated genes are shown in Table 4.

Based on the top annotation via Nr database, the results showed a significant similarity of *Setaria italica* (35.5%), then *Sorghum bicolor* (15.7%), *Zea mays* (15.3%) and the possibility of other species is 22.5%. The E-value of the top matches is 13.8% of the unigenes with higher score (E=0). Of the unigenes, 70.1% showed similarity greater than 80%, 26 % showed similarities between 60 – 80 % and only 4 % had similarities less than 60% (Fig 9).

#### 3.1.2.2. KOG classification

To understand the functional information of *A. donax* L. transcriptome, the assembled unigenes were matched against the Eukaryotic Orthologous Groups (KOG) database. 12,899 unigenes were annotated in the KOG database with 26 classifications (Fig 10). There are 2,443 unigenes located in category R (18.9%), which refers to “General function mechanism”, a category that doesn’t specify a certain functional group. The remaining unigenes were annotated into the following KOG categories: “Posttranslational modification, protein turnover, chaperones”, “Signal transduction mechanisms”, “Translation, ribosomal structure and biogenesis”, “Intracellular trafficking,

secretion, and vesicular transport”.

Table 4. The ratio of successfully annotated genes.

	<b>Number of Unigenes</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
<b>Annotated in NR</b>	49116	39.93
<b>Annotated in NT</b>	42118	34.24
<b>Annotated in KO</b>	14350	11.66
<b>Annotated in SwissProt</b>	28426	23.11
<b>Annotated in PFAM</b>	30212	24.56
<b>Annotated in GO</b>	32555	26.46
<b>Annotated in KOG</b>	12899	10.48
<b>Annotated in all Databases</b>	6323	5.14
<b>Annotated in at least one Database</b>	59705	48.54
<b>Total Unigenes</b>	123000	100

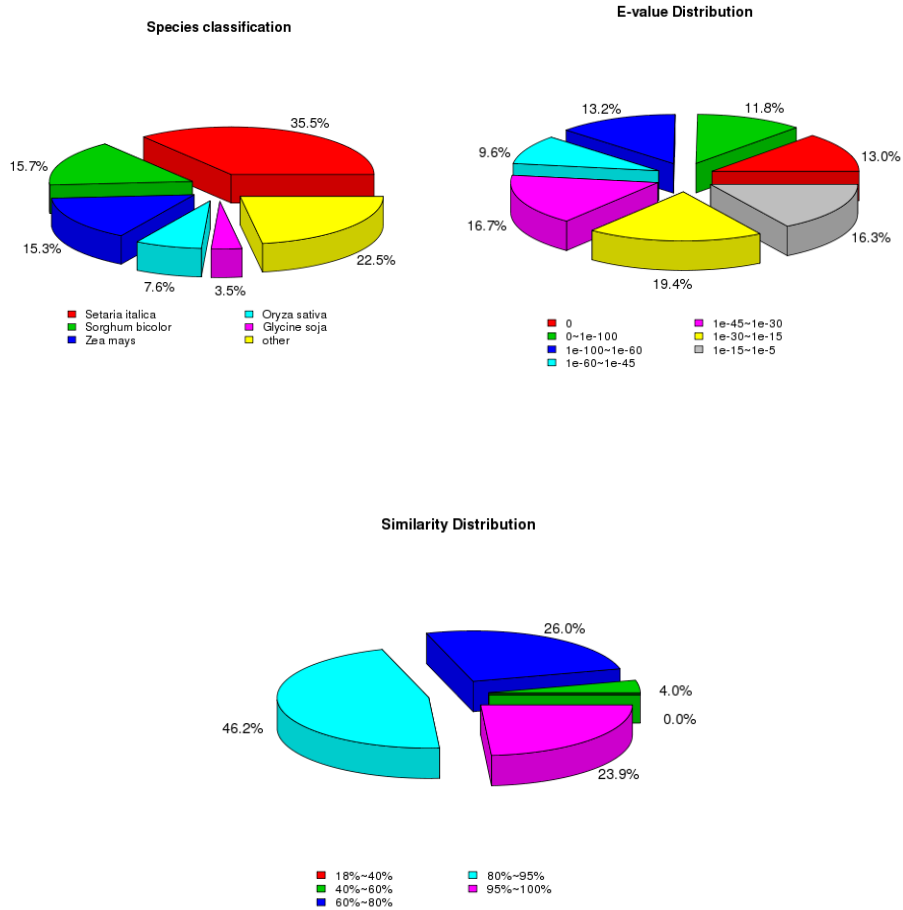


Figure 9. Species, E-value, and similarity distributions of assembled transcriptome against Nr database are shown.



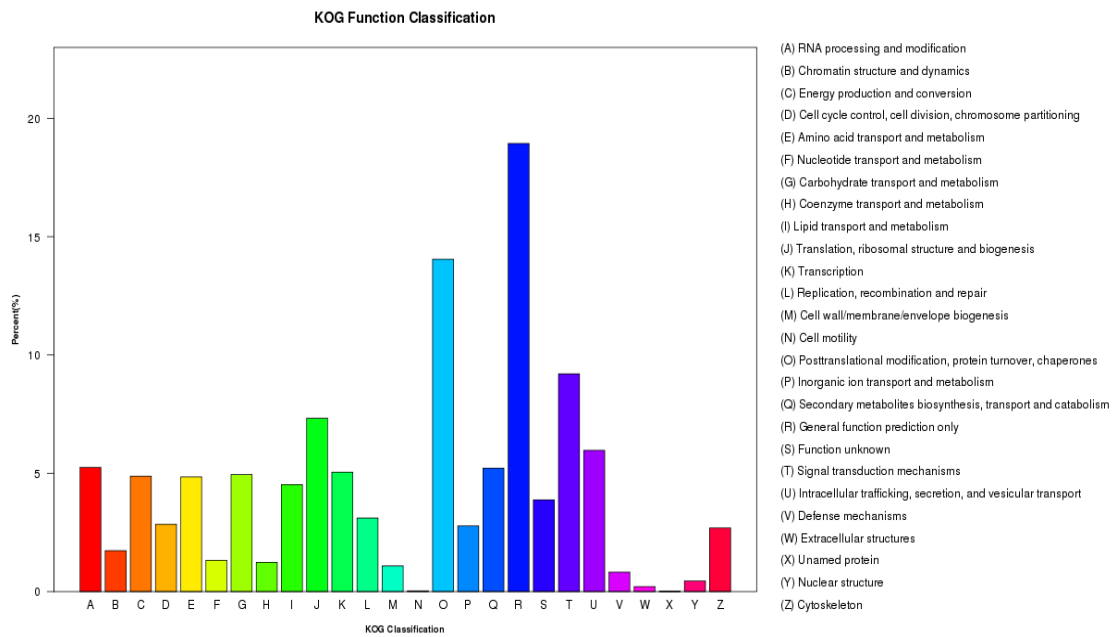


Figure 10. KOG Classification. X-axis is the names of the 26 KOG group; Y-axis is the percentage of genes annotated under this group in the total annotated genes.

### 3.1.3. Gene expression analysis

#### 3.1.3.1. Quality analysis of RNA-seq data.

Transcriptomes reconstructed by Trinity were used as a reference (ref). RSEM is the software used to do the alignment. The summary of mapping results is shown in Figure 3. In total, there are 41,384,416 (69.42%) clean reads of ANE were mapped in 59,612,862 total clean reads, 49,583,946 (69.70%) clean reads of BR were mapped in 71,140,534 total clean reads and for the H<sub>2</sub>O treatment, 47,319,336 (68.83%) clean reads of 68,749,188 were totally mapped (Fig 11). All the data were analyzed between three groups, ANE vs BR, ANE vs H<sub>2</sub>O and BR vs H<sub>2</sub>O. The scatter plots and Pearson correlation (Fig 12) indicated that the gene expression of ANE treatment is more similar to BR treatment than the ANE treatment compared with H<sub>2</sub>O.

#### 3.1.3.2. The differential expression analysis of *Arundo donax* L.

In total, there are maximum 71,267 unigenes that showed differential expression, only 664 genes were defined as DEGs (differentially expressed genes), which is significantly expressed genes, in ANE and BR when compared to H<sub>2</sub>O treatments. According to the threshold without biological replicate, this experiment is set as:  $|\log_2(\text{FoldChange})| > 1$  and  $q \text{ value} < 0.005$ . Between ANE and H<sub>2</sub>O treatment, 212 genes were DEGs, including 145 up-regulated genes, and 67 down-regulated genes. Only 166 genes were DEGs in BR versus H<sub>2</sub>O, including 69 up-regulated genes and 97 down-regulated genes (Fig 13). Between ANE versus H<sub>2</sub>O and BR versus H<sub>2</sub>O, there are 26

different up-regulated genes in common, and 23 down-regulated genes in common (Fig 14).

Comparing ANE versus H<sub>2</sub>O and BR versus H<sub>2</sub>O, there are 26 up-regulated and 23 down-regulated genes that overlap between the two treatments (Tables 5 and 6). Except the most ribosomal proteins, the chloroplast, RubisCo and Chitinase are all showing up-regulated in ANE and BR treatments, which may indicate both ANE and BR could steer plant development.

Clustering analysis was used to find the differences in patterns of total differential expressed genes clustering in ANE, BR and H<sub>2</sub>O treatments. The heat map shows the hierarchical clustering of differentially expressed genes in all three treatments (Fig 15). The total differential expressed genes in the BR treatment are closer to the control (H<sub>2</sub>O), than the ANE treatment. However, there are three sections A, B and C shown in the heat map, showing the different patterns of differential expressed genes in ANE, BR and control. The A section presents the down-regulated genes after BR treatment that is most similar with control; B section shows the most dissimilar genes between ANE and BR treatments; C section is obviously similarly expressed genes between ANE and BR treatments. The sections in Figure 15 were analyzed to show the genes' molecular function, the results are shown in fig 16. In total, there were 68 genes in the A section, and the molecular functions can statistically be divided into 12 categories, whereas 46 genes in the B section have 12 categories as well. The C section contains 49 genes but only divided into 10 categories. Except for the uncharacterized proteins in those three sections, the “oxidoreductase activity” both in A section and B section and the “structural

constituent of ribosome” in C section show the most molecular functions. The oxidoreductase activity including many child enzymes activity is the basic activity in plant (i.e. photosynthesis and respiration). The most similar up-regulated genes in ANE and BR belongs to “structural constituent of ribosome”, which is the action of a molecule that contributes to the structural integrity of the ribosome.

