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# microRNA156: A Short RNA with a Major Role in Abiotic Stress Tolerance in Alfalfa

Biruk Ayenew Feyissa, The University of Western Ontario

Supervisor: Hannoufa, Abdelali, The University of Western Ontario Co-Supervisor: Kohalmi, Susanne, The University of Western Ontario A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy degree in Biology © Biruk Ayenew Feyissa 2020

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### **Abstract**

<span id="page-1-0"></span>The highly conserved plant microRNA156, miR156, affects various aspects of plant development and stress response by silencing *SQUAMOSA-PROMOTER BINDING PROTEIN-LIKE* (SPL) transcription factors. Our understanding of the role of miR156 and its mode of action in alfalfa's (*Medicago sativa L*.) response to drought and flooding is still elusive, and thus this study was aimed at filling this gap in knowledge. Physiological parameters, metabolite and transcriptional analyses showed an interplay between miR156/SPL13 and WD40-1/DFR to mitigate drought stress. Low to moderate levels of *miR156* overexpression suppressed SPL13 and increased WD40-1 to fine-tune the *DIHYDROFLAVONOL-4-REDUCTASE* (*DFR*) level for enhanced anthocyanin biosynthesis. Moreover, RNAseq-derived weighted gene co-expression network analysis (WGCNA) of *SPL13*RNAi alfalfa plants showed tissue-and genotype-specific drought responses. Accordingly, transcripts mediating stress-mitigating metabolites, such as anthocyanin, were increased in stem tissues of drought-stressed plants, while those involved in photosynthesis were maintained in leaves. Moreover, drought-stressed roots showed elevated transcripts associated with metal ion transport, carbohydrate, and primary metabolism.

The role of miR156 in flooding tolerance was also investigated using floodingtolerant (AAC-Trueman) and -sensitive (AC-Caribou) alfalfa cultivars, along with *miR156*OE and *SPL13*RNAi plants. Additionally, to examine the role of ABA and SnRK1 in regulating *miR156* expression, ABA insensitive (*abi1-2*, *abi5-8*) *Arabidopsis thaliana* mutants and transgenic lines with either overexpressed (*KIN10*-OX1, *KIN10*-OX2) or silenced (*KIN10*RNAi-1, *KIN10*RNAi-2) *SnRK1* were used. Investigation of physiological parameters, hormone profiling, and global transcriptomics showed a positive role for miR156 in flooding tolerance, and a comparison of Arabidopsis mutants and transgenic lines showed that *miR156* expression was affected by SnRK1 to enhance anthocyanin and ABA metabolites. Transcriptomics analysis also revealed nine new alfalfa SPLs, three of which responded to flooding (SPL7a, SPL8, and SPL13a) along with the previously identified SPL4, SPL9, and SPL13.

Characterization of the newly identified SPLs, along with understanding the mode of action of miR156 in alfalfa's response to drought and flooding, will provide useful tools in marker-assisted breeding of alfalfa and resource to scientific knowledge.

### **Keywords**

ABA, Abiotic stress, alfalfa, *DFR,* drought, flooding, *Medicago sativa* L., microRNA, miR156, SPL, *SQUAMOSA-PROMOTER BINDING PROTEIN-LIKE, WD40-1*, *SnRK1, KIN10, KIN11*

### **Summary for lay audience**

<span id="page-3-0"></span>Among the various abiotic stresses, drought and flooding are two extremes of water availability affecting the production and productivity of agricultural crops, including alfalfa (*Medicago sativa* L.). The frequency, distribution, and intensity of drought and flooding are increasing in conjunction with the current climate change phenomenon, highlighting the need for developing tolerant cultivars. The highly conserved plant microRNA156, miR156, affects various aspects of plant development and stress response by silencing *SQUAMOSA-PROMOTER BINDING PROTEIN-LIKE (SPL)* transcription factors. Our understanding of the role of miR156 and its mode of action in drought and flooding tolerance in alfalfa is limited, and thus this study is aimed to fill this gap.

In the current study, the role of miR156 and its mode of action in regulating drought and flooding tolerance was investigated. Hence, alfalfa plants with increased levels of *miR156* and altered miR156-regulated downstream genes (such as *SPL13*) were used to assess parameters linked to abiotic stress. The physiological and molecular responses revealed the positive role of miR156 in drought and flood stress tolerance. Upon drought stress, alfalfa plants with low to moderate level *miR156* maintained plant water status and physiological activity by increasing responsible genes and stress-reducing metabolites. On the other hand, plants containing *miR156* at higher levels coordinated genes to control membrane permeability, increase stress-reducing metabolites, keep physiological activity, and increase abscisic acid in response to flooding. The flooding experiment also identified nine new SPLs to be exploited in future studies. Knowledge gained on the role of miR156 and its target *SPL* genes in response to both drought and flooding will be utilized in developing tools for alfalfa breeding and as a resource for scientific knowledge.

### **Co-Authorship statement**

<span id="page-4-0"></span>This thesis consists of materials from a published article, and manuscripts under revision, and in preparation. Co-authors who contributed to these articles are Biruk A Feyissa (BAF), Justin B Renaud (JR), Muhammad Arshad (MA), Vida Nasrollahi (VN), Lisa Amyot (LA), Margaret Y Gruber (MYG), Yousef Papadopoulos (YP), Susanne E Kohalmi (SEK), and Abdelali Hannoufa (AH).

#### **Chapter 2**

This chapter contains i) data from one published article:

Feyissa BA, Arshad M, Gruber MY, Kohalmi SE and Hannoufa A 2019. The interplay between *miR156/SPL13* and *DFR/WD40-1* regulate drought tolerance in alfalfa, BMC Plant Biology 19:434.

BAF and MA developed materials; BAF performed the experiments; SEK and AH supervised the project; BAF and AH designed the research; BAF drafted the manuscript; BAF, MA, MYG, SEK and AH edited the manuscript.

and ii) from a manuscript under preparation:

Feyissa BA, Renaud JB, Nasrollahi V, Kohalmi SE and Hannoufa A. Spatially resolved transcriptomic and proteomic analysis reveal tissue-specific *miR156/SPL13* regulatory mechanism in alfalfa drought tolerance (under preparation).

BAF performed the experiments; JR helped with FASP proteomics; VN assisted in physiological data collection; SEK and AH supervised the project; BAF drafted the manuscript; BAF, JR, VN, SEK and AH edited the manuscript.

#### **Chapter 3**

Findings reported in chapter three are under review for publication with the following authors' contributions:

Feyissa BA, Amyot L, Papadopoulos Y, Kohalmi SE, Hannoufa A, 2019. ABA-dependent SnRK1 expression mediate miR156/SPL module for flooding response in alfalfa (Under review).

BAF developed materials and performed the experiments at AAFC, London, Ontario; LA assisted in data collection; YP performed the experiments at AAFC, Kentville, Nova Scotia, Canada; YP, SEK and AH supervised the project; BAF, YP and AH designed the research; BAF drafted manuscript; BAF, LA, YP, SEK, and AH edited the manuscript.

# **Dedication**

<span id="page-6-0"></span>Dedicated to my late father who planted seeds of education in me!!!

### **Acknowledgments**

<span id="page-7-0"></span>First, I would like to thank my supervisor Dr. Abdelali Hannoufa for taking me as a Ph.D. student in his lab. Your unreserved support in exploring new research ideas and mentorship is phenomenal. Your door is always open to discuss my findings and layout of future research directions. Thanks, Ali.

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## **List of Abreviations**

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- IAA Indole-3-acetic acid
- IAA-Asp N-(indole-3-yl-acetyl)-aspartic acid
- IPCC Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
- iPR Isopentenyladenosine
- *J*max Maximum photosynthetic electron transport
- LCMS Liquid chromatography mass spectrometry
- *LOB1 LATERAL ORGAN BOUNDARIES-LIKE1*
- MeOH Methanol
- *miR156 microRNA156*
- miRNA microRNA
- MSTFA *N*-methyl-*N*-[trimethylsilyl] trifluoroacetamide
- MVA Mevalonate pathway
- NADP Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate
- neo-PA neo-Phaseic acid
- PA Proanthocyanidins
- *PAL PHENYLALANINE AMMONIA-LYASE*
- *PAP1 PRODUCTION OF ANTHOCYANIN PIGMENT1*
- PCA Principal component analysis
- PG Peonidin 3-O-glucoside
- Pol II RNA POLYMERASE II
- *PP2C 2C-TYPE PROTEIN PHOSPHATASES*
- PPP Pentose phosphate pathway





### <span id="page-27-0"></span>**1. General introduction**

#### <span id="page-27-1"></span>**1.1 Background on** *Medicago sativa* **(alfalfa)**

Alfalfa (*Medicago sativa L*.), one of the most important commercial crops, is well known for its high value as forage for animal feed (Humphries et al., 2018), for its potential as a bioenergy crop (Bhattarai et al., 2013), and as a human food supplement (Bora and Sharma, 2011). The crop is known as the 'queen of forage' due to its wide use in the forage industry, owing to its high nutritional benefits to animals (Russelle, 2001). Moreover, the wellestablished alfalfa root system that ranges between 1.5 to 2.1 m in length (Abdul-Jabbar et al., 1982) reduces soil erosion (Wu et al., 2011), fixes atmospheric nitrogen (Heichel et al., 1981), and helps the plant to establish in marginal lands. Although there are many benefits to growing alfalfa, little attention is given to resolving its production challenges.

The use of conventional breeding techniques in alfalfa is challenging due to its large (800-1000 Mb) autotetraploid (2n =  $4x = 32$ ) genome (Blondon et al., 1994), and its allogamous (strict out-crossing) reproductive nature (Choi et al., 2004). Accordingly, developing improved cultivars that can withstand biotic and abiotic stresses is lagging. The lack of a publicly available alfalfa genome sequence has necessitated researchers to rely on the genome of the closely related species *Medicago truncatula* (http://www.medicagogenome.org/) as a reference genome for molecular genetic studies in alfalfa (Gao et al., 2016; Arshad et al., 2018). As a result, gene identification and functional characterization in alfalfa are difficult, and obtaining stable homozygous transgenic lines is hampered. Partly due to these challenges, the advanced genome editing technique of Clustered Regularly Interspaced Short Palindromic Repeats (CRISPR-Cas9) known to have high precision in plants resulted in a very low (2.2%) genome editing efficiency in alfalfa (Gao et al., 2018).

Alfalfa production is affected by biotic and abiotic stresses declining acreage over time (Berhongaray et al., 2019). For example, in the USA, alfalfa acreage declined between the 1960s and 2016 from 12 to 6.9 million hectares resulting in 33% production loss, while Canada lost 17% of the alfalfa acreage between 2011 and 2016 (Gardner and Putnam, 2018). Moreover, present-day frequent and extreme weather events correlated with climate change aggravate crop losses (Olesen et al., 2011; Ray et al., 2015). To cope with these weather events, plants respond by developing different resilience mechanisms at the phenotypic, physiological, and molecular levels (Theocharis et al., 2012; Hasanuzzaman et al., 2013).

#### <span id="page-28-0"></span>**1.2 The impact of water availability on crop performance**

According to the Standardized Precipitation and Evapotranspiration Index (SPEI) [\(https://spei.csic.es/map/maps.html#months=1#month=5#year=2019\)](https://spei.csic.es/map/maps.html#months=1) which has been used to monitor drought since 1955, drought coverage and severity have increased significantly over the past 64 years. The Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO, 2018) reported that between 2005 and 2015 drought caused a loss of \$29 billion USD in developing countries, where rain-fed agriculture is predominant. With reduced water availability, various physiological activities of a plant are affected, mainly photosynthesis, nutrient uptake and transport, and temperature regulation through evaporative cooling (Kreuzwieser and Gessler, 2010; Osakabe et al., 2014). Besides water availability, photosynthesis, which assimilates atmospheric carbon dioxide into sugar, is affected by other climatic factors, such as ambient temperature, and carbon dioxide concentration (Xia et al., 2014; Cai et al., 2016). Accordingly, investigating the impact of reduced and excess water availability on plant performance, and photosynthesis in particular, is important considering current trends in climate change.

#### <span id="page-29-0"></span>**1.3 Availability of water to plants and its impact on photosynthesis**

Photosynthesis involves two stages of reactions, a light-dependent one and a predominantly light-independent phase. In the light-dependent phase, water-derived electrons and protons are released as a result of captured light energy by the light harvesting complex (Ferreira et al., 2004; Umena et al., 2011). The light-dependent oxidation of a single water molecule in photosystem II (PSII) generates four electrons and four protons catalyzed by  $Mn_4Ca$ (Umena et al., 2011). Subsequently, the electron is transferred through the electron transport chain into photosystem I (PSI) and produces NADPH by ferredoxin. NADPH and ATP produced in the light-dependent reactions fuel the assimilation of atmospheric carbon dioxide in the dominantly light-independent Calvin-Benson cycle primarily by rubisco carboxylase activity (Kramer et al., 2004). Alternatively, the energy gained by the excited electron from the photosystem II is released in the form of heat or fluorescence (Wobbe et al., 2016). Accordingly, possessing an efficient electron transport chain  $(J_{\text{max}})$  and maximum rate of rubisco carboxylase activity (V<sub>cmax</sub>) greatly positively affects photosynthesis efficiency under a given environment (Walker et al., 2014).

Reduced plant water potential has both primary and secondary effects on photosynthesis. In the light-dependent reactions, electrons released in the oxygen-evolving complex are replenished by water molecules, producing oxygen in the process (Meyer, 2008). Therefore, as a primary effect, reduced availability of water may result in reduced photosynthesis assimilation. A reduced leaf water potential triggers reduction in stomatal aperture for retaining moisture, which can have a secondary effect on photosynthesis by 1) reducing carbon dioxide and oxygen uptake and 2) raising leaf temperature affecting the activities of photosynthesis enzymes. Most importantly, water molecules have high thermo‑conductance facilitating plant temperature regulation through evaporative cooling (Montero, 2006). Moreover, reduced water potential levels in a plant affects ion and nutrient transport and reduces enzymates efficiency (Figueiredo et al., 2001), including photosynthesis (Lawlor and Cornic, 2002).

Crop production and productivity are affected by climate change, the latter of which, according to the predicted climate models, is expected to be manifested as an increase in the global mean annual temperature and precipitation resulting in frequent flooding events (Alexander et al., 2006; Hirabayashi et al., 2013; Brown et al., 2018; Rogelj et al., 2018). Numerous reports in the literature document the devastating effects of flooding on plant production and productivity (e.g., Bailey-Serres et al., 2012; Brown et al., 2018; Yeung et al., 2018). Depending on the flood water level or duration of the flooding, accessibility of oxygen to the roots is reduced thus hampering root respiration and physiological rhythms. To compensate for the reduced oxygen levels in roots, some plants, such as Carex species, anatomically adapt by forming aerenchyma to facilitate oxygen movement from the leaves to the roots (Visser et al., 2000). Regardless of root adaptation to flooding, microorganisms change the oxidative status of some metal and nonmetal elements under anaerobic conditions affecting the plant's nutrient uptake (McKee and McKevlin, 1993; Reuzwieser and Rennenberg, 2014). Furthermore, when plants are completely submerged, access to sunlight, oxygen, and carbon dioxide are significantly reduced, which negatively impacts photosynthesis and respiration, resulting in plant death.

#### <span id="page-31-0"></span>**1.4 Phytohormones and their role in stress tolerance**

Phytohormones are vital in regulating various aspects of plant growth, development and interaction with the environment (Ciura and Kruk, 2018). For example, abscisic acid (ABA) functions as a cellular signaling element (Cutler et al., 2010), regulating seed dormancy and germination (Felemban et al., 2019) as well as stomatal aperture upon drought stress (Wan et al., 2009). Moreover, ABA catabolites, such as phaseic acid, contribute to adaptive plasticity of seed plants by activating sub-groups of the ABA receptors for signalling (Weng et al., 2016). Likewise, ethylene is involved in stress signalling (Guo and Ecker, 2004) such as flooding (Xu et al., 2006) and salinity stress (Cao et al., 2008), by inducing an ethylene signalling pathway involving constitutive triple response1 (CTR1), ethylene-insensitive2 (EIN2) (Alonso et al., 1999) and histidine kinase 1 (NTHK1) in tobacco (Cao et al., 2008). Apart form these, ethylene also induces fruit ripening (Gunaseelan et al., 2019).

Auxin plays a central role in the signalling pathways of growth, organogenesis and environmental response by regulating Aux/IAA family of proteins which consists of more than 29 members (Shani et al., 2017). The diverse members of the Aux/IAA proteins play unique and partially overlapping functions to finetune Arabidopsis responses. Similarly, Auxin regulates root development, which is important during drought stress to allow for access to water from deeper soil volumes (Vanneste and Friml, 2009). On the otherhand, cytokinin enhances vegetative growth through cell division and differentiation (Sakakibara, 2006; Perilli et al., 2010). Abiotic stress tolerance is also mediated by cytokinin, either positively in the case of drought through stomatal density by enhancing *Histidine Kinase1* (*Ahk1*) (Kumar et al., 2013), or negatively in salt stress tolerance (Wang

et al., 2015a). Gibberellin affects internode elongation (Davière and Achard, 2013; Nagai et al., 2014), which is an important adaptation in flooded plants to overgrow and facilitate leaf aeration. Similarly, brassinosteroids (Bishop and Yokota, 2001) and strigolactones (Waldie et al., 2014; Jia et al., 2019) facilitate plant growth and development. In contrast to the above mentioned phytohormones, jasmonic acid (Farmer and Dubugnon, 2009) and salicylic acid (Chen et al., 1993; Ding et al., 2018) are mainly involved in the plants' response to herbivores and pathogens. Phytohormones can function at their point of synthesis or can be transported through the vascular system to function in other plant parts (Lacombe and Achard, 2016).

Some phytohormones function antagonistically or synergistically in response to environmental changes (Naseem and Dandekar, 2012). For example, with full submergence of plants, petioles tend to grow taller for aeration owing to a mutualistic effect between ethylene and gibberellin while the same environmental condition creates an antagonistic effect between gibberellin and ABA (Voesenek et al., 2003). In other instances, a mutualistic interaction among salicylic acid, jasmonic acid, and ethylene improved immunity to biotic stresses (Pieterse et al., 2012). Under a given environment, multiple stresses are encountered by plants inducing stress-specific mediating phytohormones (Nguyen et al., 2016; Zandalinas et al., 2018). The combined presence of stresses at a given time combined with the crosstalk among different phytohormones highlights the complex interconnections between phytohormones and unknown molecular regulatory factors, many of which remain uncharacterized (Weiss and Ori, 2007; Pieterse et al., 2012; Berens et al., 2019).

# <span id="page-33-0"></span>**1.5 Reactive oxygen species (ROS) and ROS-scavenging metabolites under abiotic stress**

Reactive oxygen species (ROS) are by-products of cellular processes, with the main contributors being photosynthesis (in chloroplasts), aerobic metabolism (in mitochondria), and fatty acid beta-oxidation (in peroxisomes) (Asada, 2006). The most common ROS include free radicals such as the superoxide anion  $(O_2)$ , hydroxyl radical  $(OH<sup>2</sup>)$ , and nonfree radicals such as hydrogen peroxide  $(H_2O_2)$ , and singlet oxygen  $(^1O_2)$  (Tripathy and Oelmüller, 2012). Under normal plant growth conditions, ROS are used in photodamage protection, signal transduction, and in establishing cellular communication (Mittler, 2017; Waszczak et al., 2018). Under biotic and abiotic stresses, the level of ROS increases, affecting cellular integrity by damaging DNA, lipids, protein, and sugars (Van Breusegem and Dat, 2006).

Plants use different strategies to regulate cellular ROS levels, which include the use of primary (e.g., ascorbate) and specialized metabolites (e.g., flavonoids) (Kumari and Parida, 2018; Mishra et al., 2019). Ascorbate (Vitamin C) scavenges hydroxyl radicals, hydrogen peroxide, and superoxide anions (Mhamdi and Van Breusegem, 2018). Flavonoids also scavenge hydroxyl radicals and superoxide anions, but with higher efficiency owing to their higher electron and hydrogen atom donation capacity (Hernández et al., 2009; Mhamdi and Van Breusegem, 2018). So far, over 6000 flavonoids have been identified in plants with subclasses of anthocyanins, flavones, flavonols, flavonones, and dihydroflavonols synthesized via the phenylpropanoid pathway (Iwashina, 2000; Dixon and Pasinetti, 2010). In general, flavonoids have a C6-C3-C6 skeleton as a basic structure with the dihydroxy-β ring involved in scavenging ROS (Agati et al., 2012). Plant genotypes with high concentrations of these primary and specialized metabolites are naturally more tolerant to biotic and abiotic stresses (Zandalinas et al., 2018).

# <span id="page-34-0"></span>**1.6 Non-protein-coding microRNAs and their role in abiotic stress tolerance**

The majority of the eukaryotic genome encodes untranslated RNAs with diverse roles in the organism's life cycle (Hou et al., 2019). While greater than 85-90% of the eukaryotic genome can potentially be transcribed (David et al., 2006; Wilhelm et al., 2008), only 1-2% of the RNA is translated into proteins (Tian et al., 2019). Based on sequence length, nonprotein-coding RNAs are grouped into short  $\langle 200 \text{ bp} \rangle$  or long ( $> 200 \text{ bp}$ ) categories (Hombach and Kretz, 2016). According to their origins, processing modes, and effector protein associations, short non-protein-coding plant RNAs are classified into microRNAs (miRNA), small interfering RNAs (siRNA), and transfer RNA-derived small RNAs (tsRNA), which regulate target genes at the transcriptional and post-transcriptional levels (Ghildiyal and Zamore, 2009; Chitwood and Timmermans, 2010).

miRNAs are small molecules ranging from 16 to 26 nucleotides in length that regulate gene expression at the posttranscriptional level in a sequence-specific manner by either transcript cleavage or inhibition of mRNA translation (Sun, 2012a). miRNA genes are transcribed by RNA polymerase II (Pol II) and undergo a series of processes before they act on transcripts in the cytoplasm (Lee et al., 2004). The general microRNA biogenesis steps are conserved in the production of miR156 (Xu et al., 2016a) and a simplified illustration of miR156 biogenesis and subsequent mode of action is presented in **Figure 1.2.** First, the transcribed miRNA is trimmed producing a stem-loop (fold-back) transcript to form a pri-miRNA (Axtell and Meyers, 2018). Second, the pri-miRNA is processed by the endonuclease DICER-LIKE1 (DCL1), the RNA binding zinc finger protein SERRTAE (SE), and the HYPONASTIC LEAVES1 (HYL1) to form a pre-miRNA (Rogers and Chen, 2012; Oliver et al., 2017). Subsequently, the pre-miRNA is processed into a miRNA/miRNA duplex, methylated by HUA ENHANCER1 (HEN1) methyltransferase at the 3' terminal, and exported into the cytoplasm by exportin 5 protein (XPO5) (Mateos et al., 2010; Muqbil et al., 2013; Yu et al., 2017). The miRNA duplex binds to the ARGONAUTE (AGO1) component of RNA-Induced Silencing Complexes (RISCs) in the cytoplasm. The duplex is then unwound and the leading strand is used as a guide to target genes in a sequence specific manner by transcript cleavage or by translation inhibition while the second strand is degraded in the cytoplasm (Schwarz et al., 2003; Yu et al., 2017; Armenta-Medina and Gillmor, 2019).

Since the discovery of the first miRNA, *lin-4,* in *Caenorhabditis elegans*, more than 2000 miRNAs (*[http://www.mirbase.org](http://www.mirbase.org/)*) have been discovered in at least 72 plant species, playing roles in various aspects of plant growth, development and adaptation to the environment (Hannoufa et al., 2018; Armenta-Medina and Gillmor, 2019). For example, overexpression of the highly conserved *miR397* in monocots and dicots (Jones-Rhoades and Bartel, 2004) increases yield in rice by 25% through enhanced panicle branching and grain size (Zhang et al., 2013) while increasing cold tolerance in Arabidopsis (Dong and Pei, 2014). In other findings, miR397 increased tolerance to drought (Zhao et al., 2007) and oxidative stress (Li et al., 2011) in rice. Likewise, the highly conserved miR156 (Zhang et al., 2005) enhances plant performance in various plant species.
#### **Figure 1.1 miR156 biogenesis and post-transcriptional gene regulation module**

The schematic illustrtation includes concepts from Yu et al., (2017) and Armenta-Medina and Gillmor (2019). miRNA is transcribed by Pol II producing a stem-loop to form a pri-miRNA followed by further processing into pre-miRNA using the endonuclease DCL1, the RNA binding zinc finger protein SE, and the HYL1. Subsequently, the pre-miRNA is processed into a miRNA-duplex, methylated by HEN1 methyltransferase and exported to cytoplasm using exportin 5 protein. The miRNA-duplex binds to AGO1 component of RISCs (dark-orange colour in the illustration) in the cytoplasm, unwind and the leading strand is used as a guide to target genes in a sequence-specific manner by transcript cleavage or by translation inhibition while the second strand is degraded in the cytoplasm. DCL1, DICER-LIKE1; HEN1, HUA ENHANCER1; HYL1, HYPONASTIC LEAVES1; Pol II, RNA polymerase II; pre-miRNA156, Precursor miRNA156; pri-miRNA156, Primary miRNA156; RISC, RNA-Induced Silencing Complexes; SE, SERRTAE; SPL, SQUAMOSA-PROMOTER BINDING PROTEIN-LIKE; XPO5, exportin5. microRNA coding regions of DNA are indicated with blue boxes while green boxes are for miR156 regulated SPLs. SPL-regulated genes are indicated with orange boxes containing SPLbinding target sequences of `TNNGTACA/G` where N is any nucleotide but identical sequentially.



For example, increased expression levels of *miR156* improved tolerance to salinity (Arshad et al., 2017b), drought (Arshad et al., 2017a), and heat (Matthews et al., 2019) stress in alfalfa. Moreover, miR156 improved abiotic stress tolerance in other species, such as salinity and drought tolerance in Arabidopsis (Liu et al., 2008; Cui et al., 2014) and drought tolerance in switchgrass (Sun et al., 2012b). On the other hand, overexpression of *miR156* decreased cold tolerance in maize (Cui et al., 2015).

### **1.7 miR156/SPL network and its impact on plant performance**

miR156 regulates the expression of *SQUAMOSA-PROMOTER BINDING PROTEIN-LIKE* (SPL*)* transcription factors to impact plant performance (Aung et al., 2015a; Gao et al., 2016). In addition, tissue and developmental stage-dependent expression of *miR156*, along with its coordinated expression with other microRNAs, shapes the plant (Yu et al., 2015). SPLs regulate the expression of a plethora of genes that regulate plant growth and development by binding to gene promoters at a consensus DNA sequence NNGTACR (where  $N=$  any nucleotide but identical sequentially,  $R=A$  or G) known as the SPL Binding Domain (SBD) (Yamaguchi et al., 2009; Wei et al., 2012; Aung et al., 2015b; Xu et al., 2016b).

SPLs regulate the expression of downstream genes positively or negatively (**Figure 1.2**). For example, in Arabidopsis, the expression of *DFR* is downregulated by SPL9 in which SPL9 destabilizes and prevents transcription factor complexes from assembling and transcribing *DFR* (Stief et al., 2014). Accordingly, with enhanced levels of miR156, mRNA of SPL9 is cleaved and prevented from translation process which represses the expression of *DFR*. On the otherhand, SPLs also positively regulate the expression of downstream genes. For example, in rice, it was observed that SPLs triggered inflorescence

meristem and spikelet transition by regulating the *miR172*/*AP2* and *PANICLE PHYTOMER2* (*PAP2*)/*Rice TFL1/CEN homolog 1* (*RCN1*) pathways (Wang et al., 2015b). SPL-regulated transition of developmental stages (vegetative to reproductive) involves another microRNA, miR172, a negative regulator of miR156, where SPL positively reglates the expression of miR172. Moreover, the induction of flowering meristems is mediated by AP2 (Apetalla 2) and its expression is positively regulated by SPL. In addition, the expression of miR156, negative regulator of flowering in rice and other crops, is downregulated by miR172. Accordingly, the interplay among SPL, miR172 and AP2 combined with reduced level of miR156 trigger the transition of meristematic cells into inflorescence. The schematic representation in which the positive and negative roles of SPLs in gene expression governed by the interplay between SPL and miR156 is presented in **Figure 1.2**.

SPLs are involved in regulating gene expression either (**A**) negatgively, or (**B**) positively. The negative role of SPLs in regulating gene expression involve miR156 which cleaves SPL mRNA and uplifts the repressive role of SPL. On the other hand, to increase the expression of genes which are positively regulated by SPL, other microRNAs, such as miR172, are involved to reduce the repressive role of miR156. SPL, SQUAMOSA-PROMOTER BINDING PROTEIN-LIKE transcription factors. SPL proteins are represented by green bars. Negatively and positively SPL-regulated genes are indicated with light red and yellow boxes, respectively.



Despite the conservation of miR156 among plant species, some of its regulation outputs are species-specific (Wang et al., 2015b; Aung et al., 2015b; 2015c). For example, some of the effects of the increased expression of *miR156* in potato tubers and during fruit development in tomato are absent in Arabidopsis. Moreover, overexpression of *miR156* reduced nodulation in *Lotus japonicus* (Wang et al., 2015b) while increasing it in *M. sativa* (Aung et al., 2015b). In Arabidopsis*,* miR156 regulates 11 out of 17 *SPL*s, affecting various aspects of plant growth and development (Wu et al., 2009; Yu et al., 2015). On the other hand, only seven of 17 SPLs found in barley have miR156 complementary sequence (Tripathi et al., 2018). Previously, it was determined in alfalfa that miR156 regulates at least seven *SPL*s (*SPL2, SPL3, SPL4, SPL6, SPL9, SPL12,* and *SPL13*) (Gao et al., 2016), necessitating further investigation to identify other SPLs and their potential role in alfalfa.

### **1.8 Hypothesis and objectives of the study**

**Hypothesis:** I hypothesize that miR156, through its effect on the expression of *SPL* genes and other downstream genes, alters specialized metabolite profiles under water stress in alfalfa.

**Objectives:** The main purpose of this research is to investigate the role of miR156 and its target *SPL* genes in improving drought and flooding resilience in alfalfa. The specific objectives are:

#### **Specific objectives**

**1. Determine the effect of miR156 on primary and specialized metabolite profiles under abiotic stress**. The metabolite profile of alfalfa under abiotic stress using Gas and Liquid Chromatography Mass Spectrometry (GCMS and LCMS) and spectrophotometric analysis will be investigated.

**2. Investigate the physiological, hormonal and phenotypic resilience mechanisms associated with** *miR156* **overexpression (***miR156***OE) and** *SPL13* **silencing during abiotic stress**. Photosynthetic and relative water potential parameters of physiological and phenotypic responses of alfalfa plants in *miR156* overexpression and *SPL13*RNAi plants will be determined. Moreover, with the use of LCMS analysis, the hormonal profiles of selected alfalfa genotypes in response to flooding stress will be determined.

