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2	Title: Effect of light conditions on anatomical and biochemical aspects of somatic and						
3	zygotic embryos of hybrid larch (Larix x marschlinsii)						
4	Authors: Patrick von Aderkas <sup>1*</sup> , Caroline Teyssier <sup>2</sup> , Jean-Paul Charpentier <sup>2</sup> , Markus						
5	Gutmann <sup>3</sup> , Luc Pâques <sup>2</sup> , Claire Le Metté <sup>2</sup> , Kevin Ader <sup>2</sup> , Philippe Label <sup>4</sup> , Lisheng Kong <sup>1</sup> ,						
6	Marie-Anne Lelu-Walter <sup>2</sup>						
7	Affiliations:						
8	1 Centre for Forest Biology, Department of Biology, University of Victoria, 3800 Finnerty						
9	Rd., Victoria BC, V8W 3N5, Canada, Fax: + 12507216611, E-mail: <u>pvonader@uvic.ca</u>						
10	2 I.N.R.A., UR 0588 Research Unit on Breeding, Genetic and Physiology of Forest Trees,						
11	2163 Avenue de la Pomme de pin CS 4001 Ardon F- 45075 Orléans Cedex 2 France						
12	3 Fachgebiet Obstbau, Technische Universität München, Dürnast 2, D-85354 Freising,						
13	Germany						
14	4 INRA-Université Blaise Pascal, UMR_A 547 PIAF, Les Cézeaux, 24 Avenue des						
15	Landais, 63177 Aubière cedex, France.						
16	Running title: larch somatic and zygotic embryogenesis and the effect of light						
17	Email addresses						
18	Patrick von Aderkas – <u>pvonader@uvic.ca</u>						

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1 Manuscrit d'auteur / Author Manuscript **ABSTRACT** 2 Background and Aims – In conifers, mature somatic embryos and zygotic embryos appear 3 to resemble one another physiologically and morphologically. Do zygotic embryos that develop within light-opaque cones differ from somatic embryos developing in dark/light 5 conditions in vitro? Larch embryogenesis is well understood both in situ and in vitro and 6 provides a tractable system for answering this question. 7 Methods – Embryo features were quantified, such as cotyledon numbers, protein 8 concentration, and phenol chemistry. Developmental stages of embryos were embedded 9 and sectioned. Manuscrit d'auteur / Author Manuscript 10 Key Results – Light, and to a lesser degree abscisic acid (ABA), influenced protein and 11 phenolic compound accumulation in somatic and zygotic embryos of larch (Larix x 12 marschlinsii). Dark-grown mature somatic embryos had more protein (91.77  $\pm$  11.26 µg 13 protein/mg fresh weight) than either dark-grown zygotic embryos ( $62.40 \pm 5.58 \mu g$ 14 protein/mg fresh weight) or light-grown somatic embryos ( $58.15 \pm 10.02 \,\mu g$  protein/mg 15 fresh weight). Zygotic embryos never accumulated phenolic compounds at any stage, 16 whereas somatic embryos stored phenolic compounds in embryonal root caps and 17 suspensors. Light induced the production of quercetrin (261.13  $\pm$  9.21µg/g DW) in somatic Manuscrit d'auteur / Author Manuscript 18 embryos. Mature zygotic embryos that were removed from seed and placed on medium in 19 light rapidly accumulated phenolics in embryonal root cap and hypocotyl. Delaying 20 germination with ABA delayed phenolic compound accumulation, restricting it to the 21 embryonal root cap. 22 Conclusions – In larch embryos, light has a negative effect on protein accumulation, but a 23 positive effect on phenol accumulation. Light did not affect morphogenesis, e.g. cotyledon

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- number. Somatic embryos produced different amounts of phenolics, such as quercetrin,
  depending on light conditions. In all embryo types and conditions, the greatest difference
  was seen in the embryonal root cap.
- 5 **KEYWORDS:** *Larix* x *marschlinsii*, light response, phenolics, proteins, quercetrin, somatic embryogenesis, starch, zygotic embryogenesis, cotyledon, embryonal root cap

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1 Introduction

Embryogenesis is a complex sequence of events. As has been noted in angiosperms (Dodeman *et al.*, 1997), somatic and zygotic embryogenesis have cellular and genetic features in common during both histodifferentiation and the later acquisition of physiological traits associated with maturation. For pinaceous conifers, researchers have been fortunate in their ability to wrest control over somatic embryogenesis to the degree that today seedlings from this process are produced at industrial scale (see reviews by Nehra *et al.*, 2005; Lelu-Walter et al. 2013). Such somatic embryos exhibit all of the same morphological characteristics and important physiological traits found in mature zygotic embryos, e.g. stress tolerance, dormancy, desiccation tolerance. This is largely due to carefully designed maturation media that are supplemented with, among other compounds, appropriate plant growth regulators, such as ABA, and suitable osmoticants. This mixture regulates the transition to complete maturity. Plants derived from somatic embryos germinate and grow as well as their zygotic counterparts (Grossnickle and Major, 1994).

But how physiologically similar are zygotic and somatic embryogenesis? Phenotypes of cloned conifer embryos can be strongly influenced by a number of *in vitro* factors, such as age of cultures (Klimaszewska *et al.*, 2009), type of osmoticant used (Klimaszewska *et al.*, 2000), and type and quantity of ABA (Kong and von Aderkas, 2007). In some instances clonal variation can exceed that found in nature. For example, cotyledon initiation appears to be much less regulated *in vitro*, with cotyledon number varying from 1 – 15 *in vitro*, depending on the amount of ABA in the medium (von Aderkas, 2002), whereas *in situ* cotyledon number is nearly always six. Phenotypic variation of physiology also occurs, which may have longer lasting effects. Stage-specific

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induced changes in cold tolerance of somatic embryos have been noted (von Aderkas *et al.*, 2007). A more spectacular example is brought on by temperature treatments applied during both zygotic and somatic embryogenesis, the effects of which result in permanent alteration of bud phenology of mature trees (Skroppa *et al.*, 2007). In spite of such powerful effects, abiotic factors are not commonly studied experimentally *in vitro*. In particular, the effect of light is often overlooked.

The morphological or physiological consequences of light on somatic embryo development remained unstudied, because, in part, light is not a factor in zygotic embryo development. Gymnosperm embryogenesis takes place in the dark interior of closed cones or in the case of individual ovules such as yew, in low light conditions. Light is a factor that is studied post-germination, when the plant becomes autotrophic. The few studies on light's effect on embryogenesis are confined to angiosperms (Park *et al.*, 2010; Torne *et al.*, 2001). These studies were further limited to initiation of embryogenesis. Various wavelengths and treatment combinations were studied. In comparison, conifer somatic embryogenesis from initiation to maturation is able to proceed in either light or dark. Nevertheless, published maturation protocols often specify dark or light conditions for particular stages, giving the impression that these specifications are the fruit of experimental investigation. For conifers there are no such published studies. In their defense, researchers were practically motivated to produce high numbers of embryos, which was achieved in various labs either in light and dark conditions.