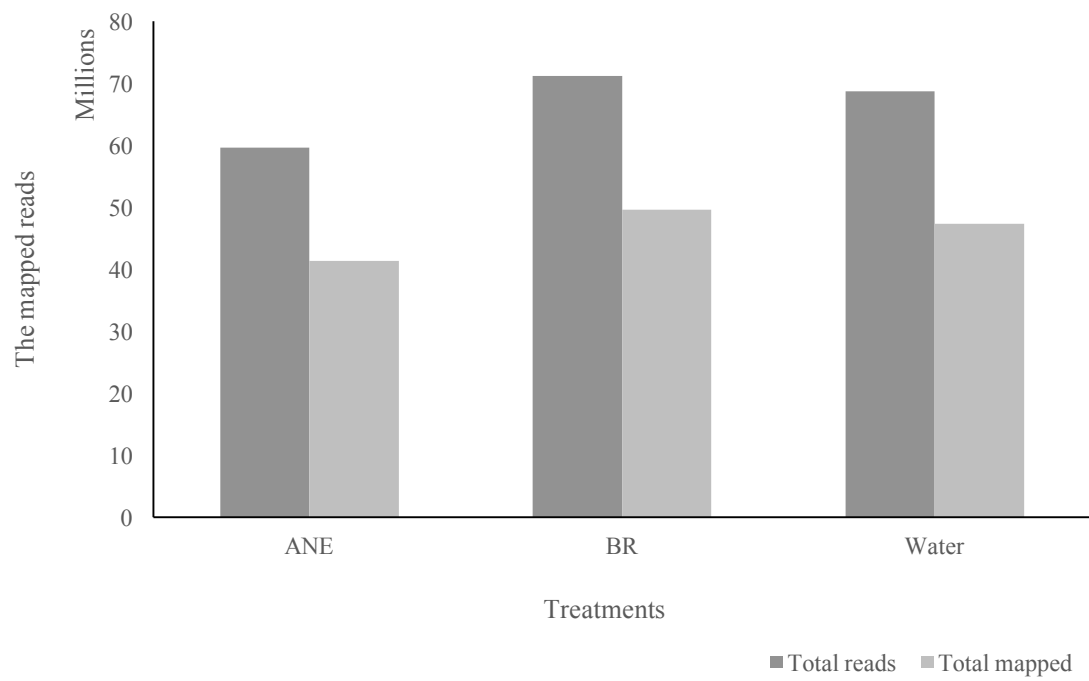


Figure 11. Overview of the Alignment Situation.

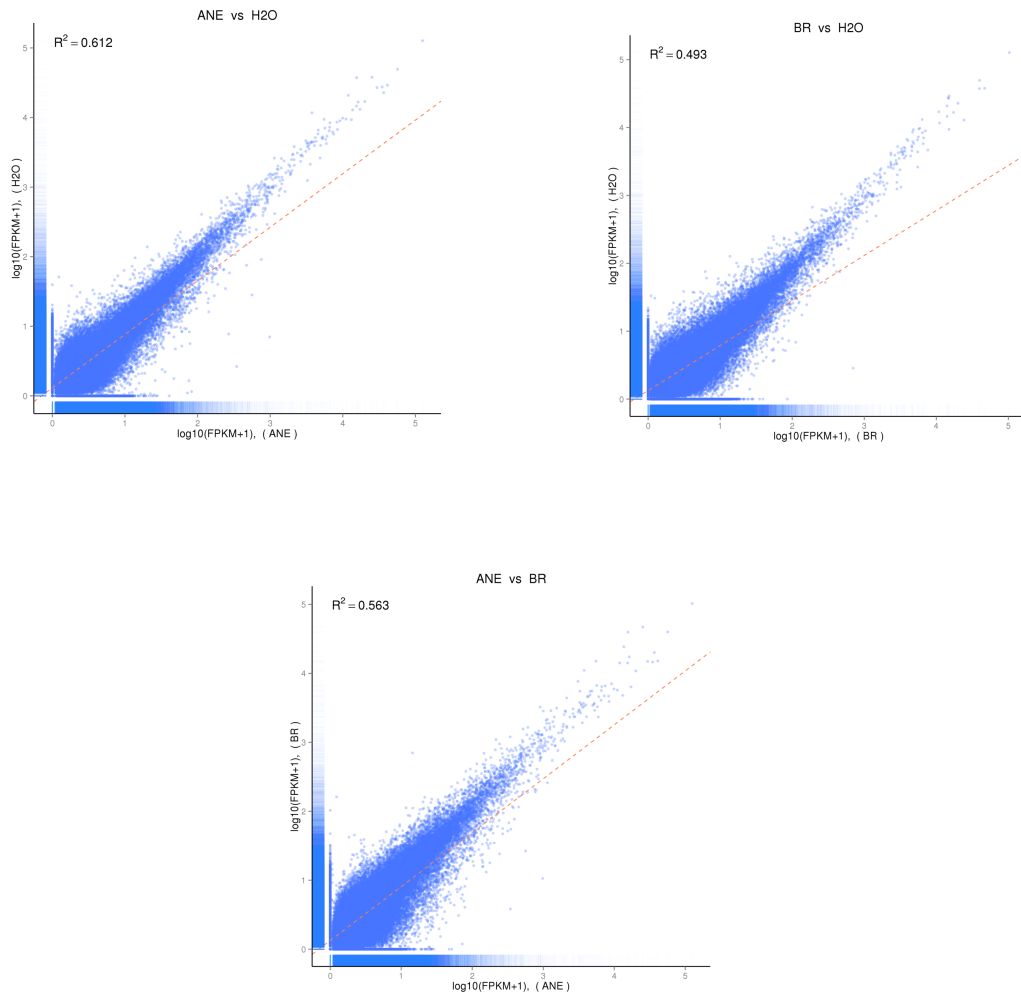


Figure 12. The correlation between ANE, H<sub>2</sub>O and BR treatments without biological replicates of *A. donax* L.

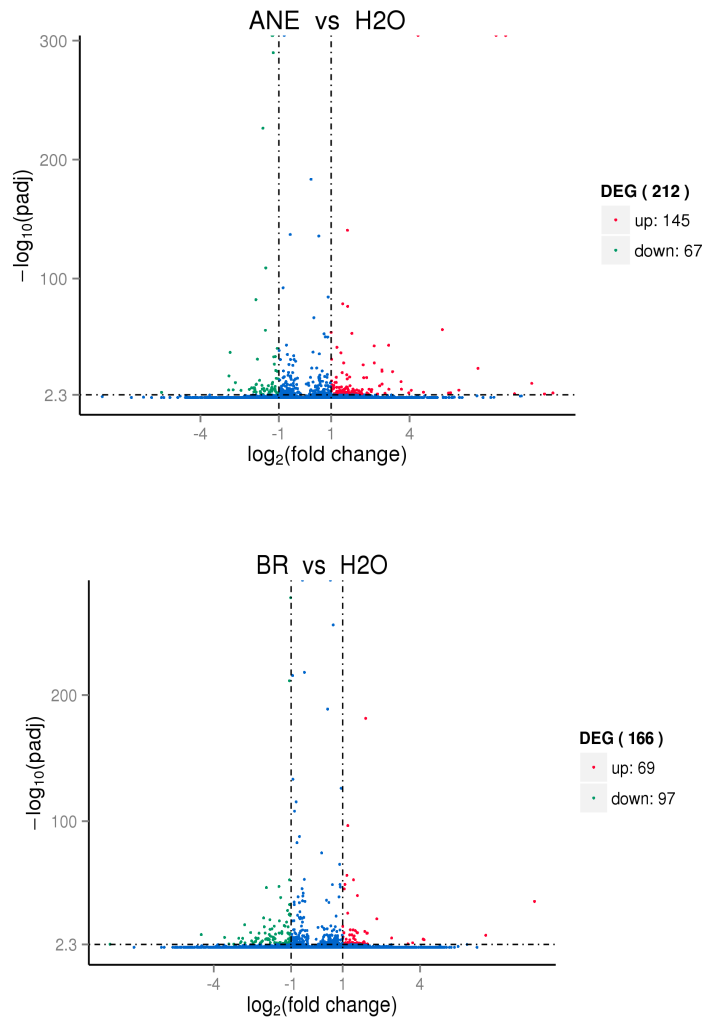


Figure 13. The differential expressed genes of ANE, BR treatments compare with H<sub>2</sub>O treatments. The horizontal axis represents fold changes of gene expression, and the vertical axis represents the statistically level. The red dots are significantly up-regulated genes and the green dots are down-regulated genes.

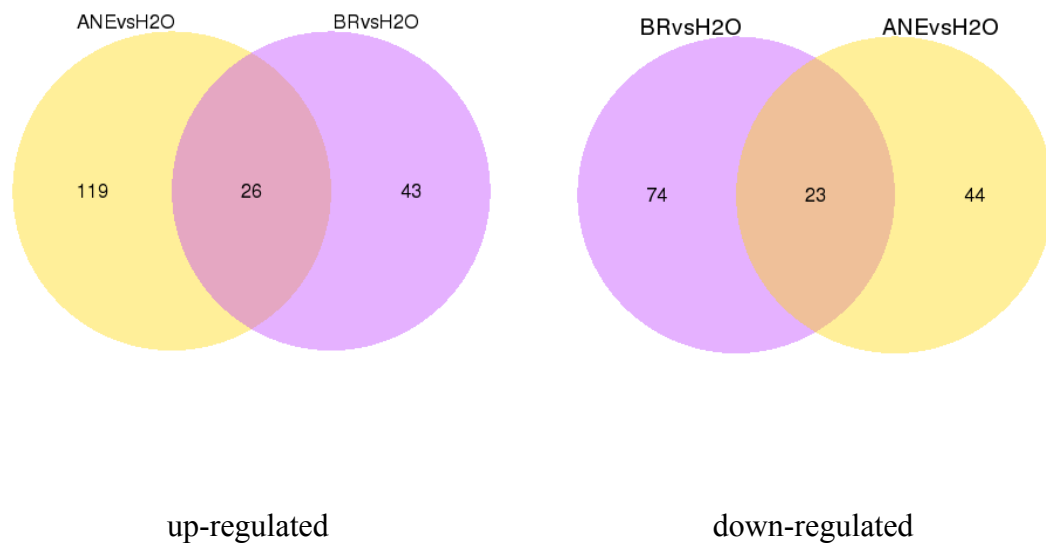


Figure 14. Venn diagram of differentially expressed genes (DEGs). The number in one color circle present the total number of DEGs, and the number in overlap presents the DEGs in common.



Table 5. All up-regulation genes in ANE Vs H<sub>2</sub>O and BR Vs H<sub>2</sub>O treatments.

Genes	Gene Length	Swissprot Evalue	Swissprot Description
<b>c80893_g1</b>	2194	6.79E-32	BTB/POZ and TAZ domain-containing protein 2
<b>c66400_g1</b>	1699	--	--
<b>c102414_g1</b>	1079	4.83E-36	Extracellular ribonuclease LE
<b>c80903_g1</b>	4029	1.19E-14	Protein CHLOROPLAST IMPORT APPARATUS
<b>c80756_g1</b>	1474	5.21E-108	60S ribosomal protein L18a
<b>c76749_g2</b>	942	3.29E-32	Low molecular mass early light-inducible protein
<b>c70968_g1</b>	1363	1.23E-27	Ribonuclease 3
<b>c83404_g2</b>	1081	5.29E-57	Elongation factor 1-delta 2
<b>c75964_g3</b>	659	--	--
<b>c79624_g1</b>	1630	1.40E-82	40S ribosomal protein S19
<b>c84718_g1</b>	2099	0	RuBisCO large subunit-binding protein subunit alpha, chloroplastic (Fragment)
<b>c81787_g1</b>	1209	1.23E-121	40S ribosomal protein S8
<b>c82106_g1</b>	1193	3.54E-78	60S ribosomal protein L19-1
<b>c64145_g1</b>	857	1.44E-70	31 kDa ribonucleoprotein, chloroplastic
<b>c84537_g2</b>	1566	6.08E-101	60S ribosomal protein L13-2
<b>c65609_g1</b>	649	--	--
<b>c79280_g2</b>	1269	6.35E-38	40S ribosomal protein S15
<b>c81237_g2</b>	1865	2.03E-08	Ethylene-responsive transcription factor ERF112
<b>c64937_g1</b>	4493	2.81E-101	Methylsterol monooxygenase 1-1
<b>c83699_g1</b>	1469	1.18E-142	60S ribosomal protein L7a
<b>c69863_g1</b>	967	--	--

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<b>c75936_g1</b>	803	1.87E-57	60S ribosomal protein L44
<b>c109468_g1</b>	1103	8.02E-131	Chitinase 11
<b>c70474_g1</b>	988	1.67E-19	Horcolin
<b>c79623_g2</b>	1349	9.72E-173	60S ribosomal protein L5-1
<b>c83465_g2</b>	2322	0	Chaperonin 60 subunit beta 2, chloroplastic

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Table 5. All down-regulation genes in ANE Vs H<sub>2</sub>O and BR Vs H<sub>2</sub>O treatments.