**3. Characterize SPLs regulated by miR156 during drought and flooding stress and downstream genes regulated by these SPLs**. Through the use of transcriptomics, phenotypic analysis and hormone profiling, SPL13 will be characterized for its role in drought and flooding stress tolerance in alfalfa. Moreover, new SPLs will be identified and investigated for their potential role in flooding tolerance.

**4. Determine the mode of action of the miR156/SPL network in regulating drought and flooding stress in alfalfa**. The miR156 mode of action in regulating drought and flooding stress in alfalfa will be determined using transcriptomics, metabolomics, and, phenomics and a working model will be formulated.

#### **Significance of the project**

The long-term objective of this thesis is to generate knowledge that will shed light on the mechanism of action of miR156 and SPLs in affecting drought and flooding stress resilience in alfalfa. Also, molecular tools for potential use by the breeding industry to improve alfalfa traits and resources for scientific knowledge will be generated.

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# **2. miR156/SPL13 module regulates drought tolerance in alfalfa 2.1 Background**

Climate change is expected to result in frequent and extreme weather events causing major damage to crop production (Olesen et al., 2011; Ray et al., 2015). Plants may respond to these changes (abiotic stress) by developing different resilience mechanisms that can be manifested at the phenotypic, physiological and molecular levels (Mba et al., 2012). To improve plant response to abiotic stress, microRNAs play a pivotal role in adjusting plant traits (Zhou and Luo, 2013) through mechanisms such as altering leaf and root architecture (Couzigou and Combier, 2016; Yang et al., 2018), and increasing levels of stress mitigating metabolites (Cui et al., 2014).

microRNAs are small RNAs of approximately 16-26 nucleotides in length that regulate gene expression at the posttranscriptional level in a sequence-specific manner (Sun, 2012). Of the hundreds of microRNAs (Zhang et al., 2005), microRNA156 (miR156) is highly conserved in plants, where it functions by down-regulating a group of *SQUAMOSA-PROMOTER BINDING PROTEIN-LIKE* (*SPL)* transcription factors (Aung et al., 2015a; 2015c; Gao et al., 2016). There are at least eight members (a to h) of miR156 in Arabidopsis, with g and h being unique to the species. A smaller number of miR156 members (a to f) have been discovered in other plant species, including *Medicago truncatula* (Xie et al., 2005). SPLs regulate positively or negatively a network of downstream genes affecting plant development and physiology by binding to gene promoters at a consensus DNA sequence known as the SPL Binding Domain (SBD) (Yamaguchi et al., 2009; Wei et al., 2012; Aung et al., 2015b; Wang et al., 2015; Xu et al., 2016). It was previously shown that overexpression of *miR156* in alfalfa delays flowering,

enhances root nodulation, and improves vegetative and root growth (Aung et al., 2015a, 2015b). Many of these traits are associated with abiotic stress tolerance (Malik et al., 2002; Serraj, 2003). Moreover, overexpression of *miR156d* was shown to improve alfalfa's tolerance to heat (Matthews et al., 2019), salinity (Arshad et al., 2017b) and drought stress (Arshad et al., 2017a). miR156-mediated silencing of *SPL2, SPL9* and *SPL11* improved heat, salt and drought stress resilience in Arabidopsis (Stief et al., 2014) and rice (Cui et al., 2014). Arabidopsis mutants overexpressing *miR156* had reduced levels of *SPL9,* and enhanced expression of *DIHYDROFLAVONOL-4-REDUCTASE* (*DFR*) and *PRODUCTION OF ANTHOCYANIN PIGMENT1* (*PAP1*), which resulted in increased anthocyanin accumulation and improved stress tolerance in Arabidopsis (Stief et al., 2014). The enhancement of anthocyanins and proanthocanidins are regulated by transcription factors such as WD40, MYB and BASIC HELIX-LOOP-HELIX (bHLH) (Pang et al., 2009; Verdier et al., 2012). These specialized metabolites scavenge free radicals in plants exposed to abiotic stress (Nakabayashi et al., 2014; Ayenew et al., 2015; Degu et al., 2016) and function in a coordinated manner with transient stress-related primary metabolites such as proline, galactinol, raffinose and gamma-aminobutyric-acid (GABA) to alleviate stress symptoms (Fait et al., 2008; Nakabayashi et al., 2014).

Drought stress was recently reported to enhance *miR156* expression in alfalfa, resulting in improved resilience to this stress by increasing leaf gas exchange and abscisic acid (ABA), while reducing water loss (Arshad et al., 2017a). Despite these findings, our understanding of how the miR156/SPL network regulates downstream genes such as *DFR* and *WD40-1* to affect stress tolerance in alfalfa is still lacking, especially as it relates to drought stress and specialized metabolites. In this study, the mechanism of how miR156 regulates drought stress response in alfalfa was investigated by analyzing genotypes with altered expression levels of *miR156*, *SPL13*, and *WD40-1* at the metabolomic, transcriptomic and physiological levels. To understand tissue- and genotype-specific transcriptional regulation, the global transcriptomic profiles of leaf, stem and root tissues of *SPL13*RNAi plants in response to drought stress were evaluated. Moreover, binding of SPL13 to the *DFR* promoter to regulate flavonoid biosynthesis was investigated. The findings from this report provide insight into the mechanisms deployed by miR156 in regulating drought stress and could be used as a tool in marker-assisted breeding to improve alfalfa and potentially other crops.

### **2.2 Results**

## **2.2.1 Enhanced** *miR156* **expression improves drought tolerance by altering root architecture and water holding capacity**

To determine drought stress regulation by miR156, one-month-old *miR156*OE alfalfa plants with low (low-miR156A8a= 0.5), moderate (moderate-miR156A8= 1.5) and higher (higher-miR156A11= 2.5) relative  $miR156$  expression levels than the empty vector (EV) (Aung et al., 2015b) were grown under drought and well-watered conditions. Root weight, root length, stem basal width and fresh root-to-shoot weight ratios were affected by drought stress depending on the genotype (**Figure 2.1**). Relative to EV, low-miR156A8a had an 1.8-fold increased root length (**Figure 2.1A,B**) and a 1.7-fold increase in root weight (**Figure 2.1C**). The increment of root biomass in low-miR156A8a was the result of longer roots rather than shorter and thicker roots (**Figure 2.1B,C**). To understand if the improved root architecture affected plant water potential, leaf water potential (Argyrokastritis et al., 2015) and changes in the lower stem diameter before and after drought were measured

(Cohen et al., 2001; Goldhamer and Fereres, 2001; Intrigliolo and Castel, 2004). *miR156*OE genotypes, low-miR156A8a and A8, maintained a higher leaf water potential and also either maintained or increased basal stem diameter (**Figure 2.1D**) while EV plants showed a reduction over the two weeks of stress. The unchanged basal stem diameter was accompanied by an increase in root/shoot biomass ratio in low-miR156A8a and moderatemiR156A8 under drought (**Figure 2.1E**).

### **2.2.2** *miR156* **overexpression affects photosynthesis parameters**

Since drought stress negatively affects photosynthetic parameters (Pinheiro and Chaves, 2011), this effect was investigated in *miR156*OE and EV plants. Accordingly, photosystem II (PS II) chlorophyll fluorescence, as the Fv/Fm ratio, was measured. The maximum rate of rubisco carboxylase activity *V*cmax was maintained at a relatively high level in lowmiR156A8a and moderate-miR156A8 plants while a 64% - 75% reduction was observed in EV and higher-miR156A11 plants during drought stress (**Figure 2.2B**). Consistent with these findings, the maximum photosynthetic electron transport rate,  $J_{\text{max}}$ , was also maintained at higher levels in low-miR156A8a and moderate-miR156A8 during drought stress while it was reduced (64%) in EV and higher-miR156A11 (**Figure 2.2C**). Fv/Fm was significantly affected by genotype, drought exposure time and a combination of both. *miR156*OE plants maintained higher levels of Fv/Fm ratio (≥0.75) at later stages of drought (day 11 and 14) comparable to unstressed plants, while EV plants showed a gradual reduction to 0.69 after 14 days of drought (**Figure 2.2D**). Furthermore, photosynthesis assimilation rate was significantly affected by genotype and the duration of drought exposure. During drought stress the photosynthetic assimilation rate was two-fold higher in moderate-miR156A8 than EV, gradually decreased (1.8-fold) in low-miR156A8a, and

further decreased (1.5-fold) in higher-miR156A11 on day 14 when it was greater than in EV (**Figure 2.2E**).

## **2.2.3** *miR156***OE plants accumulate anthocyanin and other stress-aleviating specialized metabolites under drought**

Since plants deploy stress-mitigating primary and specialized metabolites to cope with stress (Ayenew et al., 2015); the metabolite responses of alfalfa to drought stress were investigated. Using more than 4000 metabolite features, a Principal Component Analysis (PCA) plot of LCMS-based metabolite profiles revealed a distinct difference between drought-treated EV and *miR156*OE stem tissues (**Figure 2.3A**). These metabolite features are spectral data generated from metabolites with fragmentation (Alonso et al., 2015; Matsuda, 2016). Principal component-1 (PC-1) contributed 32.7% of the variance and clearly separated EV from *miR156*OE genotypes stem samples while principal component-2 (PC-2) accounted for 13% of the variance.

Leaves of low-miR156A8a and EV were metabolically closer (**Figure 2.3B**), whereas the higher *miR156* overexpressor, higher-miR156A11, possessed a distinct metabolic profile, with PC-1 and PC-2 variance of 18.85% and 12.96%, respectively. Unlike stem and leaf tissues (**Figure 2.3A,B**), roots had a differential metabolite features profile for all genotypes with PC-1 and PC-2 variance of 19.21% and 11.05%, respectively (**Figure 2.3C**). Also, stems of *miR156*OE plants showed stem basal internode pigmentation (**Figure 2.3D**). Based on their significance level and fold change relative to EV, the numbers of metabolite features common or different in stem, leaf and root tissues of *miR156*OE genotypes under drought stress are presented in **Figure 2.4A, 2.4B** and **2.4C,**  respectively.

## **Figure 2.1 Effects of** *miR156* **overexpression on drought tolerance and phenotypic responses in alfalfa**

**(A)** Roots; **(B)** root length; **(C)** root weight; **(D)** stem basal diameter change after two weeks of drought stress; **(E)** root/shoot biomass ratio of EV and *miR156*OE plants under drought stress. Values are sample means  $\pm$  SE, n = 4 individual plants except in '**D**', '**E**', where n=5. ANOVA was followed by *Post hoc* Tukey multiple comparisons test when a statistically significant value at  $p<0.05$  was observed and indicated with different letters. Values assigned with same letters are statistically not significant from each other.











### **Figure 2. 2 Effects of** *miR156* **overexpression on drought tolerance and physiological responses in alfalfa**

**(A)** leaf water potential; **(B)**  $V_{\text{cmax}}$ , maximum rate of rubisco carboxylase activity; **(C)**  $J_{\text{max}}$ , maximum rate of photosynthetic electron transport; **(D)** dark-adapted chlorophyll florescence, Fv/Fm, and **(E)** photosynthesis (P.) assimilation rate in well-watered (control) and drought stressed plants. Values are sample means  $\pm$  SE, n = 4 individual plants except in '**A**', where n=5. ANOVA was followed by *Post hoc* Tukey multiple comparisons test when a statistically significant value at  $p<0.05$  was observed. Values assigned the same letters are not statistically significant from each other at each time point. Multiple time point data of '**D**' and '**E**' were analyzed separately for each time points. The abbreviations '-Con' and '-Dry' in '**D**' and '**E**' stands for control and drought treatments, respectively.



## **Figure 2.3 LCMS-based metabolite profiling illustrates distinct profile in** *miR156***OE genotypes during drought stress**

Principal component analysis (PCA) of metabolite profile in **(A)** stem, **(B)** leaf, and **(C)** root tissues under drought stress; **(D)** stem colour development in drought-stressed *miR156*OE plants compared to EV plants. Metabolite profile data were subjected to pareto scaling before principal component analysis (PCA), in which metabolites abundances were mean-centered followed by dividing with square root of the standard deviation using Rsoftware environment 3.2.5.



### **Figure 2.4 LCMS-based metabolite profiling illustrates enrichment of specialized metabolites in** *miR156***OE genotypes during drought stress**

Metabolite features that are significantly different at between *miR156*OE and EV plants at p<0.01 in tissues of **(A)** stem, **(B)** leaf, and **(C)** root tissues; **(D)** percentage of metabolite features that are significantly increased  $( \geq 1.5 \log 2$  fold change) or decreased ( $\leq -1.5 \log 2$ 2 fold change) relative to EV under drought stress; relative concentrations of anthocyanin metabolites of **(E)** peonidin 3-O-glucoside, PG, and **(F)** delphinidin 3-O-(6''-acetyl) glucoside, DAG. The relative abundance of metabolites is normalized to an internal standard (ampicillin and corticosterone). Values are sample means  $\pm$  SE, n=4 individual plants. ANOVA was followed by *Post hoc* Tukey multiple comparisons test when a statistically significant value at  $p<0.05$  was observed. Values assigned with same letters are statistically not significant from each other.





**Figure 2.4A** reveals a high number of differentially abundant metabolite features (770) in stems of *miR156*OE in common compared to EV plants. Majority (85.1%, 81.1%, and 73.4% for low-miR156A8a, moderate-miR156A8, and higher-miR156A11, respectively) of the differentially abundant stem metabolites were increased than in EV stems (**Figure 2.4D**). Here, levels of anthocyanins such as peonidin 3-O-glucoside (PG) and delphinidin 3-O-(6''-acetyl)-glucoside (DAG) were affected by genotype and tissue in response to drought stress. LCMS-based metabolite profiling showed anthocyanins and other ROS scavenging phenolic metabolites were increased mainly in stems of lowmiR156A8a and moderate-miR156A8, although PG was also increased in highermiR156A11 (**Figure 2.4E,F** and **Table 2.1**). It remains to be determined whether such acylation is a factor in the improved drought tolerance observed for moderate-miR156A8, given that leaves of moderate-miR156A8 had higher levels of DAG relative to highermiR156A11 and EV (**Figure 2.4F**).

## **2.2.4 Alfalfa plants expressing moderate levels of** *miR156* **accumulate stress-related primary metabolites under drought**

GCMS was used for analysis of primary metabolites to determine their levels during drought stress. Concentration levels of metabolites were governed by tissue and genotype. In general, the relative abundance of proteinogenic amino acids was higher in leaf tissues of moderate *miR156*OE plants, but reduced in highly overexpressing higher-miR156A11 plants (**Figure 2.5A** and **Table 2.2**). With the exception of valine, which showed no significant differences in stem, root and leaf tissues, levels of proteinogenic amino acids were significantly affected by tissue type and a combination of genotype and tissue.

Alanine, asparagine, glycine and tryptophan showed a relatively higher abundance in leaves of moderate-miR156A8 (**Figure 2.5A)**.

Interestingly, proline, which functions as an osmolyte to maintain plant water potential (Nakabayashi et al., 2014), was significantly increased in root tissues of lowmiR156A8a, comparable in moderate-miR156A8, but was reduced in leaf, stem and root tissues of higher-miR156A11 relative to EV plants (**Figure 2.5B**). Levels of γaminobutyric acid, GABA, a stress-responsive metabolite that mediates carbon to nitrogen balance between glutamate and succinate in the TCA cycle (Fait et al., 2008), were enhanced in root tissues of moderate-miR156A8 and low-miR156A8a (**Figure 2.5C**). The higher  $miR156$  overexpressor, higher-miR156A11, on the other hand, had reduced GABA levels in all tissues as compared to EV (**Figure 2.5C**).

The level of fructose, one of the main sugar sources for the carbon skeleton of downstream metabolites and a source of energy, was increased in leaf tissues of moderatemiR156A8 but unchanged in stems and roots relative to EV and low-miR156A8a (**Figure 2.5D**). On the other hand, fructose was reduced in stems of higher-miR156A11 compared to EV and the other genotypes (**Figure 2.5D**). Arabinose, which is metabolized in the pentose phosphate pathway (PPP), is an important component of cell wall polysaccharides, glycoproteins, and arabinogalactan proteins (Stincone et al., 2015). Here, arabinose levels were increased in low-miR156A8a and moderate-miR156A8 stems while they were reduced in roots of higher-miR156A11 compared to EV (**Figure 2.5E**). A complete list of annotated metabolites using GCMS analysis is presented in **Table 2.2**.

Relative metabolite abundance values using peak area were normalized to internal standards corticosterone and ampicillin. N=4 biological replicates from different plants obtained from drought exposed plants. The samples were analyzed with both positive and negative ion mode, independently, using electron spray ionization (ESI) to resolve the metabolites better.


#### **2.2.5 miR156 regulates photosynthesis and flavonoid genes**

Physiological and metabolite profiling analyses showed alfalfa plants overexpressing *miR156* at low-to-moderate levels (low-miR156A8a and A8) had higher anthocyanin levels (**Figure 2.4E,F**) and maintained higher photosynthetic efficiency during drought stress (**Figure 2.2B-E**). I, therefore, investigated if photosynthesis and anthocyanins are regulated at the molecular level by determining relative transcript abundance for genes involved in these pathways, such as *PHOTOSYSTEM I p700 CHLOROPHYL A APOPROTEIN APS I* (*PSI*) and *PHOTOSYSTEM IIQ(b)* (*II*). Genotype, tissue and their interaction had a significant impact on the transcript abundance of flavonoid biosynthesis genes *DFR* (**Figure 2.6A**) and *MYB112* (**Figure 2.6B**), although *MYB112* showed little difference between tissues. Accordingly, higher transcript levels of *DFR* and *MYB112* were observed in stem and leaf tissues of some *miR156*OE plants.

DFR had two- to 15-fold higher transcription in *miR156*OE leaf tissues compared to EV (**Figure 2.6A**). *DFR* transcription was also 25- to 35-fold higher in *miR156*OE root samples. *MYB112* transcript abundance was five- to 19-times higher in leaf tissues of *miR156*OE compared to EV while a four-fold higher expression abundance was observed in *miR156*OE stem tissues regardless of genotype (**Figure 2.6B**). A slight increment in the expression abundance of *WD40-1* (1.9-fold), a transcription factor in the phenylpropanoid pathway, was observed in moderate-miR156A8 root tissues, whereas expression decreased in stem and leaf tissues (**Figure 2.6C**). Moreover, *FLAVONOID GLUCOSYLTRANSFERASE2*, (*FGT2*), was significantly increased up to six-fold in leaves of low-miR156A8a while a 19-fold increment was observed in roots (**Figure 2.6D**). The photosynthesis efficiency-related *PHOTOSYSTEM I p700 CHLOROPHYLL A* 

*APOPROTEIN APS I* (*PSI*) and *PHOTOSYSTEM II Q(b)* (*PSII*) transcript levels were influenced by genotype and tissue type in alfalfa's response to drought stress. *PSI* and *PSII* transcripts abundance were five- and four-fold higher in low-miR156A8a leaves and roots, respectively (**Figure 2**.**6E,F**). On the other hand, these two genes were significantly decreased in stems of *miR156*OE plants (**Figure 2.6E,F**).

### **2.2.6 SPL13 regulates physiological responses and anthocyanin accumulation during drought stress in alfalfa**

Since miR156 functions in alfalfa by downregulating *SPL* genes, including *SPL13* (Aung et al., 2015b; Gao et al., 2016), I investigated the effect of drought on some physiological and phenotypic parameters of alfalfa plants having RNAi-silenced *SPL13.* Leaf water potential was significantly influenced by genotype in alfalfa's response to drought stress. Accordingly, *SPL13*RNAi-5 and *SPL13*RNAi-6 plants maintained higher midday leaf water potential during drought stress (**Figure 2.7A**).

Moreover, measurement of photosynthesis efficiency parameter showed that *SPL13*RNAi-5 and *SPL13*RNAi-6 with moderate *SPL13* silencing (Arshad et al., 2017a), maintained a higher Fv/Fm ratio of 0.74 (**Figure 2.7B**) after eight days of drought stress. The level of Fv/Fm was significantly influenced by genotype, length of drought exposure, and a combination of both in alfalfa's response to drought stress. *SPL13*RNAi-6 plants had a significantly higher basal monomeric anthocyanin level under a well-watered conditions (**Figure 2.7C**). Interestingly, all *SPL13*RNAi genotypes accumulated a higher level of total monomeric anthocyanin during drought stress while levels in EV did not change (**Figure 2.7C**). A comparable total polyphenol content was mainatined by all genotypes regradless of whether the plants were under well-watered or drought conditions (**Figure 2.7D**).

### **Figure 2.5 GCMS-based primary metabolite profiling demonstrates drought stress tolerance strategies by miR156**

Relative abundance of proteinogenic amino acids in leaf tissues during drought stress: alanine, asparagine, aspartate, glycine, isoleucine, serine, threonine, tryptophan and valine **(A)**; relative levels of metabolites from the γ-aminobutyric acid (GABA) shunt in leaf, stem and root tissues of **(B)** proline, and **(C)** GABA; relative levels of fructose (**D**) and arabinose (**E**) of leaf, stem and root under drought stress. Values are sample means  $\pm$  SE, n= 4 individual plants. ANOVA was followed by *Post hoc* Tukey multiple comparisons test when a statistically significant value at  $p<0.05$  was observed. Values assigned with same letters are statistically not significant from each other.



### **Table 2.2 GCMS-based relative metabolite abundance in drought stressed alfalfa plants**

Relative metabolite abundance values using peak area were normalized to internal standard ribitol. Aliquots from the LCMS extraction were used for GCMS after derivatazation using *O*-methylhydroxylamine hydrochloride in pyridine followed by *N*-methyl-*N*- [trimethylsilyl] trifluoroacetamide (MSTFA) for silylation. Standards of alkane mix (0.029% v/v C10-C20) were used to determine the metabolites retention index in combination with NIST 2011 mass spectral library and in-house metabolite library.  $N = 4$ biological replicates from different plants obtained from drought exposed plants of EV, low-miR156A8a, moderate-miR156A8, and All leaf, stem, and root tissues. The abbreviation GABA stands for γ-aminobutyric acid while 1279NA is an unidentified metabolite based on in-house metabolite database with a retention index of 12.79.



| <b>Metabolite</b> | EV     |             |             | low-miR156A8a |             |             | moderate-miR156A8 |             |             | higher-miR156A11 |             |             |
|-------------------|--------|-------------|-------------|---------------|-------------|-------------|-------------------|-------------|-------------|------------------|-------------|-------------|
|                   | Leaf   | <b>Stem</b> | <b>Root</b> | eaf_          | <b>Stem</b> | <b>Root</b> | ∟eaf              | <b>Stem</b> | <b>Root</b> | ∟eaf             | <b>Stem</b> | <b>Root</b> |
| PineridineC       | 0.29   | 0.39        | 0.62        | 0.29          | 0.36        | 0.82        | 0.67              | 0.24        | 0.68        | 0.21             | 0.35        | 0.09        |
| Pinitol           | 548.49 | 558.43      | 485.53      | 611.33        | 511.23      | 567.52      | .56<br>591        | 678.14      | 594.62      | 249.64           | 369.53      | 395.88      |
| Pinitol-2         | 63.03  | 21.86       | 21.26       | 55.04         | 18.52       | 19.30       | 64.81             | 23.92       | 19.36       | 19.59            | 18.37       | 14.80       |
| Tartarate         | 0.78   | 1.18        | 1.14        | 0.39          | 0.43        | 1.61        | 0.50              | 0.82        | 1.29        | 0.27             | 0.79        | 0.50        |
| Threonate         | 2.52   | 2.55        | 0.43        | 2.60          | 1.59        | 0.54        | 4.08              | 2.61        | 0.47        | 1.57             | 2.17        | 0.43        |
| Turanose          | 4.61   | 5.64        | 0.07        | 1.98          | 3.35        | 0.11        | 4.23              | 4.29        | 0.12        | 0.81             | 2.02        | 0.17        |
| 1279NA            | 0.19   | 0.15        | 0.18        | 0.31          | 0.14        | 0.10        | 0.16              | 0.41        | 0.19        | 0.07             | 0.17        | 0.16        |

**Table 2.2 Continued** *…*

### **Figure 2.6 Differential transcript levels of select genes in the phenylpropanoid pathway and photosystems during drought stress**

qRT-PCR-based transcript levels in leaf, stem and root tissues of **(A)** *DIHYDROFLAVONOL-4-REDUCTASE, DFR*; **(B)** *MYB112*; **(C)** *WD40-1*; **(D)** *FLAVONOID GLUCOSYLTRANSFERASE2, FGT2*; **(E)** *PHOTOSYSTEM I p700 CHLOROPHYLL A APOPROTEIN APS I*, *PSI*; and **(F)** *PHOTOSYSTEM II Q(b)*, *PSII*. Values are sample means  $+$  SE, n=4 individual plants. Transcript abundance is relative to empty vector control after being normalized to *acetyl-CoA carboxylase*, *ACC1*, and *ACTIN* housekeeping genes. ANOVA was followed by *Post hoc* Tukey multiple comparisons test when a statistically significant value at  $p<0.05$  was observed. Values assigned with same letters are statistically not significant from each other.



# **2.2.7 Flavonoid- and photosynthesis-related genes are enhanced in**  *SPL13***-silenced plants**

To determine whether the observed increases in total monomeric anthocyanin levels and maintenance of photosynthesis efficiency under drought stress were regulated at the transcriptional level, the expressions of anthocyanin-related and dehydration responsive genes were analyzed. There were significant differences among genotypes in relative transcript abundance under drought and control conditions (**Figure 2.7E-H**). As expected, the transcript level of *PHENYLALANINE AMMONIA-LYASE* (*PAL*) the first committed step in the phenylpropanoid pathway, was significantly higher in two out of three *SPL13*RNAi plants (**Figure 2.7E**). Similarly, *DFR* and *FGT2* were also significantly higher in two out of three *SPL13*RNAi plants (**Figure 2.7E,F**).

The *DEHYDRATION RESPONSIVE RD-22-LIKE* (*DRR*) gene, which is regulated by MYB and MYC transcription factors and induced by drought and ABA (Abe et al., 2003; Tuteja, 2007), was expressed four- to 17-fold higher in *SPL13*RNAi plants (**Figure 2.7F**). Likewise, the transcription factor *WD40-1* was increased three- to 14-fold in *SPL13*RNAi plants during drought stress (**Figure 2.7G**). For photosynthesis-related genes, transcript analysis of *PSI* and *PSII* revealed a two- to 10-fold and six to 43-fold increase in expression levels, respectively, in *SPL13*RNAi plants relative to EV (**Figure 2.7H**).

### **Figure 2.7** *SPL13* **silencing regulates drought response through coordinated metabolite, transcript and physiological adjustments**

**(A)** Leaf water potential in *SPL13*RNAi and EV plants; **(B)** dark adapted chlorophyll florescence, Fv/Fm, during drought stress; **(C)** total monomeric anthocyanin expressed as cyanidin-o-glucoside equivalent (CG); and **(D)** total polyphenol content expressed as gallic acid equivalent (GAE); **(E)** transcript levels of *PHENYLALANINE AMMONIA-LYASE* (*PAL*), and *DIHYDROFLAVONOL-4-REDUCTASE* (*DFR*); **(F)** *FLAVONOID GLUCOSYLTRANSFERASE2* (*FGT2*), and *DEHYDRATION RESPONSIVE RD-22-LIKE*, (*DRR*); **(G)** *MYB112* and *WD40-1* transcription factor genes from the phenylpropanoid pathway in stems of *SPL13*RNAi and EV genotypes; **(H)** transcript levels of *PHOTOSYSTEM I p700 CHLOROPHYLL A APOPROTEIN APS I* (*PSI*), and *PHOTOSYSTEM II Q(b) (PSII)* under drought stress; Values are means + SE, Light gray bars in '**A**', '**C**' and '**D**' represent values under well-watered condition while dark gray bars represent under drought stressed. Relative transcript levels in '**E**', '**F', 'G'** and '**H'** are shown relative to EV after being normalized to *acetyl-CoA carboxylase*, *ACC1*, and *ACTIN* housekeeping genes. ANOVA was followed by *Post hoc* Tukey multiple comparisons test when a statistically significant value at  $p<0.05$  was observed. Values assigned with same letters are statistically not significant from each other. Letters in multiple time point data of '**B**' were analyzed separately. Abbreviations of EV, RNAi13-2, RNAi13-5 and RNAi13- 6 corresponds to empty vector, *SPL13*RNAi-2, *SPL13*RNAi-5, and *SPL13*RNAi-6, respectively.



#### **2.2.8 SPL13 is a direct regulator of** *DFR*

miR156 represses the expression of *SPL*s, including *SPL13* in alfalfa, to affect various aspects of plant growth and development (Gao et al., 2016). Analysis of the the *DFR* promoter revealed the presence of at least four putative SBD binding motifs with the core GTAC sequence (**Figure 2.8A** and **Figure S2**), the occupancy with SPL13 in the promoter region of *DFR* was studied using ChIP-qPCR in p35S:SPL13-GFP plants. Three regions (I, II & III) were selected with the conserved SBD core sequences located at 750, 544 and 260 bp, respectively, upstream of the translation start codon of *DFR* as potential SPL13 binding sites, and tested for SPL13 occupancy. Compared to WT, SPL13 binding to the *DFR* promoter region was significantly higher in p35S:SPL13-GFP plants (**Figure 2.8B**). There is a preferential binding of SPL13 towards the two most downstream putative SBD regions (II & III) in the *DFR* promoter while region I did not show strong binding (**Figure 2.8** and **Figure S2**). Of the three regions, region III showed the strongest binding to SPL13 (**Figure 2.8**) indicating that SPL13 could bind directly to *DFR* to negatively regulate its expression.

#### **2.2.9 Global transcriptomic signature of SPL13 in alfalfa drought tolerance**

To identify SPL13-regulated genes that contribute to drought tolerance, high throughput transcriptomic analysis was conducted on alfalfa plants with reduced expression of *SPL13* (*SPL13*RNAi-5) and empty vector (EV) plants. To determine tissue-specific gene expression patterns, total mRNA was extracted from leaf, stem, and root tissues exposed to drought stress and control conditions for transcriptomic analysis.

