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Transcriptomic view of detached lettuce leaves during storage: A crosstalk between wounding, dehydration and senescence

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Abstract

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Many methods of storage are currently used to delay the postharvest senescence and the ensuing quality losses of detached lettuce leaves. This transcriptome study explores the senescence mechanisms of packaged lettuce leaves over 7 d of cold storage in darkness. At the end of the storage, the detached lettuce leaves showed a 10 % water loss and 24 % cut-edge discoloration. No chlorophyll fluorescence variation was observed. A total of 1,048 and 1,846 genes were differentially expressed (DE) after 2 and 7 d of storage, respectively. In terms of gene expression modulation, the data showed a global shutdown of primary-metabolism but no obvious chlorophyll breakdown. Although an early stress-response clearly takes place, the cold storage under darkness appeared to delay senescence by protecting chloroplasts from degradation and enhancing an antioxidative response. Then, a progressive global expression shutdown appeared, concomitantly with the dehydration stress. Among the transcripts that showed an early high expression, the data highlighted many stress-related genes (PIN, bzip TF, Heat-shock, stress Alike), 30 redox-regulation associated transcripts, the majority of the phenylpropanoid pathway markers and ethylene and auxin-related genes. Later (day 7), many dehydration-responsive markers showed an increased expression, as did some abscisic acid related markers. Phytohormones (cytokinins) and transcriptions factors (WRKYs) appeared to play complex roles as senescence progressed. No simple link between cut-edge discoloration and PPO-related genes expression was made. The main known process of senescence induction through the phaephorbide a oxygenase and phospholipase D pathways were not highlighted in this study. To the best of our knowledge, this study is the first to explore the transcriptional response of postharvest senescence in detached lettuce leaves. Deeper analysis of several markers will help to dissect the crosstalk between wounding, dehydration and senescence mechanisms. In addition,

22 post-transcriptional studies are needed to conclude about the described patterns.

Keywords

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Lactuca sativa L. – Postharvest – Storage – Wounding – Senescence – Transcriptome

Introduction

Plant senescence has long been an extensive research focus that could help to dissect how plant physiology integrates environmental stimuli. Depicting the plant senescence process was recently proposed as a significant help to solving current ecological and agricultural challenges (Thomas and Ougham 2016). Accordingly, when considering green vegetables, increasing our knowledge about the senescence of plant-detached organs could lead to new milestones in postharvest storage.

1/ Leaf senescence processes and regulation

Genetically programmed (natural) senescence, mainly induced by internal age-dependent factors, has been distinguished from stress-induced senescence that generally takes place in response to external factors such as nutritional deficiencies, pathogen attacks, various stresses or darkness. Although both types of senescence may lead to similar symptoms, stress-induced senescence is characterized by a faster process (a few days versus several weeks for genetically programmed senescence) (Springer et al. 2015). For example, a "dark-induced" senescence has been highly studied in Arabidopsis due to its precise and rapid implementation (Quirino et al. 2000). Genetically programmed senescence is characterized by a complex series of immutable cellular processes that aim to progressively deconstruct cells and remobilize nutrients: photosynthesis decrease, protein degradation, lipid lysis, etc. The mitochondria have been shown to manage many of the sequential steps while maintaining respiration. However, the chloroplast undergoes numerous catabolic events from the early start of senescence to the final chlorophyll degradation. Phytohormones play a complex regulatory role over this phenomenon that has not yet been completely elucidated (Lim et al. 2007; Khan et al. 2014). The most visual symptom of genetically programmed senescence in plants is due to the chlorophyll (Chl) degradation responsible for the autumnal colors due to the progressive loss in photosynthetic pigments (ChI a, ChI b, carotenoids and xanthophylls) (Hörtensteiner and Lee 2007). Several enzymes are involved such as chlorophyllases, Mg-dechelatases and phaephorbide a oxygenase (Hörtensteiner and Kräutler 2011). During this process, hydroxylation and glycosylation reactions share similarities with the detoxification of oxidative stress in cells (Quirino et al. 2000). Chl breakdown also includes the progressive loss of chloroplastic proteins, mainly ribulose bisphosphate carboxylase (RuBisCO) and proteins from the light-harvesting complex (LHC) via the action of several endo- and exopeptidases. These products are the major sources of cellular nitrogen in senescing leaves. Due to their light-absorbing properties, Chl subproducts (mainly produced by the action of the phaephorbide a oxygenase) induce the release of reactive oxygen species (ROS), which in turn contribute to both stress and senescence signalization (Buchanan-Wollaston et al. 2003; Pružinská et al. 2005; Schippers et al. 2007). In Arabidopsis, the NAM/ATAF/CUC (NAC) transcription factor (TF) ANAC046 was found to control the expression of many senescence-related genes including Chl-catabolic genes such as phaephorbide a oxygenase (Oda-Yamamizo et al. 2016). Consequently, during senescence, the chloroplast is the main source of ROS in contrast with the stress response where ROS are produced by the mitochondria (Schippers et al. 2007). ROS induce lipid peroxidation, protein modifications, purine oxidation and DNA damage. Their accumulation during senescence is paralleled by a decrease in antioxidant activity (Pastori and del Rio 1997; Luschin-Ebengreuth and Zechmann 2016); plants showing a high tolerance to oxidative stress appear to senesce slowly (Schippers et al. 2007). In this context, the antioxidant actors comprise the ascorbate-glutathione cycle (Zechmann 2014), α -tocopherol, enzymatic scavengers and oxidase inhibitors (Leshem 1988). In addition, mitochondrial superoxide dismutase (SOD) participates in both the regulation and the signalization of leaf senescence (Zentgraf 2007).