Genes	Gene Length	Swissprot Evaluate	Swissprot Description
<b>c55188_g1</b>	1558	2.20E-112	Senescence-specific cysteine protease SAG39
<b>c68571_g1</b>	2446	0	Vacuolar-processing enzyme
<b>c26155_g1</b>	1216	1.65E-06	UPF0301 protein Plut_0637
<b>c69279_g1</b>	1829	0	Serine carboxypeptidase 2
<b>c84130_g1</b>	2694	0	Probable beta-D-xylosidase 7
<b>c81295_g1</b>	2472	1.05E-61	Photosynthetic NDH subunit of subcomplex B 5, chloroplastic
<b>c84581_g1</b>	1165	2.58E-129	Xyloglucan endotransglucosylase/hydrolase protein 22
<b>c78062_g1</b>	1762	1.28E-174	Photosynthetic NDH subunit of subcomplex B 1, chloroplastic
<b>c78553_g1</b>	3861	--	--
<b>c78664_g1</b>	4497	2.29E-117	Transposon Ty3-G Gag-Pol polyprotein
<b>c70536_g1</b>	1657	7.89E-10	Uncharacterized protein MJ1232
<b>c73907_g1</b>	1318	--	--
<b>c72638_g1</b>	2609	9.43E-45	Putative disease resistance protein RGA3

<b>c75803_g1</b>	3902	1.28E-58	Disease resistance protein RPP13
<b>c77024_g1</b>	3052	0	Probable galactinol--sucrose galactosyltransferase 2
<b>c70255_g1</b>	1867	2.88E-147	Probable high-affinity nitrate transporter 2.4
<b>c75426_g1</b>	2371	0	Sucrose:sucrose 1-fructosyltransferase
<b>c76249_g1</b>	1127	--	--
<b>c82609_g1</b>	2599	1.05E-135	Uncharacterized protein ycf45
<b>c79475_g2</b>	1490	0	Probable isoaspartyl peptidase/L- asparaginase 2
<b>c79481_g1</b>	1962	--	--
<b>c83222_g1</b>	3152	0	Probable metal-nicotianamine transporter YSL6

Cluster analysis of differentially expressed genes

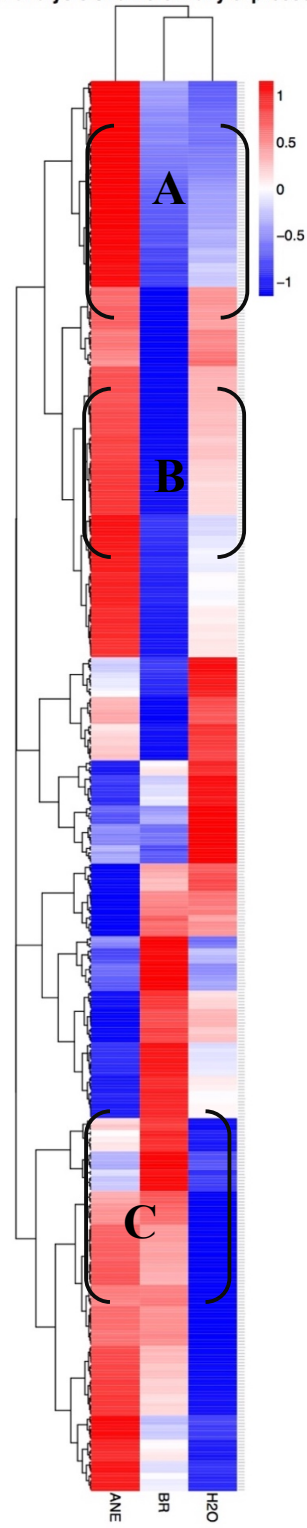
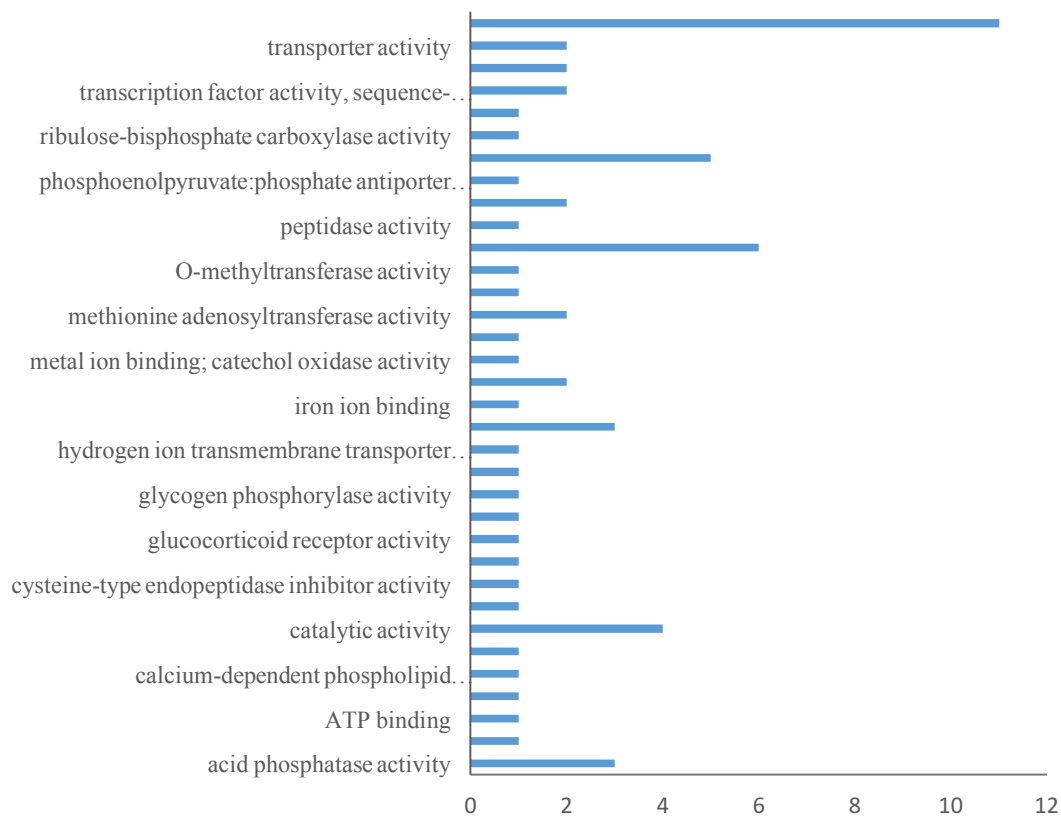
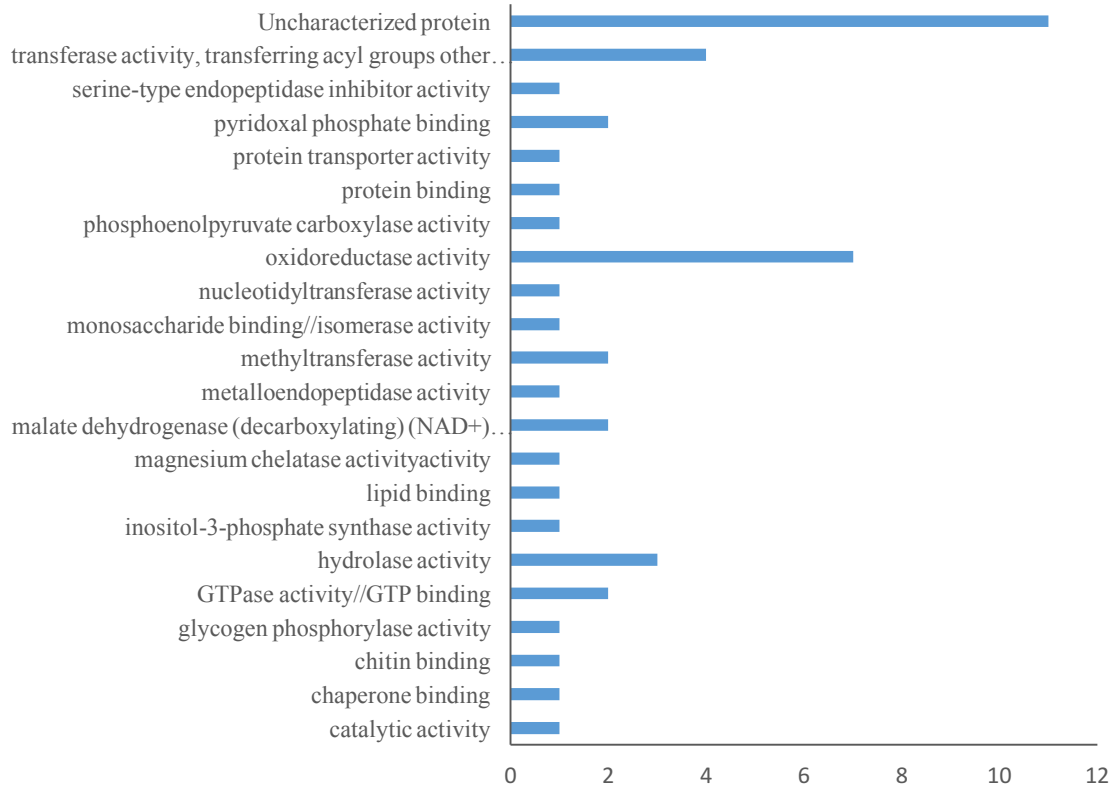


Figure 15. Heat map of cluster analysis of DEGs.