#### **2.2.9.1 Genotype-specific transcript profile of alfalfa in response to drought stress**

Plants deploy metabolic, physiological, and phenotypic adjustments to cope with different abiotic and biotic stress conditions (Fenollosa and Munné‐Bosch, 2019; Mishra et al., 2019). Determining the molecular signature of these adjustments is necessary for exploiting this knowledge in marker-assisted breeding to screen genotype collections for the regulated genes. In earlier sections (2.2.1 - 2.2.8), I investigated the role of the miR156/SPL13 module in alfalfa drought tolerance. Here, I compared the global transcriptomic profile of leaf, stem, and root tissues of RNAi-silenced *SPL13* and EV plants under drought condition. The observed physiological and phenotypic adjustments in *SPL13*RNAi plants in response to drought were investigated to determine if they were attributed to differential gene expression. More than 5900, 2100, and 1500 differentially expressed genes (DEG) were found between leaf, stem, and root tissues, respectively, of drought-stressed *SPL13*RNAi and EV plants (**Figure 2.9A**). Among the DEG, 74 were commonly increased in all tissues of *SPL13*RNAi plants, while 154 transcripts were commonly decreased (**Figure 2.9A**).

Among the commonly increased genes, the highest fold change was observed from a vacuolar ion transporter-like (Medtr2g008110) followed by genes encoding a gibberellinregulated family protein (Medtr6g007897), a fasciclin-like arabinogalactan protein (Medtr5g098420), a proline dehydrogenase (Medtr7g020820), Pmr5/Cas1p GDSL/SGNH-like acyl-esterase family protein (Medtr4g079700), LRR receptor-like kinase (Medtr5g090100) and an abscisic acid receptor (Medtr7g070050), respectively (**Table S3**).

#### **Figure 2.8 SPL13 binds to** *DFR* **in a sequential and position-dependent manner**

**(A)** Schematic representation of potential SPL13 binding sites in the promoter region of *DFR*, **(B)** Chromatin Immunoprecipitation-qPCR (ChIP-qPCR) based fold enrichment analysis of SPL13 in p35S:SPL13-GFP and WT plants from means of  $n = 3$  individual plants with + SE where *LATERAL ORGAN BOUNDARES-1* (*LOB1*) was used as a negative control. Comparisons between WT and p35S:SPL13-GFP plants in each potential SPL13 binding regions (I, II, and III) were performed separately and indicated with different letters when significant at p<0.05. In 'A' '\*" represents SBD with 'GTAC' sequence for potential SPL13 binding. In '**B**' *DFRI, DFRII,* and *DFRIII* represents ChIP-qPCR amplification of regions I, II, III located at 750, 544 and 260 bp, respectively, upstream of the translation start codon of *DFR* as potential SPL13 binding sites.





Of the commonly reduced genes in *SPL13*RNAi plants under drought stress, transcripts encoding an ABC transporter family protein (Medtr2g095440), a plasma membrane H+-ATPase (Medtr3g108800), and a PLAT-plant-stress protein (Medtr3g087490) showed the highest fold-changes, respectively (**Table S4)**. Moreover, transcript analysis between drought-stressed and unstressed tissues of *SPL13*RNAi plants showed 998, 1195 and 587 DEG whereas a significantly higher number were of DEG (an average of 4.5 fold) observed in EV plants with 5521, 4426 and 2607 DEG in leaf, stem and root tissues, respectively (**Figure 2.7B,C**). Gene ontology (GO) term annotation of the DEG between drought-stressed *SPL13*RNAi and EV plants leaf, stem and root tissues mainly correspond to molecular function (average of 83%) followed by biological process (11%) and cellular components (5%) roles (**Figure 2.9D-F**).

#### **2.2.9.2 Leaf-specific transcript profile of alfalfa plants under drought stress**

Different plant tissues would be expected to have different roles to play in drought response owing to their gene expression profiles. Total transcript counts were subjected to weighted gene co-expression network analysis (WGCNA) (Langfelder and Horvath, 2008) to understand the gene co-expression pattern upon drought stress across tissues and genotypes. Transcript profiles from leaf, stem, and root tissues of *SPL13*RNAi and EV changed in response to drought in a tissue-specific manner; presenting different clusters based on tissue type (**Figure 2.10**). Of the 5900 DEG present between leaf tissues of drought-stressed *SPL13*RNAi and EV, 55.8% of the genes were significantly increased in *SPL13*RNAi plants (**Figure 2.9A**), of this 2824 were leaf-specific (**Table S5**). On the other hand, considering tissue plasticity between well-watered and drought-stressed leaf tissues, 41.5 % of the 998 DEG were increased in *SPL13*RNAi leaves while 51.9 % of 5521 DEG

were increased in EV leaves (**Figure 2.9B,C**). Moreover, 24.9 % (387 of 998) and 31.8 % (494 of 998) of leaf-specific DEG in *SPL13*RNAi plants were increased and decreased, respectively (**Figure 2.9B**). Likewise, 37.8 % (2086 of 5521) and 33.1 % (1827 of 5521) of DEG in EV plants were increased and decreased, respectively, only in leaves (**Figure 2.9C**). Gene ontology (GO) -terms were analyzed and categorized into molecular function, biological process, and cellular components to understand the role of differentially regulated genes in leaves of drought-stressed *SPL13*RNAi and EV plants. The analysis from leaf tissues showed 85% of GO-terms corresponds to molecular function followed by 10% and 5% to biological process and cellular components, respectively (**Figure 2.9D**).

The top three DEG associated with molecular function correspond to transcription activity (phosphorelay response regulator activity, sequence-specific DNA binding transcription factor activity, and transcription cofactor activity) (**Figure S5**, **Table S8**). Likewise, the top biological processes associated DEG between *SPL13*RNAi and EV plants correspond to telomere maintenance, translation and alcohol metabolic process in addition to glutamine catabolic process and porphyrin-containing compound biosynthetic process (comprises chlorophyll biosynthesis) (**Figure A4**, **Table S8**). The DEG were mapped to the *M. truncatula* genome to understand their functional associations. Accordingly, leaf-specific DEG between drought-stressed *SPL13*RNAi and EV were mapped using MapMan-based pathway analysis. Various metabolic pathways were affected, including carbohydrate metabolism, photosynthesis, and primary metabolism (**Figure 2.11**). Most importantly, photosynthesis-associated transcripts were highly increased in *SPL13*RNAi plants (**Figure 2.11**).

### **Figure 2.9 Tissue and genotype-specific expression patterns of** *SPL13***RNAi and EV genotypes of alfalfa plants in response to drought**

(**A**) Differentially expressed genes between drought stressed *SPL13*RNAi and EV plants; (**B**) *SPL13*RNAi-specific gene expression plasticity in response to drought stress; (**C**) EVspecific gene expression plasticity in response to drought stress; percent representation of DEG into cellular components, biological process, and molecular functions between *SPL13*RNAi and EV (**D**) leaf (**E**) stem, and (**F**) root tissues.



# **Figure 2.10 Weighted gene co-expression network analysis (WGCNA) illustrates tissue and genotype-specific expression patterns of alfalfa plants in response to drought**

Tissue and treatment-specific expression patterns of total transcripts. Tissue-specific expression patters are indicated with blue line boxes indicating transcript from leaf, stem, and root tissues are distinct. WGCNA were analysed using R-software environment 3.2.5. 'BiocManager' package considering all transcripts detected in each sample. S13, *SPL13*RNAi; EV, empty vector plants.



Further investigation of transcripts associated with photosynthesis revealed that lightdependent reaction centers, mainly of photosystem I and photosystem II, were higher in *SPL13*RNAi (**Figure 2.12A**). Unlike the light-dependent reaction centers, the Calvin cycle (**Figure 2.12B**) and photorespiration-associated transcripts (**Figure 2.12C**) were either slightly increased or not altered. Similarly, the photorespiration-associated transcript, rubisco (Ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase), was slightly higher in *SPL13*RNAi plants under drought stress (**Figure 2.12C**).

#### **2.2.9.3 Stem-specific transcript changes of alfalfa plants upon drought stress**

Expression levels of 46.5% of the 2114 DEG between drought-stressed stem tissues of *SPL13*RNAi and EV plants indicated an increased level in *SPL*13RNAi plants (**Figure 2.9A**), of which 572 were stem-specific (**Table S6**). On the other hand, genotype-specific and stem-derived drought stress responsive transcripts revealed 46.9% of the 1195 DEG in *SPL*13RNAi plants were increased while EV plants showed a 48.9% increase out of 4426 DEG (**Figure 2.9B,C**). To understand the function of stem-derived DEG, the genes were annotated (GO-term analysis) and grouped their roles into molecular function, biological process, and cellular components. Like leaf tissues, the majority (83%) of the DEG correspond to molecular function followed by biological process (12%) and cellular components (5%), despite differences in DEG between leaves and stems (**Figure 2.9E**). The most enriched DEG molecular functions between *SPL13*RNAi and EV stem tissues were acyl-CoA dehydrogenase activity, ubiquinol-cytochrome-c reductase activity, and hydroxymethylglutaryl-CoA reductase (NADPH) activity (**Figure S7, Table S9**). On the other hand, the highly enriched categories of the affected biological processes include ATP catabolic process, response to stress, defense response, intercellular signal transduction and response to desiccation (**Figure S6**, **Table S9**).

Furthermore, to understand the association of DEG of stem tissues with metabolic pathways, I subjected DEG to MapMan-based pathway analysis (**Figure 2.13**). DEG of stem tissues were increased in *SPL13*RNAi plants that correspond mainly to flavonoid biosynthesis, carbohydrate metabolism and response to desiccation-related genes (**Figure 2.13, Table S5**). On the other hand, genes associated with photosynthesis were decreased significantly in *SPL13*RNAi plants compared to EV (**Figure 2.13**). Transcriptomic analysis of DEG obtained from stem tissues combined with MapMan-based pathway analysis revealed an activation of the phenylpropanoid pathway in *SPL13*RNAi plants under drought stress (**Figure 2.14**).

#### **2.2.9.4 Root-specific transcript profile of alfalfa plants in response to drought stress**

A total of 1543 DEG were detected between roots of drought-stressed *SPL13*RNAi and EV plants, with 41.2 % of them increased in the former (**Figure 2.9A**), of which 385 were rootspecific (**Table S7**). Further analysis on the plasticity between well-watered and drought stressed root samples showed 68.3% of 587 DEG in *SPL13*RNAi roots were upregulated while 52.6% of 2607 DEG were increased in EV (**Figure 2.9B,C**). To shed light on the role of root-specific DEG in alfalfa during drought, I subjected DEG to GO-term analysis and categorized them into biological process, molecular function and cellular components.

### **Figure 2.11 Summary of differentially expressed genes-related metabolite pathways between drought stressed EV and** *SPL13***RNAi leaf tissues**

Transcript fold changes are provided in log 2 with red and blue colours representing increased and decreased transcript levels, respectively, relative to EV. Minor CHO corresponds to minor charbohydrate; TCA, Tricarboxylic acid cycle; OPP, oxidative pentose phosphate pathway.  $N = 3$  biological replicates for each genotype and treatment conditions.



### **Figure 2.12 Leaf-specific DEG attributed to photosynthesis are enhanced in**  *SPL13***RNAi plants**

(**A**) Summary of DEG-related metabolites pathways in light-dependent photosynthetic reaction of the chloroplast thylakoids, (**B**) carbon dioxide fixation in Calvin cycle in chloroplast stroma region, (**C**) photorespiration-associated transcripts involving chloroplast, mitochondria and peroxisome differentially regulated between droughtstressed *SPL13*RNAi and EV plants. Transcript fold changes are provided in log 2 with red and blue colours representing increased and decreased transcript levels, respectively, relative to EV.  $N = 3$  biological replicates for each genotype and treatment conditions.



### **Figure 2.13 Summary of affected metabolites and pathways between stems of drought stressed EV and** *SPL13***RNAi plants**

Distribution of the DEG associated with specialized metabolism. Pathway analysis was performed using MapMan V3.6 [\(https://mapman.gabipd.org/\)](https://mapman.gabipd.org/). Transcript fold changes are provided in log 2 with red and blue colours representing increased and decreased transcript levels, respectively, relative to EV. Minor CHO corresponds to minor charbohydrate; TCA, Tricarboxylic acid cycle; OPP, oxidative pentose phosphate pathway.  $N = 3$  biological replicates for each genotype and treatment conditions.



## **Figure 2.14 Enhanced specialized metabolite pathway in stems of drought stressed**  *SPL13***RNAi plants**

Pathway analysis was performed using MapMan V3.6 [\(https://mapman.gabipd.org/\)](https://mapman.gabipd.org/). Transcript fold changes are provided in log 2 with red and blue colours representing increased and decreased transcript levels, respectively, relative to EV.  $N = 3$  biological replicates for each genotype and treatment conditions. MVA pathway corresponds to mevalonate pathway.



A similar proportion of components to that of stem and leaf tissues were found where the majority (82%) of transcripts belong to molecular function followed by biological process (13 %) and cellular components (5 %), but the transcript profile varied (**Figure 2.9F**). The top contributing DEG from biological process encompass ATP catabolic process, response to stress, defense response, intercellular signal transduction, phosphorelay signal transduction system, metabolic process, metal ion transport and transmembrane transport (**Figure S8**, **Table S10**). On the other hand, the major proportion containing molecular function-associated DEG were attributed to phosphorelay response regulator activity, sequence-specific DNA binding transcription factor activity, catalytic activity, GTPase activity, secondary active sulfate transmembrane transporter activity (**Figure S9, Table S10**). Moreover, to further understand the DEG association, I subjected DEG to MapMan-based pathway analysis. Accordingly, metal ion transport, carbohydrate and primary metabolism were significantly and differentially affected between *SPL13*RNAi and EV plants in response to drought (**Figure 2.15; Table S10**). Moreover, cell wall and lipid biosynthesis were increased in roots of *SPL13*RNAi plants as compared to EV plants.

#### **2.2.10 WD40-1 positively regulates** *DFR* **expression and drought tolerance**

The observed higher *WD40-1* expression and flavonoid accumulation in *miR156*OE genotypes during drought stress (**Figure 2.6C**) and findings from the literature regarding the involvement of WD40-1 in the phenylpropanoid pathway (Gao et al., 2018c), prompted the investigation of whether miR156 or SPL13 directly regulate the expression of *WD40-1*. Hence, I searched for the conserved SPL binding domain (SBD) in the promoter region of *WD40-1*. Genome walking was used to obtain 1.5 kb of the *WD40-1* promoter sequence (**Figure S3**). However, neither a miR156 target sequence nor a SBD motif could be found in the *WD40-1* promoter, which suggested indirect regulation of *WD40-1* by miR156.

To further understand the potential role of WD40-1 in alfalfa drought tolerance, alfalfa plants with overexpressed or silenced (RNAi) *WD40-1* were generated and exposed to drought stress. Four different event-derived plants of *WD40-1*OE (OE04, OE09, OE14 and OE15) and *WD40-1*RNAi (RNAi03, RNAi04, RNAi10 and RNAi11) in comparison to WT plants were used (**Figure 2.16A,B**). *WD40-1*OE genotypes were drought tolerant while the RNAi silenced *WD40-1* genotypes were susceptible to drought stress when compared to WT (**Figure 2.16A**). *WD40-1*OE genotypes maintained a relatively higher leaf water potential during drought stress (**Figure 2.16C**).

*WD40-1*OE genotypes developed longer roots resulting in higher root biomass (**Figure 2.16D,E**) and maintained higher leaf chlorophyll concentration during drought stress (**Figure 2.16F**). To understand whether WD40-1 improves drought tolerance involving *DFR* and other genes in the phenylpropanoid pathway (Pang et al., 2009), transcript abundances of phenylpropanoid-assosciated genes were determined under drought and well-watered conditions in *WD40-1*OE and *WD40-1RNAi* genotypes. *WD40-1*OE had enhanced expression of *DFR*, *PAL* and *FGT2* during drought stress while levels similar to that of WT were observed when plants were kept under well-watered condition (**Figure 2.17A,B,C**). Moreover, the ABA-related dehydration responsive gene, *DRR*, and photosynthesis related genes, *PSI* and *PSII*, were increased in some *WD40-1*OE genotypes compared to *WD40-1*RNAi and WT plants (**Figure 2.17D,E,F**).

# **Figure 2.15 Distribution of root-specific differentially expressed genes between EV and** *SPL13***RNAi plants**

Transcript fold changes are provided in log 2 with red and blue colours representing an increased and decreased transcript levels, respectively, relative to EV. Minor CHO corresponds to minor charbohydrate; TCA, Tricarboxylic acid cycle; OPP, oxidative pentose phosphate pathway.  $N = 3$  biological replicates for each genotype and treatment conditions.


#### **Figure 2.16 WD40-1 enhances drought tolerance in alfalfa**

**(A)** Phenotypes of WT, *WD40-1R*NAi and *WD40-1*OE genotypes under drought stress; **(B)**  transcript levels of *WD40-1* in WT, *WD40-1*RNAi, and *WD40-1*OE genotypes; **(C)** leaf water potential; **(D)** root fresh weight; **(E)** root length; and **(F)** chlorophyll concentration. Values are means  $\pm$  SE; n=4 individual plants for '**B**' to '**E**' and n=20 in '**F**'. In '**B**' Transcript levels are shown relative to WT after being normalized to acetyl-CoA carboxylase, *ACC1*, and *ACTIN* housekeeping genes. ANOVA was followed by *Post hoc* Tukey multiple comparisons test when a statistically significant value at  $p<0.05$  was observed. Values assigned with same letters are not statistically significant from each other. Pair-wise comparison was done between WT and *WD40-1 -*OE or with -RNAi genotypes and indicated with '\*' when significant at  $p<0.05$  and '\*\*' at  $p<0.01$ , respectively.



## **Figure 2.17 WD40-1 regulates transcript levels of genes in the phenylpropanoid pathway and photosystem during drought stress**

**(A)** Transcript levels of *PHENYLALANINE AMMONIA-LYASE***,** *PAL*; **(B)** *DIHYDROFLAVONOL-4-REDUCTASE*, *DFR*; **(C)** *FLAVONOID GLUCOSYLTRANSFERASE2*, *FGT2*; **(D)** *DEHYDRATION RESPONSIVE RD-22-LIKE*, *DRR*; **(E)** *PHOTOSYSTEM I p700 CHLOROPHYLL A APOPROTEIN APS I, PSI*; **(F)** *PHOTOSYSTEM II Q(b), PSII*. Transcript levels are shown relative to EV after being normalized to acetyl-CoA carboxylase, *ACC1*, and *ACTIN* housekeeping genes. Values are means + SE, n= 4 individual plants. ANOVA was followed by *Post hoc* Tukey multiple comparisons test when a statistically significant value at  $p<0.05$  was observed. Values assigned with same letters are not statistically significant from each other.



#### **2.3 Discussion**

Drought is one of the main factors that impairs plant growth and development (Mpelasoka et al., 2008). Plants respond to drought by showing deleterious effects, or by engaging in adaptive responses involving various molecular, biochemical and physiological strategies (Obidiegwu et al., 2015; Kayum et al., 2016; Pandey and Shukla, 2016). In this study, I used *miR156*OE, *WD40-1*OE, *WD40-1*RNAi, *SPL13*RNAi and GFP-tagged SPL13 genotypes to investigate the molecular and physiological strategies by miR156 to regulate drought stress in alfalfa.

# **2.3.1 Moderate levels of** *miR156* **overexpression,** *WD40-1* **overexpression or** *SPL13* **silencing are sufficient to induce phenotypic and physiological drought tolerance strategies in alfalfa**

Of the different plant organs that respond to soil water deficit, roots are first to encounter changes in the rhizosphere. Findings in model plants showed initiation and elongation of lateral roots in drought tolerant genotypes to improve water uptake (Xiong et al., 2006; Chen et al., 2012). In this study, an increase in root length accompanied by higher root biomass was observed in alfalfa plants moderately overexpressing *miR156* (lowmiR156A8a and A8) and *WD40-1*. This is associated with a reportedly enhanced level of ABA (Arshad et al., 2017a) in *miR156* overexpressing genotypes under drought stress. ABA enhances primary and lateral root development by regulating the expression of *LATERAL ROOT ORGAN DEFECTIVE* (*LATD*) gene (Liang et al., 2007). Moreover, miR156 contributes to root development by silencing SPL10 to decrease the expression of *AGAMOUS-LIKE MADS box protein 79* (*AGL79*) in Arabidopsis (Gao et al., 2018b; Yu et al., 2015). Accordingly, the enhanced root development under drought stress helps alfalfa

plants to better access water from deeper soil surface. This finding is consistent with a previous report that showed increased root length in *miR156*OE and *SPL13*RNAi genotypes under drought conditions (Arshad et al., 2017a). Moreover, moderate *miR156*OE, *SPL13*RNAi and *WD40-1*OE genotypes had higher relative water content despite their exposure to drought condition. The observed drought tolerance in *miR156*OE (low-miR156A8a and A8), *WD40-1*OE and *SPL13*RNAi genotypes suggests this trait is at least partially negatively regulated by SPL13 and positively by miR156 and WD40-1.

Photosynthesis is negatively impacted by drought stress in alfalfa and other plant species (Aranjuelo et al., 2011; Pinheiro and Chaves, 2011). Of the many photosynthesis efficiency parameters, Fv/Fm reflects the maximum efficiency of PSII photochemistry possible in a dark-adapted state, and is considered a good indicator of stress in plants (Flagella et al., 1995; Murchie and Lawson, 2013; Gautam et al., 2014; Sharma et al., 2015; Su et al., 2015). Therefore, maintenance of a higher Fv/Fm was observed in abiotic stress tolerant cultivars of tomato and wheat (Mishra et al., 2012; Sharma et al., 2015; Merchuk-Ovnat et al., 2016) and rice (Nounjan et al., 2018). The observed higher level of Fv/Fm in low-miR156A8a and moderate-miR156A8 genotypes in the current study suggests their leaves may have a functional photosynthetic unit, in agreement with the observed maintained photosynthesis assimilation rate under drought. The observed higher  $V_{\text{cmax}}$ (rubisco carboxylase activity) and *J*max (photosynthesis-related electron transport rate) in low-miR156A8a and moderate-miR156A8 under drought further illustrate the maintenance of their photosystems despite drought stress. Such physiology were low to absent in higher-miR156A11 plants which showed susceptibility to drought stress. A higher Fv/Fm ratio in *SPL13*RNAi-05 and *SPL13*RNAi-06 was observed, which is consistent with previously reported findings of increased photosynthesis assimilation rate in drought-treated *SPL13*RNAi genotypes (Arshad et al., 2017a). This suggests that the maintenance of a higher photosynthesis assimilation rate,  $V_{\text{cmax}}$ ,  $J_{\text{max}}$  and high Fv/Fm ratio during drought stress in *miR156*OE and *WD40-1*OE genotypes may be regulated at least in part by a reduced transcript level of SPL13 and increased transcript level of WD40-1.

## **2.3.2** *miR156* **overexpression enhances accumulation of stress-related metabolites**

The impact of environmental perturbations on plant metabolism varies among plant species, cultivars, and tissues (Cramer et al., 2011). Accumulation of specific specialized and transient primary metabolites (primary metabolites that are direct precursors of specialized metabolites) in various tissues is used in part to mitigate drought (Ayenew et al., 2015; Batushansky et al., 2015; Hochberg et al., 2015; Degu et al., 2016) and biotic stress (Zhang et al., 2013). Naya et al. (2007) indicated the role of carbon metabolism and oxidative damage on nitrogenase activity reduction during moderate and higher drought stress levels in alfalfa. Other studies in *M. truncatula*, have shown a decrease in symbiotic nitrogen fixation under drought stress resulting in low levels of nitrogen-based metabolites (Larrainzar et al., 2009).

In the current study, alfalfa with a moderately enhanced expression of *miR156* showed anthocyanin, flavonols, and proteinogenic amino acids in leaf and stem tissues. The accumulation of these metabolites may help the plant to scavenge ROS produced during drought stress (Zhang et al., 2015; Xu et al., 2017). Moreover, these metabolites could help the plants to reduce water loss, and further absorb any remaining tightly bound water from the soil by lowering the osmotic balance in the root tissues. The high level of

GABA in leaf, stem and root tissues of low-miR156A8a and moderate-miR156A8 should help maintain a carbon-to-nitrogen balance through a GABA shunt bypassing the decarboxylation part of the TCA cycle (Fait et al., 2008). The importance of GABA in mediating abiotic stress has been well documented in various plant species, including Arabidopsis (Renault et al., 2010), black pepper (Vijayakumari and Puthur, 2016) and bentgrass (Li et al., 2016). Proline was also increased in low-miR156A8a and moderatemiR156A8 but not in higher-miR156A11 roots to regulate osmotic homeostasis as reported in other studies (Nakabayashi et al., 2014; Arshad et al., 2017a). The relatively lower concentration of proline abundance in roots of the highest *miR156* overexpressor, highermiR156A11, might have prevented these plants from maintaining high water levels in their system. The higher level of fructose and arabinose in leaf and stem tissues, respectively, of drought-treated moderate *miR156* overexpressors could provide an energy source and/or an osmolyte. The higher sugar concentration suggests an actively functioning photosynthetic assimilation with the potential to supplement a carbon source for downstream metabolites. This is consistent with a previous finding that drought-stressed alfalfa plants accumulate sugars (Aranjuelo et al., 2013). Moreover, the increased total monomeric anthocyanin and comparable total polyphenol levels in *SPL13*RNAi genotypes illustrated a targeted enhancement of flavonoids, at least partially governed by silencing SPL13, in alfalfa to scavenge ROS during drought stress.

## **2.3.3 miR156, WD40-1 and SPL13 regulate phenylpropanoid and photosystem genes under drought**

Due to the various roles that polyphenols play in stress response, efforts have been made to increase their levels in many plants, including alfalfa (Ray et al., 2003). Enhanced

accumulation of flavonoids and PA in alfalfa has important quality implications for animal feed, as moderate amounts of PA tend to reduce bloating in ruminant animals (Aerts et al., 1999; McMahon et al., 2000; Dixon and Sumner, 2003). In the current study, phenylpropanoid pathway-related genes transcript level were enhanced in moderately overexpressing *miR156* alfalfa plants, which is consistent with the increase in anthocyanin and flavonol levels in these plants. *DFR, WD40-1* and *MYB112* were higher in lowmiR156A8a and moderate-miR156A8 during drought, contributing to anthocyanin accumulation, like in Arabidopsis (Lotkowska et al., 2010). Similarly, *SPL13*RNAi genotypes had enhanced *DFR, FGT2* and *PAL* transcripts abundance associated with enhanced concentrations of total monomeric anthocyanin, indicating enhancement of the phenylpropanoid/flavonoid pathway. In another study, Arabidopsis plants overexpressing *miR156* accumulated anthocyanin in response to salt and mannitol (mimicking drought) treatments by increasing *DFR* expression (Cui et al., 2014). The enhanced *DFR* expression level in Arabidopsis was regulated by silencing *SPL9* (Cui et al., 2014). The current findings suggest that accumulation of anthocyanin and other polyphenols may be regulated via SPL13 in alfalfa. Moreover, the enhanced level of *DFR* in *WD40-1*OE plants and reduced in *WD40-1*RNAi plants suggests that *DFR* is positively regulated by WD40-1 to promote flavonoid biosynthesis, but the mechanism of this regulation remains to be investigated.

To investigate whether the higher photosynthesis assimilation rate during drought stress in *SPL13*RNAi (Arshad et al., 2017a) and *WD40-1*OE, *WD40-1*RNAi and *miR156*OE genotypes (current study) are regulated at the transcription level, the expression of genes mediating photosynthesis was investigated. *PSI* and *PSII* transcript abundance

increased in moderately overexpressing *miR156*OE genotypes and *SPL13*RNAi genotypes upon drought. Previously, it was reported that an increased abundance of ABA, which regulates stomatal aperture by active hydrolysis during drought stress, in *miR156*OE moderate-miR156A8 plants (Arshad et al., 2017a). In the current study, I examined expression of the ABA-induced dehydration responsive gene (*RD22*) and found it to be increased in *SPL13*RNAi plants during drought stress. The consistent observation of higher polyphenols and photosynthetic assimilation rate with associated transcripts during drought stress in moderate *miR15*6OE and *SPL13*RNAi genotypes suggests a drought resilience functions for miR156.

#### **2.3.4 SPL13 negatively regulates** *DFR* **expression and flavonoid biosynthesis**

To investigate whether the increased flavonoid accumulation and expression of phenylpropanoid-associated genes, especially *DFR*, are directly regulated by the miR156/SPL13 module, a ChIP-qPCR analysis was conducted to determine binding of SPL13 to *DFR*. DFR catalyses flavonoid biosynthesis by reducing dihydroflavonols to leucoanthocyanidins playing a critical role in anthocyanin biosynthesis (Li et al., 2012). A previous report showed SPL9 directly negatively regulates the expression level of *DFR* to enhance accumulation of anthocyanin in response to NaCl and mannitol treatment in Arabidopsis (Cui et al., 2014). In the current study, *DFR* expression increased during drought stress in moderately overexpressing *miR156* and *SPL13*RNAi plants. Accordingly, I selected *DFR* to test for SPL13 binding, given the presence of multiple potential SBD core GTAC sequences in the *DFR* promoter. The fold enrichment from ChIP-qPCR showed the strongest SPL13 binding was observed closest to coding sequence of *DFR* at region III of the promoter. This is in line with reports that showed conserved core SBD

element is not by itself sufficient for SPL binding, but rather binding is also determined by the position of SBD and the flanking DNA sequences (Yamaguchi et al., 2009; Yu et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2016). SPL13 acts as a transcriptional suppressor of *DFR* during drought stress as confirmed by higher expression of *DFR* in *SPL13*RNAi and the *miR156*OE plants which reduces the expression of the repressor SPL13.

#### **2.3.5 Genotype-specific gene expression patterns in response to drought stress**

Alfalfa plants with reduced expression of *SPL13*, a target of miR156, affected a plethora of genes leading to improved drought stress tolerance. To understand how SPL13 modulated genes contribute to drought stress tolerance, I compared the transcript profiles of drought stressed *SPL13*RNAi and EV leaf, stem, and root tissues. Differentially expressed genes were distributed in leaf, stem and root tissues. A total of 228 transcripts (74 increased and 154 decreased) were differentially expressed and present across all tissues. One of the commonly increased transcripts, fasciclin-like arabinogalactan protein (FLAP), which is primarily reported to have cell adhesion function in Arabidopsis and also involved in abiotic stress tolerance (Johnson et al., 2003; Zang et al., 2015) was increased in *SPL13*RNAi plants. In addition to *FLAP* genes, proline dehydrogenase (*PDH*) was commonly increased in all tissues of *SPL13*RNAi plants. The role of proline metabolism is well established in drought tolerance by either scavenging ROS, balancing the carbon to nitrogen ratio through the GABA shunt (Ghafoor et al., 2019), or serving as an osmolytes (Hare and Cress, 1997). Proline and its catabolic products are more important to drought tolerance than high accumulation of proline itself (Bhaskara et al., 2015). In line with this, I noticed an increase in the transcript level of *PDH*, which is involved in proline catabolism (Bhaskara et al., 2015). The other commonly increased transcripts with higher fold-changes

were those of Pmr5/Cas1p GDSL/SGNH-like acyl-esterase family proteins, whose functions are still not well characterized, and ABA receptors with known roles in abiotic stress tolerance (Li et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2019). Accordingly, the increased transcript abundance of *FLAP, PDH, GDSL*, and ABA receptor along with other transcripts across the three tissue types in *SPL13*RNAi alfalfa relative to EV suggests that these protein coding genes may play a major role in the response of *SPL13*RNAi plants to drought stress.