The onset of senescence is reflected by the progressive disruption of membrane integrity and leakage of associated solutes. These alterations in membrane lipid composition are enzymatically mediated. The transcriptome of Arabidopsis leaves revealed senescence responses in lipases, acyl hydrolases, phospholipases (especially phospholipase D), lipoxygenases and β -oxidation enzymes (Guo et al. 2004). For example, the gene At2g30550 (lipase-like) shows a chloroplast-targeting sequence and deesterifies fatty acids from complex lipids during senescence (Guo et al. 2004). These fatty acids in turn undergo β -oxidation in glyoxysomes, forming acetyl-coA for energy production via gluconeogenesis (Charlton et al. 2005)(De Bellis et al. 1990).

Genes whose expression was significantly modified (up- or downregulated), especially during senescence, have been clustered by many studies in a wide senescence-associated-genes (SAG) group (Buchanan-Wollaston 1997; Li et al. 2012). SAGs operate in, for example, lipid transfer, chelation and transport of metal ions, and oxidative-stress-response (anionic peroxidase, glutathione S-transferase). Many SAGs are themselves finely modulated by a number of TFs (Balazadeh et al. 2008; Kim et al. 2013) such as the NAC family (Kim et al. 2016), the basic region/leucine zipper (bZIP) family (Llorca et al. 2014) or the WRKY family (Jiang et al. 2016). These TFs frequently take roles in both the stress response and senescence, and NAC and bZIP families, which were recently characterized, are also involved in growth and development (Liu et al. 2014; Llorca et al. 2014). NAC TFs have been shown to modulate phytohormonal regulations of abiotic and biotic stresses and to play a key regulatory role in senescence by linking environmental signalization with development and cell death (Nuruzzaman et al. 2013; Kim et al. 2016). The WRKY TFs family has been widely documented and possesses an associated Arabidopsis

database (Eulgem et al. 2000). For example, AtWRKY57 is known to repress leaf senescence by interacting with the jasmonic acid (JA) pathway. AtWRKY54 and 70 have cooperative functions in negative regulation of senescence (Hu et al. 2012), whereas AtWRKY53, an early factor of drought response (Sun and Yu 2015), regulates senescence positively (Zentgraf et al. 2010). These three WRKYs then interact independently with AtWRKY30 (Besseau et al. 2012). AtWKRY22, 29, 33 and 53 are also implicated in the oxidative-stress response and regulate oxidation during senescence (Zentgraf 2007). Finally, some small RNAs have also been described as senescence-inducible and to set posttranscriptional controls during senescence (Thatcher et al. 2015).

Phytohormones have been shown to regulate leaf senescence in response to external factors such as modulation of the circadian rhythm or abiotic stresses. Auxin, cytokinins, gibberellins, and nitric oxide and Ca²⁺ play roles in cell development and plant growth and appear to delay senescence (Miller et al. 1999; Li et al. 2012). In contrast, abscisic acid (ABA), salicylic acid (SA), JA, ethylene and brassinosteroids are known to play a regulatory role in plant responses to stresses, and might also act as positive regulators of leaf senescence (Sarwat et al. 2013).