The genes molecular function ditribution of Fig. 15 section A



The genes molecular function ditribution of Fig. 15 section  
B



The genes molecular function ditribution of Fig. 15 section  
C

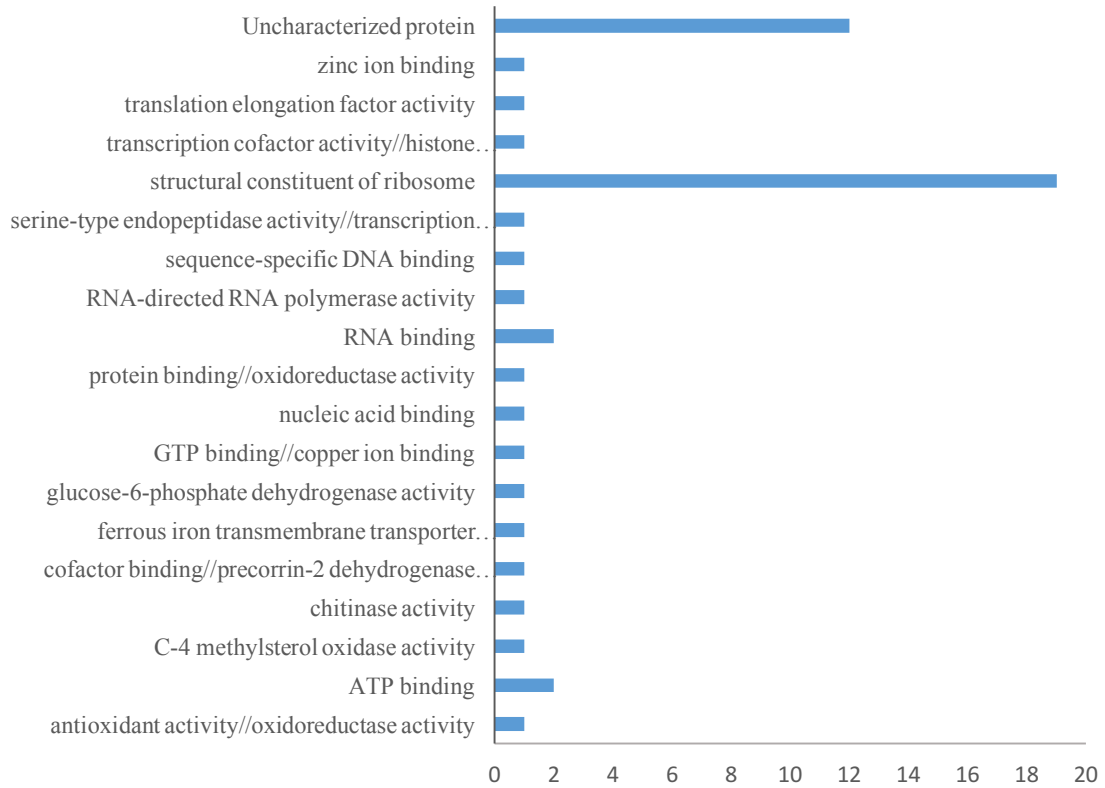


Figure 16. The detail comparisons of cluster analysis. A: the area where the gene expressions of BR treatment is more similar to water; B; the area where the gene expressions of ANE and BR treatments are significantly difference; C; the area where ANE and BR treatments have the similar gene expressions.



### 3.1.3.3. The genes analysis

All the up-regulated DEG genes in ANE vs H<sub>2</sub>O and BR vs H<sub>2</sub>O were analyzed and summarized (Tables 7, 8, 9). There are 146 significant up-regulated genes in ANE vs H<sub>2</sub>O treatment, and 70 in BR vs H<sub>2</sub>O treatment. In the ANE vs H<sub>2</sub>O up-regulated genes, the top 6 up-regulated genes related to plant growth and plant defense are c78010\_g1 (PLP2), c36935\_g1(MTR\_069s1001), c76292\_g1(TPS6), c83073\_g1(EXPA4), c81715\_g4(GPT2), and c80903\_g1(CIA2). PLP2 was originally found in insect cells, and then expressed in cucumber, tobacco and bean leaves, this protein involved in lipolytic acyl hydrolase (LAH) activity, which contributes to resistance to Cucumber mosaic virus, possibly providing the fatty acid precursors for biosynthesis of oxylipins (Camera, 2009). Besides, TPS6 shown expression in defense against herbivores and microbial pathogens (Kollner, 2008). Those two genes both highly increased involved in biotic stress. Vitamin C exists in various plant showing some effects on photosynthesis and transmembrane electron transport (Wheeler, 1998). EXPA4 causes loosening and extension of plant cell wall (Choi, 2003); GPT2 as substrate for fatty acid biosynthesis and NADPH generation (H. H. Kunz, 2010); CIA2 involved in protein import and translation efficiencies (Sun, 2009), RuBisCO large subunit-binding protein subunit alpha (Rlsp $\alpha$ ) is in the assembly of RuBisCo in higher plant chloroplast (Demirevska, 2008). All of those relating to the plant development.

The abiotic stresses-inducible genes can be divided into two groups: one is directly related to plant resistance cells such as anti-freezing protein, osmotic regulatory protein, some enzymes for synthesizing betaine and proline; the other is regulating gene

or signal transduction (Ciarmiello, 2011).

In ANE vs H<sub>2</sub>O treatment, there are 12 up-regulated DEGs annotated with plant cold response. Those genes are c78602\_g1 (ANN4), c59812\_g1 (Olp), c83155\_g3 (HSP70), c84137 (RH3), c73125\_g2 (UspAp), c78602\_g1(WRKY21), c109468\_g1(Cht11), c80526\_g1(DHAR2), c75292\_g3(PER24). ANN4, described affect by the osmotic stress, which is may involved in cold response (Lee S. L., 2004). Olp belongs to the Pathogenesis-related protein 5 (PR-5) family, which is induction in many plants abiotic or biotic stresses (Patade, 2013). HSP70 was detected in all cells, most of this family genes are interacting with other genes under stress condition. Their effects on the other cell is still little understood (Neven, 1992). RH3 participate in metabolism of RNA, it response many cellular functions including abiotic stress (Macovei, 2012). UspAp short for Universal stress protein A-like protein, those proteins are directly response to the abiotic stresses, especially to the extremely higher or lower temperature (Jung, 2015); c78602\_g1(WRKY21), c109468\_g1(Cht11), c80526\_g1(DHAR2), c75292\_g3(PER24) are transfer factors or enzymes to involved in the abiotic responses. WRKY transcription factor family showing response to abiotic stress, biotic stress, senescence. WRKY 21 is described that may have involved in cold stress (Zhou, 2008). Cht11, PER24 and DHAR2 are enzymes involved in stress responses (Xu, 2007) (Lee D. H., 2000) (Yoshida, 2006).

Compare to the ANE vs H<sub>2</sub>O up-regulation results, the most up-regulated genes response to plant growth in BR treatment, 3 of them are same genes showing in DEGs as ANE treatment, including CIA2, GPT2 and RubisCo large submit-binding protein.

c83968\_g1(NPF), c80893\_g1(BT) indicated that encoded by auxin-responsive genes, or induced the auxin during the plant growth (Robert, 2009) (Chiba, 2015). c81464\_g1(APL) gene encoded with Myb coiled-coil-type transcription factor was import for phloem in Arabidopsis (Bonke, 2003). Glutaredoxin-C1 was found in BR treatment, which suggested has biochemical roles: the reduction of disulphide bonds and the binding of iron–sulphur clusters (Rouhier, 2010). Only the Chitinase is the same up regulated gene as ANE treatment.

Table 7. The up-regulated gene expressions show plant development response after ANE treatment.

<b>Gene ID</b>	<b>Log2. Fold change</b>	<b>P value</b>	<b>Protein Name</b>	<b>Description</b>
<b>c78010_g1</b>	8.0179	3.50E-06	Patatin-like protein 2 (PLP2)	Possesses non-specific lipolytic acyl hydrolase (LAH) activity.
<b>c36935_g1</b>	7.313	0	Cell wall-associated hydrolase (MTR_069s1001)	
<b>c76292_g1</b>	6.6186	2.14E-28	(S)-beta-macrocarpene synthase (TPS6)	Involved in the biosynthesis of the bicyclic sesquiterpene (S)-beta-macrocarpene.
<b>c70975_g1</b>	3.2064	2.70E-10	L-ascorbate oxidase (Vc)	May be involved in a redox system involving ascorbic acid.

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<b>c83073_g1</b>	2.9461	8.88E-15	Expansin-A4 (EXPA4)	Causes loosening and extension of plant cell wall
<b>c81715_g4</b>	2.5559	6.45E-10	Glucose-6-phosphate/phosphate translocator 2, chloroplastic (GPT2)	An substrate for fatty acid biosynthesis and NADPH generation
<b>c80903_g1</b>	2.3604	1.67E-20	Protein CHLOROPLAST IMPORT APPARATUS 2 (CIA2)	Involved in protein import and translation efficiencies
<b>c84718_g1</b>	1.4654	2.71E-06	RuBisCO large subunit-binding protein subunit alpha, chloroplastic (Fragment)	Involved in the assembly of RuBisCo in higher plant chloroplast

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Table 8. The up-regulated gene expressions show cold resistance response after ANE treatment.

<b>Gene ID</b>	<b>Log2. Fold change</b>	<b>P value</b>	<b>Protein Name</b>	<b>Description</b>
<b>c78602_g1</b>	2.5209	9.06E-10	Probable WRKY transcription factor 21 (WRKY21)	WRKY 21 is described that may have involved in cold stress
<b>c79513_g1</b>	2.1856	5.49E-06	Annexin D4 (ANN4)	described affect by the osmotic stress, which is may involved in cold response
<b>c59812_g1</b>	1.7137	1.33E-05	Osmotin-like protein (Olp)	Belongs to the Pathogenesis-related protein 5 (PR-5) family, which is induction in many plants abiotic or biotic stresses
<b>c83155_g3</b>	1.6277	5.27E-11	Heat shock cognate 70 kDa protein (HSP70)	Most of this family genes are interacting with other genes under stress condition

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<b>c84137_g1</b>	1.5323	1.35E-10	DEAD-box ATP-dependent RNA helicase 3, chloroplastic (RH3)	RH3 participate in metabolism of RNA, it response many cellular functions including abiotic stress
<b>c109468_g1</b>	1.3953	2.65E-12	Chitinase 11 (Cht 11)	Random hydrolysis of N-acetyl-beta-D-glucosaminide (1->4)-beta-linkages in chitin and chitodextrins
<b>c73125_g2</b>	1.3319	4.21E-07	Universal stress protein A-like protein (UspAp)	Directly response to the abiotic stresses, especially to the extremely higher or lower temperature
<b>c80526_g1</b>	1.0941	4.31E-11	Glutathione S-transferase (DHAR2)	Involved in the redox homeostasis, especially in scavenging of ROS under oxidative stresses
<b>c75292_g3</b>	1.0559	2.55E-10	Peroxidase 24 (PER24)	Removal of H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> , oxidation of toxic reductants, biosynthesis and degradation of lignin, suberization, auxin catabolism, response to environmental stresses such as wounding,

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Table 9. The up-regulated gene expressions show plant development and cold resistance after BR treatment.