We were interested whether light had any effect on somatic embryo anatomy or biochemistry. There are grounds for investigating light's effects on maturation, e.g. *Lilium* 

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somatic embryos grown in light were more numerous and larger than those grown in the dark (Lian et al., 2006).

A reason that conifer somatic embryos do not lend themselves to similar studies is the short lives of the cultures. Once a multiplying mass of early stage embryos is induced, it will only be embryogenic for a short period, before rapidly declining in its ability to produce mature embryos. Within a year or two, lines commonly lose their embryogenicity (Pullman and Bucalo, 2014). We were fortunate to discover a Larix x marschlinsii embryogenic line, 69-18, that exhibits an undiminished, virtually immortal, ability to produce mature embryos over the decades (Lelu-Walter and Pâques, 2009). Since 69-18 is easy to propagate, it better lends itself to experimentation than all other lines. This clone has previously been used to explore aspects of embryogenesis, e.g. hormone physiology (Gutmann et al., 1996; von Aderkas et al., 2001). The attractiveness of using such a line is that it has a stable physiology, as opposed to other lines that are in a state of progressive diminution in their embryogenic capacity. By using such a genotype, it is possible to build up a more complex experimental study.

In the study presented here we test the hypothesis that light makes a difference during maturation of embryos. We compare somatic embryos matured in light with those matured in darkness. We also compare somatic embryos to zygotic embryos, which naturally develop in the dark, as well as with zygotic embryos that either germinated or were prevented from germination, to test whether the exogenously applied hormone ABA influences embryo colouration. We discovered that anatomical and biochemical differences in embryos of hybrid larch (Larix x marschlinsii) vary according to light conditions and the type of embryogenesis.

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### **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

Plant material:

Experiments were conducted with one embryogenic line (69-18) of hybrid larch *Larix* x *marschlinsii* obtained in 1992 through secondary somatic embryogenesis (Lelu *et al.*, 1994b). Proliferation medium consisted in basal MSG medium (Becwar *et al.*, 1990) containing 1.45 g L<sup>-1</sup> glutamine (SIGMA) supplemented with 9 μM 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid, 2.3 μM 6-benzyladenine and 60 mM sucrose, solidified with 4 g L<sup>-1</sup> gellan gum (Phytagel<sup>TM</sup>, SIGMA). Embryonal mass (EM) was placed on proliferation medium for one week in darkness at 25 °C (Lelu *et al.*, 1994a). Immature cones of hybrid larch, obtained after controlled cross were collected in Orléans, France. Zygotic embryos dissected from the surrounding megagametophyte, were collected at different stages of development from early stage of late embryogeny (end of May) to late stage of late embryogeny (middle of June) (terms according to von Aderkas et al., 1991). In addition, zygotic embryos were dissected from seeds stored at -20 °C. Samples (zygotic embryo, megagametophyte) were either frozen in liquid nitrogen for biochemical analysis or fixed for light microscopy.

Somatic embryo maturation:

Somatic embryos were matured according to Lelu-Walter and Pâques (2009). Briefly, proliferating 1-week-old embryonal masses were incubated for one week on PGR-free medium supplemented with activated charcoal (10 gL<sup>-1</sup>) and 100 mM sucrose. Petri dishes were placed under cool-white light (Philips) at a photon fluence density of 10  $\mu$ mol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> at 24/21  $\pm$  1 °C under a photoperiod of 16-h light and 8-h dark. Next, embryonal masses were transferred to MSG medium supplemented with 200 mM sucrose, 1  $\mu$ M

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indolebutyric acid, 60 µM *cis-trans* (±) abscisic acid (ABA) for a period of seven weeks. Light intensity for this 7-wk period was increased to 20 µmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>. Cotyledonary somatic embryos were counted at the end of the culture period. In addition, embryogenic potential was estimated, i.e. the number of somatic embryos per g fresh weight (FW). To test the effect of light on somatic embryo maturation a set of embryonal masses (n=5) were placed in either the light or dark for the entire maturation period. Experiments were repeated three times. Cotyledons were counted from a minimum of 200 mature embryos per treatment. Subsequently, somatic embryos were either fixed for later histological investigation or they were frozen in liquid nitrogen for eventual biochemical analysis. *Zygotic embryo germination:*To test whether zygotic embryos produced phenolics in light prior to or during germination, hybrid seed collected from trees in the breeding orchard located at INRA-

To test whether zygotic embryos produced phenolics in light prior to or during germination, hybrid seed collected from trees in the breeding orchard located at INRA-Orléans were dissected and embryos placed on MSG maturation medium supplemented with 200 mM sucrose for 8 days. The control treatment – prevention of germination – was MSG maturation medium supplemented with 200 mM sucrose and 60  $\mu$ M ABA. Samples (n = 33-48) were assessed for their colour at two-day intervals. A small number of representative samples were fixed and included in the larger histological investigation below.

#### Histological analysis:

Since the earliest stages of embryogenesis differ between zygotic and somatic (von Aderkas et al., 1991), we focused on two more readily comparable stages that were later in development, namely, 1. early embryos prior to histodifferentiation and 2. mature embryos. Somatic embryos in dark and light treatments were morphologically very similar

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to one another. Consequently, we have only shown sections of somatic embryos subjected to the dark treatment.

Somatic and zygotic embryos were prepared according to Gutmann et al., 1996. Briefly, samples were fixed with 2.5 % glutaraldehyde in 100 mM phosphate buffer at pH 7.5 for at least 12 h at room temperature. After two washes with buffer, the samples were dehydrated gradually in ethanol, infiltrated with glycol methacrylate (Historesin, Reichert-Jung) at room temperature for at least 2 d and finally polymerized. Longitudinal sections were cut on a Leitz 1400 microtome equipped with a tungsten carbide knife. Section thickness was 2 µm, except for the following two staining procedures, where 5 µm sections were cut in order to gain sufficient staining intensity. Flavanols (i.e. catechins) were localized with the highly selective *p*-dimethylaminocinnamaldehyde (DMACA) reagent as described by Gutmann and Feucht (1991). Moreover, the deposition of proanthocyanidins ('condensed tannins') was traced using a developed in situ hydrolysis procedure (Gutmann, 1993). Other staining methods used were described in detail by Gutmann (1995): Toluidine blue O with sodium hypochlorite pretreatment (general tissue structure), safranin O/azure II with iodine/potassium iodide post-staining treatment (polyphenols, cell walls, starch), and safranin O with iodine/potassium iodide post-staining treatment (general tissue structure and starch). In addition, a rapid two-step method with Ponceau 2R and azure II was employed for a differential staining of storage protein and cell walls. The following steps were required: 5-10 min staining with 0.5 % Ponceau 2R in 2 % acetic acid was followed by a rinse of distilled water, after which a 10 s stain with 0.5 % azure II in distilled water - followed by a distilled water rinse – completed the staining procedure. Slides were dried with a brief blast of compressed air and allowed to dry in an



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oven for 10 min at 50 °C. Sections were then mounted in Canada balsam. Cytoplasmic and storage proteins stained red with Ponceau 2R (Gori, 1978): cell walls were blue.