# **2.3.6 Photosynthesis-related DEG are upregulated in leaves of** *SPL13***RNAi plants during drought**

Physiological investigation of *SPL13*RNAi plants under drought stress showed maintenance of vital physiological processes, such as photosynthesis. This was accompanied by an upregulation of photosynthesis-related genes (*PSI* and *PSII*) in *SPL13*RNAi plants. Comparison of transcript profiles of leaves of both genotypes under control and drought conditions revealed that various metabolic pathways were affected with photosynthesis being predominantly enhanced in *SPL13*RNAi plants. The observed upregulation of photosynthesis-associated DEG were mainly in the light-dependent reaction, consistent with the physiological data that showed *SPL13*RNAi plants maintained the photosynthesis process during drought stress, while photosynthesis was reduced in EV. Other studies have shown that the light-dependent reaction centers were significantly affected by drought in maize (Zhang et al., 2018; Zenda; et al., 2019). The maintained or slightly increased photorespiration-associated transcripts in *SPL13*RNAi plants may serve as energy sink to prevent over-reduction of photosynthetic electron chain and photoinhibition in *SPL13*RNAi plants. Moreover, an increased level of photo-inhibition, unreduced NADPH with lower photosynthetic assimilation rate, was reported previously

in drought stressed plants (Wingler et al., 1999). The observed higher photosynthetic assimilation rate in *SPL13*RNAi plants potentially lowers the reductive power of NADPH that affects photosynthesis otherwise.

## **2.3.7 Specialized metabolite-related DEG are upregulated in stems of**  *SPL13***RNAi plants during drought**

Specialized metabolites are important in plant growth and development, and the association of high levels of specialized metabolites with reduced ROS levels were reported in *in vivo* (Agati et al., 2012) and *in vitro* assays (Ramya et al., 2015). Accordingly, increasing the abundances of specialized and associated primary metabolites, such as ascorbates and proline, are considered as a marker for enhanced biotic and abiotic stress tolerance. In the current study, I observed enhanced stress tolerance associated with primary and specialized metabolites in *miR156* overexpressing genotypes. I also observed an increase in anthocyanin accumulation in *SPL13*RNAi plants. This suggests anthocyanin and possibly other ROS scavenging metabolites are regulated by SPL13 in a miR156-dependent manner involving *DFR*. To further investigate the involvement of SPL13 in regulating levels of secondary metabolites, especially phenylpropanoids, the global transcript levels of *SPL13*RNAi plants from leaf, stem and root tissues was investigated relative to EV. Importantly, stem-derived samples had an enhanced abundance of transcripts mainly associated with the phenylpropanoid pathway, unlike leaf and root tissues that had an increase in photosynthesis- and ion transport-associated transcripts, respectively. The enhanced abundance of transcripts associated with the phenylpropanoid pathway is consistent with the observed pigmentation in *miR156* overexpressing stem tissues. An earlier study showed the accumulation of anthocyanin to be positively correlated with level

of *DFR* expression in potato in a non-tissue specific manner (Wang et al., 2013). The ChIPqPCR analysis revealed that while SPL13 indeed binds to *DFR* promoter presumably to regulate its expression, enhanced anthocyanin accumulation was observed only in the stem, like in *Cornus stolonifera* (Gould et al., 2010). RNAseq analysis also indicated upregulation of transcripts involved in the biosynthesis of anthocyanin and other polyphenols from the phenylpropanoid pathway mainly in stem tissues during drought stress. Whether SPL13 also regulates the phenylpropanoid pathway in tissues other than the stems remains to be further investigated.

#### **2.3.8 The upregulated root-specific DEG are mainly attributed to ion transport**

#### **in** *SPL13***RNAi plants during drought stress**

Roots are the first plant tissues to encounter low moisture availability in soil, but maintenance of plant water potential is not completely dependent on roots but rather on a continuum that involves soil, root, leaf, and the atmosphere through the transpiration stream (Elfving et al., 1972; Meinzer et al., 2001). To maintain water potential, drought-tolerant plants use different strategies to affect the osmotic balance and/or hydrostatic force governed through the transpiration stream. To adjust and maintain the osmotic balance, the use of osmolytes, such as sugars and proline, was observed in different plants (Hayat et al., 2012; Slama et al., 2015). In the current study, drought-tolerant genotypes of *miR156*OE had higher concentrations of the osmolytes proline and sugars. Furthermore, to understand the involvement of SPL13 in maintaining water potential under drought, transcripts from *SPL13*RNAi and EV root tissues were profiled under control and drought conditions. The differentially expressed genes had increased levels of transcripts associated with the GABA shunt and membrane integrity, such as GDSL, in *SPL13*RNAi plants. Primary metabolites, such as ascorbate and glutathione, and phenylpropanoid-specialized metabolites known to scavenge ROS were increased. To verify the transcript-based metabolite pathway analysis and identify non-enzymatic metabolite conversions (Keller et al., 2015), primary and specialized metabolite analysis using *SPL13*RNAi plants is important. The eventual release of the alfalfa genome sequence should allow for pathway analysis to potentially identify novel metabolite pathways unmapped to the *M. truncatula* genome in the current study, but which may contribute to the drought stress response in alfalfa.

### **2.4 Conclusions**

Following to the report of Arshad et al. (2017a), which stated that miR156 regulates drought tolerance in alfalfa by silencing *SPL13,* I investigated the mechanisms deployed by miR156 and SPL13 in this response with the aim of developing tools for molecular marker-assisted breeding of alfalfa. Metabolomic, physiological and molecular mechanisms were investigated to show how low- to moderate levels of *miR156* overexpression are sufficient to induce drought-tolerance in alfalfa. Moderate level *miR156*OE genotypes low-miR156A8a and moderate-miR156A8 induced accumulation of stress mitigating metabolites. These metabolites could help the plants to scavenge ROS, reduce water loss and further absorb any remaining tightly bound water from the soil by lowering the osmotic pressure in the root tissues. In addition, the plants had physiological adjustments such as improved photosynthesis assimilation rate, maintenance of high Fv/Fm ratios, and enhanced root growth and development. The relatively low levels of stress-mitigating metabolites and reduced physiological adjustments may have resulted in drought susceptibility in the highest *miR156* overexpressor (higher-miR156A11). I also

demonstrated direct binding of *SPL13* to the *DFR* promoter*.* SPL13 acts as a transcriptional suppressor of *DFR* during drought stress as confirmed by higher expression of *DFR* in *SPL13*RNAi and *miR156*OE plants. A similar observation of SPLs suppressing the expression of *DFR* has been reported in Arabidopsis (Gou et al., 2011) in which *SPL9* silences *DFR* in response to salt and mannitol treatment (Cui et al., 2014). Moreover, I detected an increase in expression of genes involved in the phenylpropanoid and photosynthesis pathways in *miR156*OE plants under drought stress. Similar group of genes were also increased in *SPL13*RNAi plants under drought stress. Moreover, the global transcriptomic profile of *SPL13*RNAi plants showed tissue-specific regulation of transcripts and associated pathways. In leaf tissues, the transcript levels of mainly photosynthesis- and photo-respiration-associated genes were increased while increasing phenylpropanoid pathway-associated transcripts in stem tissues of *SPL13*RNAi plants under drought stress. Furthermore, the root-based transcriptomic analysis in *SPL13*RNAi plants illustrated increased transcript abundances in ion transporters, primary and specialized metabolites to transport osmolytes and scavenge ROS while maintaining membrane integrity through GDSL.

I propose a model for a drought tolerance mechanism regulated by moderate levels of *miR156* overexpression (**Figure 2.18**). The schematic representation shows the central role of miR156 in regulating drought stress in alfalfa. *MiR156* is induced by drought stress, which in turn silences *SPL13* (Arshad et al., 2017a). Reduced expression of *SPL13* driven by *miR156* and enhanced level of *WD40-1* enhances *DFR* resulting in accumulation of anthocyanin in stem tissues. In moderate *miR156*OE plants, primary metabolites such as GABA, proline and sugars also accumulate for carbon-to-nitrogen balance and osmotic homeostasis. Induction of *miR156* during drought stress also enhances phenotypic plasticity, such as longer roots and higher biomass to access more water from the rhizosphere. With reduced *SPL13* expression, *miR156*OE and *WD40-1*OE*,* higher photosynthetic efficiency is also achieved during drought stress. I conclude that moderate levels of *miR156* expression silence *SPL13* and increase *WD40-1* expression to fine-tune *DFR* and other phenylpropanoid-associated transcripts for anthocyanin biosynthesis and regulate various developmental, physiological and biochemical processes in alfalfa leading to improved drought resilience.

### **Figure 2.18 Schematic representation of miR156-based alfalfa drought resilience model system**

With drought prevalence,  $mR156$  expression level is increased regulating the expression levels of SPLs, specifically SPL13 in alfalfa. The reduced level of SPL13, which is a negative regulator of *DFR* expression, elevates the expression of *DFR* and other phenylpropanoid pathway genes enhancing flavonoid biosynthesis mainly in stem tissues. On the other hand, the reduction of SPL13 transcript level in alfalfa leaves maintained photochemistry of the plants sustaining photosynthetic process under drought stress. Maintenance of photosynthesis activity provides carbon skeleton for the biosynthesis of phenylpropanoid-associated metabolites by converting acetyl-CoA into malonyl-CoA which can be facilitated by vascular sugar movement from leaves to stem. Furthermore, the reduced level of SPL13 in root tissues results in accumulated primary metabolites biosynthesis-associated transcripts to scavenge reactive oxygen species under drought stress. Solid line represents an experimentally confirmed mechanism while broken lines are hypothesized functions. Arrow heads indicate positive regulation while line heads indicate negative regulation. miR156, microRNA156; SPL13, Squamosa promoter binding protein like transcription factor 13; DFR, Dihydroflavonol-4-reductase; FGT2, Flavonoid glucose transferease2; GABA, Gamaminobutyric acid; ABA, abiscisic acid; DRR, dehaydration responsivegene; LATD, lateral development; PSI, *PHOTOSYSTEM I p700 CHLOROPHYL A APOPROTEIN APS I*; PSII, *PHOTOSYSTEM IIQ(b)* (*II*).



#### **2.5 Methods**

#### **2.5.1 Genetic material**

#### *miR156* **overexpressing and** *SPL13***RNAi plants**

*Medicago sativa* L. N4.4.2 (Badhan et al., 2014) were obtained from Dr. Daniel Brown (Agriculture and Agri‐Food Canada) and used as wild-type (WT) genotypes. Plants overexpressing *miR156* (*miR156*OE) at different levels (low-miR156A8a, moderatemiR156A8 and higher-miR156A11) and an empty vector control (EV) were generated previously in the Hannoufa laboratory and used in this experiment (Aung et al., 2015b).  $miR156$  is slightly  $(0.5)$  elevated in low-miR156A8a, but is moderate  $(1.5)$  to higher  $(2.5)$ relative transcript level in moderate-miR156A8 and higher-miR156A11, respectively (Aung et al., 2015b). The plants were grown in a fully automated greenhouse with 16-hour light (380–450 W/m<sup>2</sup>), relative humidity (RH) of 70% and temperature of  $25\pm2\degree C$  at the Agriculture and Agri-Food Canada London Research and Development Center, London, Ontario, Canada. Given that alfalfa is an obligatory outcross, vegetative cuttings were used for propagation according to Aung et al. (2015b) to maintain genotypes throughout the study. Since miR156 down-regulates seven *SPL* genes (including *SPL13*) to regulate a network of downstream genes, I used *SPL13*RNAi genotypes (*SPL13*RNAi-2, *SPL13*RNAi-5 and *SPL13*RNAi-6) (Arshad et al., 2017a) selected for their low *SPL13*  expression levels relative to WT alfalfa and other *SPL13*RNAi transgenic alfalfa plants.

### **Generation of** *WD40-1* **overexpressing and** *WD40-1***RNAi alfalfa plants**

Four *WD40-1*OE (OE04, OE09, OE14 and OE15) and four *WD40-1*RNAi (R03, R04, R10 and R11) genotypes were generated to investigate the role of WD40-1 in drought tolerance. *WD40-1* overexpression and downregulated genotypes were generated using constructs made from alfalfa homolog *WD40-1* (Medtr3g074070) using the Gateway cloning system (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Mississauga ON). For overexpression studies, full-length of *WD40-1* was amplified from alfalfa cDNA using primers with *Att*B sites attached, forward (B1-WD40-1) and reverse (B2-WD40-1) (**Table S1**) and cloned into the pDONR/Zeo entry vector. For downregulation studies, a 253 bp putative *WD40-1* fragment was amplified from alfalfa cDNA using *Att*B sites attached forward (B1-WD40-1-RNAi) and reverse (B2- WD40-1-RNAi) (**Table S1**) primers and cloned into pDONR/Zeo entry vector.

After PCR screening and confirmation by sequencing, LR reactions were performed for the overexpression and RNAi constructs to recombine the fragments into the pMDC83 (overexpression) and pHELLSGATE12 (RNAi) vectors (Gao et al., 2018a). Subsequently, overexpression and RNAi constructs were used to transform *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* strain EHA105 and subsequently into alfalfa (Aung et al., 2015b). qRT-PCR was then used to analyze the *WD40-1* gene in *WD40-1* overexpressing and downregulation in corresponding genotypes using primers WD1-qPCR-F and WD1-qPCR-R (**Table S1**).

#### **2.5.2 Imposing drought stress**

Drought stress was imposed on alfalfa plants by withholding water for two weeks at 30 days post vegetative propagation (juvenile vegetative) stage. Plants were kept in a completely randomized design with equal growing soil moisture levels maintained before starting the experiment using a SM 100 soil moisture sensor (Spectrum Technologies Inc., Jakarta, Indonesia). At least four biological replicates were used per genotype per treatment for transcript and metabolite analysis, while 4 to 10 plants were used for physiological analyses (each replicate being an individual plant). The entire experiment was repeated

under the same growth and drought stress conditions to test the repeatability of results. Leaves (newly developed upper leaves), stems (lower 5 cm internode close to soil) and roots (7.5 cm of main and auxiliary root tips) were harvested from *miR156*OE, *SPL13*RNAi, *WD40-1*OE, *WD40-1*RNAi, EV and WT plants depending on the experiment. Samples were flash frozen with liquid nitrogen and kept at  $-80^{\circ}$ C for later metabolomic and transcriptomic analyses.

#### **2.5.3 Metabolite extraction for parallel LCMS and GCMS analysis**

To explore miR156-related regulation of specialized metabolites and transient primary metabolites, extracts of stem, leaf and root tissues of drought-stressed *miR156*OE and EV plants were subjected to LCMS and GCMS analysis. Extraction of samples was performed according to Ayenew et al. (2015) for parallel LCMS and GCMS analysis. Unless stated otherwise, chemicals used for the analysis were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich, Canada. Briefly, frozen 50 mg tissues were crushed with a RETCH-mill (Retsch GmbH, 42787 Haan, Germany) and stainless-steel beads. One ml prechilled extraction solution, methanol/chloroform/water (2.5/1/1 v/v/v), was added containing an internal standard ribitol/adonitol 0.225 mg/mL for GCMS analysis while ampicillin (Sigma, and Saint Luis, Missouri, USA) and corticosterone were used at 1 mg/mL for LCMS to normalize extraction variability. The mixture was vortexed and ultra-sonicated for 10 min. Following centrifugation at 20,800 G for 10 min (at  $4^{\circ}$ C), supernatant was collected and mixed with equal volumes of 300 µL water and chloroform. The mixtures were vortexed briefly and centrifuged at 20,800 G for 5 min to collect the upper aqueous phase for parallel LCMS and GCMS analyses.

LCMS analysis was performed using an Agilent 1290 Infinity LC system coupled with a Thermo Q-Exactive Quadrupole-Orbitrap mass spectrometer. Analytes were separated with an Agilent Eclipse Plus C18 ZORBAX Rapid Resolution High Definition (RRHD) 1.8 μm particle 2.1 i.d.  $\times$  50 mm column. The instrument was equipped with electrospray ionization (ESI) interface operating in a negative and positive ion mode for better metabolite identification. Metabolites were identified based on mass to charge ratio (*m/z*), retention time, and fragmentation pattern in comparison to commercial standards, ChemSpider and ReSpect phytochemical databases (Ayenew et al., 2015; Hochberg et al., 2015). MZmine2 software (Pluskal et al., 2010) was also used for LCMS metabolite mass detection, chromatogram building, and the separation of overlapping peaks. In parallel, transient primary metabolites were explored using 75 µL aliquots of the extracted samples for LCMS after processing the aliquots. An Agilent 5975C Triple-Axis Detector MSD and 7890A GC system in splitless mode with 30-m VF-5 ms column with 0.25 mm i.d. were used. GCMS temperature and running conditions are as described in Hochberg et al. (2013). First, the aliquots were dried using an Eppendorf Vacufuge<sup>TM</sup> concentrator (Hamburg, Germany), derivatized with 40 µL *O*-methylhydroxylamine hydrochloride in pyridine with 7  $\mu$ L standard alkane mixture (0.029% v/v C10-C20 of each 50 mg/L) for two hrs at  $37^{\circ}$ C followed by 70  $\mu$ L *N*-methyl-*N*-[trimethylsilyl] trifluoroacetamide (MSTFA) for silylation. Metabolites from GCMS were identified using the retention time of the standard alkane mixture with their mass spectra and a NIST 2011 mass spectral library (Ayenew et al., 2015; Batushansky et al., 2015; Degu et al., 2016).

#### **2.5.4 Total monomeric anthocyanin and polyphenol determination**

Total monomeric anthocyanin, TMA, and total polyphenol, TPP, were determined using a pH deferential extraction method (Lee et al., 2005; Cheok et al., 2013). Briefly, flashfrozen in liquid nitrogen samples were crushed with mortar and pestle under liquid nitrogen and 500 mg tissue were used for the combined analysis of TMA and TPP. Samples were treated with two ml acidified methanol (MeOH with 1% HCL), vortexed and sonicated at 20 KHz for 15 min. Homogenate was stirred at 3000 rpm for one hour and centrifuged (at 4<sup>0</sup>C) for 10 minutes at full speed (20,800 G). The supernatant was collected, added two ml chloroform, vortexed and centrifuged at full speed for 10 minutes. The upper aqueous phase was collected, filtered with Whiteman 0.2 µm filters, and divided into three equal aliquots for TMA (pH 1.0 and 4.5) and TPP analysis. The first aliquot was mixed with an equal volume of 0.025 M KCl at pH 1.0 while the second was mixed with equal volumes of 0.4 M sodium acetate at pH 4.5 and measured absorbance at 520 nm and 700 nm with water as a blank. TPP was analysed by mixing an equal volume of the third aliquot with Folin-chiocalteu reagent (diluted 1:10 with water) and vortexed for 3 min. Four ml of sodium carbonate (7.5% w/v) was added to the mixture, which was then vortexed and incubated for 30 min in the dark. TPP was determined as gallic acid equivalent (GAE) after measuring absorbance of the aliquot at 765 nm with acidified methanol as blank. TMA level was expressed as mg cyanidin-3-o-glucoside (CG) equivalent.

#### **2.5.5 Physiological and phenotypic data measurement**

To determine drought-mitigating strategies, phenotypic and physiological parameters were investigated. Midday photosynthesis assimilation rates and dark-adapted chlorophyll fluorescence (Fv/Fm) were measured in newly growing upper unshaded leaves using a LI-

6400XT portable photosynthesis meter coupled with Fluorescence System (LI-COR Biosciences, Lincoln, Nebraska, USA). Photosynthesis assimilation rate responses across a gradient of  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  level (A/Ci) (0 - 2000 ppm) in the mesophyll cells to determine the maximum rate of rubisco carboxylase activity  $(V_{\text{cmax}})$  and maximum photosynthetic electron transport rate  $(J_{\text{max}})$  were calculated to determine photosynthesis efficiency using the R statistical software plantecophys package (Duursma, 2015). Chlorophyll concentration indexes (CCI) of newly growing upper leaves were also determined using an Apogee MC100 instrument (Apogee instruments, Logan, Utah, USA) (Sawada et al., 2012). To determine plant water status, the midday leaf water potential was measured using a SAPS II Portable Plant Water Status Console (Soilmoisture Equipment Corp., Santa Barbara, CA, USA) in dark-adapted leaves by covering leaves with a polyethylene bag and aluminium foil for 20 min. In addition, above and below ground phenotypic parameters were measured, such as stem number and shoot weight, root length and weight according to Aung et al. (2015b), and stem basal diameter at 1 cm above stem-soil interface.

#### **2.5.6 RNA extraction**

Lower basal stem internode, young top leaves and root tip samples were collected and flash frozen in liquid nitrogen and kept in a  $-80^{\circ}$ C freezer until used for qRT-PCR analysis and RNA sequencing. Approximately 50 mg fresh weight was used for total RNA extraction using a QIAGEN RNeasy® Plant mini kit for leaf, stem and root tissues (Cat # 74904), and a PowerLyzer®24 bench top bead-based homogenizer (Cat # 13155) following manufacturer protocols. Total RNA quality was checked using BioRad Bioanalyzer for integrity and Nanodrop for concentration before RNAseq analysis.

#### **2.5.7 qRT-PCR analysis**

The extracted RNA was treated with Ambion®TURBO DNA-*freeTM* DNase (Cat # AM1907) followed by iScript<sup>TM</sup> cDNA synthesis (Cat # 1708891). Transcript levels of selected genes involved in specialized metabolite biosynthesis and photosynthesis were investigated in this study. Using publicly available transcriptomics data of two *miR156*OE alfalfa genotypes under control (unstressed) conditions (Gao et al., 2016) and *M. truncatula* genome sequence Mt4.0V2 [\(http://www.medicagogenome.org/downloads\)](http://www.medicagogenome.org/downloads), transcripts of differentially expressed genes with the SBD core GTAC sequence within 2.5 kb of their promoter regions were identified. Among those, genes shown by Gene Ontology analysis to be involved in flavonoid biosynthesis, photosynthetic efficiency and stress tolerance were chosen for expression analysis by qRT-PCR. Primers specific to the above genes (**Table S1**) were designed using *M. truncatula* genome sequence and amplified product was sequenced for an identity check (**Figure S1**). Publicly available Primer3 software [\(http://primer3.ut.ee/\)](http://primer3.ut.ee/) was used to design primers, and their efficiency was verified at different concentrations with gradient annealing temperature PCR before using for qRT-PCR analysis.

 $qRT-PCR$  was performed using the CFX96<sup>TM</sup> Real-Time PCR detection system and SsoFast™ EvaGreen® Supermixes (Bio-Rad Cat # 1725204). Specifically, 2 µL cDNA (equivalent to 200 ng cDNA), 1  $\mu$ L forward and reverse gene-specific primers (10  $\mu$ M each), 5  $\mu$  L SsoFast<sup>TM</sup> EvaGreen<sup>®</sup> Supermixes, and 2  $\mu$ L of nuclease-free water was used to make the final reaction volume of  $10 \mu L$ . PCR amplification was performed at: cDNA denaturation at 95<sup>0</sup>C for 30 sec followed by 40 cycles of 95<sup>0</sup>C for 10 sec, 58<sup>0</sup>C for 30 sec and  $72^{\circ}$ C for 30 sec (denaturation, annealing and extension, respectively) followed by a

melting curve that ran from  $65^{\circ}$ C to  $95^{\circ}$ C with a gradual increment of 0.5 per 5 sec. All reactions were performed with three technical and four biological replicates. Transcript levels were analysed relative to *acetyl-CoA carboxylase* (*ACC1*) and *ACTIN* housekeeping genes designed based on alfalfa sequences (Aung et al., 2015b; Arshad et al., 2017a).

#### **2.5.8 RNAseq and pathway analysis**

 $NEBNext^{\circledast} Ultra^{TM} kit$  (New England Biolabs Inc., Canada) was used for stranded mRNA library preparation followed by Illumina HiSeq 2500 sequencing with 126 pair end nucleotide bases were performed at the Center for Applied Genomics, The Hospital for Sick Children, Toronto, ON, Canada pay for service. RNAseq data was analyzed according to Trapnell et al., (2012) on biocluster with Linux interface. To identify the expression pattern of genes and module identification, R-software environment-based network analysis with weighted gene co-expression network, WGCNA, in 'BiocManager' package was performed according to Langfelder and Horvath (2008). Moreover, differential gene expression-based pathway analysis was done using MapMan free software V3.6 [\(https://mapman.gabipd.org/\)](https://mapman.gabipd.org/) with a *M. truncatula* reference sequence, Mt4.0 V2 [\(http://www.medicagogenome.org/downloads\)](http://www.medicagogenome.org/downloads).

### **2.5.9 ChIP-qPCR analysis of SPL13-DNA binding**

Shoot tips of alfalfa plants overexpressing *SPL13* tagged with GFP driven by the CaMV35S promoter (p35S:SPL13-GFP) (Gao et al., 2018a) were used to understand the occupancy of SPL13 on promoters of downstream genes contributing to drought tolerance. One-month-old SPL13-GFP overexpressing genotypes and WT control plants were used for ChIP-qPCR analysis based on a previously published protocol (Gendrel et al., 2005) with some modifications. Briefly, 500 mg of shoot tips from WT and p35S:SPL13-GFP

plants were collected, washed, proteins bound to DNA were cross-linked using 1% formaldehyde and mixtures were ground with liquid nitrogen. Extraction reagents and buffers are listed in **Table S2**. Powdered tissues were homogenized with 15 mL of prechilled Extraction Buffer 1 and filtered with two layers of Miracloth (Millipore, Canada). Subsequently, the filtered mixture was centrifuged at 3000 G for 20 min and the supernatant was discarded while the pellets were resuspended in 1 ml of prechilled Extraction Buffer 2 and centrifuged at 12000 G for 10 min. Afterwards, pellets were resuspended in 300 µL prechilled Extraction Buffer 3 and centrifuged at 16000 G for 1 hr. The supernatant was removed, and chromatin pellets were resuspended in 300 µL of Nuclei Lysis Buffer by gentle pipetting and sheared twice at power 3 for 15 sec on ice using a Sonic Dismembrator (Fisher Scientific, USA). Supernatant aliquots of 20  $\mu$ L were kept aside for later use as an input DNA control while using the remaining solution for immunoprecipitation. Chromatin solution was brought to 1.5 mL using a ChIP dilution buffer and divided into two equal parts for chromatin immunoprecipitation and a negative control. To each tube, 30 µL of protein A-agarose beads (Millipore, Canada) were added and the mixture was gently agitated, centrifuged (3500 G) for 1 min, and supernatant was transferred for immunoprecipitation while discarding the beads. Five  $\mu$ L (5 mg/ml) of Ab290 GFP antibody was added to one of the chromatin solutions (keeping the second one as a no-antibody negative control) for an overnight gentle agitation at  $4^{\circ}$ C. After 12 hr, 40 µL of protein A-agarose beads were added and immune complexes were recovered by centrifugation and washed with cycle of low normality salt, high salt, LiCl, and TE buffer. Immunocomplexes were eluted from beads using 250 µL of Elution Buffer and cross linking was reversed with 20  $\mu$ L of 5 M NaCl incubated at 65 <sup>0</sup>C for 5 hours. To each

sample, 10  $\mu$ L 0.5 M EDTA, 20  $\mu$ L 1 M Tris-HCl (pH 6.5) and 2  $\mu$ L of 10 mg/mL proteinase K (Sigma-Aldrich, Canada) were added. DNA was extracted using phenol: chloroform (1:1, v:v), recovered by precipitation with ethanol and 0.3 M sodium acetate  $(pH=5.2)$  and 2 µL glycogen carrier 10 mg/mL (Sigma-Aldrich, Canada) after overnight incubation at -20  $\rm{^0C}$ . After 12 hrs, the solution was centrifuged at 20800 G for 20 min to pellet the DNA and pellet was then washed with 70% ethanol, resuspended with  $16 \mu L$  of distilled water, and DNA was used for ChIP-qPCR analysis. To obtain the *DFR* promoter region sequence from *M. sativa*, proDFR1-MTR primers (**Table S1**) were designed using a close relative *M. truncatula* sequence and amplified region was cloned into TOP10 competent *E. coli* cells using CloneJET (Thermo Scientific) and sequenced. Subsequently, proDFR ChIP-qPCR primers (**Table S1)** were designed based on alfalfa sequences. qRT-PCR was performed using ChIP-precipitated DNA as described in section 2.5.7 while fold enrichment was calculated by dividing Ct values of p35S:SPL13-GFP to WT and comparing with the *LOB1* reference gene (Gao et al., 2018a).

#### **2.5.10 Genome walking for WD40-1 promoter nucleotide sequence**

Due to the lack of alfalfa genome sequence, Clonetech GenomeWalker<sup>TM</sup> (California, USA Cat No. 638904) was used to obtain nucleotide sequence of the *WD40-1* promoter region. In brief, genomic DNA were extracted from wild-type alfalfa plants using a Nucleospin®Tissue DNA extraction kit (MACHEREY-NAGEL GmbH & Co. KG Germany, Cat. No. 740952). GenomeWalker "libraries" were prepared by digesting the DNA with four different restriction enzymes (*Dra*I, *Eco*RV, *Pvu*II and *Stu*I) at 37<sup>0</sup>C for two hrs to generate blunt ends. Subsequently, two nested PCR amplifications were performed sequentially for each library using gene-specific primers (GSP1 and GSP2) and adapter primers (AP1 and AP2) from the kit (**Table S1**). PCR products were analyzed on a 1.5% agarose gel followed by cloning into a pJET1.2 cloning vector to facilitate sequencing. Subsequently, sequences obtained from the four libraries were aligned together to generate the consensus promoter region sequence of *WD40-1* in alfalfa.

#### **2.5.11 Statistical data analysis**

Shapiro-Wilk test were used for checking the normal distribution of data before proceeding to analysis of variance (ANOVA). Subsequently, Tukey *post hoc* multiple comparison tests were done on molecular (qRT-PCR and ChIP-qPCR), metabolomic (LCMS and GCMS), physiological and phenotypic data. A pair-wise t-test comparison was implemented between *WD40-1*OE and WT plants and with *WD40-1*RNAi plants for *WD40-1* transcript abundance. Metabolite profile data were subjected to pareto scaling before principal component analysis (PCA) in which metabolites were mean-centered followed by dividing with the square root of the standard deviation. All statistical data analyses were undertaken using R-software environment 3.2.5.