<b>Gene ID</b>	<b>Log2. Fold change</b>	<b>P.value</b>	<b>Protein Name</b>	<b>Description</b>
<b>c80903_g1</b>	1.9594	7.65E-15	Protein CHLOROPLAST IMPORT APPARATUS 2. (CIA2)	Involved in the general chloroplast protein import pathway regulation, including protein import and protein translation efficiencies.
<b>c83968_g1</b>	1.63	1.68E-06	Protein NRT1/ PTR FAMILY 4.4 (NPF)	Nitrate transporters belongs to NRT1 family, which transport a broad spectrum of di/tripeptides
<b>c80893_g1</b>	1.5765	4.14E-15	BTB/POZ and TAZ domain-containing protein 2 (BT)	Enhances responses to auxin in post germination and vegetative development.
<b>c80815_g1</b>	1.5531	7.17E-07	Glucose-6-phosphate 1-dehydrogenase 2, chloroplastic	The main function of this enzyme is to provide reducing power (NADPH) and pentose phosphates for fatty acid and nucleic acid synthesis which are involved in membrane synthesis and cell division



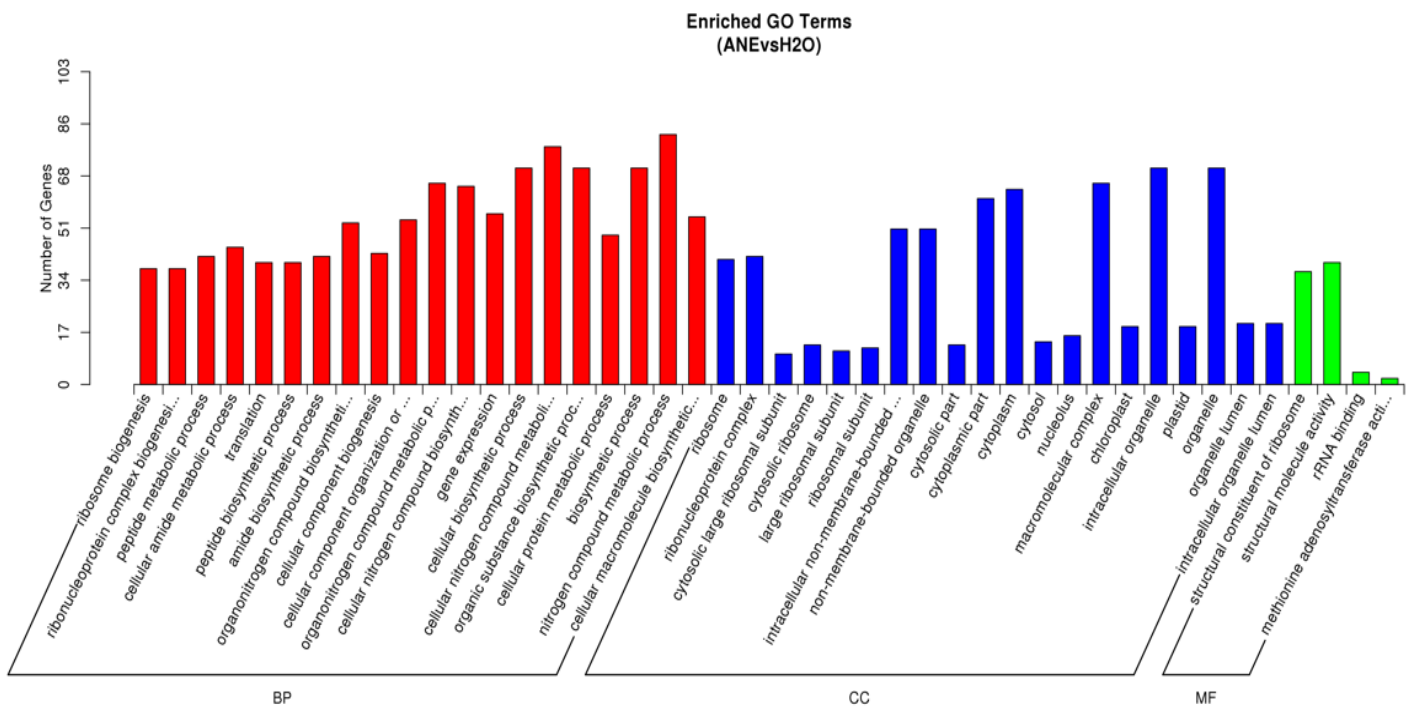
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<b>c81464_g1</b>	1.3697	4.59E-07	Myb family transcription factor APL	Has a dual role both in promoting phloem differentiation and in repressing xylem differentiation in vascular develop.
<b>c84718_g1</b>	1.2807	1.01E-05	RuBisCO large subunit-binding protein subunit alpha	Involved in the assembly of RuBisCo in higher plant chloroplast
<b>c109468_g1</b>	1.1353	9.24E-10	Chitinase 11	Random hydrolysis of N-acetyl-beta-D-glucosaminide (1->4)-beta-linkages in chitin and chitodextrins
<b>c71462_g1</b>	1.0331	8.88E-06	Glutaredoxin-C1	Has a glutathione-disulfide oxidoreductase activity in the presence of NADPH and glutathione reductase

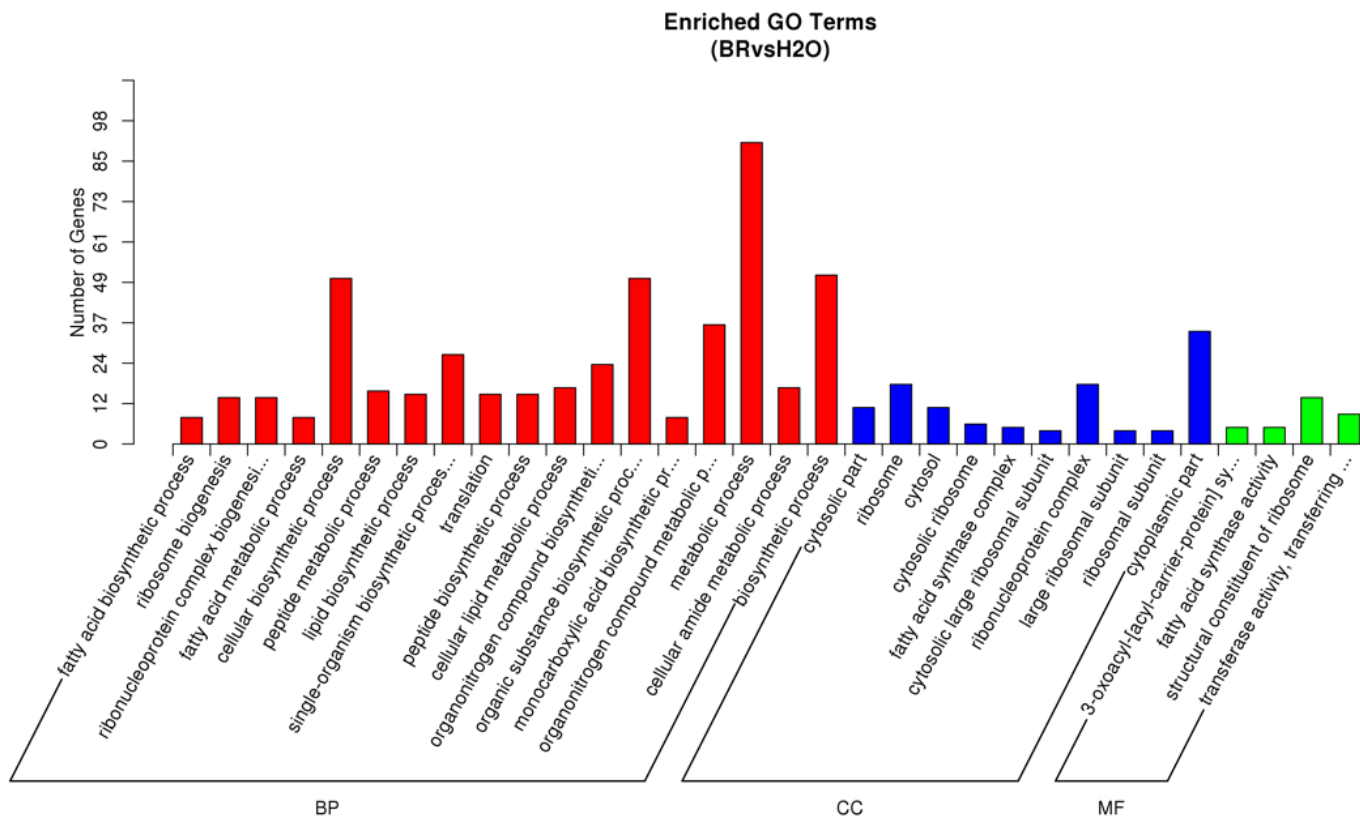
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#### 3.1.3.4. Go analysis

Gene Ontology (GO) is a major bioinformatics initiative to unify the presentation of gene and gene product attributes across all species. GO terms distribution of *A. donax* L. transcripts are most abundant in biological process (BP) and cellular component (CC) both in ANE versus H<sub>2</sub>O and BR versus H<sub>2</sub>O treatments. In ANE treatment, BP ontology transcripts were mainly in “metabolism process” and “cellular process”, which showed 81 and 78 transcripts respectively while CC were mainly in “cell” and “intracellular” showing 62 and 60, respectively (S1). In BR treatment, the most transcripts of CC are 48 “cell” and 44 “intracellular part” and BP is mainly in “metabolic process” and “organic substance metabolic process”, which show 91 and 80 transcripts respectively (S2). There are some transcripts showing no similarity to any protein, which may belong to long non-coding RNAs or unknown genes.



A



B

Figure 17. GO enrichment bar chart of DEGs. The x-axis shows GO term in the sub-level of the GO three main domains, and the y-axis shows the number of the differential expression genes annotated in this term and the ratio between this number and the total number of annotated differential expression genes. From left to right is the three main GO domains: biological process, cell composition and molecular function. 17 (A) is GO terms in ANE vs H<sub>2</sub>O treatments; 17 (B) is GO terms in BR vs H<sub>2</sub>O treatments.

### 3.1.3.5.KEGG pathway analysis

The interactions of multiple genes may be involved in certain biological functions. KEGG (Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes) is a collection of manually curated databases dealing with genomes, biological pathways, diseases, drugs, and chemical substances (Fig 18). Pathway enrichment analysis identifies significantly enriched metabolic pathways or signal transduction pathways associated with differentially expressed genes compared with the whole genome background. The top 20 enrichment pathways of commonly up-regulated transcripts in ANE vs H<sub>2</sub>O treatments were enriched in pathway: “Ribosome”, “Photosynthesis - antenna proteins”, “Legionellosis”, “Cysteine and methionine metabolism”, “Phenylpropanoid biosynthesis”, “Antigen processing and presentation”, “Porphyrin and chlorophyll metabolism”. The difference is that the enriched pathways of BR vs H<sub>2</sub>O treatments were only “Ribosome” and “Oxidative phosphorylation”. There is no similar pathway between ANE and BR treatments, except the “Ribosome” pathway. The internal and external environmental signal can affect the plant growth and plant stress defense. Thus, the “Photosynthesis- antenna proteins” and “porphyrin and chlorophyll metabolism”, which involve plant photosynthesis, might be the reason that ANE can stimulate the plant development. The “Ribosome” pathway is most enriched in both ANE and BR treatments indicating these two treatments may have positive effects in plant cell or protein development.

The “Photosynthesis- antenna proteins” pathway is the subunit of photosystem I and II containing some antenna light-harvesting proteins. The light-harvest proteins in green plants take actions in peripheral antenna systems, which will improve the efficient

absorption of light energy (Fig 19).