Material for biochemical analysis:

Somatic embryos were sampled by stage of development following the protocol of Guillaumot *et al.*, 2008. Samples were taken at time of transfer from charcoal medium to maturation medium, as well as after further 1 and 7 weeks of culture. The 7-wk collection included only mature cotyledonary embryos; any embryonal masses found in culture dishes were excluded from analysis. To assay proteins, samples were weighed immediately after harvest to determine FW. Five to seven samples ranging from 25 to 50 mg FW each were collected per developmental stage. To assay phenolic compounds, samples were lyophilised and dry weight (DW) determined. Three samples (ranging from 20 to 49 mg DW) were collected per developmental stage.

Total protein assay:

Total protein extracts were prepared at least in quintuplet for each developmental stage. Frozen embryos were homogenized with 0.5 mL of lysis buffer (10 % (v/v) glycerol; 2 % (w/v) SDS; 5 % (v/v) β-mercapto-ethanol; 2 % (w/v) poly(vinyl) polypyrrolidone; 50 mM Tris pH 6.8). Extracted samples were incubated for 5 min at 95 °C, and then centrifuged at 13500 rpm. Supernatant was transferred to tubes; pellets were re-extracted with the same buffer minus both SDS and poly(vinyl) polypyrrolidone. Supernatant was then pooled. Protein concentrations were determined using Bradford assays in which BSA (Bovine Serum Albumin) was the standard.

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Protein separation:

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To determine subunit masses, denaturing gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) was performed according to standard protocols using 12-20 % polyacrylamide gradient gels overlaid with a 4 % stacking gel. The gel was stained with Colloidal Coomassie Blue G-250. Electrophoretic patterns were compared with protein markers, in particular, phosphorylase-b (97 kD), serum albumin (66 kD), ovalbumin (45 kD), glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (36 kD), trypsin inhibitor (20.1 kD) and lactalbumin (14.4 kD). *Extraction of soluble polyphenols:* 

Samples were ground in mortar using a glass rod in liquid nitrogen-filled 2 mL tube. Soluble phenolic compounds were extracted twice from the dry powder in 2 mL acetone/water (8:2, v/v) containing  $10^{-4}\,\mathrm{M}$  6-methoxyflavone as internal standard. This mixture was sonicated for 45 min then incubated while agitated for 1 h before being centrifuged at 18000 g for 20 min. A 1 mL sample from the pooled supernatant was removed and dried under vacuum using a Speed-Vac system (Savant Instrument, India). The dry residue was diluted in 250  $\mu$ L of methanol. All steps were carried out at 4 °C. *Total polyphenols quantification in embryo extract:* 

Total polyphenols were estimated by Folin-Ciocalteu method modified according to Boizot and Charpentier (2006). Phenolic extract (10 - 15  $\mu$ L) was diluted in 85 to 90  $\mu$ L of ultra-pure water, 500  $\mu$ L of Folin-Ciocalteu reagent diluted 10 times in ultra-pure water, and 400  $\mu$ L of NaCO<sub>3</sub> 75 g L<sup>-1</sup>. This mixture was incubated for 5 min at 40 °C. The absorbance was measured spectrophotometrically (735 nm); results were expressed in mg equivalent of gallic acid per g DW. Calibration was carried out using gallic acid methanol solutions (0–20  $\mu$ g mL<sup>-1</sup>).

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Chromatographic separation of phenolic compounds:

Chromatographic analysis of phenolic compounds was performed according to a previously published method (Faivre-Rampant et al., 2002). Briefly, after centrifugation at 10,000 g for 3 min, a 15 µL aliquot of the phenolic extract was separated, characterized and quantified by HPLC on a 32 Karat system (Beckman Coulter, France) using a 250 x 4 mm Licrosphere 100RP-18e column (5 µm) (Merck, Germany) stabilised at 40 °C; flow rate was 1 mL min<sup>-1</sup>. The following linear elution six-step gradient was used: i. initial conditions – 15 % solvent B (methanol/acetonitrile, 50:50 v/v) in solvent A (1% acetic acid in ultra-pure water); ii. 0-20 min - 15% to 40% B; iii. 20-25 min 40% to 60% B; iv. 25–30 min - 60% to 100% B: v. 30–35 min100% B; vi. 35-38 min: 100% to 15% B. Compounds were characterised by their retention time and UV absorption spectrum (diode array: 230-430 nm). Quercitrin (QUER) was identified by co-chromatography with a standard (Extrasynthese, France). Its quantitative determination was performed at 340 nm with an external calibration (QUER methanol solutions; 5 points from 0.3 to 6.7 µg) and the results are expressed in µg g<sup>-1</sup> DW. Quantitative determination of other phenolic compounds was performed at 340 nm and 280 nm and was expressed in mg equivalent of 6-methoxyflavone per gram DW.

Statistical analysis:

One-way analysis of variance was performed with R (R Development Core Team, 2008). Multiple mean comparisons with confidence intervals for general linear hypotheses in parametric models were obtained by the use of Multcomp R library (Hothorn *et al.*, 2008).

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1	RESULTS
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Effect of light on number of mature somatic embryos:

There was no significant effect of light on the numbers of embryos that are able to mature. Light treatments have an average of  $384 \pm 40$  somatic embryos g<sup>-1</sup> FW compared to  $316 \pm 53$  somatic embryos g<sup>-1</sup> FW in the dark (p=0.03197). There was no difference between batches, i.e. no block effects.

Effect of light on cotyledon number and colouration:

There was no significant effect of light on the number of cotyledons initiated at p=0.05 level. Light treatments had an average of 6.21  $\pm$  1.06 cotyledons/embryo in the light compared to 6.31  $\pm$  0.86 cotyledons/embryo in the dark. A slightly significant batch difference was noted (p=0.0466). There were no block effects attributable to the Petri dish in which an embryo occurred.

Somatic embryos matured in the dark remained yellowish, whereas those matured in the light had red embryonal root caps (Fig. 1A,B). Comparably-mature zygotic embryos that were dissected from seed were yellow. If placed in light on medium supplemented with 60  $\mu$ M ABA that prevents germination, embryos developed a slight red, i.e. reddish in Table 1, colouration in their embryonal root caps by six days (Table 1; Fig. 1C), by which time cotyledons and hypocotyls were beginning to turn green.

Phenolic analysis:

Phenolics were absent in zygotic embryos, but found in somatic embryos. The concentrations in somatic embryos varied over the course of development. At maturity, light-treated somatic embryos in the light treatment had a significantly higher concentration of phenolics than embryos in the dark treatment. In somatic embryos, one

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Manuscrit d'auteur / Author Manuscript 6 7 8

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flavonoid, quercetrin, was only found in light-treated somatic embryos (Table 2). We did not measure quercetrin in zygotic embryos.

Protein analysis:

Dark-treated immature embryos had equivalent quantity of protein than lighttreated ones (Table 2). By the last stage of development (7 wk), dark-treated mature somatic embryos had approximately 50 % more protein than light-treated somatic embryos or zygotic embryos. The difference in total proteins did not correspond to a qualitative difference between the types of mature embryo since they showed the same protein profiles (Fig. 2). The major bands corresponding to the storage proteins observed in the megagametophyte were absent in both types of early somatic embryos.