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# **3. ABA-dependent** *SnRK1* **expression mediates the miR156/SPL module for flooding response in alfalfa**

### **3.1 Background**

Climate change is expected to increase the mean annual temperature and precipitation, which are both correlated with frequent flooding events (Alexander et al., 2006; Brown et al., 2018; Rogelj et al., 2018) that affect crop quality and yield (Bailey-Serres et al., 2012; Brown et al., 2018; Yeung et al., 2018). Plants deploy two main strategies in response to flooding stress: 1) an escape mechanism by elongating stems to emerge above the water surface, or 2) an adaptive mechanism by reducing growth and development to conserve energy. For example, flood-escaping rice genotypes elongate their stems by increasing stem cell size (a strategy regulated by gibberellin) (Dubois et al., 2011). In line with these strategies *SUBMERGENCE1A* (*SUB1A*), *SNORKEL1* (*SK1*) and *SK2* were identified in Arabidopsis through their sequence similarity to the rice homologs and were found to play a major role in flooding response (Xu et al., 2006; Hattori et al., 2009). Unlike plants that mainly employ the energy-demanding flood-escape strategy, flood adapting plants, such as wheat, lower their energy metabolism, remaining submerged, and subsequently revive after the stress has ceased to exist (Herzog et al., 2018).

Regulating energy metabolism is important, especially under environmental stress during which a reduced carbon assimilation rate results in reduced cellular glucose concentrations despite the increased demand for carbon skeletons needed for the biosynthesis of specialized metabolites to scavenge ROS. Reduced energy metabolism associated with decreased oxygen availability and reduced photosynthetic carbon assimilation rate during flood stress has been reported in different studies (Branco-Price et al., 2008; Gupta et al., 2009; Mustroph et al., 2009). This lower energy metabolism is perceived by a sucrose non-fermenting-related protein kinase, SnRK1 (Baena-González et al., 2007; Ramon et al., 2019), which is associated with a HEXOKINASE1 (HXK1) (Moore et al., 2003). The heterotrimeric protein kinase SnRK1 is activated by the  $\alpha$ subunits KIN10 and KIN11 (Fragoso et al., 2009) and regulated by the  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  subunits in Arabidopsis (Wurzinger et al., 2018). *SnRK1* expression is also reported to be triggered in Arabidopsis by the stress-related hormone ABA (Jossier et al., 2009). Accordingly, the activation of SnRK1 regulates metabolic stress response and development in Arabidopsis (Ramon et al., 2019).

Previous reports showed that overexpression of *miR156* in *M. sativa* increased shoot branching, delayed flowering, reduced stem length (Aung et al., 2015a, 2015b, 2015c), and also played a positive role in abiotic stress tolerance (Arshad et al., 2017a; 2017b; Feyissa et al., 2019; Matthews et al., 2019). Considering the function that miR156 plays in metabolic, physiological and stress response processes in alfalfa I hypothesize that miR156 plays a role in flooding tolerance and that its expression is regulated by SnRK1. Deep sequencing analysis of non-coding RNAs revealed multiple differentially expressed microRNAs by comparing flooding stress vs well-drained poplar and maize plants (Lu et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2008). In the maize study, Zhang and his colleagues (2008) identified more than 100 differentially expressed microRNAs in response to flooding, of which, miR159, miR395, miR474 were increased while others (miR166, miR167, miR171, miR396, and miR399) were decreased. These microRNAs, along with their proposed mechanisms of action, were reviewed in a recent article indicating the potential role of

microRNAs in flooding response (Fukao et al., 2019). Apart from screening for differentially expressed microRNAs and associated downstream genes, it is important to validate the identified microRNAs and downstream genes by modulating their expression levels and investigating the plant's response under flooding stress. miR156 functions by regulating *SQUAMOSA-PROMOTER BINDING PROTEIN-LIKE (SPL)* genes (Wang et al., 2008; Gao et al., 2016). So far, at least seven *SPL*s (*SPL*2, *SPL*3, *SPL*4, *SPL*6, *SPL*9, *SPL*12 and *SPL*13) have been identified as direct targets of miR156 in alfalfa (Gao et al., 2016). The role of the miR156/SPL module in flooding tolerance was investigated in this study using hormone profiling, global transcriptomic profiling and physiological responses of *miR156*OE and miR156-regulated SPL RNAi alfalfa plants. The cross-talk between miR156/SPL and ABA-dependent SnRK1 was also investigated in this study using ABA insensitive (*abi1-2* and *abi5-8*) Arabidopsis mutants along with *KIN10* over-expressing and RNAi silenced Arabidopsis plants under ABA and low sugar treatments. To determine how SnRK1 affects the biosynthesis of miR156, I investigated the protein-protein interaction between SnRK1 and two of the miR156 biogenesis proteins, DICER-LIKE 1 (DCL1) and SERRATE (SE), using a yeast-two-hybrid assay.

### **3.2 Results**

To investigate the role of miR156 in flooding tolerance in alfalfa, I compared *miR156* overexpression (*miR156*OE), *SPL6*RNAi, *SPL13*RNAi, WT, and empty vector plants. Alfalfa cultivars previously identified as flood sensitive (AC-Caribou) and flooding tolerant (AAC-Trueman) served as negative and positive controls, respectively. The plants were initially characterized, under field conditions, for their flooding response using physiological parameters and expression of select flooding-responsive genes at Agriculture

and Agri-Food Canada (AAFC) Research Centre in Kentville, Nova Scotia, Canada (**Figure S10**). Based on these results, I narrowed my focus to *miR156*OE (A8), *SPL13*RNAi-5, *SPL13*RNAi-6, AC-Caribou, AAC-Trueman and WT genotypes, which showed tolerance and susceptible responses and repeated the experiment twice at the AAFC research center in London, Ontario, Canada.

# **3.2.1 miR156/SPL module mediates physiological responses of alfalfa during flooding**

Flooding negatively affects photosynthesis and respiration in plants (Caudle and Maricle, 2012), so I investigated whether the miR156/SPL module regulates this response. Onemonth old post propagation stage alfalfa plants were subjected to flooding stress and welldrained conditions for two weeks (**Figure 3.1A,B; Figure S10**). Leaf yellowing was observed in all genotypes under flooding stress, but it was more severe in AC-Caribou and wild-type plants (**Figure 3.1B**), which also had reduced photosynthesis rates relative to the other genotypes (**Figure 3.1D**). The flooding tolerant cultivar, AAC-Trueman, showed increased red colouration in the stems of plants under flooding stress (**Figure 3.1C**). Under well-drained, there were no differences between genotypes in the photosynthesis assimilation rate (**Figure 3.1D**). Moreover, dark-adapted chlorophyll fluorescence (Fv/Fm), often used as a stress tolerance indicator (Sharma et al., 2015; Su et al., 2015), was maintained at a higher level in AAC-Trueman, A8, and *SPL13*RNAi plants relative to WT plants under flooding stress (**Figure 3.1E**). To further understand the photosynthesis efficiency, photosynthetic carbon assimilation rate was measured across a gradient of intercellular  $CO_2$  and the maximum rubisco carboxylase activity,  $V_{\text{cmax}}$ , and maximum photosynthesis electron transport, *J*max, were determined (**Figure 3.1F,G**). The data showed a similar pattern to the measurements of photosynthesis assimilation rate (**Figure 3.1D)** and Fv/Fm ratio (**Figure 3.1E)**. As a result, *SPL13*RNAi, A8, and AAC-Trueman maintained a higher level of *Vcmax* and *J*max except for AC-Caribou which showed comparable levels irrespective of flooding stress (**Figure 3.1F,G**).

#### **3.2.2 miR156 increases ABA and ABA-catabolites for flooding tolerance**

The hormone profiles of flood-stressed and well-drained alfalfa genotypes were investigated to understand hormonal changes in response to flooding. Total ABA metabolites comprising ABA, phaseic acid, ABA-glucose ester (ABAGE), and another four ABA derivatives were all increased in flood-treated plants relative to their welldrained controls by 1.5- (AAC-Trueman) to 2.5-fold (A8) in flood-tolerant genotypes, while a 30% reduction was observed in WT plants (**Figure 3.2A)**. Specifically, ABAcatabolites from glucosyl esterification and oxidation reactions, ABAGE and phaseic acid, respectively, contributed a significant portion of the total ABA metabolite abundance under flooding in tolerant genotypes, second only to ABA (**Figure 3.2B,C,D**). For instance, while phaseic acid concentration was not changed between flood stress and well-drained wildtype plants, an average fold increase of 2.95- (AAC-Trueman) to 3.75- (*SPL13*RNAi-6) was observed in the tolerant genotypes (**Figure 3.2C**).

# **Figure 3.1 Selected physiological responses of flood-stressed and control alfalfa plants** One-month alfalfa plants growing under (**A**) control, and **(B)** flood-stressed conditions; **(C)** stem colour development in AAC-Trueman plants upon flood stress, **(D)** photosynthesis assimilation rate, (**E**) chlorophyll florescence response, Fv/Fm, **(F)** *V*cma*x*, the maximum rate of rubisco carboxylase activity, **(G)**  $J_{\text{max}}$ , maximum photosynthesis electron transport rate. Values are sample means  $\pm$  SE, n=8 individual plants. ANOVA was followed by *Post hoc* Tukey multiple comparisons test when a statistically significant value at p<0.05 was observed. Values assigned with same letters are not statistically significant from each other.



In the current study, there was a trend toward decreased levels of total auxin comprising indole-3-acetic acid (IAA) and N-(indole-3-yl-acetyl)-aspartic acid (IAA-Asp) in response to flooding stress in all genotypes. Total gibberellin (GA) comprising GA8, GA19, GA29 and GA53 were increased slightly in susceptible WT plants (**Figure 3.2E-H**). Variable reductions in vegetative growth (**Figure 3.1A**) were correlated with reduced cytokinin concentrations in all alfalfa genotypes (**Figure 3.2I**). The detailed phytohormone profile is provided in **Table 3.1**.

## **3.2.3 miR156 regulates specialized metabolite pathways to improve flooding tolerance**

To investigate whether the miR156 gene regulatory network is involved in flooding tolerance, qRT-PCR was used to determine RNA expression levels of the flooding responsive *SNORKEL1* gene (Hattori et al., 2009), as well as *miR156* and miR156 regulated *SPL4* and *SPL13* genes (Aung et al., 2015b; Gao et al., 2016). *MiR156*OE and *SPL13*RNAi plants were used along with WT, AC-Caribou and AAC-Trueman grown at AAFC Kentville Research and Development Centre field condition. Transcript levels of *SNORKEL1* and *miR156* were increased in *miR156*OE plants, whereas those of *SPL4* and *SPL13* were decreased upon flood stress (**Figure S11**). Based on these results the role of miR156 and miR156-regulated SPLs in flooding response were investigated at the global transcriptomic levels using *miR156*OE (A8), *SPL13*RNAi-6, AC-Caribou, AAC-Trueman and WT alfalfa genotypes grown at AAFC research center in London, Ontario, Canada.

## **Figure 3.2 UPLC/ESI-MS/MS-based hormone profiling in flood stressed and control alfalfa genotypes**

**(A)** Total ABA metabolites; **(B)** ABA glucose ester (ABAGE); **(C)** phaseic acid; **(D)** ABA; **(E)** IAA-aspartic acid (IAA-Asp); **(F)** total auxin; **(G)** gibberellic acid GA19; **(H)** total GA; (I) total cytokinin. Values are sample means  $\pm$  SE, n=3 individual plants. ANOVA was followed by *Post hoc* Tukey multiple comparisons test when a statistically significant value at p<0.05 was observed. Values assigned with same letters are not statistically significant from each other.











### **Table 3.1 List of detected phytohormones and their abundance (ng/g dry weight) using UHPLC-MS analysis**

Phytohormone profiling was performed in lyophilized (freeze dried) triplicate (three biological replicates) samples of wild-type, AAC-Trueman, moderate-miR156A8 (*miR156*OE), and *SPL13*RNAi-6 plants under well-drained control and flood-stressed conditions. Metabolite abundance are presented in average. ABA, *cis*-Abscisic acid; ABAGE, Abscisic acid glucose ester; DPA, Dihydrophaseic acid; PA, Phaseic acid; 7'OH-ABA, 7'-Hydroxy-abscisic acid; neo-PA, *neo*-Phaseic acid; *t*-ABA, *trans*-Abscisic acid; *t*-ZOG, (*trans*) Zeatin-O-glucoside; *c*-ZOG, (*cis*) Zeatin-O-glucoside; *c*-ZR, (cis) Zeatin riboside; dhZR, Dihydrozeatin riboside; iPR, Isopentenyladenosine; IAA, Indole-3-acetic acid; IAA-Asp, N-(Indole-3-yl-acetyl)-aspartic acid; GA1, Gibberellin 1; GA3, Gibberellin 3; GA7, Gibberellin 7; GA8, Gibberellin 8; GA19, Gibberellin 19; GA29, Gibberellin 29; GA34, Gibberellin 34; GA53, Gibberellin 53. Phytohormones labeled '**ND**' were not detected from the specific samples.



Transcript profile analysis comparing well-drained and flood stress conditions revealed that more than 60% of the DEG were decreased in flood-stressed WT plants, whereas the difference between upregulated vs downregulated genes was minimal (51%) increased and 49% decreased) in flood-stressed-exposed moderate-miR156A8 plants **(Figure 3.3A**). On the other hand, AC-Caribou, SPL13R-6, and AAC-Trueman had 53, 56 and 59% of the a reduced DEG, respectively, under flooding stress. To further identify genes contributing to alfalfa flooding tolerance, I compared DEG from flood-stressed WT plants to those from AC-Caribou, AAC-Trueman, *SPL13*RNAi, and flood-stressed moderate-miR156A8 plants. Results of this analysis are summarized in a Venn-diagram (**Figure 3.3B**). Genotype-specific and commonly shared DEG were observed. Among the DEG, 16, 1044, 688, and 869 were increased and found unique to genotypes of SPL13R-6, A8, AC-Caribou, and AAC-Trueman, respectively, whereas 40, 631, 570 and 1018 were decreased, respectively (**Figure 3.3B**). Moreover, two upregulated and 11 downregulated genes were commonly shared by the flood tolerant AAC-Trueman, moderate-miR156A8 and *SPL13*RNAi-6 genotypes under flooding stress. The two upregulated transcripts encode for Gly-Asp-Ser-Leu (GDSL)-like lipase/ acyl hydrolase (Medtr8g087870) and a reticuline oxidase-like protein (Medtr2g031560). On the other hand, five of the commonly down-regulated 11 transcripts under flood stress code for carbonic anhydrase (Medtr0219s0070), galactinol-raffinose galactosyltransferase (Medtr7g091880), AP2 domain class transcription factor (Medtr3g098580), PAR1 protein (Medtr1g101120), and sieve element occlusion protein (Medtr1g074990).

### **Figure 3.3 Differentially expressed genes, DEG, and their associated function upon flood stress in alfalfa**

**(A)** DEG plasticity in each genotype during flood stress, **(B)** Venn diagram illustrating communalities and differences of DEG in AC-Caribou, AAC-Trueman, *SPL13*RNAi-6 and moderate-miR156A8 genotypes compared to WT in response to flood stress, **(C)** Venn diagram illustrating communalities of DEG across genotypes in plants exposed to flood stress compared to their respective well-drained counter parts, Upper (black) and lower panel (yellow) numbers in '**B**' and '**C**' indicate increased and decreased DEG, respectively, compared to flood-stressed WT or the same genotype under well-drained conditions, respectively.  $N = 3$  biological replicates for each genotype and treatment conditions. Novaseq 6000-based RNAseq analysis was performed with three biological replicates for each treatment condition. The venn diagram was constructed using an online tool *http://www.interactivenn.net/*.





A comparison of WT plants with the other genotypes under flood stress, identified DEG from two other major GDSL-related genes, including GDSL-like lipase/acyl hydrolase and Pmr5/Cas1p GDSL/SGNH-like acyl-esterase (**Figure S12A**). Of these genes, one of three in *SPL13*RNAi-6, 29 of 33 in A8, two of six in AC-Caribou and nine of 14 in AAC-Trueman were increased under flooding stress compared to flood-stressed WT plants (**Figure S12A**). The second commonly increased transcript among A8, *SPL13*RNAi-6 and AAC-Trueman encodes the reticuline oxidase-like protein that binds to flavin adenine dinucleotide (FAD) as an acceptor of hydrogen in a bi-covalent manner, and possesses an oxidoreductase activity in (S)-scoulerine biosynthesis (Sato et al., 2001). Transcripts of this gene were increased 1.7-fold in flood-stressed AAC-Trueman relative to its well-drained while other genotypes (WT, AC-Caribou, A8, and *SPL13R*-6) showed 0.22 to 0.53-fold reduction compared to their respective well-drained (**Figure S12B**). Despite this reduction, reticuline oxidase-like protein transcripts were increased 1.6 to 6 fold higher in flood tolerant genotypes relative to wild-type plants under flooding stress (**Figure S12B**).

To understand transcript plasticity of genotypes in response to flood stress, the transcript profiles of well-drained and flood-stressed plants of each genotype were compared across all genotypes. 1071 upregulated and 1624 downregulated DEG were shared by all genotypes (**Figure 3.3C**). In addition, 89, 3764, 337, 471, and 437 upregulated and 148, 993, 199, 327, and 497 downregulated genotype-specific DEG were detected in WT, *SPL13*RNAi-6, A8, AC-Caribou, and AAC-Trueman genotypes, respectively (**Figure 3.3C**). Among the transcripts differentially expressed in all genotypes upon flood stress, ABA biosynthesis, SnRK1, and phenylpropanoid pathway genes were

upregulated (**Figure S12C,D**). Moreover, the number and distribution of different molecular function-associated differentially expressed transcripts between flood-stressed WT and all the other genotypes code primarily for protein post-translational modification, miscellaneous UDP glucosyl and glucoronyl transferases, RNA regulation of transcription, signalling receptor kinase, biotic and abiotic stress, transport, specialized metabolite, plant hormone metabolism, development and cell wall cellulose synthase (**Figure 3.4**).

### **3.2.4 Phylogenic analysis reveals novel SPLs in alfalfa**

The observation of enhanced levels of *miR156* expression under flooding stress (**Figure S11**) prompted me to investigate whether miR156-regulated SPLs contribute to alfalfa's response to flooding stress. RNAseq analysis followed by transcript annotation of five alfalfa genotypes exposed to flooding stress showed that 15 *SPL*s were differentially expressed relative to their well-drained counterparts (**Figure 3.5A**). In addition to the previously known seven SPLs (Aung et al., 2015b; Gao et al., 2016), nine new *SPL*s (*SPL1, SPL1a, SPL2a, SPL7, SPL7a, SPL8*, *SPL13a, SPL14* and *SPL16*) were identified in this study (**Figure 3.5A,B**). The naming of the new SPLs is based on the closely related known SPLs from the phylogenetic tree in the clade (**Figure 3.6A**).

### **Figure 3.4 Functional distribution of differentially expressed genes upon flood stress in alfalfa**

Functional distribution of DEG obtained by comparing SPL13R-6 (*SPL13*RNAi-6), moderate-miR156A8 (*miR156*OE), AC-Caribou and AAC-Trueman vs well-drained under flooding stress. Novaseq 6000-based RNAseq analysis was performed with three biological replicates for each treatment condition.  $N = 3$  biological replicates for each genotype and treatment conditions. TCA, Tricarboxylic acid; UDP, Uridine diphosphate.



Number of associated transcripts

140

### **Figure 3.5 Differentially expressed SPLs upon flood stress in alfalfa**

(**A**) Differentially expressed SPLs between well-drained and flood stressed alfalfa plants, **(B)** validation of the consistently regulated SPLs from RNAseq using qRT-PCR. SPLs underlined with red line in '**A**' are newly identified SPLs while the others were previously identified (Aung et al., 2015b; Gao et al., 2016). Arrows in '**A**' and '**B**' indicate commonly reduced SPLs during flooding stress. The '\*' in '**B**' indicates significance difference between biological samples at p<0.05 when compared between well-drained and flooding stress transcript abundances.



Phylogenetic analysis grouped the SPLs into eight clades that have more than 75% coding sequence similarity. Clade I (SPL1, SPL1a, SPL14), clade II (SPL2, SPL3, SPL4, SPL7a), clade III (SPL6), clade IV (SPL7), clade V (SPL8), clade VI (SPL9), clade VII (SPL2a, SPL12), and clade VIII (SPL13, SPL13a, SPL16) (**Figure 3.6A**). Of these *SPL*s, *SPL4, SPL7a, SPL8, SPL9, SPL13,* and *SPL13a* were downregulated under flooding stress compared to well-drained in all genotypes, *SPL3* was downregulated only in A8, while *SPL12* and *SPL16* were not consistently downregulated in all the genotypes (**Figure 3.5A**). The results of transcriptomic datawere validated by qRT-PCR (**Figure 3.5B**) using primers specifically designed to amplify each SPLs (**Table S1**). The newly identified SPLs were further analyzed for their conserved SBP domain, nuclear localization signal, and the presence of miR156 binding nucleotide sequences. *In silico* amino acid sequence analysis [\(http://weblogo.berkeley.edu/logo.cgi\)](http://weblogo.berkeley.edu/logo.cgi) of the newly identified SPLs revealed they all contained the conserved SBP domain containing two zinc fingers (Zn1 and Zn2) and nuclear localization signal (NLS) (**Figure 3.6B**) similar to the previously identified ones (Gao et al., 2016). Using an amino acid sequence-based [\(http://nls-mapper.iab.keio.ac.jp/cgi-bin/NLS\\_Mapper\\_form.cgi\)](http://nlsmapper.iab.keio.ac.jp/cgibin/NLS_Mapper_form.cgi) analysis, putative nuclear localization signals were also detected in the newly identified SPLs (**Figure S13**).

(**A**) Amino acid coding sequences-based phylogenetic analysis of SPLs, **(B)** the conserved SQUAMOSA PROMOTER-BINDING PROTEIN, SBP, domain in the newly identified SPLs containing two zinc-finger binding domains (Zn 1 and 2) and nuclear localization signal (NLS), **(C)** complementarity of SPL7a, 8 and 13a to that of matured miR156 sequence along with 5' RLM RACE determined cleavage sites. SPLs boxed with red line in '**A**' are newly identified SPLs while boxed with black lines were previously identified (Aung et al., 2015b; Gao et al., 2016). Different shades of colour in '**A**' represents different clades having more than 70% protein coding sequence similarity within a clade. Phylogenetic analysis is done using clustal omega online tool [\(https://www.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/msa/clustalo/\)](https://www.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/msa/clustalo/) followed by FigTree v.1.4.2 free software. *In silico* amino acid sequence in '**B**' is analysed using [http://weblogo.berkeley.edu/logo.cgi.](http://weblogo.berkeley.edu/logo.cgi) In '**B**' zinc-finger binding domains (Zn 1 and 2) and nuclear localization signals (NLS) are indicated with red and green boxes, respectively. Arrows in '**C**' indicate cleavage sites by *miR156*. Values in '**A**' are dissimilarity index between the protein coding sequences of the SPLs.



To understand whether the newly identified SPLs are regulated by miR156, the complementarity of the mature miR156 sequence 'ATGCTCTCTCTCTTCTGTCA' was checked in a 5' to 3' orientation and found variable amount of miR156 matching sequence in *SPL*s ranging from 13/20 in *SPL*1 and *SPL*7 to 19/20 in *SPL*2a, *SPL*7a and *SPL*13a. Of these different numbers of miR156 matching nucleotide sequence to *SPL*s, *SPL7*a, *SPL*8 and *SPL13*a possessed 19/20, 18/20 (in two fragments) and 19/20 nucleotide matches to miR156, respectively, indicating a potential cleavage target by miR156 (**Figure 3.6C**). 5'- RACE was performed to confirm the miR156 cleavage site in transcripts of the newly identified *SPL*s that consistently responded to flooding in all the genotypes (*SPL7a, SPL8,* and *SPL13a*) (**Figure 3.6C**). The ligated 5'RACE adapter-mRNA site was amplified with two sequential PCRs using gene-specific and manufacturer-provided primers (**Table S1**). Subsequently, the PCR products were cloned into *E. coli* and 30 independent events for each gene were sequenced and scored to identify the miR156 cleavage sites. The sequencing result revealed *SPL7a, SPL8* and *SPL13a* were cleaved by miR156 upstream of the complementary target sequence (**Figure 3.6C**). These results revealed that miR156 downregulates *SPL*4, *SPL*7a, *SPL*8, *SPL*9, *SPL*13 and *SPL*13a in alfalfa in response to flooding stress.

#### **3.2.5 Flooding enhances** *SnRK1* **expression in an ABA-dependent manner**

An upregulation of *SnRK1* (Medtr1g034030) and its regulatory β subunit (Medtr5g098510 and Medtr2g095290) were observed in alfalfa under flooding stress (**Figure S12C**). The catalytic α subunit *KIN11* (Medtr6g048250 and Medtr6g012990) was also increased consistent with *SnRK1* expression in two of the genotypes (AC-Caribou and *SPL13*RNAi-6) (**Figure S12C**). Considering the elevated level of ABA-catabolites in AAC-Trueman,

moderate-miR156A8 and *SPL13*RNAi-6 genotypes (**Figure 3.2**) upon flooding stress, the ABA signaling pathway and ABA-responsive elements in these plants were investigated. The ABA signaling *PYL9/PYR1* receptors as well as *ABI2* and the ABA-responsive element *ABRE* were upregulated, whereas *ABI1* was downregulated under flooding stress (**Figure 3.2, Figure S12D**). Given an enhanced level of *SnRK1* and ABA, and findings from the literature showing that SnRK1 has a central role in sugar and ABA signalling (Jossier et al., 2009; Rodrigues et al., 2013), I decided to investigate whether the expression of *SnRK1* is ABA-dependent.

The finding that *SnRK1*, ABA-signaling elements (**Figure S12**) and ABAcatabolites (**Figure 3.2**) were upregulated in alfalfa under flooding stress prompted me to determine the transcript levels of *KIN10*, *KIN11* and *DARK INDUCED* genes (*DIN*). This was done in ABA insensitive Arabidopsis mutants (*abi1-2,* and *abi5-8*) (Rubio et al., 2009; Zou et al., 2013), due to the lack of similar mutants in alfalfa. Expression levels of one of the catalytic α subunits, *KIN11*, was reduced in *abi5-8* while both *KIN10* (**Figure 3.7A)** and *KIN11* (**Figure 3.7B)** were increased in *abi1-2* plants during ABA treatment where only one of the calcium and protein binding elements is silenced (**Figure 3.7A,B**). Moreover, the expression of dark-induced and multiple stress responsive *DIN* genes (*DIN1*, *DIN6* and *DIN10*) (Baena-González et al., 2007) was investigated to determine whether it was affected by ABA treatment. The expression of *DIN10* was increased with reduced sugar level in *abi1-2* mutants while reduced in *abi5-8* mutants with ABA application (**Figure 3.7C**).

**(A)** SnRK1 catalytic subunit *KIN10*, and **(B)** *KIN11,* **(C)** relative transcript levels of *DARK INDUCED, DIN, DIN10*, **(D)** *DIN6*, and **(E)** *DIN1* genes in Arabidopsis, **(F)** relative transcript levels of *SnRK1* and *SnRK2* along with *SnRK1* regulatory and catalytic subunits in response to 100 µM ABA treatment, (**G**) transcript levels of SnRK1 upon 100 µM ABA treatment relative to their counter part control alfalfa plants, (**H**) relative transcript levels of *miR156* in *KIN10* overexpressing and RNAi silenced Arabidopsis plants, (**I**) Yeast-twohybrid (Y2H) assay for protein-protein interaction between SnRK1 and DCL1 or SE. n=50 of Arabidopsis seedlings in '**A**' to '**E**' and '**H**' were used while three alfalfa plants were used as replicates in '**F**' and '**G**'. Arabidopsis-specific three house keeping genes (elongation factor alpha, tubulin and actin) were used for relative transcript analysis relative to wild-type in '**A**' to '**E**' and '**H**' while alfalfa specific elongation factor, actin and ubiquitin10 were used in '**F**' and 'G'. Values are means with  $\pm$  SE. The interaction between the pEXP32/Krev1 (rat Krev1) with pEXP22/RalGDS-wt (ras association domain of RalGDS) is used as a positive control while for the negative control pEXP32/Krev1 with the mutated ras association domain of RalGDS, pEXP22/RalGDS-m2, were used according to the user's manual. Pair-wise comparison tests  $(*$  at  $p<0.05$  while '\*\*' at p<0.01) were performed between wild-type (WT) and other genotypes for similar growth conditions except '**G**' that compared ABA treated alfalfa plants of WT and *miR156*OE (A17) to their counter part control conditions.



This result shows *DIN10* expression is ABA-dependent and regulated by ABI5 (**Figure 3.7C**). On the other hand, Transcript levels of *DIN1* and *DIN6* were increased in the presence of ABA despite a reduced level of ABI1 and ABI5 (**Figure 3.7D,E**).

To understand whether the transcript level of *SnRK1* in alfalfa is miR156 dependent, one-month old rooted cuttings of alfalfa plants (*miR156O*E and WT plants) were exposed to flooding for one week followed by treatment with of 100  $\mu$ M ABA for 4 hrs. Subsequently, the RNA transcript levels of *SnRK2, SnRK1* and its catalytic α (*KIN10* and  $KINII$ ) and regulatory ( $\beta$  and  $\gamma$ ) subunits were determined. Under control conditions, only *SnRK2* was increased in *miR156*OE plants whereas the other regulatory and catalytic subunits were not different from WT (**Figure 3.7F**). Interestingly, under 100  $\mu$ M ABA treatment, the expression of all the catalytic (KIN11 α subunit), regulatory subunits (β and γ subunits), SnRK1 and SnRK2 were similar in their expression levels to that of WT (**Figure 3.7F**). Moreover, both WT and *miR56*OE (A17) genotypes had higher SnRK1 expression under 100 µM ABA treatment compared to their counter part controls (**Figure 3.7G**).

#### **3.2.6 Does SnRK1 regulate miR156?**

To understand whether SnRK1 regulates miR156 to mediate the miR156/SPLs module in flooding response, I used Arabidopsis plants with altered expression of KIN10 (*KIN10*- OX-1, *KIN10*-OX-2, *KIN10*RNAi-1*, KIN10*RNAi-2*)* (Baena-González et al., 2007) and treated with 3 µM ABA, and determined *miR156* transcript levels. *MiR156* expression was higher in *KIN10* overexpressing genotypes while *KIN10*RNAi genotypes showed comparable (*KIN10*RNAi-2) or lower (*KIN10*RNAi-1) levels relative to WT control plants (**Figure 3.7H**). Under ABA treatment, *miR156* expression level remained significantly

higher at least in one of the two overexpression genotypes (*KIN10*-OX-2) but lower in *KIN10*RNAi plants when compared to wild-type plants (**Figure 3.7H**).