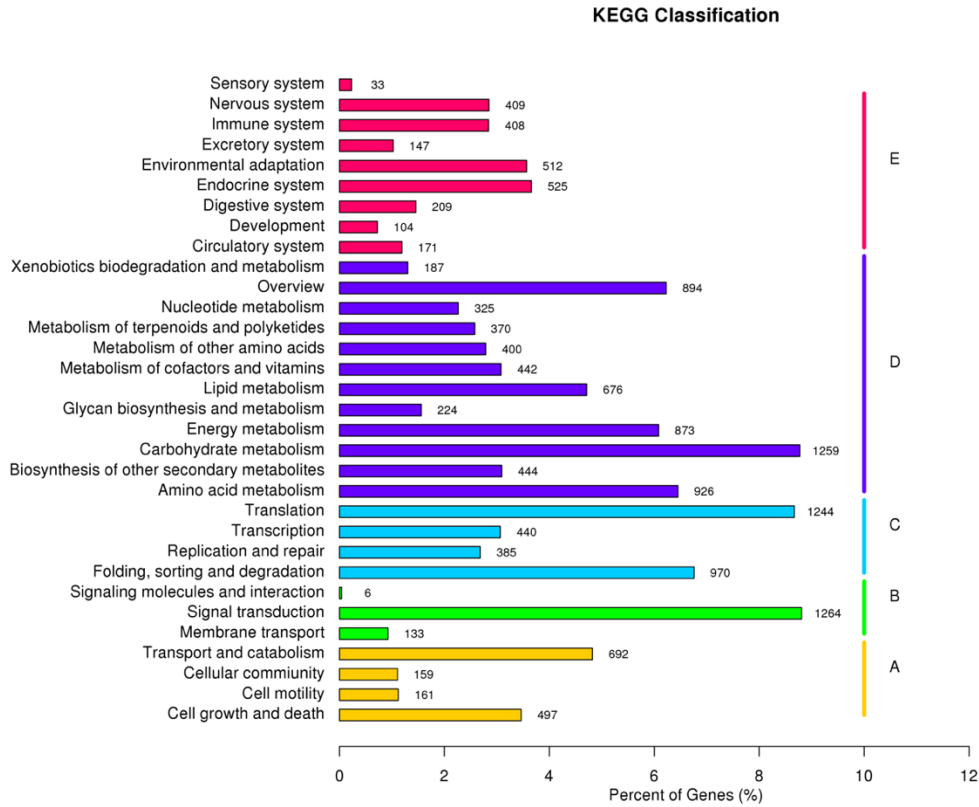


Figure 18. KEGG Classification. Y-axis is the names of KEGG pathways; X-axis is the number of the genes annotated in the pathway and the ratio between the number in this pathway and the total number of annotated genes. The KEGG metabolic pathways gene involved in are divided into 5 branches: A: Cellular Processes, B: Environmental Information Processing, C: Genetic Information Processing, D: Metabolism, E: Organismal Systems.



Table 10. Significant KEGG pathways of commonly up-regulated transcripts in BR Vs  
H<sub>2</sub>O treatments.

<b>Pathway term</b>	<b>Rich factor</b>	<b>Q-value</b>	<b>Gene number</b>
Ribosome	0.023060797	8.58E-11	11
Oxidative phosphorylation	0.014869888	0.002604951	4
Type I diabetes mellitus	0.038461538	0.196042896	1
Pathogenic Escherichia coli infection	0.020408163	0.234623469	1
Steroid biosynthesis	0.014084507	0.234623469	1
Nitrogen metabolism	0.012658228	0.234623469	1
Legionellosis	0.009708738	0.234623469	1
Photosynthesis	0.009433962	0.234623469	1
Alanine, aspartate and glutamate metabolism	0.009174312	0.234623469	1
Pentose phosphate pathway	0.008928571	0.234623469	1
Glutathione metabolism	0.006024096	0.291584932	1
Parkinson's disease	0.005347594	0.291584932	1
RNA degradation	0.004672897	0.291584932	1
Huntington's disease	0.004464286	0.291584932	1
Tuberculosis	0.004291845	0.291584932	1
Alzheimer's disease	0.004166667	0.291584932	1
Spliceosome	0.003278689	0.3364707	1
Carbon metabolism	0.002008032	0.447490178	1
Biosynthesis of amino acids	0.001984127	0.447490178	1

Table 11. Significant KEGG pathways of commonly up-regulated transcripts in ANE Vs  
H<sub>2</sub>O treatments.

<b>Pathway term</b>	<b>Rich factor</b>	<b>Q value</b>	<b>Gene number</b>
Ribosome	0.075471698	1.40E	36
Photosynthesis - antenna proteins	0.173076923	1.42E-08	9
Legionellosis	0.029126214	0.23547971	3
Cysteine and methionine metabolism	0.015706806	0.52566414	3
Phenylpropanoid biosynthesis	0.01171875	0.52566414	3
Antigen processing and presentation	0.02173913	0.52566414	2
Porphyrin and chlorophyll metabolism	0.019230769	0.52566414	2
Estrogen signaling pathway	0.01754386	0.52566414	2
Oxytocin signaling pathway	0.01459854	0.52566414	2
AMPK signaling pathway	0.012195122	0.53483301	2
PI3K-Akt signaling pathway	0.010989011	0.53483301	2
Phenylalanine metabolism	0.010204082	0.53483301	2
Steroid hormone biosynthesis	0.142857143	0.52566414	1
Mineral absorption	0.043478261	0.52566414	1
Type I diabetes mellitus	0.038461538	0.52566414	1
Sesquiterpenoid and triterpenoid	0.03125	0.53483301	1
Valine, leucine and isoleucine biosynthesis	0.027027027	0.53483301	1
Selenocompound metabolism	0.025	0.53483301	1
Pantothenate and CoA biosynthesis	0.021276596	0.53483301	1
Pathogenic Escherichia coli infection	0.020408163	0.53483301	1

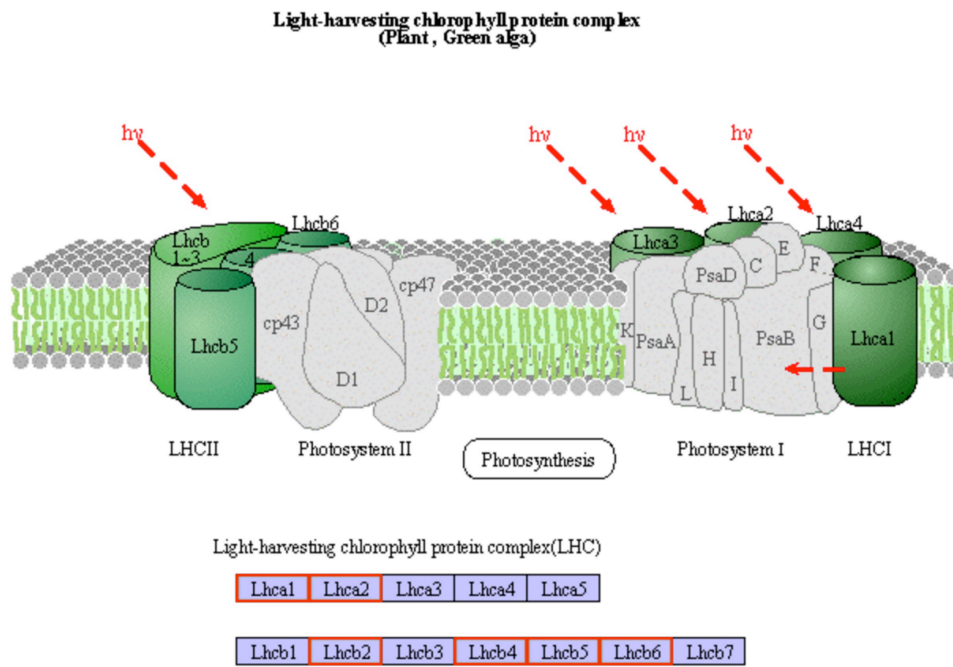


Figure 19. The up-regulated gene expressions in photosynthesis-antenna proteins pathway.

The red squares are presenting the up-regulated gene expressions.

## 3.2. Freezing Treatment Analysis

### 3.2.1. Electrolyte Leakage Test

Before cold treatment, the leakage of leaves was measured 12 hours after being treated with ANE and water treatments. The leakage of ANE is 12.57%, slightly higher than water (7.94%), p value is  $0.053 > 0.05$ , which means the ANE treatment is not good for plant, well harm to plant. More, the two electrolyte leakage tests measured the leakage after freezing conditions ( $-4^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) for 24 hours, and both the first and the second results showed the leaves treated with water treatments leakage increased a lot. In the freezing treatments, the leakage of water was 10.07% and 9.55%, showing much higher than 7.94% leakage in the cold treatment. To the contrary, the ANE treatment showed no change, but the leakage was still higher than water treatments overall (Fig. 20).

Comparing the change in electrolyte leakage before and after the freezing treatment, Figure 21 shows the ANE treatment exhibited a leakage decrease (-2.03 %) between experiments while the water treatment shows a large increase in leakage (23.55 %). That indicates ANE may have positive effect to increase plants cold resistance in other way.

More, 1mL/L solution of ANE was sprayed on leaves to replicate the experiment with a lower concentration of treatment solution. The average leakage of ANE treatment is 50.61% after cold stress, which is much lower than 83.57% of water treatments, p value is  $0.019 < 0.05$ , the average leakage between ANE and water treatments are significantly different (Fig.23).

### 3.2.2. Chlorophyll Test

Similar to the electrolyte leakage test, the chlorophyll content of the ANE-treated *A. donax* L. and H<sub>2</sub>O as control were tested before and after freezing conditions. The results showed no significant difference between two treatments overall (Fig 22).

Again, when spraying 1ml/L ANE on leaves, the chlorophyll content shows positive results comparable to the electrolyte leakage results. Although the average chlorophyll content of ANE and water treatments (C1 and C2) have no difference before the cold stress, the average 0.018ml/g of ANE chlorophyll content after cold stress was much lower than 0.0086ml/g that of water treatments, p value is  $0.056 > 0.05$  (Fig.24).

### 3.2.3. Field Work

The measured soil temperature range was -2.5°C to -1.6°C (Table 11) in which falls within the range of changes in annual mean soil temperature during the twentieth century (-3° to 3°C) from place to place in Canada (Zhang, 2005). This illustrates that the green roof recovery experiment is similar to the conditions of field work. The recovery rate (sprout number emergence in spring) showed that the ANE treatments rate of recovery (70%) is slightly higher than water and chitosan, both are 60% recovery.

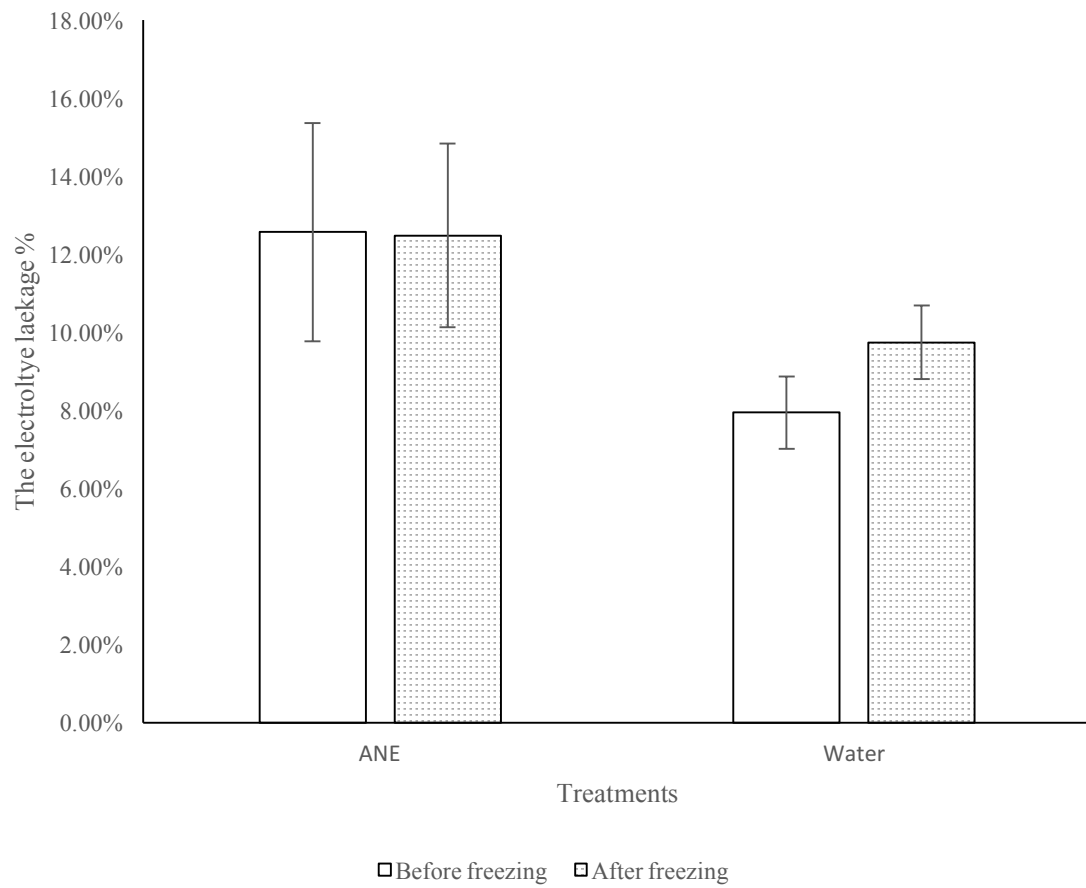


Figure 20. The electrolyte leakage of ANE-treated (3ml/L) and water-treated *A. donax* L. before freezing stress and after.