Anatomy of early embryos prior to histodifferentiation:

Embryonal tube cells were formed by a rib meristem that was found below the cells of the embryonal mass (Fig. 3A, 4A). The embryonal mass was actively growing, as indicated by the numerous mitotic figures (Fig. 3A). Starch was found in embryonal tube cells as well as in cells of the rib meristem. No protein bodies were seen in either zygotic or somatic embryos. In contrast to zygotic embryos that always lacked phenols, somatic embryos were rich in phenols, particularly in suspensors. Phenolic substances were deposited in vesicles and vacuoles (Fig. 4A).

Anatomy of mature embryos:

Mature zygotic and somatic embryos had fully developed cotyledons, ground tissues and organs (Figs. 3B, 4B). However, the types of embryogenesis resulted in differences in proportions, with somatic embryos being both shorter and squatter than zygotic ones. Starch was found in all tissues, e.g. embryonal root cap (Figs. 3C, 4C) and hypocotyl (Fig.

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3D). In larch seed, numerous protein bodies were found in both megagametophte and embryo (Figs. 3E, 4D). Embryos had protein bodies throughout their cotyledons and hypocotyls. Between cell layers in the hypocotyl ground tissue, idioblastic cells grew that did not have any storage products (3B, 4B, 4E). Phenolic compounds were only found in both light- and dark-treated somatic embryos. These compounds were mainly restricted to the embryonal root cap (Fig. 4C). Two types of phenolic compounds, proanthocyanidins (Fig. 4F) and catechins (Fig. 4G), were restricted to the periphery of the root cap. Embryos had abundant protein bodies in their hypocotyl, cotyledon and embryonal root caps, in particular, in the central zone or column. Protein bodies were not found in idioblastic cells, suspensors, procambial tissues, shoot apical meristems, root apical meristems, as well as the pericolumn of the embryonal root cap.

Zygotic embryos germinating in light:

When embryos were removed from seed and placed on ABA-free medium in light, they germinated quickly (Fig. 1D), and within a day had begun depositing phenolic

When embryos were removed from seed and placed on ABA-free medium in light, they germinated quickly (Fig. 1D), and within a day had begun depositing phenolic compounds. Embryos placed on ABA-supplemented medium did not germinate, and only began to deposit phenolic compounds after four days in the light (Table 1). In both treatments phenolic deposition occurred in outer cells of the embryonal root cap, especially in the junction zone where root cap and hypocotyl meet (Figs. 5A, 5B, Table 1). Germinated embryos also accumulated phenolics in their hypocotyl (Fig. 1D). ABA delayed the development of red colour, as embryos not exposed to ABA were much deeper red than those that had been exposed to 60  $\mu$ M ABA.

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1 DISCUSSION

Protein accumulation and phenolic compound production are both influenced during embryogenesis by light. Zygotic embryos that develop within megagametophytes in near complete darkness of ovules centrally located in closed cones do not produce phenolic compounds. By comparison, somatic embryos abundantly produce phenolic compounds in light, as well as in the dark. Light also affects protein accumulation, which is greater in dark-grown embryos, i.e. zygotic or somatic, than in light-grown somatic embryos. These findings contribute new information to our understanding of the influence of light during conifer embryogenesis.

There are probably other effects of light to be discovered, because in vitro effects of light have been relatively unstudied. Recent reviews of somatic embryogenesis make no mention of the effect of light (Nehra *et al.*, 2005; Elhiti and Stasolla, 2011). In angiosperms, the effect of light on somatic embryo growth has been investigated with respect to quality and light treatments, e.g. alternating red and far-red light (Park *et al.*, 2010). In conifers, experiments on the effect of light have not been carried out during embryogenesis, but only on somatic-embryo-derived germinants and seedlings. Kvaalen and Appelgren (1999) studied the effect of red light on germination of somatic embryos. Högberg and coworkers (2001) showed that exposing emblings to continuous light was detrimental to their growth. Our results on the effect of light on differential accumulation of storage products are important, because they clearly pinpoint peculiarities unique to somatic embryogenesis.

The influence of light can be general or specific within the embryo itself. As we have shown, protein body formation occurs throughout the embryo, but phenolic

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compounds accumulate most readily in somatic embryos mainly in the both parts of the embryo, i.e. suspensor and embryonal root cap.

That the embryonal root cap of somatic embryos in our study of light effects should exhibit marked differences in accumulation of proteins and phenols, such as quercetrin, is not surprising, as previous studies of this organ have shown that it will show differential accumulation of protein as well as altered ABA metabolism in response to alteration of exogenous ABA application during embryo maturation (von Aderkas et al., 2002). The role of the embryonal root cap is generally underappreciated. In part it is the name that deceives: the embryonal root cap is less an organ protecting a developing root than it is a major storage organ. It can make up to 50 % of a zygotic embryo's mass (see illustrations in reviews by Singh, 1978 and von Guttenberg, 1961). The high accumulation of protein in dark-treated embryos in our experiment – an accumulation greater even than in zygotic embryos – points to the significance of this organ in providing nutritional storage support for developing somatic embryos and seedlings. The embryonal root cap's storage capacity is an important reason that somatic embryos germinate readily and establish well as seedlings. Somatic embryos are able to perform as well as zygotic embryos even though somatic embryos are missing the surrounding storage product-rich megagametophyte with which zygotic embryos are endowed. Although protein accumulation in somatic embryos is generally considered to be under the control of ABA (Roberts, 1991), in larch somatic embryos matured on ABA, light also affected protein accumulation.

Protein accumulation is more complicated in conifer somatic embryogenesis. In *Pinus pinaster*, supplementation of media with different maltose and polyethylene glycol levels influenced both starch and protein body size and number (Tereso *et al.*, 2007)

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between treatments and in comparison with zygotic embryogenesis. Although we found
measurable differences in protein storage, we did not see differences in the size of protein
bodies, nor in the protein profiles. In conifers, improvements of maturation protocols
resulted in somatic embryos accumulating similar amounts of storage products to those
found in mature zygotic embryos including Pinus sylvestris, Pinus pinaster and Larix x
eurolepis (Lelu-Walter et al., 2008; Morel et al., 2014; Teyssier et al., 2014). The protein
profiles were also similar in both somatic and zygotic embryos. By comparison,
megagametophytes had much larger protein bodies than either type of embryo. Somatic
embryos of loblolly pine not only produce more protein overall than zygotic embryos, but
they differ in protein metabolism, e.g. the ratios of insoluble to soluble proteins differ
greatly between the types of embryos (Brownfield et al., 2007). By comparison, zygotic
and somatic embryogenesis in palms differ not only in the amount of protein but in the
kinds of proteins that accumulate (Aberlenc-Bertossi et al., 2008). Studies comparing
zygotic and somatic embryogenesis record so many differences (Jones and Rost, 1989;
Alemanno et al., 1997; Kärkonen, 2000) that it is fair to conclude that they always differ.
The differences in protein content of light- and dark-grown somatic embryos may have an
effect on subsequent germination performance, but this requires further experimentation.