*DICER-LIKE 1* (*DCL1*), *SERRATE* (*SE*) and *HYPONASTIC LEAVES* (*HYL1*) are critical for the biogenesis of microRNAs (Yu et al., 2017). There was an increase in *KIN10*  expression coupled with upregulation of *miR156* (**Figure 3.7H**), but overexpression of *miR156* did not affect *KIN10* (**Figure 3.7F**). This led me to investigate whether SnRK1 is involved in regulating miR156 biogenesis. Accordingly, using a yeast-two-hybrid assay the *in vivo* pairwise protein-protein interactions between SnRK1 with DCL1 and SE were investigated. Under my experimental conditions no interaction could be detected between SnRK1 and neither DCL1 nor SE (**Figure 3.7I**)

#### **3.2.7 miR156/SPL module enhances flooding adaptive mechanisms**

The transcriptomic profile of *SPL13*RNAi plants showed an increase in genes coding for *TREHALOSE-6-PHOSPHATE SYNTHASE* (*TPS*) and *TREHALOSE-6- PHOSPHATE PHOSPHATASE* (*TPP*) under flooding stress (**Figure 3.8A**). The reduction in photosynthesis assimilation rate after two weeks of flooding (**Figure 3.1C**) but greater than WT (**Figure 3.8B**) may result in lower levels of fructose and glucose, which in flooding tolerant plants are compensated for by increased levels of TPS and TPP to enhance sucrose hydrolysis (**Table S13**). Likewise, an enhanced level of *SnRK1* along with its catalytic and regulatory subunits was observed in alfalfa during flooding stress (**Figure 3.7G**). Moreover, induction of the phenylpropanoid pathway-related metabolites was observed in flood-tolerant *SPL13*RNAi plants to scavenge ROS (**Figure 3.8A, Table S12**). Consistent with these findings, an increased level of total anthocyanin monomers was detected under flooding stress (**Figure 3.9A**).

### **Figure 3.8 miR156-based regulation of SPL13 enhances photosynthesis and phenylpropanoid pathway in response to flooding**

**(A)** Reduced glycolysis and TCA cycle and enhanced phenylpropanoid pathway in flood stress *SPL13*RNAi plants; **(B)** MapMan-based pathway analysis illustrating photosystem I and II associated increased transcript abundance along with electron transport chain in moderate-miR156A8 plants compared to WT plants during flood stress. Red and blue colours in phenylpropanoid pathway represent an increase and decrease in fold-change levels of transcripts in *SPL13*RNAi flood stressed plants relative to wild-type flood stressed plants, respectively.  $N = 3$  biological replicates for each genotype and treatment conditions.


## **Figure 3.9 miR156-based regulation of SPL13 enhances anthocyanin and ABA biosynthesis in response to flooding**

**(A)** Total monomeric anthocyanin in gallic acid equivalents; **(B)** enrichment of ABA biosynthesis in *SPL13*RNAi plants under flood stress. Values in 'A' are mean with  $\pm$  SE with  $N = 3$  biological replicates for each genotype and treatment conditions. Red and blue colours in ABA biosynthesis pathway represent an increase and decrease in fold -change levels of transcripts in *SPL13*RNAi flood stressed plants relative to wild-type flood stressed plants, respectively.



The increase in accumulation of ABA metabolites under flooding stress was regulated at the transcript level based on results of global transcriptomic-derived pathway analysis in *SPL13*RNAi plants (**Figure 3.9B, Table S11**) and other flood-tolerant genotypes.

### **3.3. Discussion**

#### **3.3.1 miR156 regulates physiological processes during flooding stress**

Plants survive abiotic stress by employing adaptation or avoidance strategies to maintain essential physiological processes required for growth and development (Voesenek and Bailey-Serres, 2015). The current results showed that *miR156*OE alfalfa plants maintained a functional photosynthesis process as expressed as photosynthesis electron transport, *V*cmax, and maximum rate of carboxylase activity, *J*max during flooding. This was accompanied by a higher dark-adapted chlorophyll florescence, Fv/Fm, and ultimately a stable photosynthetic assimilation rate. Interestingly, *SPL13*RNAi and the flooding tolerant genotype, AAC-Trueman, showed a similar phenotypic response to that of *miR156*OE genotype A8. In contrast, the reduced levels of Fv/Fm and photosynthesis assimilation rate, but with no effect on  $V_{\text{cmax}}$  and  $J_{\text{max}}$  in AC-Caribou under flooding stress suggests a viable ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase (rubisco) enzyme but its activity may be hindered by the scarcity of CO<sub>2</sub> governed by stomatal conductance under stress. Understanding the maintenance of *V*<sub>cmax</sub> and *J*<sub>max</sub> in AC-Caribou under flooding stress would require studies regarding on the rubisco enzymatic activity.

#### **3.3.2 Phaseic acid-dependent regulation of flooding tolerance in alfalfa**

In addition to their role in regulating plant growth and development (Gray, 2004), phytohormones act as signaling molecules to affect plant response to stress (Weng et al.,

2016). Accordingly, the role of phytohormones in alfalfa's response to flooding stress was investigated by determining changes in their profiles under this stress. Phytohormone profiling revealed an increase in the level of ABA and its catabolites under flood stress in tolerant genotypes (AAC-Trueman, moderate-miR156A8 and *SPL13*RNAi-6), whereas WT plants had reduced levels in leaf tissues. Of the different ABA catabolites involved in signalling, phaseic acid (Rodriguez et al., 2016) was recently investigated for its role in plant adaptive plasticity (Weng et al., 2016). The report showed how phaseic acid could have an ABA-like effect, as well as phaseic acid-specific responses during drought stress. In the current study, a significant increase in the amount of phaseic acid was detected in alfalfa genotypes of *SPL13*RNAi, *miR156*OE and AAC-Trueman under flooding stress relative to well-drained counterparts.

Gibberellic acid, GA, is involved in internode elongation resulting in taller plants that benefit under water-submergence (Ayano et al., 2014). The increase in plant height under the influence of GA comes with the cost of energy usage that competes with other physiological processes. Hence, tailoring an appropriate response is crucial to channel resources to the required biological processes. WT plants slightly enhanced the GA abundance with increased plant height while *miR156*OE and *SPL13*RNAi plants reduced their GA levels. This is consistent with the typical alfalfa *miR156*OE phenotype that shows an increase in the number of branches with a decrease in shoot height (Aung et al., 2015b). It seems that *miR156*OE and *SPL13*RNAi plants channel the assimilated carbon sources into the biosynthesis of stress-mitigating metabolites, such as anthocyanin. Increasing plant height might be an important strategy in fully water-submerged plants for the uptake of CO<sup>2</sup> and O<sup>2</sup> necessary for photosynthesis and respiration, respectively, but the current

experiment involved waterlogging only up to the soil surface. It remains to be investigated whether the hormone profile will change in these alfalfa genotypes if plants were completely submerged under water.

## **3.3.3 Genotype-specific enhancement of specialized metabolism and photosynthesis under flooding**

Under flooding stress, plants tends to have a reduced availability of  $O_2$  and  $CO_2$ , which are important for protein biosynthesis and energy production (Branco-Price et al., 2008; Mustroph et al., 2009). On the other hand, gene transcription followed by translation is an energy-consuming process (Lindqvist et al., 2018). In the current study, the flood-tolerant moderate-miR156A8 plants maintained a comparative number of differentially expressed genes between flood-stresseed and well-drained plants while others showed mainly reduction under flooding.

Besides the proportion of total genes that were significantly affected by the stress, it is important to identify stress-specific genes and their association/network to understand the regulation mechanism of stress. Based on global transcriptomic profile differences between flood-stresseed and well-drained alfalfa genotypes, pathway enrichment analysis was conducted on DEG. The increased expression levels of photosynthesis-related genes in *SPL13*RNAi and flood-tolerant AAC-Trueman genotypes during flooding stress indicates the maintenance of physiological processes. This is in line with the observed maintenance of  $V_{\text{cmax}}$  and  $J_{\text{max}}$  that ultimately resulted in a relatively higher photosynthesis assimilation rate during flooding stress. Under well-drained growth conditions, ROS and radical elements are produced at lower levels and used as signalling molecules (Turkan, 2018). Flood stress induces the production of these small molecules resulting in a negative

feed-back that damages cellular integrity and hinders enzymatic reactions (Zhang et al., 2015). Flood-tolerant plants, on the other hand, reduce ROS levels to maintain normal physiological processes. The use of specialized metabolites to scavenge ROS is well documented in plants (Chen et al., 2019). The observed enrichment of specialized metabolites, specifically those of the phenylpropanoid pathway, suggests that floodtolerant alfalfa genotypes use a similar strategy to mitigate flooding stress. Moreover, the pathway enrichment analysis showed the enhancement of cell wall metabolism, ROSscavenging ascorbates and glutathione-associated transcripts. This is in agreement with the transcript profile of *SPL13*RNAi plants, where *FLAVANONE-3-HYDROXYLASE* (*F3H*)*, FLAVANONE-3'5'-HYDROXYLASE* (*F3'5H*) and *DIHYDROFLAVONOL-4- REDUCTASE* (*DFR*) transcript levels were upregulated in accordance with the enhanced level of total monomeric anthocyanin during flooding stress. Analyzing the network of observed global changes in transcriptome to metabolome under flood stress will provide a clearer picture of alfalfa's response to flooding.

#### **3.3.4 Identification of novel SPLs in alfalfa**

A previous study identified seven SPLs (SPL2, SPL3, SPL4, SPL6, SPL9, SPL12 and SPL13) that were regulated by miR156 (Aung et al., 2015b; Gao et al., 2016). Here, RNAseq analysis followed by gene ontology analysis suggested the presence of 16 SPLs in alfalfa of which nine were novel sequences. SPLs are transcription factors that positively or negatively regulate the expression of downstream genes having diverse functions in plants (Preston et al., 2016). Identifying new SPLs will shed light on novel molecular factors that control various aspects of alfalfa growth and developmental. The nine newly

identified SPLs (SPL1, SPL1a, SPL2a, SPL7, SPL7a, SPL8, SPL13a, SPL14 and SPL16) can now be subjected to functional characterization to understand their roles in alfalfa.

The seven previously identified SPLs (Gao et al., 2016) and the nine new SPLs reported in the current study are organized into eight clades based on their sequence similarities to those of *M. truncatula, Glycine max* and Arabidopsis in the phylogenetic tree. Understanding the clade distribution of the newly identified SPLs along with the other SPLs from different plant species could provide information regarding their putative function considering their similarity in coding sequences. For example, SPLs assigned to clade I, such as AtSPL1, are important for thermo-tolerance at the reproductive stage, redundantly with AtSPL12 (Chao et al., 2017). Accordingly, the newly identified SPL1, SPL1a and SPL14 may have also a role in thermo-tolerance, but this should be validated using gene silencing and overexpressing alfalfa plants under heat stress. Similarly, SPL7a may have similar function to that of SPL2, SPL3, and SPL4, in alfalfa and AtSPL3, AtSPL4 and AtSPL5 in Arabidopsis. In line with this, SPLs from clade II (SPL7a and SPL4) were silenced under flood stress in the current study.

#### **3.3.5 miR156-regulated SPLs are involved in alfalfa flooding response**

Identification of SPLs affected by flood stress is important to understand the role of miR156/SPL gene network in alfalfa's response to this stress. In this study, three new SPLs were identified and five of the previously known SPLs were downregulated in *miR156* overexpressing moderate-miR156A8 plants exposed to flood stress. SPL13 is one of the six *SPL*s (*SPL4, SPL7a, SPL8, SPL9, SPL13, SPL13a*) that were downregulated in all alfalfa genotypes upon flood stress, and is also silenced by miR156. To further establish the role of SPL13 in the flooding response, alfalfa plants was tested with RNAi-silenced

SPL13 (*SPL13*RNAi) to flooding stress. Similar to *miR156*OE, *SPL13*RNAi plants were able to withstand flooding as manifested by their ability to maintain their physiological activities. It remains to be investigated whether other SPLs that were silenced by flood stress were directly involved in flooding response, and whether the effects of different SPLs were redundant or additive.

## **3.3.6 ABA-dependent regulation of SnRK1 enhances** *miR156* **expression for flooding tolerance**

In the current study, hormone profiling revealed an increase in ABA metabolites, and transcriptomic analysis showed upregulation of ABA biosynthesis genes. I thus hypothesized that ABA is involved in alfalfa flooding response. Due to the conserved ABA signalling pathway in plants (Weng et al., 2016) the exogenous ABA application effect on SnRK1 was investigated using ABI-insensitive Arabidopsis mutant seedlings (*abi1-2, abi5-8*). ABIs are involved in ABA signaling in which ABI1 is a calcium binding element while ABI5 is a transcription factor. A reduced transcript abundance of *KIN11* in *abi5-8* than in *abi1-2* mutant seedlings under ABA and reduced sugar concentration treatments suggests SnRK1 expression involves ABA signaling. This could be explained if the other calcium binding ABI (ABI2) is still active in the *abi1-2* mutant, complementing the defective ABI1. As KIN11 (one of the catalytic domains of SnRK1) is affected by ABA and low sugar availability in Arabidopsis, I investigated whether this response is dependent on the level of *miR156* expression in alfalfa. One- month-old *miR156*OE (A17) alfalfa plants exposed to flood stress were treated with 100 µM ABA or organic solvent used for ABA dilution. *SnRK1* was induced in both WT and *miR156*OE genotypes in response to ABA treatment, with the highest level in WT plants. Moreover, under ABA treatment, the expression levels of the catalytic (*KIN11*), regulatory (β and γ), *SnRK1* and *SnRK2* were comparable between the genotypes under control condition except for SnRK2, which was significantly higher in *miR156*OE. Interestingly, under ABA treatment, the expression of SnRK1-associated genes (SnRK2, KIN11, SnRK1- $\gamma$ , and SnRK1- $\beta$ 2 subunits) in *miR156*OE plant was similar to that in WT plants. This suggests the expression of *SnRK1* may not be dependent on the level of *miR156* expression, but rather SnRK1 may act upstream of miR156.

Due to the highly conserved SnRK function in plants (Baena-González et al., 2007), and the lack of alfalfa mutants with altered KIN10 expression, I determined whether the expression of *miR156* is dependent on SnRK1 using Arabidopsis plants with silenced (via RNAi) or overexpressed *KIN10*. When the plants were subjected to 3  $\mu$ M ABA treatment, the expression level of *miR156* was significantly higher in *KIN10* overexpressing plants compared to WT or *KIN10*RNAi plants under control or ABA treatment conditions. The observed ABA-dependent expression of *SnRK1* catalytic subunits (*KIN10* and *KIN11*) with *KIN10* overexpression resulting in higher *miR156* levels suggests that SnRK1 upregulates *miR156*. Similarly, with the presence of ABA, phosphorylation of SnRK2 is reported due to lack of PP2C-mediated SnRK2 dephosphorylation as a result of a complex formation between PYR/PYL and PP2C (Todaka et al., 2015; Felemban et al., 2019). Moreover, ABA also induces a protein kinase SnRK1 which is induced by lower energy metabolism along with its  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  catalytic subunits KIN10 and KIN11 through ABI5.

To further understand how SnRK1 increases the expression of *miR156 in vivo*, it is necessary to investigate possible protein-protein interaction between SnRK1 and miR156 biogenesis proteins (such as DCL1, SE and HYL1). Under my experimental conditions I could not detect any protein-protein interaction between SnRK1 to either the DCL1 or SE. Despite the lack of visible interaction with SnRK1, DCL1 have three splice variants while SE has a homologue on chromosome three (Medtr3g006760) with two other splice variants, suggesting other possible interactions. Moreover, the investigated protein-protein interaction was between two proteins at a time while protein interactions may require the presence of more than two proteins. Similarly, it was essential for the presence of three cellulose synthase catalytic subunits (IRREGULAR XYLEM 1, 3, and 5) of CesA family for the proper assembly of cellulose synthesizing complex (Taylor et al., 2003). Consistent with a role for SnRK1 in miR156 biogenesis, it was reported that inactivation of redundant SnRK2 kinases under stress inhibits the biosynthesis of microRNAs involved in stress tolerance (Yan et al., 2017).

### **3.4. Conclusions**

Of the different phytohormones involved in abiotic stress response, ABA's role has been very well documented (Vishwakarma et al., 2017). In the current study, an enhanced level of ABA was found in flooding-tolerant genotypes. ABA-dependent stress tolerance in plants involves regulating genes that control various plant functions, including low energy metabolism-triggered protein kinase SnRK1. Here, an enhanced level of *SnRK1*was found in alfalfa plants under flooding stress, and expression of its catalytic  $\alpha$  subunits KIN10 and KIN11 was ABA-dependent. Sensing a lower energy level associated with reduced photosynthesis dictates metabolite dynamics, considering the carbon skeletons for ROS-scavenging specialized metabolites, such as phenylpropanoids, are derived from sugar. In the current study, a reallocation of resources from energy metabolism into specialized metabolism (anthocyanin) biosynthesis was observed at the transcriptomic and

metabolic levels. Previous reports showed that alfalfa plants with enhanced *miR156* expression level had anthocyanin biosynthesis through the regulation of SPL13/DFR module during drought stress (Chapter two). Similar to the situation with drought stress, there is an enhanced level of *miR156* upon flood stress in alfalfa dictating an enhanced anthocyanin biosynthesis to scavenge ROS. I propose that the switch from normal energy metabolism into conserving energy accompanied with anthocyanin biosynthesis is mediated by the protein kinase SnRK1. Moreover, the reduced but contineous supply of photosynthetic assimilation in flooding-tolerant genotypes provide the carbon skeleton demand to produce specialized metabolites. An enhanced level of SnRK1 governed by ABA and low-energy metabolism enhances *miR156* expression to regulate downstream genes. Subsequently, enhanced levels of *miR156* upon flooding stress silences three newly identified SPLs (*SPL7a, SPL8, SPL13a*) and three previously identified SPLs (*SPL4, SPL9, SPL13*) in a sequence-specific manner to regulate downstream genes and physiological functions.

Based on the present results and others in the literature, I propose a model through which the response to flooding stress is regulated in alfalfa (**Figure 3.7**). Upon flooding, ABA is induced triggering PYL/PYR9 signalling molecules for ABA signal transduction. This signalling pathway induces ABI2 and ABI5 through reduced PP2C phosphorylation for increased expression of ABA responsive elements, *ABRE*. Moreover, the induced ABA signalling triggers SnRK1. The increased expression of *SnRK1* triggers *miR156* and channels resources towards the phenylpropanoid pathway. Induced *miR156* expression silences SPL13, to mediate anthocyanin biosynthesis by its regulation of *DFR* (Chapter 2), and other *SPL*s (*SPL4, SPL7a, SPL8, SPL9*, and *SPL13a*). Increased abundance of ABA metabolites antagonistically affects gibberellic acid, cytokinin and auxin hormones (Voesenek et al., 2003). To exploit the newly identified SPLs (SPL1, SPL1a, SPL2a, SPL7, SPL7a, SPL8, SPL13a, SPL14, and SPL16) in alfalfa breeding, it will be necessary to investigate their functional roles individually and in combination in response to flooding stress and other physiological responses.

#### **Figure 3.10 Proposed model for flooding tolerance in alfalfa**

In flooding-exposed alfalfa plants, ABA metabolites, mainly phaseic acid, induce ABI and trigger PYL/PYR9 signaling molecules to phosphorylate SnRK1 while reducing PP2C phosphorylation. The increased transcript levels of SnRK1 and its activation domains (KIN10 and KIN11) enhance *miR156* expression. As a result, miR156 orchestrates physiological- and specialized metabolite- associated genes by regulating *SPL4, SPL7a, SPL8, SPL9, SPL13,* and *SPL13a* upon flooding. For example, miR156-based *SPL13* transcript level reduction elevated anthocyanin biosynthesis by increasing transcript levels of *DFR* and other phenylpropanoid pathway associated genes during drought stress (Chapter 2). Moreover, SPL13 and other SPLs modulate physiological adjustments to cope with flooding stress, but further investigation awaits to confirm the role of newly identified SPLs in alfalfa flooding tolerance and other traits. ABA; abscisic acid; ABRE, ABA response elements; PYL9, pyrabactin resistance 1-like9; PYR1, pyrabactin resistance1; PP2C, 2C-type protein phosphatases; ABI2, ABA insensitive1; ABI5, ABA insensitive5; SnRK1, Sucrose non-fermenting-related protein kinase1; miR156, microRNA156; MsSPL4,7a,8,9,13,13a are SPL4, SPL7a, SPL8, SPL9, SPL13, SPL13a; PG hormone, Plant growth hormone.



#### **3.5. Methods**

#### **3.5.1 Genetic material**

To understand the role of miR156 in regulating flooding tolerance in alfalfa, one field and two greenhouse experiments were performed. The field experiment was undertaken at the Agriculture and Agri-Food Canada (AAFC) Research Centre in Kentville, Nova Scotia, Canada while greenhouse experiments were done at the AAFC Research Center in London, Ontario, Canada. For the field experiment wild-type (WT) and empty vector (EV) alfalfa genotypes, a locally grown alfalfa cultivar AC-Caribou, a positive control genotype AAC-Trueman, *miR156* overexpressing genotypes (low-miR156A8a, moderate-miR156A8, A16, higher-miR156A11, A11a, A17), miR156 regulated *SPL6*RNAi genotypes (SPL6- 405, SPL6-425, SPL6-428), and miR156 regulated *SPL13*RNAi genotypes (*SPL13*-2, *SPL13*-5, *SPL13*-6) were used. The transgenic plants were used previously (Aung et al., 2015a; Arshad et al., 2017a). Based on field phenotypic responses, forage yield data, and transcript analysis, the number of genotypes used for greenhouse experimentation was reduced to WT, AC-Caribou, AAC-Trueman, SPL13-5, SPL13-6 and A8.

#### **3.5.2 Physiological data measurement**

To understand the role of miR156 and miR156-regulated SPLs in flooding response, physiological parameters were measured as described in chapter 2 section 2.5.5 except the genotypes being used in the current study.

#### **3.5.3 Hormone profiling**

Three biological replicates of shoots from WT, AAC-Trueman, moderate-miR156A8 and SPL13-6 plants grown under flooding stress and well-drained for two weeks were harvested, then flash frozen in liquid nitrogen and kept at  $-80^{\circ}$ C until use. Leaf samples were lyophilized with a Labconco freeze drier system (Kansas, USA Cat 7934026) at -  $50^{\circ}$ C for three days and ~50 mg of dried samples were used for hormone profiling. Comprehensive phytohormone analysis (ABA and ABA metabolites, cytokinins, auxins, and gibberellins) was performed at the National Research Council of Canada, Saskatoon, SK on a fee for service basis.

A number of compounds namely DPA, ABA-GE, phaseic acid, 7'- OH-ABA, *neo*PA, *trans*-ABA and IAA-Glu were synthesized and prepared by the National Research Council of Canada, Saskatoon, SK, Canada; ABA, IAA-Leu, IAA-Ala, IAA-Asp, IAA, Z, ZR, iPR, and iP were purchased from Sigma–Aldrich; dhZ, dhZR, Z-O-Glu and GAs 1, 3, 4, 7, 8, 9, 19, 20, 24, 29, 44, and 53 were purchased from OlChemim Ltd. (Olomouc, Czech Republic). Deuterated forms of the hormones that were used as internal standards included: *d3*-DPA, *d5*-ABA-GE, *d3*-PA, *d4*-7'-OH-ABA, *d3*-*neo*PA, *d4*-ABA, *d4*-*trans*-ABA, *d3*- IAA-Leu, *d3*-IAA-Ala, *d3*-IAA-Asp, and *d3*-IAA-Glu and were synthesized and prepared at NRCC SK according to Abrams et al. (2003) and Zaharia et al. (2005). The *d5*-IAA was purchased from Cambridge Isotope Laboratories (Andover, MA); *d3*-dhZ, *d3*-dhZR, *d5*- Z-O-Glu, *d6*-iPR, *d6*-iP and *d2*-GAs 1, 3, 4, 7, 8, 9, 19, 20, 24, 29, 34, 44, 51 and 53 were purchased from OlChemim Ltd. (Olomouc, Czech Republic). The deuterated forms of selected hormones used as recovery (external) standards were also prepared and synthesized by NRCC SK. Calibration curves were created for all compounds of interest. Quality control (QCs) samples were run along with the tissue samples.

Analysis was performed at National Research Council of Canada, Saskatoon, SK on a UPLC/ESI-MS/MS utilizing a Waters ACQUITY UPLC system, equipped with a

binary solvent delivery manager and a sample manager coupled to a Waters Micromass Quattro Premier XE quadrupole tandem mass spectrometer via a Z-spray interface. MassLynx™ and QuanLynx™ (Micromass, Manchester, UK) were used for data acquisition and data analysis. The procedure for quantification of ABA and ABA catabolites, cytokinins, auxins, and gibberellins in plant tissue was performed using a modified procedure described in Lulsdorf *et al.* (2013). Briefly, the analyses utilized the Multiple Reaction Monitoring (MRM) function of the MassLynx v4.1 (Waters Inc) control software. The resulting chromatographic traces were quantified off-line by the QuanLynx v4.1 software (Waters Inc.) wherein each trace was integrated and the resulting ratio of signals (non-deuterated/internal standard) was compared with a previously constructed calibration curve to yield the amount of analyte present (ng per sample). Calibration curves were generated from the MRM signals obtained from standard solutions based on the ratio of the chromatographic peak area for each analyte to that of the corresponding internal standard. QC samples, internal standard blanks and solvent blanks were also prepared and analyzed alongside each batch of tissue samples.

#### **3.5.4 Total monomeric anthocyanin and polyphenol determination**

Total monomeric anthocyanin (TMA) was determined using a pH deferential extraction method (Lee et al., 2005; Cheok et al., 2013) as described in chapter 2 section 2.54 except for the genotypes used in the current study.

#### **3.5.5 RNA extraction for qRT-PCR and RNAseq analysis**

The top shoot tip leaves (~50 mg) of WT, AC-Caribou, AAC-Trueman, moderatemiR156A8 and *SPL13*RNAi-6 plants grown under flood stress and well-drained (control) for two weeks was collected for total RNA extraction. Three biological replicates from individual plants (control and stressed) were collected in Precellys<sup>R</sup> lysing tubes, flash frozen with liquid nitrogen and stored at  $-80^{\circ}$ C until use. Total RNA extraction, cDNA synthesis, and qRT-PCR procedures used in the current study were performed as decribed in chapter 2 section 2.5.6 and 2.5.7.

Total RNA quality was checked using a Bio-Rad Bioanalyzer for integrity and Nanodrop concentration before RNAseq analysis. NEBNext<sup>®</sup>Ultra<sup>TM</sup> kit (New England Biolabs Inc., Canada) was used for mRNA stranded library preparation followed by Illumina NovaSeq6000 sequencing with pair end of 101 nucleotide fragments performed as a fee for service at Genome Quebec, Montreal, QC, Canada.

#### **3.5.6 RNAseq and pathway analysis**

RNAseq data was analyzed according to Trapnell et al. (2012) on Biocluster with Linux interface. To identify expression pattern of genes and module identification, R-software environment-based network analysis with weighted gene co-expression network, WGCNA, in the 'BiocManager' package was performed according to Langfelder and Horvath (2008). Differential gene expression-based pathway analysis was done using MapMan free software V3.6 [\(https://mapman.gabipd.org/\)](https://mapman.gabipd.org/) with a *M. truncatula* reference sequence, Mt4.0 V2 [\(http://www.medicagogenome.org/downloads\)](http://www.medicagogenome.org/downloads) and also manual incorporation of the gens in to phenylpropanoid and ABA biosynthesis pathways.

#### **3.5.7 5'RACE-based miR156 cleavage site identification**

To determine whether miR156 downregulates the newly identified *SPL* (SPL7a, 8 and 13a) genes via transcript cleavage, 5'RACE was performed according to Gao et al. (2016). In brief, total RNA from leaf tissues of *miR156*OE (higher-miR156A11) genotypes was extracted (RNeasy Plant mini kit, Canada) followed by CIP and Tap treatment to remove

5' phosphate and cap, respectively, according to the manufacturer's protocol (FirstChoice<sup>R</sup>) RLM-RACE, Canada). 5'RACE adapter was ligated to the decapped mRNA and reverse transcribed before the subsequent two PCR reactions using the two provided forward primers with designed gene-specific inner (GSI) and outer (GSO) reverse primers (**Table S1**). The PCR products were electrophoresed on a 2% agarose gel, and DNA bands were excised and purified (QIAquick Gel extraction kit, Canada). Purified DNA was cloned in to a pJET1.2 cloning vector (Clone JET PCR cloning kit, Canada) according to the manufacturer's protocol, followed by transformation into chemically competent *E. coli* TOP10 cells (Invitrogen) using a heat shock method. Transformed cells were plated for overnight growth at 37<sup>0</sup>C, and individual colonies were cultured separately and plasmid was purified (GeneJET Plasmid Miniprep kit, Canada), sequenced and scored for the proportion of cleavage sites.

## **3.5.8 Investigating Protein-Protein interaction between SnRK1 and miR156 biogenesis genes**

To investigate the role of SnRK1 in miR156 biogenesis for the interaction between SnRK1 and miR156 biogenesis genes were tested using the yeast-two-hybrid system (Y2H). The whole coding sequences of SnRK1 (Medtr1g034030.1), DICER-LIKE protein (DCL) (Medtr3g102270.2) and the zinc finger protein SERRATE (SE) (Medtr8g043980) were amplified using gene-specific primers with the addition of 'CACC' in the forward primer, for directional cloning (**Table S1**). To construct an entry clone, the amplified coding sequences were cloned into the pENTR™ /D-TOPO® vector according to the manufacturer's protocol (Invitrogen) and transformed into *E. coli* by heat shock (42 <sup>0</sup>C for 90 seconds). For the subsequent Y2H assay, the ProQuest<sup>™</sup> Two-Hybrid System

(Invitrogen) was used (Singh et al., 2012). In brief, each of the entry clones were LR ligated with pDEST™22 and pDEST™32 separately (two constructs for each entry clone) to create prey ( $pEXP^{TM}22$ ) and bait plasmids ( $pEXP32$ ). Subsequently, different combinations of the prey and bait plasmids were co-transformed with denatured Salmon sperm DNA and 40% PEG as a carrier into the MaV203 yeast strain by heat shock at  $42^{\circ}C$ for 7 minutes according to the manufacturer's protocol. Subsequently, the reporter *URA*3 gene was used to observe the presence of a specific 2-hybrid interaction between SnRK1 with SE and DCL using SC-Leu-Trp-Ura media plates. The interaction between pEXP™32/Krev1 with pEXP™22/RalGDS-wt was used as a positive control, while pEXP™32/Krev1 against the mutated RalGDS of pEXP™22/RalGDS-m2 was used as a negative control.