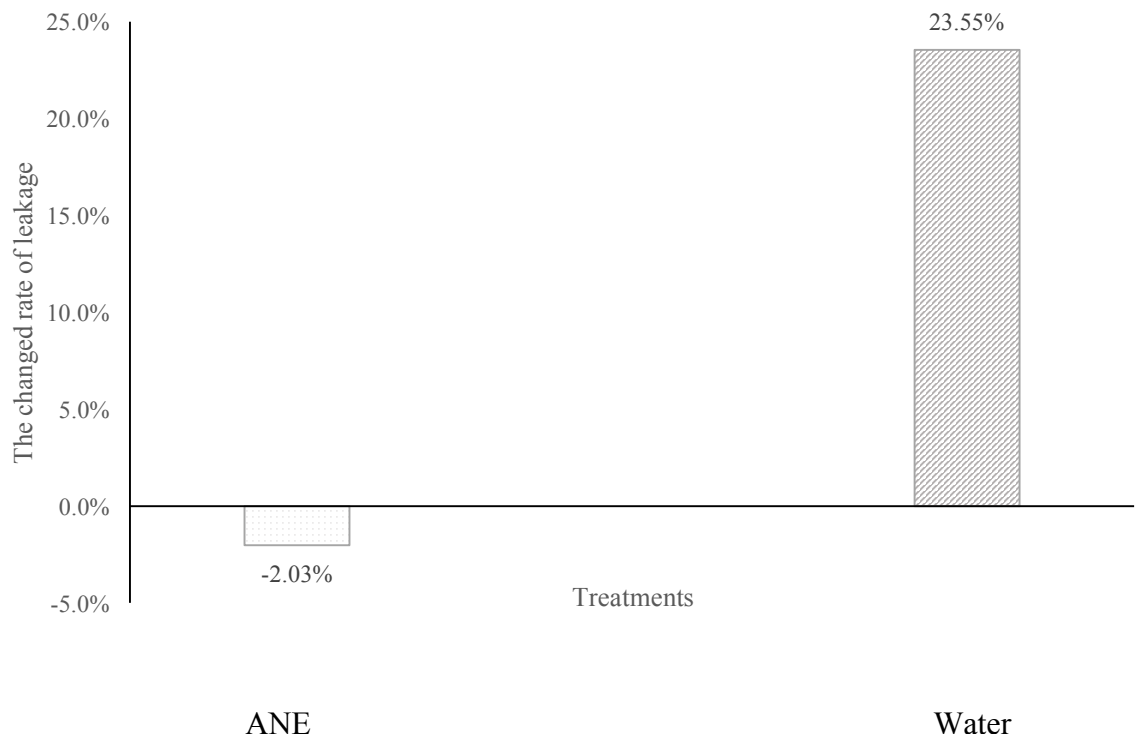


Figure 21. The changed electrolyte leakage of ANE-treated compared with water-treated *A. donax* L. before freezing treatment and after.

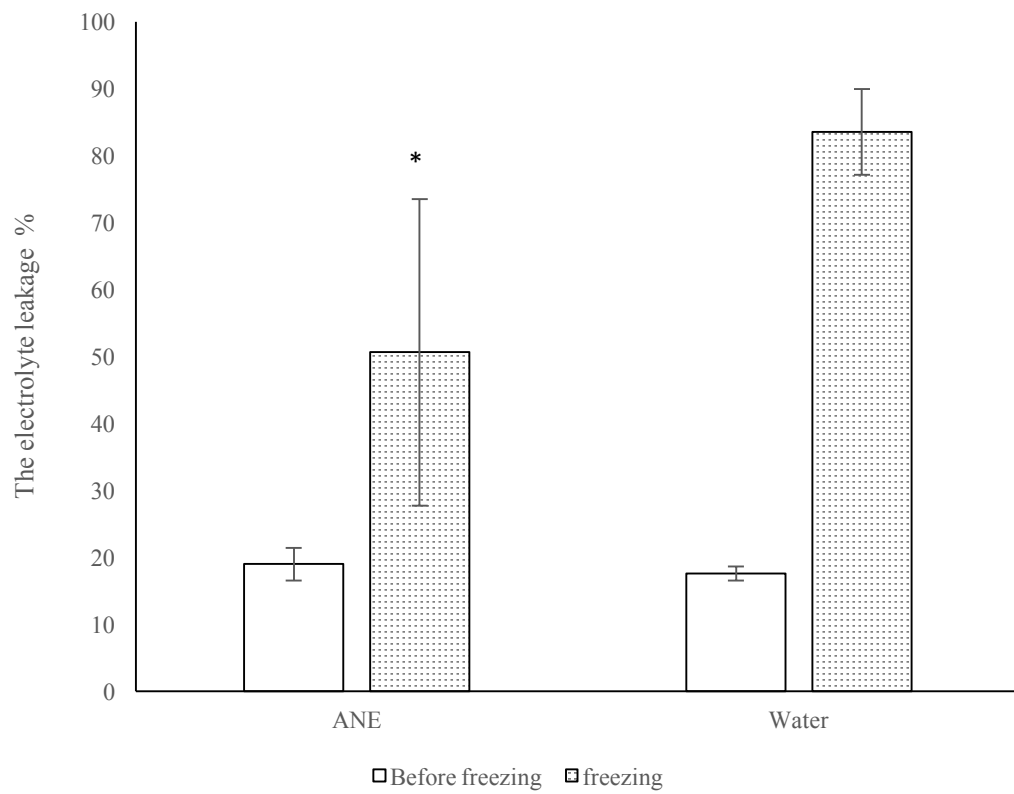


Figure 22. The electrolyte leakage of ANE-treated (1ml/L) and water-treated *A. donax* L. before and after 24 hours freezing treatments.  $P < 0.05$ .

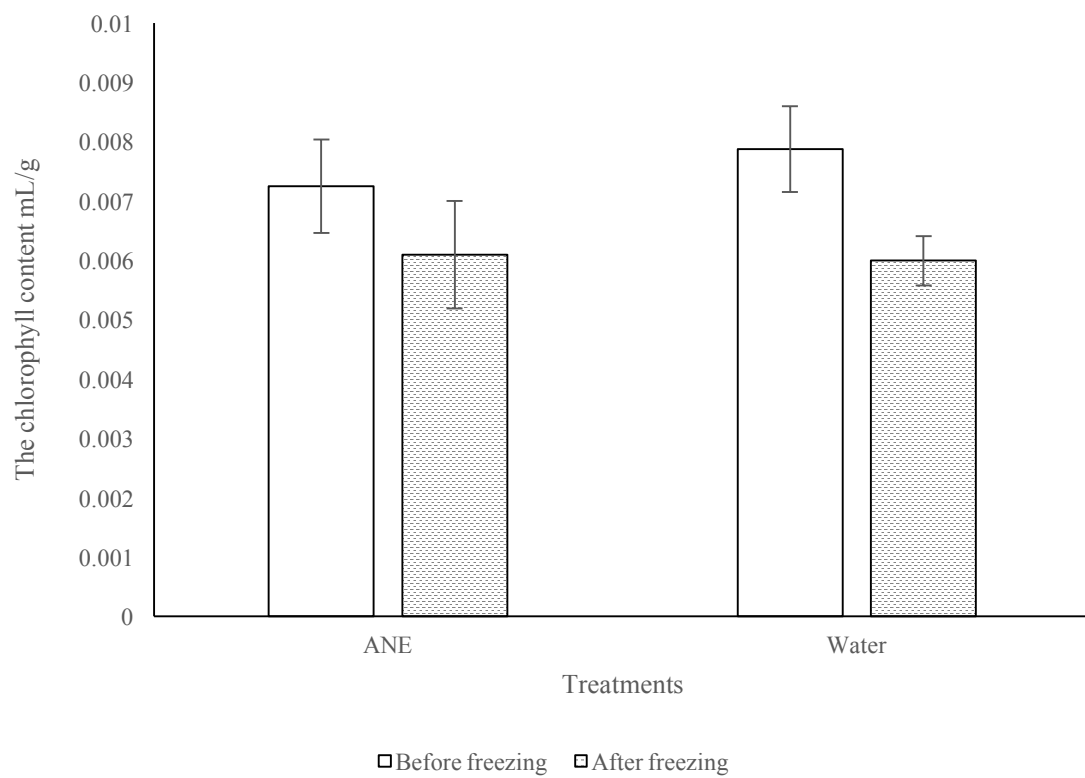


Figure 23. The chlorophyll content of ANE (3mL/L) and water-treated *A. donax* L. before freezing treatment and after freezing treatments.  $P > 0.05$

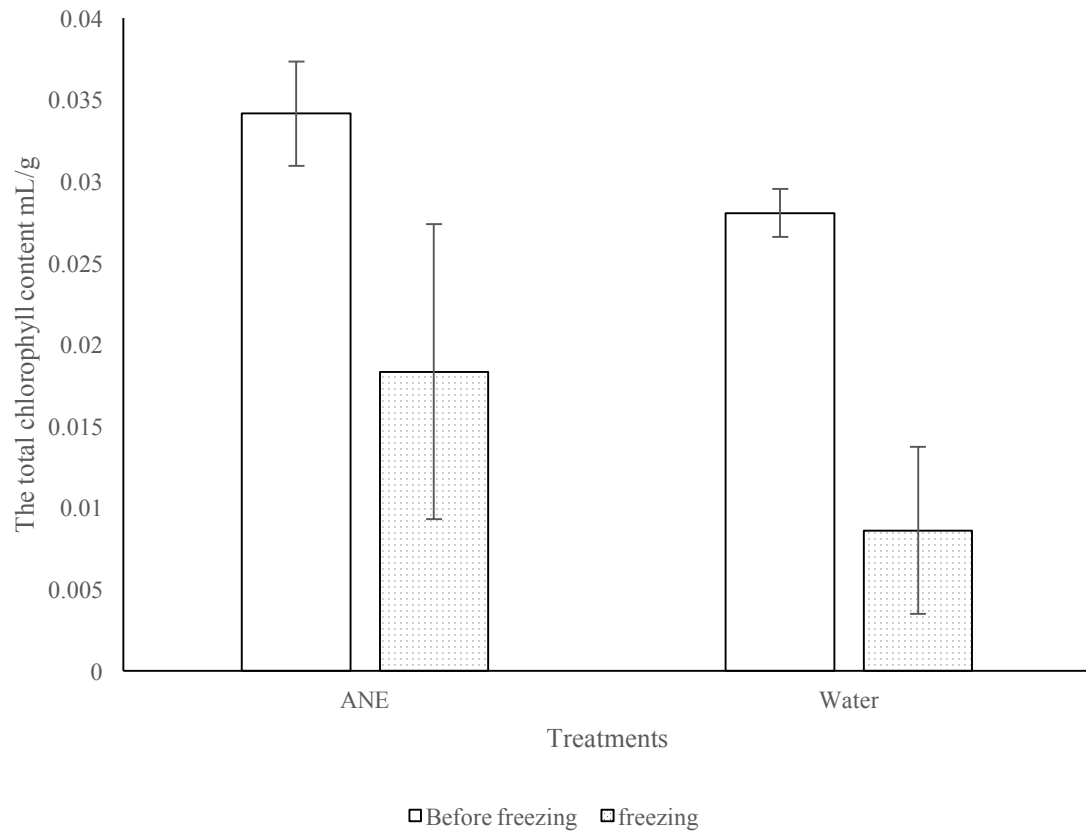


Figure 24. The chlorophyll content of ANE-treated (1ml/L) and water-treated *A. donax* L. after and before 24 hours freezing treatment.  $P > 0.05$ .