Some of the differences in the physiological responses between zygotic embryos and embryos of conifers are due to hormones, in particular ABA and related compounds.

Somatic embryos are able to produce endogenous ABA (Kong and Yeung, 1995; Kong and von Aderkas, 2007), but at insufficient levels to induce organ development. To mature, developing embryos require a healthy dose of exogenously applied ABA. ABA controls not only differentiation of organs, but acquisition of physiological traits

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characteristic of mature somatic embryos, such as desiccation tolerance (Attree et al., 1995). ABA concentrations are not the same in zygotic and somatic embryos. Somatic embryos are grown on media with very high concentrations of ABA. As a result, somatic embryos have internal concentrations of ABA that are orders of magnitude higher than zygotic embryos (von Aderkas et al., 2001). This may be peculiar to conifer somatic embryogenic systems. In the angiosperm *Nothofagus*, exogenously applied ABA has no such effect. Endogenous ABA concentrations even in the presence of exogenously applied ABA are lower than ABA concentrations found in zygotic embryos (Riquelme et al., 2009). Coming back to conifers, in *Larix* somatic embryos phenolic compound metabolism is influenced by ABA. A previous study (Gutmann et al., 1996) showed that in the absence of ABA, embryos at all stages of embryogenesis were red in colour. Mature embryos accumulated phenolic compounds in surface cells of cotyledon, hypocotyl and embryonal root cap. In the study reported here, mature zygotic embryos germinated in light accumulated phenolic compounds rapidly, but mature embryos placed on a medium supplemented with a concentration of ABA sufficient to inhibit germination accumulated these phenolics much more slowly. These various effects of exogenous ABA allow us to conclude that ABA regulates more than histodifferentiation and acquisition of late embryo physiological characteristics such as protein storage and desiccation tolerance; ABA appears to control aspects of phenol metabolism. This regulation is not simply on or off, but involves some interaction between light and ABA. Quercetrin is a case in point. It is only produced when ABA is supplied during maturation of somatic embryos that have been grown in light. Quercetrin is not found in embryos grown on ABA in the dark. ABA is also known to have long-term effects. In *Picea abies*, overexposure to ABA during

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maturation of somatic embryos, i.e. maturation on ABA for overly long periods, is responsible for poor seedling growth (Högberg *et al.*, 2001).

Our study also shows that light leaves some important embryogenic processes unaltered. These include acquisition of form and accumulation of starch. In our study, zygotic and somatic embryos had a full set of organs, including cotyledons, hypocotyl and embryonal root cap. In the case of cotyledons, six cotyledons per embryo developed in all embryos, which was identical to previously published values for larch zygotic embryos (Butts and Buchholz, 1940; von Aderkas, 2002), but higher than studies in which ABA was omitted (Harrison and von Aderkas, 2004), or in which ABA had been substituted with a cytokinin, 6-benzylaminopurine (von Aderkas, 2002).

The importance of this study lies in a nuanced aspect of embryogenesis. Embryos that develop in the dark, as is the case for zygotic embryos inside an ovule, are not exposed to light, which would appear to eliminate light as a factor in development. However, once embryogenesis is made to take place in the light, as is the case with in vitro somatic embryo development, light's effects are noticeable, particularly in the embryonal root cap. Here, phenolic compound metabolism is promoted compared with other embryo parts. That some of these effects are partially due to ABA, a growth regulator that is present in excessive amounts, is a novel finding. This paper offers more support for a new interpretation of the embyronal root cap's role in nutrition and embryo development.

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1 FIGURE LEGENDS 2 Figure 1A–D. Somatic and zygotic embryo colouration. 1A – Hybrid larch, *Larix* x 3 marschlinsii, somatic embryos matured in light had red embryonal root caps. 1B – Those matured in the dark had no colouration. 1C – Zygotic embryos that were dissected from the ovule and placed on medium with 60 µM ABA to prevent germination developed red colouration in the embryonal root cap. 1D - Zygotic embryos placed on ABA-free 7 medium germinated producing an elongated red hypocotyl and root. Remnants of the very 8 red embryonal root cap are seen at the base of the hypocotyl. bar = 1 mm9 Figure 2. SDS-PAGE total protein profile comparison in seed and somatic embryo of hybrid 10 larch. L1 and D1: light- and dark-treated early somatic embryos at 1 week on ABA 11 medium; L7 and D7: light- and dark-treated mature somatic embryos at 7 weeks on ABA 12 medium; ZE: mature zygotic embryos; Mg: megagametophyte. Protein size (kD) is 13 indicated to the left of the gel. 14 Figures 3A–E. Zygotic embryogenesis. 3A – early embryo prior to histodifferentiation; a rib 15 meristem (rm) and formed embryonal tube (et) cells. Embryonal mass cells (em) are 16 distinguished by their prominent nucleoli (ni) and active division. Numerous mitotic 17 figures (mf) can be seen (Toluidine Blue O stain). bar =  $100 \mu m$ . 3B - longisection of18 mature zygotic embryo with cotyledons (c), shoot apical meristem (sam), root apical 19 meristem (ram), and embryonal root cap (erc). Ground tissues including procambium (pc), 20 protoderm (pd) and two idioblasts (i - arrows) (Toluidine Blue O stain). bar =  $200 \mu m$ . 3C 21 - pericolumn region of embryonal root cap with abundant starch (Lugol stain). bar = 100 22  $\mu m. 3D - hypcotyl cells stained for starch (Lugol stain). bar = 50 <math>\mu m. 3E - embryo (emb)$ 

beside megagametophyte (m) stained for proteins (Ponceau S) and cell walls (Azur B):

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megagametophyte cells have larger and more numerous protein bodies than embryo cells.  $bar = 10 \ \mu m.$ 

Figures 4A-F. Somatic embryogenesis in dark. 4A – early embryo prior to histodifferentiation; embryonal mass (em) was subtended by a rib meristem (rm). The suspensor (s) was composed of embryonal tube cells (et) in which abundant phenolic compounds were deposited either in small vesicles or along the inner margins of large vacuoles (Safranin O and Fast Green). bar =  $100 \mu m$ . 4B - longisection of mature somaticembryo with cotyledons (c), root (ram) and shoot (sam) apical meristems, an embryonal root cap (erc) and ground tissues, such as procambium (pc) and protoderm (pd). Three idioblasts (i) are indicated with arrows. (Ponceau S and Azur Blue). bar = 200 µm. 4C – starch grains in the hypocotyl/embryonal root cap junction: root cap cells are rich in phenols which stain yellow to orange with a combined Safranin/Lugol stain. bar =  $50 \mu m$ . 4D - protein bodies are abundant throughout all tissues, e.g. hypocotyl cells (Ponceau S and Azur Blue). bar =  $10 \mu m$ . 4E - idioblast (i) stained with Ponceau S and Azur Blue. bar = 30 µm. 4F – proanthocyanidins stained red after *in situ* hot sulfuric acid treatment are restricted to the periphery of the embryonal root cap. bar = 50 µm. 4G – catechins stained by DMACA. bar =  $50 \mu m$ .