#### **3.5.9 Investigating SnRK1 regulation by low sugar and ABA in Arabidopsis**

To understand whether the expression of SnRK1 is regulated through the ABA signalling pathway, low-sugar and ABA, two ABA-insensitive Arabidopsis mutants (*abi1-2* and *abi5-8*) were planted in  $\frac{1}{2}$  MS medium with different treatment combinations. Three treatment arrangements were set up with media supplemented with T1-control (44 mM sucrose, no ABA), T2 (22 mM sucrose, no ABA), T3 (22 mM sucrose, 1 µM ABA). Tissue culture plates were kept at low-light intensity (10  $\mu$ mol m<sup>-2</sup>s<sup>-1</sup>) to reduce photosynthesismediated sugar supplementation. Three biological replicates of the treatments for each genotype were planted with each biological replicate containing approximately 50 plants. Seedlings were collected to determine for the expression levels of SnRK1-related and selected dark induced genes.

#### **3.5.10 Investigating SnRK1 regulation by miR156 in alfalfa**

To investigate whether the expression of SnRK1 was upstream of miR156 upon low sugar and ABA treatment in alfalfa, a *miR156* overexpressing genotype (A17) and WT plants were used. Rooted cuttings of both genotypes were arranged into two treatments: T1 control (15 g/L sucrose, no ABA), and T2 (no sucrose, 100  $\mu$ M ABA). All plant roots were submerged in distilled water and kept at low-light intensity  $(25 \,\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1})$ , and then plant tissues were collected after 4 hrs of ABA treatment. Subsequently, shoot tip leaves were used to investigate the expression levels of SnRK1-related genes.

#### **3.5.11 Investigating** *miR156* **expression dependence on SnRK1 in Arabidopsis**

Arabidopsis seeds used in a previously published work were obtained *in kind* from Dr. Filip Rolland, Department of Biology KU, Leuven, Belgium (Baena-González et al., 2007). Arabidopsis plants with increased (*KIN10*-OX1, *KIN10*-OX2) and silenced (*KIN10*RNAi-1, *KIN10*RNAi-2) expression of the catalytic subunit KIN10, respectively, were used to understand whether *miR156* expression is dependent on activation of SnRK1 during ABA treatment and sugar starvation. The treatment set up was similar to the one used for the investigation of SnRK1 expression by low sugar and ABA (section 3.5.9), except for the genotypes under study. Seedlings were harvested and determined the expression levels of *miR156*.

#### **3.5.12 Data analysis**

Physiological and hormonal data were first checked for normal distribution using a Shapiro-Wilk test in the R-software environment 3.5.2 followed by Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). Subsequently, *post hoc* Tukey multiple comparison tests were done accordingly. RNAseq analysis was performed using Biocluster in a Linux interface using scripts illustrated by Trapnell (2012).

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### **4. General discussion and future research directions**

The frequency and intensity of extreme weather events that are witnessed around the world are well correlated with climate change models that analyzed centuries of fossil records and available weather data (Evans et al., 2018; Hearing et al., 2018; Yeung et al., 2018; Dai and Bloecker, 2019). Subsequently, experiencing '100-year-flooding' events every two to 10 years and prolonged extreme droughts are the new norms in some places around the globe (IPCC, 2019; Marsooli et al., 2019). Furthermore, current climate change models predict frequent weather anomalies that could impact plant production and productivity (Knapp et al., 2008; Sheffield and Wood, 2008; Ward et al., 2013; Dai and Bloecker, 2019; IPCC, 2019). Therefore, to sustain crop production and productivity it is critical to develop cultivars that can tolerate to extreme weather events.

Among plants that are affected by extreme weather events, alfalfa is one of the most important commercial crops grown for various purposes, including human food, animal feed, and bioenergy feedstock (Bora and Sharma, 2011; Bhattarai et al., 2013; Humphries et al., 2018). Despite the importance of alfalfa, its production, productivity, and acreage have been declining over the years (Berhongaray et al., 2019). New plant improvement strategies use molecular marker-assisted breeding tools to enhance stress tolerance and crop yield (Collard and Mackill, 2008). As potential molecular markers, non-proteincoding microRNAs conserved across different plant species are contemplated for improving plant performance. In the current research, I investigated the role of miR156 and its target *SPL13* and other downstream genes in response to drought and flooding stress in alfalfa, which can be further exploited as molecular markers.

Commonalities and differences are observed in plants responding to drought and flooding, even though they are caused by two extremes of water availability. For example, aerenchyma tissue was observed in flooding-exposed Carex species facilitating root aeration (Visser et al., 2000). Similarly, root cortical aerenchyma developed in maize under drought, accounting for 50% less root respiration per unit root length (Zhu et al., 2010). The conserved energy in maize was associated with root elongation and other physiological functions to cope with the drought stress. Despite the benefits of root aerenchyma formation in maize, the cavitation should not be large enough to cause an embolism affecting hydraulic conductance (Vasellati et al., 2001). At a molecular level, ROS induction increased with both flooding and drought stresses due to inefficient cellular processes in chloroplast, mitochondrian, and peroxisomes (Asada, 2006). Elevated ROS levels trigger various plant stress tolerance mechanisms, among which tolerant alfalfa cultivars induce ROS-scavenging metabolites (Chapter 2, 3). Contrary to a common aerenchyma formation, differences were also observed in roots exposed to these drought and flood stresses. For example, drought-tolerant plants tended to increase root hair formation (Chapter 2) likely to maximize root surface area while there were lacking in flood stressed plants (Vasellati et al., 2001). Apart from the similarities and differences of responses to these stresses, understanding their regulation mechanism is crucial in developing tolerant cultivars.

#### **4.1 microRNA156 and its role in alfalfa abiotic stress regulation**

The non-protein coding regulatory miR156 affected different aspects of alfalfa, such as delayed flowering (Aung et al., 2015a), increased branching (Aung et al., 2015b), increased heat- (Mathews et al., 2019), drought- (Arshad et al., 2017a; Chapter 2) and flood-stress tolerance (Chapter 3). These roles of miR156 came to exist through the sequence-specific downregulation of SPL that positively and negatively regulate the expression of downstream genes. Fine-tuning the effect of miR156 by other microRNAs is important, such as miR172 in regulating developmental stage transition (Wang et al., 2015). However, tweaking the microRNAs role was also seen to be dictated by the phytohormone signaling network, indicating the complex regulatory mechanisms. For example, anther and ovule development in Arabidopsis were regulated by miR167 which affects auxin biosynthesis (Wu et al., 2006) while ABA- and gibberellin-responsive miR159 increased seed germination (Reyes and Chua, 2007) and induced flower development (Achard et al., 2004), respectively.

miR156 expression levels are triggered by various intrinsic and extrinsic factors. The intrinsic factors include other regulatory microRNAs, tissue specificity (Chapter 2), and enhanced microRNA biogenesis genes, such as SERRATE (SE), DICER-LIKE1 (DCL1), HYPONASTIC LEAVES1 (HYL1), their translation and post-translational modifications (Fang and Spector, 2007). Under flooding stress (extrinsic factor), for example, enhanced miR156 transcript levels were attained with increased ABA-dependent SnRK1 expression (Chapter 3). These seemed to be acquired through the interaction between ABA-enhanced SnRK1 and miR156-biogenesis genes at the protein levels. Accordingly, forthcoming investigation of protein-protein interaction between SnRK1 and miR156 biogenesis protein with their transcript variants will unravel in-depth the miR156 regulation mechanisms.

# **4.2 miR156-based stress tolerance in alfalfa involves** *SQUAMOSA PROMOTER-BINDING PROTEIN-LIKE***transcription factors**

miR156 down-regulates the expression levels of *SQUAMOSA PROMOTER-BINDING PROTEIN-LIKE* transcription factors (SPLs) at the posttranscriptional level to cope with abiotic stress (Gao et al., 2016; Arshad et al., 2017a; Feyissa et al., 2019). Apart from SPL13, miR156 was previously found to down-regulate six other SPLs (SPL2, SPL3, SPL4, SPL6, SPL9, and SPL12) in alfalfa (Gao et al., 2016). In the current study, nine novel SPLs (SPL1, SPL1a, SPL2a, SPL7, SPL7a, SPL8, SPL13a, SPL14, and SPL16) were discovered (Chapter 3) whereby SPL7a, SPL8, and SPL13a were found to be downregulated and direct targets of miR156 under flooding in a sequence-specific manner. Apart from these, further characterization of the other newly identified SPLs would shed light on their potential role in alfalfa's response to abiotic stress, and potentially other functions. Moreover, I observed the presence of SPL13-interacting proteins using FASP-based proteomics, but validating the peptide sequences was difficult using the *Medicago truncatula* genome as a reference and results were not presented in the thesis. When the alfalfa genome sequence becomes publicly available, these SPL13 interacting proteins may be identified with high confidence. Apart from the proteome analysis, the use of alfalfa genome as a reference in RNAseq analysis will resolve the lack of better genome coverage to map transcripts.

Understanding the molecular function of miR156 and its target SPL genes in alfalfa's response to abiotic stress will provide an important molecular tool that can be used in marker-assisted improvement of not only alfalfa, but potentially also other crops. Results described in my PhD thesis provide an insight into these molecular mechanisms towards water stress, but further research is clearly required to fully realize the potential of the miR156/SPL network in crop improvement. RNAseq raw data used in the flooding-stress (accession number PRJNA596791) and drought –stress experiments (accession number PRJNA598830) are available online through the national center for biotechnology information sequence archive to be used as a resource in future studies.

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## **Appendices**



## **Figure A1Alignment of sequences amplified by qRT-PCR from** *Medicago sativa* **with**

#### **those of their counterparts in** *Medicago truncatula***.**

M. tr in the upper panel for each gene satnds for *M. truncatula* nucleotide sequence while lower panel labeled with M. st corresponds to *M. sativa* nucleotide sequence followed by gene name: *DIHYDROFLAVONOL 4-REDUCTASE (DFR), MYB112, PHOTOSYSTEM I p700 CHLOROPHYLL A APOPROTEIN APS I (PSI), PHOTOSYSTEM II Q(b) (PSII), FLAVONOID GLUCOSYLTRANSFERASE2 (FGT2), PHENYLALANINE AMMONIA-LYASE (PAL), DEHYDRATION RESPONSIVE RD-22-LIKE (DRR)*

GGATGGCTCGTTTAGCTATTTTTCAGCAAGATCAAGGGTGAGGCTGTGATGTATATTGTAGATGGAAATATTTTCA ACGGAAATATGTACTGGCATCTTTAATTAGTAATTGAGGCACATATGCACAGCTCAATTGTAACAAGGCAGTTAAA AGCCATACCAACAATCAGGGGCAGACATAGACTCACCTCAAAGTTAGTAGGGCAAGAATTTTCTGTCGAATAATTA GACACGTGTTCTTAAGAATTAAAAAAAAATACCATACCCCTTACTAATGTACAAGTAAAAATACAAACACGTGTAT ATATTAAAAAAAATTAGATTCATGTATTAATTATTAATATAGGTAAAAATATAGTCACATGTATAAACATAAAAG ATTGTCCATACCATTTGAGCTAAGCTCCTGAGGACAAATTAATACTTGAGTAAAACTATAAAGTAAACATTATAATA AAAAATGTTTATAAAAAAAAAAACTTGGTTTGGCACTTGCCAATTCTCTCTTTGACAAAAAT

#### **Figure A2 Promoter sequence of the alfalfa** *DIHYDROFLAVONOL-4-REDUCTASE*

#### **(***DFR***) gene with putative SBD binding elements.**

Nucleotides are highlighted with **green**, yellow and gray color represents putative SBD binding motifs with 'GTAC' core sequences, forward primer sequences used for ChIPqPCR, and coding sequences of *DIHYDROFLAVONOL 4-REDUCTASE (DFR)* respectively.

CCCAGTTCGATGTAACCCACTCGTGCACCCAACTGATCTTCAGCATCTTTTACTTTCACCAGCGTTTCTGGGTGAGC AAAAACAGGAAGGCAAAATGCCGCAAAAAAGGGAATAAGGGCGACACGGAAATGTTGAATACTCATACTCTTCC TTTTTCAATATTATTGAAGCATTTATCAGGGTTATTGTCTCATGAGCGGATACATATTTGAATGTATTTAGAAAAAT AAACAAATAGGGGTTCCGCGCACATTTCCCCGAAAAGTGCCACCTGACGTCTAAGAAACCATTATTATCATGACAT TAACCTATAAAAATAGGCGTATCACGAGGCCGCCCCTGCAGCCGAATTATATTATTTTGCCAAATAATTTTAACA AAAGCTCTGAAGTCTTCTTCATTTAAATTCTTAGATGATACTTCATCTGGAAAATTGTCCCAATTAGTAGCATCACGC TGTGAGTAAGTTCTAAACCATTTTTTTATTGTTGTATTATCTCTAATCTTACTCGATGAGTTTTCGGTATTATCTC TATTTTTAACTTGGAGCAGGTTCCATTCATTGTTTTTTCATCATAGTGAATAAAATCAACTGCTTTAACACTTGTGC CTGAACACCATATCCATCCGGCGTAATACGACTCACTATAGGGAGAGCGGCCGCCAGATCTTCCGGATGGCTCGA GTTTTTCAGCAAGATACTATAGGGCACGCGTGGTCGACGGCCCGGCTGGTTCATTTGGAGTAGTGTAGGAAACAC CCAACACATTTTGAATACCATATAAAGAACCTGCCTCCAACTTCTTCAAAGGATTGCCATTAAGTTCCAACAAAGGG GTTTCCGGAATTTGCGAGCCTTCGTCATCCAAGTTTAATTGCTCTTGGATTGGAATTGATTTGTCAATTTCTCCCTTT TTTTGTCAAATTGATTTAAATTTCAGATTGGTCTTTAAATAACTGCCGACACCGAGAAAATCGCGTGTAGGAACAAC **GGACTAC** 

#### **Figure A3 Nucleotide sequence of the alfalfa** *WD40-1* **promoter region**

Nucleotides highlighted with gray color represent coding sequences of *WD40-1* in *M. sativa*.



# **Figure A4 Differentially affected biological processes tree map between** *SPL13***RNAi and EV leaf tissues under drought stress** Differentially expressed genes that have similar biological processes are represented with same colour, and placed in one box when they are from same pathway.





#### **Figure A5 Differentially affected molecular functions tree map and GO term clouds used for constructing tree maps between**

#### *SPL13***RNAi and EV leaf tissues under drought stress**

Differentially expressed genes that have similar molecular functions are represented with same colour, and placed in one box when they are from same pathway.



**Figure A6 Differentially affected biological processes tree map between** *SPL13***RNAi and EV stem tissues under drought stress** Differentially expressed genes that have similar biological processes are represented with same colour, and placed in one box when they are from same pathway.



**Figure A7 Differentially affected molecular functions tree map and GO term clouds used for constructing tree maps between** 

#### *SPL13***RNAi and EV stem tissues under drought stress**

Differentially expressed genes that have similar molecular functions are represented with same colour, and placed in one box when they are from same pathway.



**Figure A8 Differentially affected biological processes tree map between** *SPL13***RNAi and EV root tissues under drought stress** Differentially expressed genes that have similar biological processes are represented with same colour and placed in one box when they are from same pathway.



## **Figure A9 Differentially affected molecular functions tree map and GO term clouds used for constructing tree maps between**  *SPL13***RNAi and EV root tissues under drought stress**

Differentially expressed genes that have similar molecular functions are represented with same colour and placed in one box when they are from same pathway.



**Figure A10 Performance of different alfalfa genotypes with altered expression of SPLs (SPLRNAi) and miR156** 

#### **overexpression in response to flooding stress.**

**(A)** Plant vigor at 6 week post flood, **(B)** Plant height at 6 week post flood, **(C)** Dry matter at 6 week post flood, **(D)** Plant vigor at 12 week post flood, **(E)** Plant height at 12 week post flood, and **(F)** Dry matter, 12 week post flood.





**Figure A12 Transcript levels of flooding-responsive differentially expressed genes under flooding.**

**(A)** Transcript levels of GDSL-like lipase/ acylhydrolase and Pmr5/Cas1p GDSL/SGNH-like acyl-esterase, fold change in **(B)** reticuline oxidase-like protein gene, **(C)** *SnRK1*, and **(D)** ABA insensitive, ABI and responsive elements, ABRE.



### **Figure A13 Newly found MsSPLs and their nuclear localization signals.**

Amino acid sequence and predicted nuclear localization sequence, NLS of the newly found MsSPLs. Amino acid sequences in red font are predicted NLS using [http://nls-mapper.iab.keio.ac.jp/cgi-bin/NLS\\_Mapper\\_form.cgi](http://nls-mapper.iab.keio.ac.jp/cgi-bin/NLS_Mapper_form.cgi) online tool.

**Table A1 List of primers used and their nucleotide sequences**

| No.            | Primer        | Name of the gene                | <b>Forward primer/ Reverse primer</b> | Origin    | <b>Use</b>   |
|----------------|---------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------------------|-----------|--------------|
| $\mathbf{1}$   | <b>DFR</b>    | Dihydroflavonol 4-reductase     | <b>GTTTGTGTCACAGGGGCTTC</b>           | <b>MT</b> | qRT-PCR      |
|                |               |                                 | TTCAAGTTTTCTGGGTCGCG                  |           |              |
|                | $2$ proDFR-1  | Dihydroflavonol 4-reductase     | CAAGGGTGAGGCTGTGATGT                  | <b>MS</b> | ChIP-qPCR    |
|                |               | promoter region I               | CTGCCCCTGATTGTTGGTAT                  |           |              |
|                | 3 proDFR-2    | Dihydroflavonol 4-reductase     | GGCAGACATAGACTCACC                    | <b>MS</b> | $ChIP-qPCR$  |
|                |               | promoter region II              | <b>GCAATTGTGACTTGCTTC</b>             |           |              |
|                | 4 proDFR-3    | Dihydroflavonol 4-reductase     | <b>CCATACCCCTTACTAATGTAC</b>          | <b>MS</b> | ChIP-qPCR    |
|                |               | promoter region III             | CAAATGGTATGGACAATGC                   |           |              |
| 5 <sup>5</sup> | $proDFR1-$    | Dihydroflavonol 4-reductase     | TTAGGGTGAGGCTGTGATGT                  | MT        | DFR promoter |
|                | <b>MTR</b>    | promoter 1                      | <b>TCCATCACCACACTCTCTTG</b>           |           |              |
| 6              | $proDFR2-$    | Dihydroflavonol 4-reductase     | TGCATCTAACAGTCCCTTGC                  | <b>MT</b> | DFR promoter |
|                | <b>MTR</b>    | promoter 2                      | <b>TCCATCACCACACTCTCTTG</b>           |           |              |
| $\tau$         | $proDFR3-$    | Dihydroflavonol 4-reductase     | AGGGTGAGGCTGTGATGTAT                  | <b>MT</b> | DFR promoter |
|                | <b>MTR</b>    | promoter 3                      | <b>ACCCAGTACCTCCAGTTA</b>             |           |              |
| 8              | LOB1          | Lateral organ baundaries-Like 1 | AAGTGTTGGGGAAGTAGTGGAG                | <b>MS</b> | ChIP-qPCR    |
|                |               |                                 | <b>GCGAAACGCAATGATGAATGTA</b>         |           |              |
| 9              | <b>MYB112</b> | myb transcription factor 112    | TGGGTGATGGAGGTGAAGAA                  | <b>MT</b> | $qRT-PCR$    |
|                |               |                                 | CACCGTTGTTTGAGGTTTGG                  |           |              |
| 10             | $WD40-1$      | WD40-1 transcription factor     | GGATGAATCTGTGAACGCCG                  | <b>MT</b> | qRT-PCR      |
|                |               |                                 | CTTTGTCCACGGCTCAAACA                  |           |              |
| 11             | PSI           | Photosystem I P700 chlorophyll  | GCTACTAGGACTTGGGTCTCTTTC              | <b>MT</b> | $qRT-PCR$    |
|                |               | A                               | AGGAAGTGGGATCTCTTTGG                  |           |              |
| 12             | PSII          | Photosystem II $Q(B)$           | CGCAGCTCCTCCAGTAGATATT                | MT        | qRT-PCR      |
|                |               |                                 | CCGCCGAAGTAGGAATAATG                  |           |              |









AT, *Arabidopsis thaliana*; MS*, M. sativa*; MT: *M. truncatula*

| <b>Buffers</b> | <b>Chemicals</b>       | Concentration    | <b>Buffers</b> | <b>Chemicals</b>       | Concentration     |
|----------------|------------------------|------------------|----------------|------------------------|-------------------|
| Extraction     | Sucrose                | 0.4 <sub>M</sub> | Extraction     | Sucrose                | 0.25 <sub>M</sub> |
| buffer 1       | Tris-HCl               | $10 \text{ mM}$  | buffer 2       | Tris-HCl               | $10 \text{ mM}$   |
|                | $(pH=8)$               |                  |                | $(pH=8)$               |                   |
|                | MgCl <sub>2</sub>      | $10 \text{ mM}$  |                | MgCl <sub>2</sub>      | $10 \text{ mM}$   |
|                | $\beta$ -ME            | $5 \text{ mM}$   |                | Triton X-100           | 1%                |
|                | <b>PMSF</b>            | $0.1$ mM         |                | $\beta$ -ME            | $5 \text{ mM}$    |
|                | Protease               | 2 tablets/       |                | <b>PMSF</b>            | $0.1$ mM          |
|                | inhibitor <sup>1</sup> | $100$ mL         |                | Protease               | 1 tablet/10 mL    |
|                |                        |                  |                | inhibitor <sup>1</sup> |                   |
| Extraction     | Sucrose                | 1.7 <sub>M</sub> | Nuclei lysis   | Tris-HCl               | 50 mM             |
| buffer 3       |                        |                  | buffer         | $(pH=8)$               |                   |
|                | Tris-HCl               | $10 \text{ mM}$  |                | <b>EDTA</b>            | $10 \text{ mM}$   |
|                | $(pH=8)$               |                  |                |                        |                   |
|                | MgCl <sub>2</sub>      | $2 \text{ mM}$   |                | <b>SDS</b>             | 1%                |
|                | Triton X-100           | 0.15%            |                | Protease               | 1 tablet/10 mL    |
|                |                        |                  |                | inhibitor <sup>1</sup> |                   |
|                | $\beta$ -ME            | $5 \text{ mM}$   | ChIP           | Triton X-100           | 1.10%             |
|                | <b>PMSF</b>            | $0.1$ mM         | dilution       | <b>EDTA</b>            | $1.2 \text{ mM}$  |
|                | Protease               | 1 tablet/10 mL   | buffer         | Tris-HCl               | 16.7 mM           |
|                | inhibitor <sup>1</sup> |                  |                | $(pH=8)$               |                   |
|                | Sucrose                | 1.7 <sub>M</sub> |                | NaCl                   | 167 mM            |
| Elution        | <b>SDS</b>             | 1%               | High salt      | <b>SDS</b>             | 0.10%             |
| buffer         | NaHCO <sub>3</sub>     | 0.1M             | wash buffer    | Triton X-100           | 1%                |
| Low salt       | <b>SDS</b>             | 0.10%            |                | <b>EDTA</b>            | $2 \text{ mM}$    |
| wash buffer    | Triton X-100           | 1%               |                | Tris-HCl $pH=8$ )      | $20 \text{ mM}$   |
|                | <b>EDTA</b>            | $2 \text{ mM}$   |                | <b>NaCl</b>            | $500$ mM          |
|                | Tris-HCl               | $20 \text{ mM}$  | LiCl wash      | <b>LiCl</b>            | 0.25 <sub>M</sub> |
|                | $(pH=8)$               |                  | buffer         |                        |                   |
|                | NaCl                   | 150 mM           |                | IGEPAL-CA630           | 1%                |
|                |                        |                  |                | Deoxycholic            | 1%                |
|                |                        |                  |                | acid                   |                   |
| TE buffer      | <b>EDTA</b>            | $1 \text{ mM}$   |                | <b>EDTA</b>            | $1 \text{ mM}$    |
|                | Tris-HCl               | $10 \text{ mM}$  |                | Tris-HCl               | $10 \text{ mM}$   |
|                | $(pH=8)$               |                  |                | $(pH=8)$               |                   |

**Table A2 Buffers used in ChIP assay and their components** 

<sup>1</sup> Obtained from Sigma-Aldrich, Canada

| No. | Gene          | <b>Function</b>                                       | No. | Gene          | <b>Function</b>                      |
|-----|---------------|---|-----|---------------|--------------------------------------|
|     | Medtr2g008110 | Vacuolar iron transporter-like                        | 18  | Medtr2g072940 | PPR containing protein, putative     |
|     |               | protein   |     |               |                                      |
| 2   | Medtr6g007897 | Gibberellin-regulated family                          | 19  | Medtr5g095960 | Nicotinamide mononucleotide          |
|     |               | protein   |     |               | adenylyltransferase, putative        |
| 3   | Medtr5g098420 | Fasciclin-like arabinogalactan<br>protein             | 20  | Medtr5g097480 | GRAS family transcription factor     |
| 4   | Medtr7g020820 | Proline dehydrogenase                                 | 21  | Medtr5g088990 | Plastocyanin-like domain protein     |
| 5   | Medtr4g079700 | Pmr5/Cas1p GDSL/SGNH-like                             | 22  | Medtr2g079120 | VQ motif protein                     |
|     |               | acyl-esterase family protein                          |     |               |                                      |
| 6   | Medtr5g090100 | LRR receptor-like kinase                              | 23  | Medtr2g022610 | Hypothetical protein                 |
|     | Medtr7g070050 | Abscisic acid receptor                                | 24  | Medtr5g017650 | Plant cadmium resistance protein     |
| 8   | Medtr8g064180 | Xyloglucan  | 25  | Medtr5g074400 | WRKY transcription factor            |
|     |               | endotransglucosylase/hydrolase                        |     |               |                                      |
|     |               | family protein  |     |               |                                      |
| 9   | Medtr5g081860 | MYB transcription factor MYB51                        | 26  | Medtr5g089370 | Synaptobrevin-like protein           |
| 10  | Medtr5g089110 | F-box plant-like protein                              | 27  | Medtr5g075710 | RNA-binding KH domain protein        |
| 11  | Medtr5g077430 | LRR receptor-like kinase                              | 28  | Medtr5g077280 | Transmembrane protein, putative      |
| 12  | Medtr5g088550 | Hypothetical protein                                  | 29  | Medtr5g076250 | Lecithin retinol acyltransferase     |
| 13  | Medtr5g073180 | Hypothetical protein                                  | 30  | Medtr5g082620 | Phosphatidylinositol-specific        |
|     |               |   |     |               | phospholipase C                      |
| 14  | Medtr3g071740 | Polyketide cyclase/dehydrase and<br>lipid transporter | 31  | Medtr5g089190 | Las1 family protein, putative        |
| 15  | Medtr5g081850 | Fcf2 pre-rRNA processing protein                      | 32  | Medtr2g075410 | Brassinazole-resistant 1 protein     |
| 16  | Medtr5g092560 | DEAD-box ATP-dependent RNA                            | 33  | Medtr5g093580 | Co-factor for nitrate, reductase and |
|     |               | helicase-like protein                                 |     |               | xanthine dehydrogenase               |
| 17  | Medtr7g106450 | <b>CCAAT-binding transcription</b>                    | 34  | Medtr5g071070 | ARM repeat CCCH-type zinc finger     |
|     |               | factor  |     |               | protein                              |

**Table A3 Increased differentially expressed genes and their functions common in all tissues of** *SPL13***RNAi plants** 





| No. | Gene           | <b>Function</b>                    | No. | Gene          | <b>Function</b>                        |
|-----|----------------|------------------------------------|-----|---------------|--|
|     | Medtr2g095440  | ABC transporter family protein     | 17  | Medtr3g464580 | Asparagine synthetase [glutamine-      |
|     |                |                                    |     |               | hydrolyzing] protein                   |
|     | Medtr3g108800  | Plasma membrane H+-ATPase          | 18  | Medtr2g013060 | Allantoinase                           |
| 3   | Medtr3g087490  | PLAT-plant-stress protein          | 19  | Medtr8g088110 | Cold acclimation protein WCOR413       |
| 4   | Medtr4g120130  | Glyoxysomal fatty acid beta-       | 20  | Medtr8g107370 | Phosphoethanolamine N-                 |
|     |                | oxidation MFP-A protein            |     |               | methyltransferase                      |
| 5   | Medtr6g007170  | D-glycerate dehydrogenase/         | 21  | Medtr2g042330 | NAD-dependent aldehyde                 |
|     |                | hydroxypyruvate reductase          |     |               | dehydrogenase family protein           |
| 6   | Medtr3g064140  | Class I glutamine                  | 22  | Medtr4g037690 | Transmembrane amino acid               |
|     |                | amidotransferase superfamily pr.   |     |               | transporter family protein             |
|     | Medtr4g009960  | Eukaryotic translation initiation  | 23  | Medtr1g092860 | RNA-binding (RRM/RBD/RNP motif)        |
|     |                | factor 3 subunit                   |     |               | family protein, putative               |
| 8   | Medtr4g134290  | 6-Phosphofructokinase              | 24  | Medtr2g018780 | Early-responsive to dehydration stress |
|     |                |                                    |     |               | protein (ERD4)                         |
| 9   | Medtr3g087950  | Gamma-glutamyltranspeptidase       | 25  | Medtr4g011620 | Drug resistance transporter-like ABC   |
|     |                |                                    |     |               | domain protein                         |
| 10  | Medtr8g070540  | CTP synthase-like protein          | 26  | Medtr3g101780 | ABA response element-binding factor    |
| 11  | Medtr1g115500  | <b>Glutathione S-transferase</b>   | 27  | Medtr4g006320 | Translation initiation factor IF-2     |
| 12  | Medtr8g463180  | Plastocyanin-like domain protein   | 28  | Medtr5g038380 | Peptide/nitrate transporter plant      |
| 13  | Medtr8g089180  | UDP-D-glucose/UDP-D-galactose      | 29  | Medtr5g035090 | Pmr5/Cas1p GDSL/SGNH-like acyl-        |
|     |                | 4-epimerase                        |     |               | esterase family protein                |
| 14  | Medtr0110s0020 | Glycoside hydrolase family 1       | 30  | Medtr7g091880 | Galactinol-raffinose                   |
|     |                | protein                            |     |               | galactosyltransferase                  |
| 15  | Medtr3g082150  | Glucose-1-phosphate                | 31  | Medtr7g027175 | Omega-hydroxypalmitate O-feruloyl      |
|     |                | adenylyltransferase family protein |     |               | transferase                            |
| 16  | Medtr2g046150  | DUF538 family protein              | 32  | Medtr5g025750 | Transmembrane protein, putative        |