Among the posttranslational modifications that can occur during leaf senescence (phosphorylation, glycosylation, methylation and acetylation), ubiquitylation takes an important place (Woo et al. 2013). The ubiquitin-proteasome pathway is a central feature of autolysis in programmed cell death. The Skp1/Cul1/F-box (SCF) protein complex (an ubiquitin ligase) has been described to be positively regulated in senescing leaves by controlling negative regulators of senescence, especially the SCF complex showing an ORE9 F-box domain (Woo et al. 2001). Each F-box domain has a specific role in the stress response and/or senescence (Stefanowicz et al. 2015).

2/ Postharvest senescence

Packaged salads represent the most important sales of the fresh-cut fruits and vegetables sector (Martín-Belloso and Soliva-Fortuny 2011). The shelf life of fresh-cut lettuce is generally approximately 5-7 d in wholesale or retail markets, but it can vary from 5 to 18 d depending on treatments and storage temperature (Zhou et al. 2004; Kang et al. 2007). The two main causes of quality deterioration are the loss of the "crisp green" appearance related to a 3-5 % water loss and the development of cut-edge discoloration which can be the consequence of bleaching, pinking and browning (Sinha et al. 2010; Hunter et al. 2017). Wounding and discoloration of fruits and vegetables contribute significantly to food waste due to consumer rejection, despite not reflecting the overall quality of the fresh product. Vegetables, mainly harvested at a young stage, endure an important wound-stress that provokes response mechanisms that dominate the cell metabolism and subsequently initiate/accelerate the senescence process. The majority of studies have focused on the genetically programmed and dark-induced leaf senescence. Postharvest-induced and natural senescence have been shown to share common features,

particularly a decrease in fatty acids, lysophospholipids and sesquiterpene lactones (Garcia et al. 2016), but the current literature does not propose an exhaustive molecular view of postharvest senescence and to what extent it diverges from natural senescence.

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Fresh-cuts have been shown to express a wound response proportional to the severity of the physical injury driven by the postharvest process. The breaking of the cellular compartments at the wounding site triggers the stress response through the whole detached organs and accelerates many metabolisms, particularly respiration (Martín-Belloso and Soliva-Fortuny 2011). As O2 reaches the open cellular matrix, discoloration occurs. Color (pinking and/or browning) can result from an increased activity of both phenylalanine ammonia lyase (PAL) and polyphenol oxidase (PPO) enzymes. However, levels of PPO and subsequent development of discoloration have not always been correlated. In addition, pigments resulting from PPO oxidation of polyphenols are also dependent on the initial substrates of PAL. Brown color could also be associated with peroxidase (POD) activity on lignins in presence of H₂O₂ (Hunter et al. 2017). PAL catalyzes the deamination of phenylalanine which is the first step in phenylpropanoids metabolism. This leads to the subsequent formation of hydroxycinnamic acids and different classes of phenolic compounds including flavonoids, which are also PPO substrates (Llorach et al. 2008; Hisaminato et al. 2001; Ke and Saltveit 1988). In Arabidopsis, the genes from the PAL family (PAL1-PAL4) have also shown a modulated expression over time and according to the type of plant tissues (Huang et al. 2010). In the context of packaged lettuce, leaf cutting is typically associated with a rapid increase in polyphenol content, and PAL has been used as an efficient lifetime marker (Sinha et al. 2010). In lettuce, PAL activity was described to increase after 3 and 7 d after harvest, whereas PPO activity was more cyclic (Chen et al. 2017; Landi et al. 2013a; Degl'Innocenti et al. 2007) with daily variations. PPOs allow hydroxylation of monophenols to o-diphenol and the oxidation of o-diphenol to o-quinone using O₂. In many plants and fruits, the subsequent nonenzymatic polymerization of quinones with other phenolics and/or amino acids produces the pigments responsible for discoloration (Sinha et al. 2010). The PPO family appears to be extremely variable (in terms of number of genes and introns) among the plant species and is totally absent from Arabidopsis (Tran et al. 2012).