Figures 5. Germinating zygotic embryos in light on medium with or without 60  $\mu$ M ABA. 5A – Junction zone of hypocotyl with embryonal root cap of embryo germinating on medium without ABA after two days of control treatment (0  $\mu$ M ABA). Phenolic deposits are indicated with arrows. Section stained with Toluidine Blue O. bar = 50  $\mu$ m. 5B – Junction zone of hypocotyl with embryonal root cap of embryo germinating on medium with 60

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1 μM ABA after six days of treatment. Phenolic deposits are indicated with arrows. Section

2 stained with Toluidine Blue O. bar =  $50 \mu m$ .

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**Table 1:** Colour in dissected and mature zygotic embryos of hybrid larch (*Larix* x *marschlinsii*) cultured in light on medium supplemented with and without ABA (60  $\mu$ M)

$ABA (\mu M)$	Time (d)	Number	Colourless	Reddish	Red	Germinated
0	1	48		48		
60	1	45	43	2	_	-
	1		15	-		
0	2	44	-	-	44	-
60	2	41	-	41	-	-
0	4	40	-	-	40	40
60	4	37	-	37	-	-
0	6	37	-	-	37	37
60	6	33	-	33	-	-



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**Table 2.** Storage protein and phenolic compound concentrations in somatic embryos (SE) matured in light or darkness, and mature zygotic embryo (ZE) and megagametophyte of *Larix* x *marschlinsii*.

	Culture					
Samples	Condition	Protein		Phenolic compounds		
		(μg prot mg <sup>-1</sup> FW) <sup>i</sup>		(mg eq.gallic		quercetrin
				acid.g-1DW)ii		$(\mu g.g^{-1} DW)^{ii}$
SE 1w charcoal	Light	$14.66 \pm 6.77$	a	$27.58 \pm 9.19$	b	n.d.
SE 1w ABA		$24.37 \pm 6.51$	a	$15.57 \pm 6.42$	a	n.d.
SE 7w ABA		$58.15 \pm 10.02$	b	$26.54 \pm 9.88$	b	$261.13 \pm 9.21^{iii}$
SE 1w charcoal	Darkness	$15.66 \pm 4.37$	a	$19.32 \pm 5.42$	a	n.d.
SE 1w ABA		$21.74 \pm 5.39$	a	$20.31 \pm 2.15$	a	n.d.
SE 7w ABA		$91.77 \pm 11.26$	c	$14.81 \pm 3.50$	a	n.d.
ZE		$62.40 \pm 5.58$		n.d.		n.d.
Megagametophyte		$132.12 \pm 15.79$		n.d.		n.d.

*i*- values are mean  $\pm$  SD (n=5 for all, except n=7 for SE 1w charcoal). Significantly different means are indicated by different letters (p=0.05).

ii- values are mean  $\pm$  SD (n=4 for all, except n=5 for SE 7w ABA light and n=3 for SE 7w ABA darkness). Significantly different means are indicated by different letters (p=0.1). iii- significance test not applicable.

nd: not detectable.