H<sub>2</sub>O treatments



ANE treatments



Chitosan treatments

Figure 25. The sprout situation of H<sub>2</sub>O, ANE and Chitosan-treated *A. donax* L. in the spring, 2016.

Table 12. The changes of temperature from Dec. 14, 2015 to May. 14, 2016.

<b>Date</b>	<b>Air-temperature</b>	<b>Soil-temperature</b>	
<b>1 (Dec. 14, 2015)</b>	0/-2 °C	2.3°C	2.9°C
<b>2 (Feb. 14, 2016)</b>	-10/-16°C	-2.5°C	-1.6°C
<b>3 (May. 14, 2016)</b>	17/13°C	16.3°C	15.6°C

Table 13. The sprout number of *A. donax* L. in May 14, 2016.

<b>Treatment</b>	<b>Plant Numbers,</b>	<b>Sprout Numbers,</b>	<b>Survival rate</b>
	<b>before winter</b>	<b>after winter</b>	<b>(%)</b>
<b>ANE</b>	20	14	70%
<b>H<sub>2</sub>O</b>	20	12	60%
<b>Chitosan</b>	20	12	60%

## Discussion

### 4.1. Transcriptome analysis

#### 4.1.1. Sequencing & reconstruction assembly

Only 47 sequences of *A. donax* L. have been found in Genbank. Because my plant is a kind of grass, and its completely lack of information for analyzing this species genetically (Sablok, 2014). Thus, the sequencing analysis and reconstruction methods seem to be more important than any other species with genomes. Compare to microarray, RNA-seq is more a powerful tool to develop a genomic resource for any interesting species. Trinity, the reconstruction tool for species without reference genome, has been reported to present an efficiently assembly than Velvet according to the de-Bruijn's graph theory (Grabherr, 2011). The clean reads, the GC content, sequencing error (Q20, Q30) are performed with Phred score to evaluate the sequencing (Jiang, 2011). The results of application of those methods to the *A. donax* L. analysis are acceptable. Due to lack of a reference genome, the putative unigenes have been mapped with closer species. The most similar species is *Setaria italica* (35.5%), followed by *Oryza sativa* (7.6%), *Sorghum bicolor* (15.7%), *Zea mays* (15.3%). *Setaria italica* are able to more efficiently fix carbon in drought, high temperatures, and limitations of nitrogen or CO<sub>2</sub>. It has been demonstrated that plants like that are always being bioenergy crops because of its efficient conversion of solar light into biomass and energy (Brutnell, 2010). This result suggests that *A. donax* could become a new prospective bioenergy crop genetically.

#### 4.1.2. Gene functional analysis

##### 4.1.2.1. Growth development

Functional annotation of the assembled transcripts provides a huge picture of one specie's genomic resources. All the changed genes expression after ANE, BR treatments make it easy to compare genes involved in traits of biological process and molecular function or some economic and ecological importance. According to the previous experiment, it was found all the pathways to synthesize BR were up-regulated after 12 hours ANE treatment in soybeans. Thus, it might suggest that ANE promotes plant growth by promoting BR production. However, the annotation and DEGs analysis did not showing any connection between ANE and BR treatments.

Volcano and Venn diagrams directly show some gene expression increased and decreased after treatments (Fig 13 and 14), and some of them are overlapped between ANE and BR treatments. Among the genes with significant up-regulated expression, 7 genes in ANE treatment and 5 genes in BR treatments are related to plant development. Chloroplastic glucose-6-phosphate/phosphate translocator 2 (GPT2) and protein c chloroplast import apparatus 2 (CIA2) are the genes both found in ANE and BR treatments. GPT2 is the transporter, responsible for transport of Glc6P into plastids of heterotrophic tissues, which is involved in starch biosynthesis (Kunz, 2010); CIA is a regulation gene involved in the general chloroplast protein import pathway regulation, including protein import and protein translation efficiencies (Sun, 2009). Those genes are all related to plant photosynthesis promoting plant growth. Besides, there are two genes associated with cell wall, one is cell wall-associated hydrolase (MTR-069s1001), another



is expansin-A4 (EXPA4). EXPA4 was identified many years ago, associated with studies of the mechanism of plant cell wall enlargement. It is response to the cell growth of plant resulting loosening the cell wall disrupting non-covalent bonding between cellulose microfibrils and matrix glucans (Cosgrove, 2000). The higher increased expression of cell wall associated hydrolase gene is recently founded in *Medicago truncatula* without knowing function. It might take some action like expansins in the cell wall.

The up-regulation genes between ANE and BR are not many, there is weakly evidence to illustrate the relationship between ANE and BR. But ANE and BR can improve *A. donax* L., and ANE are more effect to help plant development in genetic level.

#### 4.1.2.2.Cold resistance

To assess the effect of ANE and BR treatments on *A. donax* L. gene expressions, 145 significantly up-regulated genes of ANE and 69 genes of BR treatments were analyzed in all 71,267 changed genes data. Eleven of 145 up-regulated genes in ANE were associated with plants cold stress, with only one of 11 found in BR treatment.

Abscisic acid-like, stress-like and Glutathione-like genes were found up-regulated expression after ANE treatment. Chitinase 11 was the only one were showing both in ANE and BR treated plants related to cold resistance. Chitinase is the enzyme to degrade chitin that is the second abundant polysaccharides in nature (Hamid, 2013). Plant chitinase presents in plant to regulate the development and response to environment stresses, such as drought, cold and high salinity (Kasprzewska, 2003). Chitinase is induced by many pathogens or elicitors that is important involving plant defense system

(Nakamura, T. 2008). Application of ANE were used in pathogen infected carrots, which induce some defense-related enzymes, including peroxidase, and chitinase (Jayaraj J, 2007). This indicated that ANE enhanced disease resistance in carrot through inducing defense genes expression or enzymes activities. Chitinase has expression both in BR-treated and ANE treatment, which may indicate that BR and ANE treatment could improve *A. donax* L. cold tolerance. It is shown chitinase inhibitor cold stress. Interestingly, it has been reported that plant antifreeze proteins (AFPs) can inhibit plants ice crystal growth in extreme cold temperatures, but they are not unique proteins. Some AFPs found in winter rye are chitinase, glucanase and thaumatin (Yeh, 2000). The chitinase-AFPs extracted from winter rye did not directly response to cold, but accumulated as part of plant growth and development (Griffith, 2004).

#### 4.2. Electrolyte leakage

Cell membranes will be damaged by the low temperature. Electrolyte leakage is a way to test the cell membrane penetrability, the degree of cell membrane damage is reflected by the intracellular electrolyte leakage rate (Liu, 2013). In the present experiment, the electrolyte leakage of ANE treatment was much higher than the control in normal temperatures and slightly higher than control after freezing stress. This means the ANE may have negative effect on plant no matter in normal or cold stress. However, compared with the results between non-freezing and freezing condition, the ANE treatment was showing protection after freezing, because of no increased electrolyte leakage. In contrast, the leakage of water increased significantly after cold stress.

According to the genes expression results, gene expressions related to the cell wall were higher increased, including cell wall-associated hydrolyse protein and expansin may result in the loosening of cell wall for developing purpose. This can also increase the cell membrane penetrability leading the increasing electrolyte leakage.

The concentration of ANE used were 3ml/L, the same as instructed on the label of the ANE product (@ Acadia Seaplants Company), which was good for soybean in an other project in our lab, seems to have harmed to *A. donax* L. The 1ml/L ANE solution was used and indicated that higher concentration could be a negative factor to effect on electrolyte leakage of ANE applying on to *A. donax* L..

#### 4.3. Chlorophyll content

Chlorophyll content can reflect nutrient stress in general, and in particular can show the nitrogen or sulfur stress (Haboudane, 2002). Mostly, cold stress will prevent the synthesis of chlorophyll formation in plant leaves, inducing the reduce of chlorophyll content (Nouri, 2015). The previous studies have shown ANE promote the production of chlorophyll comparison with control (water). However, there was no significant difference between ANE and control in this experiment. Due to the cold stress, the chlorophyll content decreased slightly in cold tolerate plants and significantly in cold sensitive plants. *A. donax* L., the C<sub>3</sub> plant is more advantage over the C<sub>4</sub> plant in cold condition. Thus, the chlorophyll content of ANE-treated in non-freezing and after freezing should higher than H<sub>2</sub>O in the initial hypothesis. The negligible difference between ANE and H<sub>2</sub>O may cause by the time to effect the plant. The expression of

several genes showing up-regulated of chloroplast or photosynthesis. Might the 12 hours ANE-treatment did not induce any significant physiological changes.

Similar as electrolyte leakage results, the 1ml/L ANE showed a significant decreasing comparing with water treatments after 24 hours' freezing stress. Although the content of ANE before cold stress did not showing any difference with control, either. The reason might the 12-hours ANE treatment didn't take effect on the plants.

#### 4.4. Field work

The green roof growth condition is effected by sunlight coming through the around buildings, which means each treatment may have different sunlight absorption. The *A. donax* L. recovery is little higher than water and chitosan, but not significantly. May because the position of the ANE box is at the shade of the building. The optimum growth condition is very important condition for plants growth outside.

## Conclusion

*Ascophllum nodosum* is a brown algae and its commercial product extraction can increase plant growth, elevated resistance to biotic and abiotic stress, and enhanced post harvest shelf-life of perishable products (Arioli, 2015). Brassinosteroids (BRs), are a group of plant steroids that are known to elicit remarkable growth responses. A previous study in our lab indicated that after ANE treatment, the expression of many genes related to plant growth were regulated, especially in BRs biosynthesis pathway (Chai, 2014). Almost all of the enzymes in this pathway were showing up-regulated. Thus, it was hypothesized that ANE regulates plant growth through inducing BR synthesis. The present study investigated the effect of ANE and Br treatments on *Aroudo donax* L. gene expression, chlorophyll content and electrolyte leakage.

The results indicate that there were many genes related to plant development and cold resistance up-regulated after ANE treatment (3 ml/L) compared with BR treatment and water control. The gene expressions of ANE and BR are significantly different suggesting that ANE regulates many plant development pathways, not only the BR synthesis pathway.

High concentration of ANE (3 ml/L) had no effect on the chlorophyll and foliar electrolyte leakage, while 1 ml/L ANE treatment significantly decreased foliar electrolyte leakage and increased chlorophyll content after freezing stress.

In conclusion, ANE has great effects on *A. donax* L. stress-defense system and growth development in gene levels, and increased plant cold stress resistance at low ANE concentration (1 ml/L).

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