Several storage methods have been developed to enhance the shelf life of fresh products. For lettuce leaves, the most used protocol is storage in darkness under cold temperatures (4-6 °C) mainly to limit water losses (Martín-Belloso and Soliva-Fortuny 2011; Liu et al. 2015). Nevertheless, under these conditions, Chl breakdown is observed after 6 d (Hisaminato et al. 2001). It was hypothesized that the absence of light led to a delayed senescence via reduced RuBisCO levels (Lers 2007). However, we have recently proposed that a 2 d treatment of fresh-cut lettuce by intermittent (2 hours cycles) moderate level light (50 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹) could maintain product quality by reducing discoloration, minimizing weight loss and respiration and maintaining a high level of photosynthetic capacity (Charles et al. 2017). The packaging

of fresh-cut lettuce has allowed the use of modified atmospheres for shelf life enhancement (Kim et al. 2005). Among numerous sets, low O_2 combined with high CO_2 atmospheres are very efficient for both limiting phenols accumulation (PAL inhibition) and respiration (Sinha et al. 2010). Recently, it was observed that at ambient temperature, yellow sesquiterpenes called lettucenins (assembled as chromophores) can cause discoloration (Mai and Glomb 2013). These molecules are specific to the response to mechanical injury in lettuces and may represent 25 to 40 % of the colored compounds (Mai and Glomb 2014).

Many of the postharvest processes developed in lettuce have raised extended shelf-life or increased access to accurate biochemical markers, but little progress has been made in terms of knowledge of the underlying physiology of detached organs. Literature remains sparse when considering gene expression modulation associated with the observed disorders. New high throughput molecular approaches have been highlighted as promising postharvest tools (Hertog et al. 2011), since they could help to: i) elucidate the cellular process ii) enhance the efficiency of storage technologies iii) reveal new molecular markers reflecting both product quality and the physiological state. Lettuce is a shade plant, and its leaves, which are often quite large, are naturally adapted to low irradiation. Consequently, it is expected that the senescence-like symptoms that occur in lettuce during storage might highly differ from the phenomena described in other plant models and particularly from Arabidopsis under dark-induced senescence. To date, recent transcriptome studies have focused on lettuce responses to a pathogen infection (De Cremer et al. 2013) or on genome mapping (Truco et al. 2013). In this work, transcriptome next-generation-sequencing (RNA-seq) was exploited to monitor packaged lettuce leaves during 7 d of storage under darkness at 6 °C. A focus was made on five themes, according to the current literature regarding senescence-related genes: i) photosynthesis and energy-related pathways, ii) stress response pathways, iii) the phenylpropanoid pathway (antioxidant metabolism), iv) hormonal regulations, v) wellknown markers of senescence induced-phenomena (TFs, cell cycle development, Chl breakdown, lipid metabolism, phospholipase D pathway, and regulators of protein degradation (i.e., ubiquitination)).

Methods

1- Plant material and postharvest storage conditions

At day 0, butterhead lettuces (*Lactuca sativa* L.) were purchased at a local grower (from a single seedling) in Avignon, France and were immediately transported to the laboratory. The outer leaves, the core and the upper part of lettuce were removed. Leaves from the intermediate crown showing uniform size and color were selected and washed in chlorinated water (80 mg L⁻¹, pH =7.4) for 10 min, rinsed with tap water for 5 min and then rapidly drained on blotting paper. Rib edges were properly cut with a sharp knife. These minimally processed leaves were kept in their entirety. Four leaves were packaged in OPP film (Oriented polypropylene film, CFS, France) of 40 μm thickness, and with an oxygen permeability up to 14 L m⁻² 24 h⁻¹. Three bags were used per time point. Packaged lettuce leaves were stored at 6 °C for 7 d in

standard climatic chambers (Sanyo MLR-351-H, Panasonic, USA) in darkness. The study focuses at 0, 2 and 7 d.

2- Discoloration and physiological response measurements

From day 0 to day 7, the global weight loss of lettuce samples was monitored by a simple package weighing. The first 5 mm slice of each leaf midrib was scanned (600 dpi color Epson scanner) to quantify the cut-edge discoloration (resulting from mixed bleaching, browning and pinking) using the software FIJI (Schindelin et al. 2012). Fluorescence of chlorophyll a was measured on dark-adapted leaves (30 min) using a fluorimeter (Handy-PEA, Hansatech, King's Lynn, UK). A focus was made on the maximum photochemical efficiency of light harvesting of PSII (F_V/F_M) and the performance index (PI) of Strasser et al. (2004). O₂ content inside each lettuce package was measured by a gas analyzer (Checkmate 9900, PBI Dansensor, France).