**Table A4 Top 50 out of 154 decreased differentially expressed genes and their functions common to all** *SPL13***RNAi tissues** 



**Table A5 Top 50 out of 2824 increased differentially expressed genes and their functions which are specific to** *SPL13***RNAi leaf tissues**  $\overline{\phantom{0}}$ 

| No. | Gene          | <b>Function</b>   | No. | Gene             | <b>Function</b>                                     |
|-----|---------------|---|-----|------------------|---|
|     | Medtr6g486230 | Transmembrane protein, putative                                 | 19  | Medtr8g479390    | Multi-copper oxidase-like protein                   |
| 2   | Medtr1g069085 | Hypothetical protein  | 20  | Medtr7g063560    | Hypothetical protein                                |
| 3   | Medtr8g469010 | Ribonucleoside-diphosphate                                      | 21  | Medtr4g122270    | DNA replication licensing factor                    |
|     |               | reductase small chain   |     |                  | MCM2, putative                                      |
| 4   | Medtr5g094310 | Kinesin motor domain protein                                    | 22  | Medtr4g096700    | DNA replication licensing factor<br>MCM4            |
| 5   | Medtr6g032885 | ARM repeat protein  | 23  | Medtr7g104720    | Glutaredoxin (GRX) family protein                   |
| 6   | Medtr7g013610 | Core histone H2A/H2B/H3/H4                                      | 24  | Medtr7g113830    | Transcription factor                                |
|     | Medtr1g093900 | Piriformospora indica-insensitive-<br>like protein              | 25  | Medtr8g006420    | Hypothetical protein                                |
| 8   | Medtr3g466760 | Expansin A10  | 26  | Medtr2g070870    | Plant gibberellin 2-oxidase                         |
| 9   | Medtr3g089570 | Pollen Ole e I family allergen                                  | 27  | Medtr7g033570    | Cytochrome P450 family protein                      |
| 10  | Medtr4g072190 | SAUR-like auxin-responsive                                      | 28  | Medtr8g075950    | Chalcone-flavanone isomerase family                 |
|     |               | family protein  |     |                  | protein   |
| 11  | Medtr8g087890 | GDSL-like lipase/acylhydrolase                                  | 29  | Medtr5g066320    | Chromosome-associated kinesin<br>KIF4A-like protein |
| 12  | Medtr3g072840 | Camphor resistance CrcB-like<br>protein                         | 30  | Medtr3g014290    | Aspartic proteinase nepenthesin-like<br>protein     |
| 13  | Medtr7g093910 | Core histone H2A/H2B/H3/H4                                      | 31  | Medtr8g086520    | Nucleobase-ascorbate transporter-like               |
|     |               |   |     |                  | protein   |
| 14  | Medtr5g014300 | NAC transcription factor-like<br>protein                        | 32  | Medtr6g028030    | Annexin D8  |
| 15  | Medtr8g090000 | Minichromosome maintenance<br>(MCM2/3/5) family protein         | 33  | Medtr $3g102660$ | GASA/GAST/Snakin                                    |
| 16  | Medtr4g019880 | GDSL-like lipase/acylhydrolase                                  | 35  | Medtr $5g029770$ | Core histone H2A/H2B/H3/H4                          |
| 17  | Medtr2g100070 | Glucose-methanol-choline (GMC)<br>oxidoreductase family protein | 36  | Medtr7g114870    | IQ calmodulin-binding motif protein                 |





**Table A6 Top 50 out of 572 increased differentially expressed genes and their functions which are specific to** *SPL13***RNAi stem tissues**

| No. | Gene          | <b>Function</b>                     | No. | Gene          | <b>Function</b>                                       |
|-----|---------------|-------------------------------------|-----|---------------|---|
| 1   | Medtr8g035880 | Zinc-binding dehydrogenase          | 17  | Medtr5g093530 | Exocyst subunit exo70 family protein                  |
|     |               | family oxidoreductase               |     |               |   |
| 2   | Medtr5g081070 | Hypothetical protein                | 18  | Medtr3g012420 | Nodulin MtN21/EamA-like transporter<br>family protein |
| 3   | Medtr3g084960 | Transmembrane amino acid            | 19  | Medtr2g099010 | Salt tolerance-like protein                           |
|     |               | transporter family protein          |     |               |   |
| 4   | Medtr7g100100 | Cys2-His2 zinc finger transcription | 20  | Medtr8g077420 | MYB family transcription factor                       |
|     |               | factor                              |     |               |   |
| 5   | Medtr4g128590 | Xyloglucan                          | 21  | Medtr3g102980 | C2H2-type zinc finger protein                         |
|     |               | endotransglucosylase/hydrolase      |     |               |   |
|     |               | family protein                      |     |               |   |
| 6   | Medtr4g100420 | Ethylene response factor            | 22  | Medtr1g108640 | DUF4228 domain protein                                |
|     | Medtr7g071050 | UDP-glucosyltransferase family      | 23  | Medtr8g090350 | Ethylene response factor                              |
|     |               | protein                             |     |               |   |
| 8   | Medtr2g020850 | Transmembrane protein, putative     | 24  | Medtr2g102060 | Small GTPase family RAB protein                       |
| 9   | Medtr3g070880 | ARM repeat CCCH-type zinc           | 25  | Medtr8g098485 | BTB/POZ domain plant protein                          |
|     |               | finger protein                      |     |               |   |
| 10  | Medtr2g081580 | Calcium-binding EF-hand protein     | 26  | Medtr4g131720 | Hypothetical protein                                  |
| 11  | Medtr8g068520 | Transmembrane protein               | 27  | Medtr8g089920 | Avr9/Cf-9 rapidly elicited protein,                   |
|     |               |                                     |     |               | putative  |
| 12  | Medtr3g070230 | Nematode resistance HSPRO2-like     | 28  | Medtr7g093030 | Myb-like transcription factor family                  |
|     |               | protein                             |     |               | protein   |
| 13  | Medtr1g013410 | Transmembrane protein               | 29  | Medtr7g106340 | E3 ubiquitin-protein ligase PUB23-like                |
|     |               |                                     |     |               | protein   |
| 14  | Medtr8g069835 | Hypothetical protein                | 30  | Medtr8g106530 | Transmembrane protein, putative                       |
| 15  | Medtr7g112500 | Transmembrane protein, putative     |     |               |   |

| 16  |               | Medtr5g087440 Hypothetical protein                             |
|-----|---------------|--|
| No. | Gene          | <b>Function</b>  |
| 31  |               | Medtr1g105860 Cysteine-rich RLK (receptor-like kinase) protein |
| 32  | Medtr1g098690 | Hsp20/alpha crystallin family protein                          |
| 33  | Medtr3g088520 | Beta-like galactosidase  |
| 34  |               | Medtr3g104560 Cytochrome P450 family protein                   |
| 35  |               | Medtr1g100777 Heat shock transcription factor B2A              |
| 36  | Medtr5g069640 | Acyl-CoA thioesterase, putative                                |
| 37  | Medtr2g006850 | <b>Hypothetical protein</b>                                    |
| 38  |               | Medtr5g066730 BTB/POZ domain plant protein                     |
| 39  |               | Medtr2g014830 NB-LRR type disease resistance protein           |
| 40  |               | Medtr1g077790 Plastocyanin-like domain protein                 |
| 41  | Medtr5g090740 | AAA domain protein   |
| 42  | Medtr7g084760 | Xyloglucan endotransglucosylase/hydrolase family protein       |
| 43  | Medtr4g061300 | Hypothetical protein   |
| 44  |               | Medtr2g086770 Transmembrane protein, putative                  |
| 45  | Medtr2g097620 | Zinc finger, C3HC4 type (RING finger) protein, putative        |
| 46  | Medtr2g436900 | C2 domain protein  |
| 47  | Medtr4g116273 | Hypothetical protein   |
| 48  | Medtr2g017970 | Fasciclin domain protein                                       |
| 49  | Medtr1g021730 | Inositol polyphosphate 5-phosphatase I                         |
| 50  | Medtr8g022310 | Chaperone DnaJ domain protein                                  |

**Table A7 Top 50 out of 385 increased differentially expressed genes and their functions which are specific to** *SPL13***RNAi root tissues**  $\overline{\phantom{0}}$ 

| No. | Gene          | <b>Function</b>                                  | No. | Gene          | <b>Function</b>  |
|-----|---------------|--|-----|---------------|--|
|     | Medtr3g103260 | Hypothetical protein                             |     |               |  |
| 2   | Medtr5g066020 | AT hook motif DNA-binding                        | 17  | Medtr1g041285 | EF hand calcium-binding family                               |
|     |               | family protein                                   |     |               | protein  |
| 3   | Medtr3g063120 | $(3S)$ -linalool/ $(E)$ -nerolidol/ $(E,E)$ -    | 18  | Medtr8g014930 | LRR receptor-like kinase                                     |
|     |               | geranyl linalool synthase                        |     |               |  |
| 4   | Medtr8g054490 | Hypothetical protein                             | 19  | Medtr1g030630 | Heavy metal transport/detoxification                         |
|     |               |  |     |               | superfamily protein  |
| 5   | Medtr3g011890 | Salt stress response/antifungal                  | 20  | Medtr5g075680 | Mn-specific cation diffusion facilitator                     |
|     |               | domain protein                                   |     |               | transporter MTP81  |
| 6   | Medtr2g022430 | Xyloglucanase-specific                           | 21  | Medtr5g021270 | MADS-box transcription factor                                |
|     |               | endoglucanase inhibitor protein                  |     |               |  |
|     | Medtr3g111610 | GNS1/SUR4 membrane family<br>protein             | 22  | Medtr2g039620 | Basic helix loop helix (BHLH) DNA-<br>binding family protein |
| 8   | Medtr2g022330 | Extracellular dermal glycoprotein                | 23  | Medtr8g104520 | Receptor-like kinase   |
|     |               |  |     |               |  |
| 9   | Medtr4g128580 | Xyloglucan                                       | 24  | Medtr7g081780 | LRR receptor-like kinase family<br>protein                   |
|     |               | endotransglucosylase/hydrolase<br>family protein |     |               |  |
| 10  | Medtr7g058830 | Serine/Threonine kinase, plant-                  | 25  | Medtr6g462640 | Cytochrome P450 family 71 protein                            |
|     |               | type protein                                     |     |               |  |
| 11  | Medtr1g096310 | Caffeic acid O-methyltransferase                 | 26  | Medtr5g005520 | Cysteine-rich receptor-kinase-like                           |
|     |               |  |     |               | protein  |
| 12  | Medtr5g005530 | Cysteine-rich receptor-like kinase               | 27  | Medtr8g018510 | Seed linoleate 9S-lipoxygenase                               |
| 13  | Medtr2g435310 | Pathogenesis-related protein bet V               | 28  | Medtr5g083030 | Ubiquitin-protein ligase, PUB17                              |
|     |               | I family protein                                 |     |               |  |
| 14  | Medtr6g016640 | Proline dehydrogenase                            | 29  | Medtr3g102450 | Receptor-like kinase   |
| 15  | Medtr8g095030 | LRR receptor-like kinase                         | 30  | Medtr8g066850 | Transmembrane protein, putative                              |



| <b>Biological process (top 45)</b>                    | <b>Molecular function</b>  | <b>Cellular component</b>              |
|---|--|--|
| Telomere maintenance                                  | Phosphorelay response regulator<br>activity                                    | Extracellular region                   |
| Translation   | Transcription factor activity, sequence-<br>specific DNA binding               | Microtubule associated complex         |
| Alcohol metabolic process                             | Transcription cofactor activity  | Ribosome                               |
| Glutamine catabolic process                           | Structural constituent of ribosome   | Nuclear pore                           |
| Porphyrin-containing compound biosynthetic<br>process | Catalytic activity   | Phosphopyruvate hydratase<br>complex   |
| Mo-molybdopterin cofactor biosynthetic<br>process     | Uroporphyrinogen decarboxylase<br>activity                                     | Photosystem I                          |
| Response to metal ion                                 | Signal transducer activity   | <b>Nucleus</b>                         |
| Glycerol ether metabolic process                      | Rho GDP-dissociation inhibitor activity  | Chromatin                              |
| Cellular amino acid metabolic process                 | Structural molecule activity   | Golgi transport complex                |
| Pseudouridine synthesis                               | binding  | Mitochondrial matrix                   |
| Nucleobase-containing compound metabolic<br>process   | Calcium ion binding  | Intracellular                          |
| tRNA processing                                       | Electron carrier activity  | Core TFIIH complex                     |
| Allantoin catabolic process                           | Hydrolase activity, hydrolyzing O-<br>Glycosyl compounds                       | Cytoplasm                              |
| Regulation of nitrogen utilization                    | Peroxidase activity  | Transcription factor TFIIA complex     |
| L-arabinose metabolic process                         | Carbon-nitrogen ligase activity, with<br>Glutamine as amido-N-donor            | Signal peptidase complex               |
| mRNA splicing, via spliceosome                        | Intramolecular transferase activity  | Protein phosphatase type 2A<br>complex |
| Mature ribosome assembly                              | Transferase activity, transferring alkyl<br>or aryl (other than methyl) groups | Endoplasmic reticulum                  |
| Polysaccharide catabolic process                      | Isomerase activity   | Origin recognition complex             |

**Table A8 GO-term analysis represented molecular function, biological process and cellular components in leaf tissues**



## **Biological process (top 45)**

Iron-sulfur cluster assembly NAD biosynthetic process Lignin catabolic process DNA-templated transcription, initiation (obsolete) ATP catabolic process

| <b>Biological process (top 45)</b>                     | <b>Molecular function (top 45)</b>                             | <b>Cellular component</b>             |
|--|--|---------------------------------------|
| (obsolete) ATP catabolic process                       | Acyl-CoA dehydrogenase activity                                | Extracellular region                  |
| Response to stress                                     | Ubiquinol-cytochrome-c reductase activity                      | Chloroplast                           |
| Defense response                                       | Hydroxymethylglutaryl-CoA reductase<br>(NADPH) activity        | Anaphase-promoting complex            |
| Intracellular signal transduction                      | Secondary active sulfate transmembrane<br>transporter activity | Nuclear pore                          |
| Response to desiccation                                | Glutathione peroxidase activity                                | Phosphopyruvate hydratase complex     |
| Phosphorelay signal transduction system                | Peroxidase activity  | Transcription factor TFIIA complex    |
| Metabolic process                                      | Zinc ion transmembrane transporter activity                    | Microtubule associated complex        |
| Cellular process                                       | NADH dehydrogenase (ubiquinone) activity                       | Protein phosphatase type 2A complex   |
| ATP synthesis coupled proton transport                 | Peptide-methionine (S)-S-oxide reductase<br>activity           | Photosystem II                        |
| Carotenoid biosynthetic process                        | Enzyme inhibitor activity                                      | Nucleosome                            |
| Transmembrane transport                                | Endopeptidase inhibitor activity                               | Chromatin                             |
| Alcohol metabolic process                              | Heme binding   | Endoplasmic reticulum                 |
| Mitochondrial transport                                | Adenosylmethionine decarboxylase activity                      | Ubiquitin ligase complex              |
| rRNA processing  | Inorganic diphosphatase activity                               | Membrane                              |
| Glycogen biosynthetic process                          | Adenosylhomocysteinase activity                                | Integral component of plasma membrane |
| Tetrahydrobiopterin biosynthetic process               | Serine-type endopeptidase activity                             | Integral component of membrane        |
| Glycerol ether metabolic process                       | Polygalacturonase activity                                     | Cytoplasm                             |
| Drug transmembrane transport                           | Chitinase activity   | Plasma membrane                       |
| Flavonoid biosynthetic process                         | Microtubule motor activity                                     | Intracellular                         |
| Sucrose metabolic process                              | Nuclease activity  |                                       |
| Glycine decarboxylation via glycine<br>Cleavage system | Intramolecular transferase activity                            |                                       |
| tRNA modification                                      | Peptidyl-prolyl cis-trans isomerase activity                   |                                       |

**Table A9 GO-term analysis represented molecular function, biological process and cellular components in stem tissues**




| <b>Biological process</b>               | <b>Molecular function</b>   | <b>Cellular component</b>              |
|---|---|--|
| (obsolete) ATP catabolic process        | Phosphorelay response regulator activity                            | Phosphopyruvate hydratase<br>complex   |
| Response to stress                      | Transcription factor activity, sequence-specific<br>DNA binding     | Photosystem I                          |
| Defense response                        | Catalytic activity  | Protein phosphatase type 2A<br>complex |
| Intracellular signal transduction       | GTPase activity   | Nucleosome                             |
| Phosphorelay signal transduction system | Secondary active sulfate transmembrane<br>Transporter activity      | Endoplasmic reticulum                  |
| Metabolic process                       | Serine-type carboxypeptidase activity                               | Ubiquitin ligase complex               |
| Metal ion transport                     | Hydrolase activity, hydrolyzing O-glycosyl<br>compounds             | Cytoskeleton                           |
| Transmembrane transport                 | Polygalacturonase activity  | Cytoplasm                              |
| Proton transport                        | Microtubule motor activity  | Intracellular                          |
| Mitochondrial transport                 | ATPase activity, coupled to transmembrane<br>Movement of substances | Extracellular region                   |
| Drug transmembrane transport            | Rho GDP-dissociation inhibitor activity                             | Membrane                               |
| Lipid transport                         | Transporter activity  | Integral component of membrane         |
| Transport                               | Calcium ion binding   |  |
| Cation transport                        | Copper ion binding  |  |
| Amino acid transmembrane transport      | Zinc ion binding  |  |
| Phosphatidylinositol dephosphorylation  | FMN binding   |  |
| Glycogen biosynthetic process           | Nucleic acid binding  |  |
| Glycerol ether metabolic process        | GTP binding   |  |
| Sucrose metabolic process               | Ammonium transmembrane transporter activity                         |  |
| Cellular amino acid metabolic process   | Cytochrome-c oxidase activity                                       |  |

**Table A10 GO-term analysis represented molecular function, biological process and cellular components in root tissues**



-

| Gene name                               | <b>Gene ID</b> | Wild-type   | AC-       | AAC-           | miROE (A8) | SPL13RNAi-6 |
|---|----------------|-------------|-----------|----------------|------------|-------------|
|   |                |             | Caribou   | <b>Trueman</b> |            |             |
| PYL9                                    | Medtr3g090980  | <b>NS</b>   | 1.47      | 1.94           | 1.31       | 1.61        |
|   | Medtr8g027805  | <b>NS</b>   | 1.48      | <b>NS</b>      | <b>NS</b>  | 1.36        |
|   | Medtr1g028380  | 4.96        | 16.94     | 4.41           | 8.92       | 10.64       |
| PYR1                                    | Medtr5g030500  | $_{\rm NS}$ | 0.55      | <b>NS</b>      | <b>NS</b>  | 0.63        |
| ABA-receptor                            | Medtr7g070050  | NS          | 0.29      | <b>NS</b>      | <b>NS</b>  | 0.67        |
|   | Medtr1g016480  | 1.73        | 2.35      | 2.17           | 1.45       | 2.77        |
|   | Medtr5g083270  | <b>NS</b>   | 0.28      | 2.80           | 2.30       | <b>NS</b>   |
|   | Medtr4g014460  | $_{\rm NS}$ | 0.39      | 2.07           | <b>NS</b>  | $_{\rm NS}$ |
| ABA induced bHLH                        | Medtr8g027495  | $_{\rm NS}$ | 0.45      | <b>NS</b>      | 0.63       | 0.68        |
|   | Medtr7g117670  | 0.58        | 0.50      | <b>NS</b>      | 0.61       | 0.66        |
|   | Medtr7g096350  | <b>NS</b>   | <b>NS</b> | <b>NS</b>      | 1.35       | <b>NS</b>   |
| <b>ABA/WDS Induced</b>                  | Medtr1g098680  | 0.51        | 0.46      | 0.46           | 0.56       | 0.66        |
| protein                                 |                |             |           |                |            |             |
| XDH1                                    | Medtr2g098030  | 1.71        | 1.75      | 2.18           | 1.59       | 1.95        |
| Zeta-Carotene                           | Medtr3g084950  | <b>NS</b>   | <b>NS</b> | <b>NS</b>      | <b>NS</b>  | 0.62        |
| isomerase                               | Medtr8g097190  | <b>NS</b>   | <b>NS</b> | 2.36           | <b>NS</b>  | <b>NS</b>   |
| Beta-Carotene                           | Medtr7g095920  | $_{\rm NS}$ | <b>NS</b> | $_{\rm NS}$    | <b>NS</b>  | 0.38        |
| Isomerase                               |                |             |           |                |            |             |
| ABA-responsive protein                  | Medtr2g035190  | 4.48        | 8.03      | <b>NS</b>      | <b>NS</b>  | <b>NS</b>   |
| ABA-responsive                          | Medtr1g024930  | 0.29        | 0.20      | 0.32           | 0.64       | 0.21        |
| (TB2/DP1, HVA22)                        |                |             |           |                |            |             |
| family protein                          |                |             |           |                |            |             |
| ABA response element-<br>binding factor | Medtr4g085910  | 2.12        | 3.73      | 3.13           | 1.78       | 3.57        |
| ABA-responsive-like                     | Medtr8g100065  | <b>NS</b>   | <b>NS</b> | 1.79           | <b>NS</b>  | 1.77        |
| protein                                 | Medtr1g114640  | <b>NS</b>   | <b>NS</b> | <b>NS</b>      | 2.66       | <b>NS</b>   |
|   |                | <b>NS</b>   | <b>NS</b> | 2.13           | 1.69       | <b>NS</b>   |
|   | Medtr7g083570  |             |           |                |            |             |

**Table A11 List of significantly affected ABA-related genes fold-changes from well-drained control plants**





NS: Not significant

| No.            | <b>Gene ID</b> | <b>Gene annotation</b>                                | Fold   |
|----------------|----------------|---|--------|
|                |                |   | change |
| $\mathbf 1$    | Medtr7g016700  | chalcone and stilbene synthase family protein         | 11.20  |
| $\overline{2}$ | Medtr3g083910  | chalcone and stilbene synthase family protein         | 79.20  |
| 3              | Medtr5g007713  | chalcone and stilbene synthase family protein         | 17.04  |
| 4              | Medtr1g097935  | chalcone and stilbene synthase family protein         | 4.41   |
| 5              | Medtr3g083920  | chalcone and stilbene synthase family protein         | 3.88   |
| 6              | Medtr1g097910  | chalcone and stilbene synthase family protein         | 3.14   |
| 7              | Medtr1g098140  | chalcone and stilbene synthase family protein         | 2.70   |
| 8              | Medtr7g084300  | chalcone and stilbene synthase family protein         | 1.76   |
| 9              | Medtr3g093980  | chalcone-flavanone isomerase family protein           | 1.70   |
| 10             | Medtr2g072510  | chalcone-flavanone isomerase family protein           | 0.65   |
| 11             | Medtr7g094980  | chalcone-flavanone isomerase family protein           | 0.52   |
| 12             | Medtr1g115840  | chalcone-flavanone isomerase family protein           | 0.36   |
| 13             | Medtr8g075950  | chalcone-flavanone isomerase family protein           | 0.09   |
| 14             | Medtr5g022010  | chalcone-flavanone isomerase family protein, putative | 0.21   |
| 15             | Medtr5g011250  | leucoanthocyanidin dioxygenase-like protein           | 38.30  |
| 16             | Medtr4g015790  | leucoanthocyanidin dioxygenase-like protein           | 0.68   |
| 17             | Medtr3g070860  | leucoanthocyanidin dioxygenase-like protein           | 0.32   |
| 18             | Medtr7g068650  | leucoanthocyanidin dioxygenase-like protein           | 0.16   |
| 19             | Medtr8g075830  | naringenin 3-dioxygenase (flavanone-3-hydroxylase)    | 35.47  |
| 20             | Medtr3g058610  | naringenin 3-dioxygenase (flavanone-3-hydroxylase)    | 0.66   |
| 21             | Medtr3g091350  | flavonol synthase/flavanone 3-hydroxylase             | 21.59  |
| 22             | Medtr5g055680  | flavonol synthase/flavanone 3-hydroxylase             | 19.07  |
| 23             | Medtr5g055690  | flavonol synthase/flavanone 3-hydroxylase             | 4.69   |
| 24             | Medtr5g059130  | flavonol synthase/flavanone 3-hydroxylase             | 2.24   |
| 25             | Medtr5g048850  | flavonol synthase/flavanone 3-hydroxylase             | 1.48   |
| 26             | Medtr5g065010  | flavonol synthase/flavanone 3-hydroxylase             | 0.55   |
| 27             | Medtr3g450680  | 2-hydroxyisoflavanone dehydratase                     | 107.47 |
| 28             | Medtr7g051020  | 2-hydroxyisoflavanone dehydratase                     | 3.01   |
| 29             | Medtr1g104930  | 2-hydroxyisoflavanone dehydratase                     | 2.08   |
| 30             | Medtr4g070340  | allergenic isoflavone reductase-like protein Bet      | 11.48  |
|                |                | protein   |        |
| 31             | Medtr5g020760  | isoflavone reductase-like protein                     | 7.29   |
| 32             | Medtr1g022440  | dihydroflavonol 4-reductase-like protein              | 6.07   |
| 33             | Medtr2g013250  | dihydroflavonol-4-reductase-like protein              | 0.58   |
| 34             | Medtr4g109470  | flavonoid hydroxylase                                 | 54.22  |
| 35             | Medtr3g024520  | flavonoid hydroxylase                                 | 15.85  |
| 36             | Medtr3g084520  | flavonoid glucosyltransferase                         | 5.26   |
| 37             | Medtr3g084530  | flavonoid glucosyltransferase                         | 2.57   |
| 38             | Medtr4g128690  | flavonoid glucosyltransferase                         | 3.86   |
| 39             | Medtr4g485630  | flavonoid glucosyltransferase                         | 0.13   |

**Table A12 Differentially expressed genes associated with phenylpropanoid pathway fold changes in** *SPL13***RNAi plants**



















| No.          | <b>Gene ID</b> | <b>Gene annotation</b>                                    | Fold   |
|--------------|----------------|---|--------|
|              |                |   | change |
| $\mathbf{1}$ | Medtr7g079080  | 1-Aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylate synthase                | 13.94  |
| 2            | Medtr8g028600  | 1-Aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylate synthase                | 2.06   |
| 3            | Medtr8g098930  | 1-Aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylate synthase                | 0.68   |
| 4            | Medtr4g097540  | 1-Aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylate synthase                | 0.11   |
| 5            | Medtr5g085330  | 1-Aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylate oxidase                 | 6.45   |
| 6            | Medtr3g083370  | 1-Aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylate oxidase                 | 3.54   |
| 7            | Medtr2g025120  | 1-Aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylate oxidase                 | 2.97   |
| 8            | Medtr3g088565  | 1-Aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylate oxidase                 | 2.64   |
| 9            | Medtr1g043760  | 1-Aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylate oxidase                 | 0.16   |
| 10           | Medtr8g024120  | 1-Aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylate oxidase                 | 0.07   |
| 11           | Medtr1g070120  | Aminocyclopropanecarboxylate oxidase                      | 0.06   |
| 12           | Medtr8g028435  | 1-Aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylate oxidase-like<br>protein | 129.71 |
| 13           | Medtr1g032220  | 1-Aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylate oxidase-like<br>protein | 30.29  |
| 14           | Medtr1g032250  | 1-Aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylate oxidase-like<br>protein | 20.03  |
| 15           | Medtr1g032140  | 1-Aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylate oxidase-like<br>protein | 7.65   |
| 16           | Medtr4g099390  | 1-Aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylate oxidase-like<br>protein | 1.99   |
| 17           | Medtr4g117880  | 1-Aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylate oxidase-like<br>protein | 0.33   |
| 18           | Medtr5g065880  | Glucose-6-phosphate isomerase                             | 0.72   |
| 19           | Medtr6g009330  | Glucose-6-phosphate isomerase                             | 0.63   |
| 20           | Medtr7g116910  | Glucose-6-phosphate 1-epimerase-like protein              | 3.59   |
| 21           | Medtr4g092780  | Glucose-6-phosphate 1-epimerase-like protein              | 0.15   |
| 22           | Medtr1034s0010 | Glucose-6-phosphate 1-dehydrogenase                       | 0.66   |
| 23           | Medtr0590s0010 | Glucose-6-phosphate 1-dehydrogenase                       | 0.60   |
| 24           | Medtr7g111760  | Glucose-6-phosphate 1-dehydrogenase                       | 0.52   |
| 25           | Medtr0275s0010 | Glucose-6-phosphate 1-dehydrogenase                       | 0.54   |
| 26           | Medtr4g070430  | Glucose-1-phosphate adenylyltransferase family pr.        | 48.87  |
| 27           | Medtr3g116860  | Glucose-1-phosphate adenylyltransferase family pr.        | 6.51   |
| 28           | Medtr5g097010  | Glucose-1-phosphate adenylyltransferase family pr.        | 1.76   |
| 29           | Medtr3g082150  | Glucose-1-phosphate adenylyltransferase family pr.        | 0.75   |
| 30           | Medtr4g131760  | Glucose-1-phosphate adenylyltransferase family pr.        | 0.24   |
| 31           | Medtr7g111020  | Glucose-1-phosphate adenylyltransferase family pr.        | 0.23   |
| 32           | Medtr2g022700  | Glucose-6-phosphate/phosphate translocator-like pr.       | 60.42  |

**Table A13 Differentially expressed genes associated with glycolysis and TCA fold changes in** *SPL13***RNAi plants**











# **Curriculum vitae**

**Name:** Biruk Ayenew Feyissa

## **Degrees: The University of Western Ontario**

London, Ontario, Canada (PhD)

**Ben-Gurion University of the Negev**

Bersheba, Israel (MSc)

#### **Jimma University**

Jimma, Ethiopia (MSc)

### **Alemaya University**

Dire Dawa, Ethiopia (BSc)

**Awards: -**Best Student Oral Presenter, Plant Canada 2019 conference

University of Guelph, Canada, July 2019

 **-**Genome Canada travel bursary, Bioinformatics workshop

Montreal, Quebec, Canada, July 2018

 **-**Gordon Research Seminar Travel Award, GRS conference

Waterville Valley, NH, USA, June 2018

 **-**George H. Duff travel bursary,

Plants from see to sky, University of British Columbia, Canada, 2017

Plant biology, Montreal, Quebec, Canada July 2018

 **-**COST FA1106 Quality Fruit, Metabolomics training

Wageningen University, Netherlands, December 2013

 **-**MASHAV, Molecular biology post-graduate training

Hebrew University of Jerusalem,

 Robert H. Smith Faculty of Agriculture, Food & Environment, Rehovot, Israel February- April 2012

#### **Selected Publications:**

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