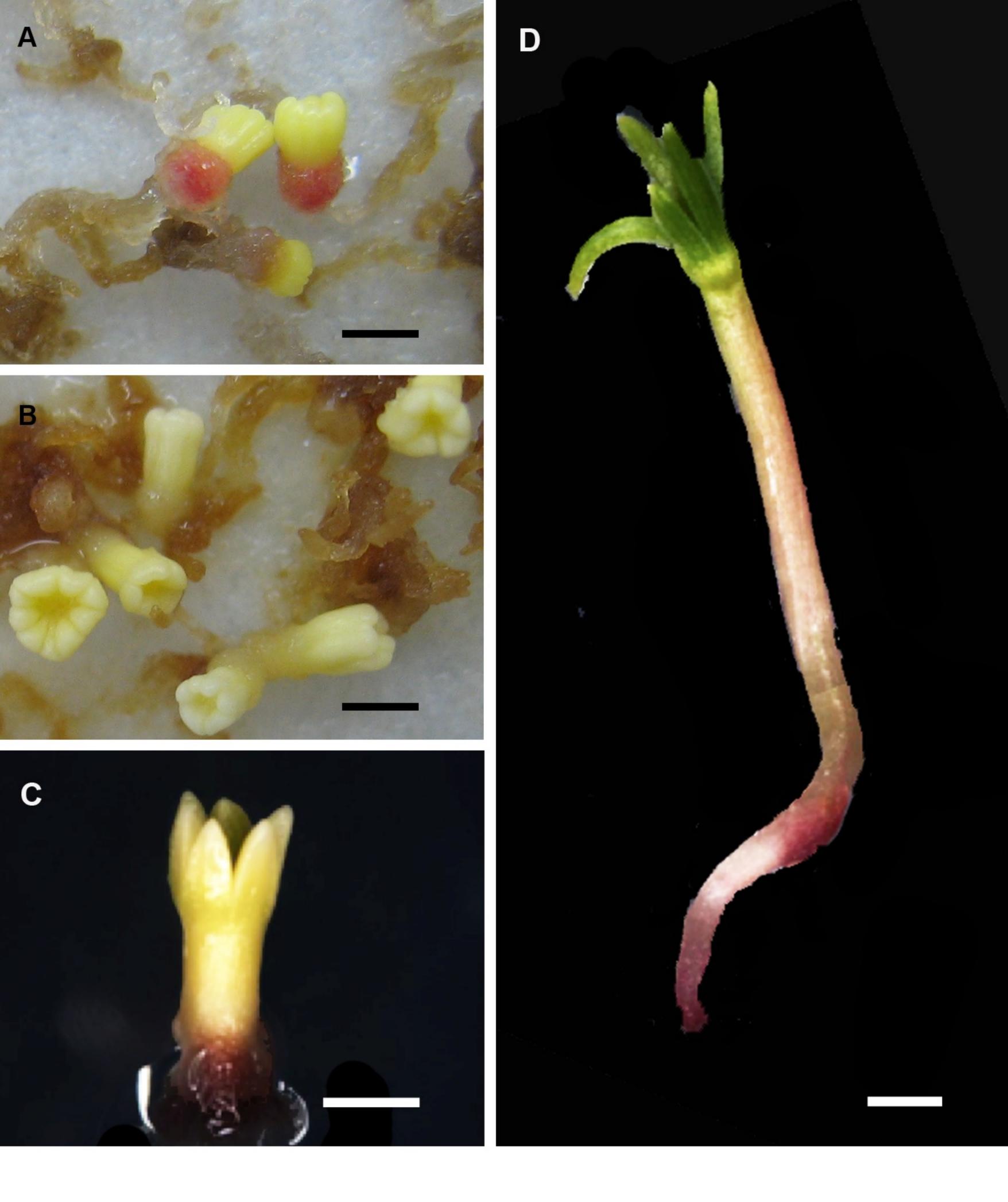


Figure 1

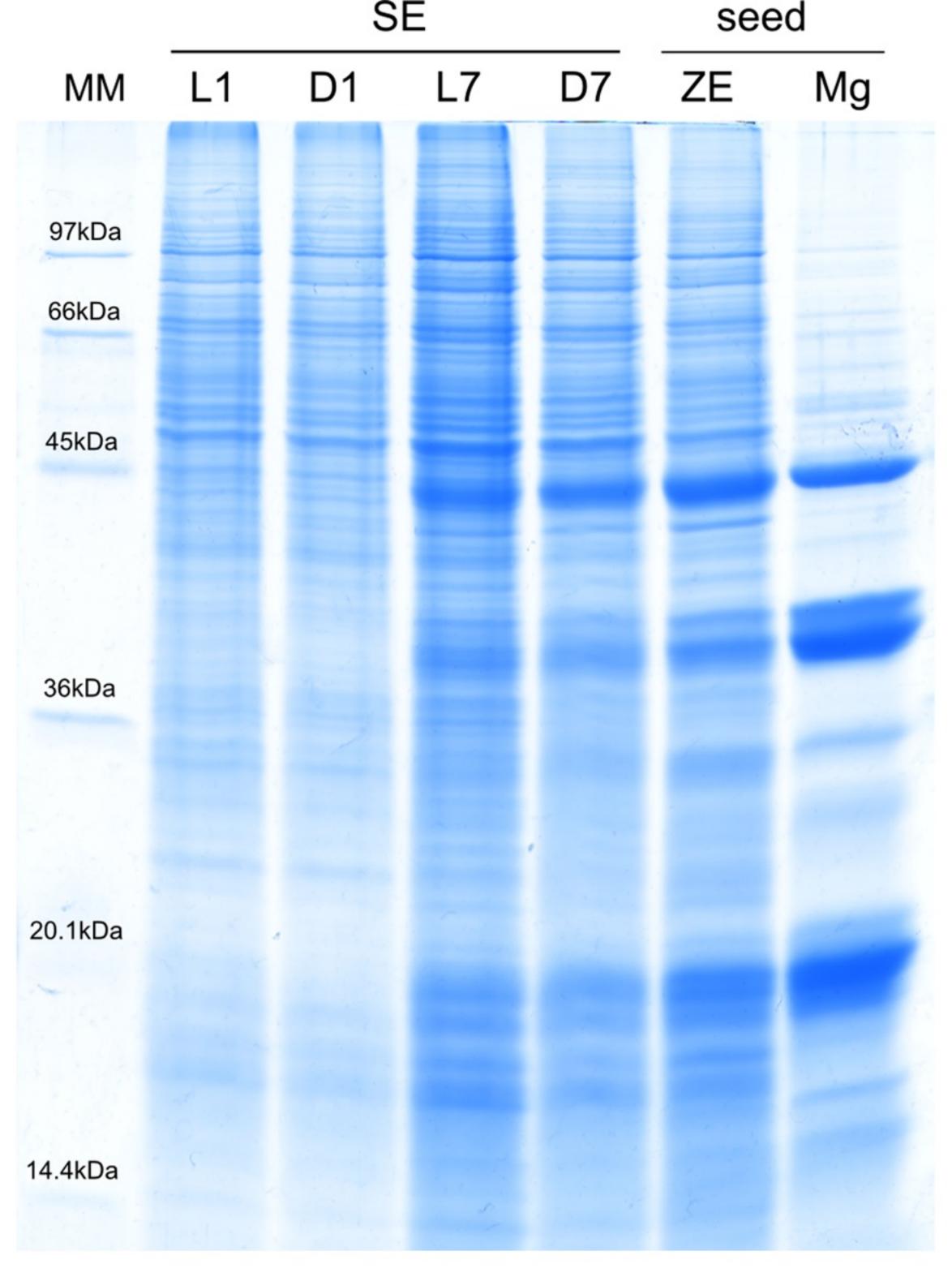


Figure 2

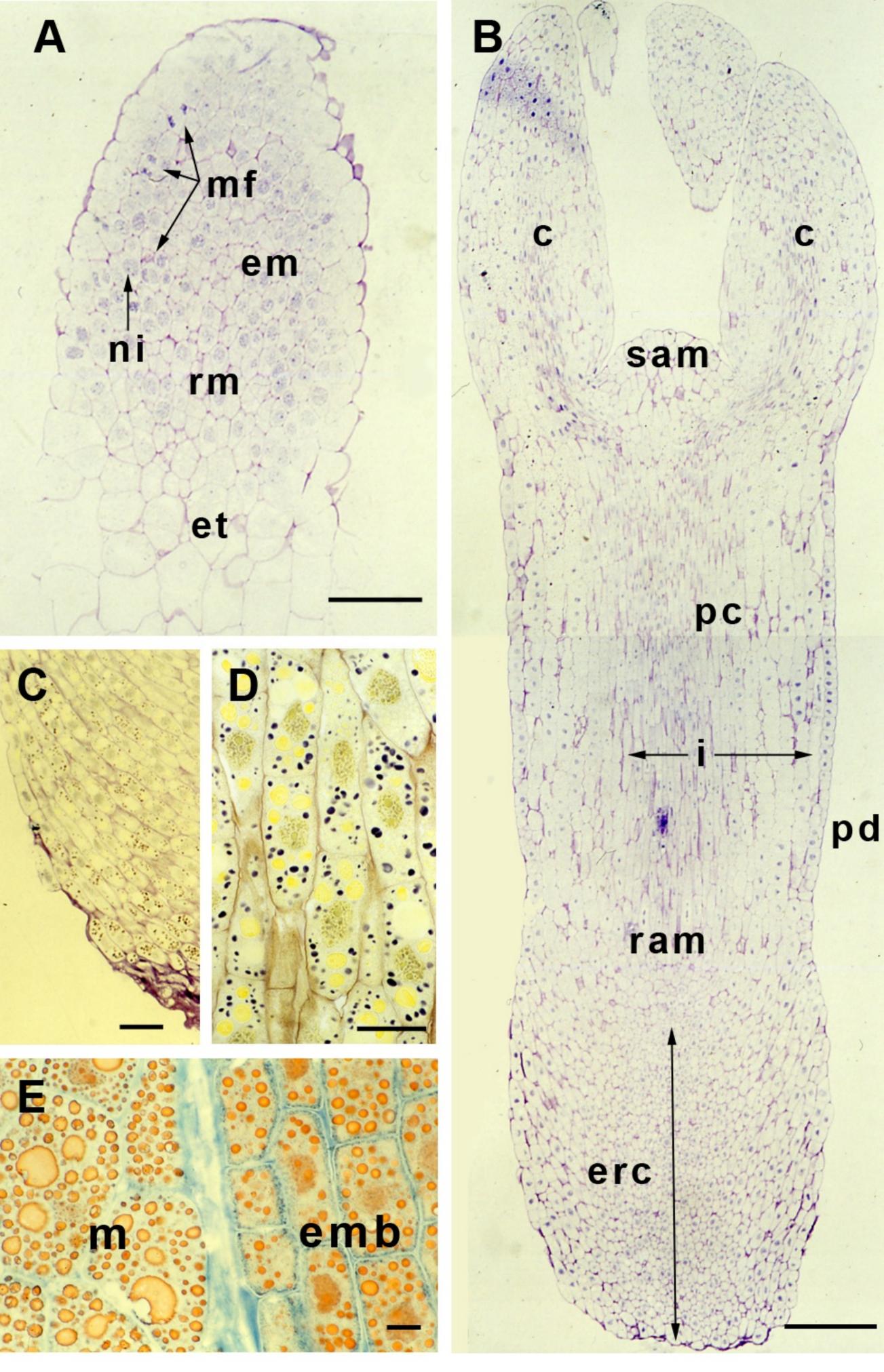


Figure 3

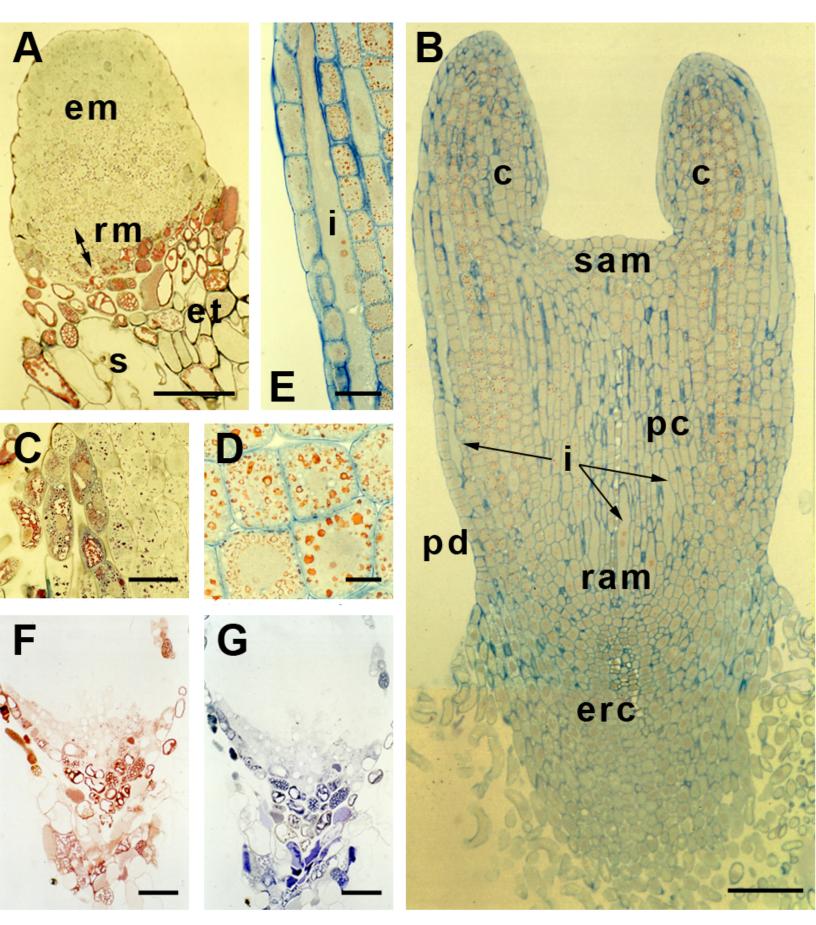


Figure 4

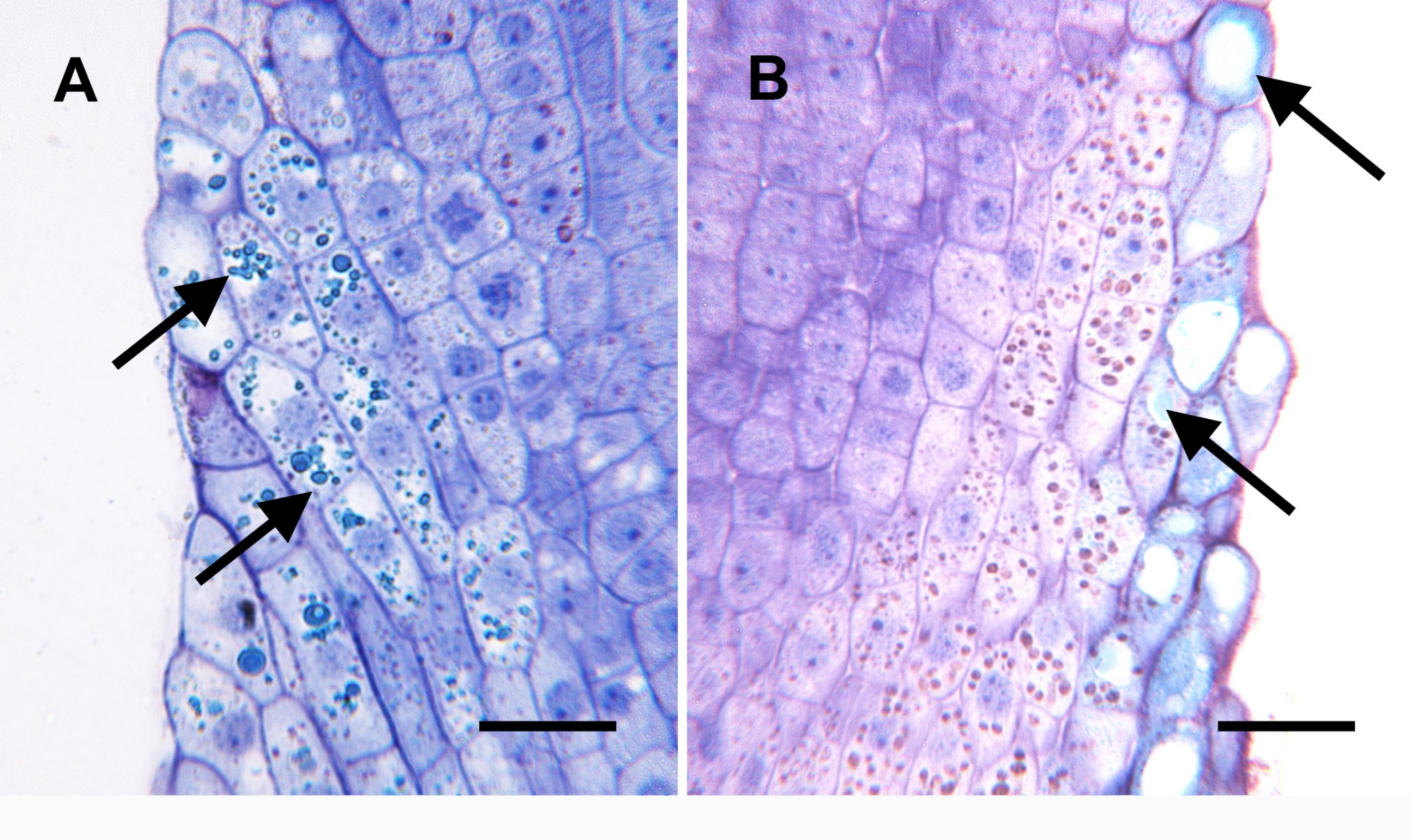


Figure 5