3- RNA extraction and sequencing

From day 0 to day 7, leaves were frozen in liquid nitrogen. Total RNA was extracted using mini columns (RNeasy Plant Mini Kit, QIAGEN, France) according to the protocol supplied. RNA quality was checked with a Bioanalyzer 2100 (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, USA). Next generation sequencing of RNA (RNA-seq) was performed at the GeT-PlaGe core facility (INRA, Toulouse). RNA-seq libraries were prepared according to Illumina's protocols using the TruSeq Stranded mRNA sample prep kit (Illumina, San Diego, USA) to analyze mRNA. Briefly, mRNA were selected using poly T beads. Then, RNA were fragmented to generate double stranded cDNA and adaptors were ligated to be sequenced. 10 cycles of PCR were applied to amplify libraries. Library quality was assessed using a Fragment Analyzer (AATI, Ankeny, USA), and libraries were quantified by QPCR using the Kapa Library Quantification Kit (Kapa Biosystems, Wilmington, USA). RNA-seq experiments were performed on an Illumina HiSeq3000 using a paired-end read length of 2 x 150 bp with Illumina HiSeq3000 sequencing kits.

4- RNA-seq data alignment and quantification

The RNA-seq library read qualities were assessed using FastQC (Babraham Institute, Cambridge, UK)]. The remaining sequencing adapters were removed using trim_galore (Babraham Institute, Cambridge, UK). The reads were splice-aligned on the genome using STAR (Dobin et al. 2013) (version 2.4.0i using standard parameters) on the lettuce genome version 5 (Reyes-Chin-Wo et al. 2017). The expression was quantified using featureCounts (Liao et al. 2014) (version V1.4.5-P1 using standard parameters).

5- Statistical analysis

One sample (packaged lettuce) consisted of 4 leaves collected from 4 lettuces. The whole experiment was repeated 3 times (Data reflect 3 biological replicates per time point (day 0, day 2 and day 7). Differential gene expression analyses were performed in R 3.3.2 (R core Team 2016). The

Bioconductor package EdgeR was used for DE analyses with the trimmed mean of m values of TMM normalization between each pair of samples (Robinson and Oshlack 2010; Robinson et al. 2010; McCarthy et al. 2012). Gene enrichment analysis was performed with the Gene Ontology package topGO (Alexa and Rahnenfuhrer 2016) and pathway related analyses were performed with the Kyoto Encyclopdia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) pathway (Kanehisa Laboratories, Japan). DE gene annotations were verified with SwissProt, GO enrichment, and the KEGG pathways according to conserved domains in the sequence. Numbers of DE genes for day 2 and day 7 in comparison to day 0 were visualized with a Venn diagram (Hanbo 2016). Heatmaps of DE genes by selected family were plotted according to each day (gplots package, (Warnes et al. 2016)).

Cut discoloration, weight loss and physiological measures were analyzed with a Kruskal-Wallis multiple comparisons test (pgirmess package, (Giraudoux 2016)).

Results and discussion

1- Physiological data

In packaged lettuce leaves, the first visual markers of senescence are withering due to water losses and cut-edge discoloration (Martín-Belloso and Soliva-Fortuny 2011; Hunter et al. 2017). Storage under cold darkness is often used to keep the water losses below 5 %, the limit value for consumer rejection (Zhou et al. 2004; Kang et al. 2007; Sinha et al. 2010). Here, water losses were close to 5 % at day 2 and 10 % at day 7 (*Table 1*). The cut-edge discoloration surface was \approx 22 to 24 % from day 2 to day 7.

Dehydration during senescence may generally leads to a decrease in chlorophyll α fluorescence indices F_V/F_M and performance index (PI) due to the sensitivity of photosystems II (Maxwell and Johnson 2000). The F_V/F_M parameter can be used as a marker of severe drought stress, as it starting to decline only at lethal dehydration level and was described as an interesting parameter to monitor leaf senescence (Kotakis et al., 2014; Kalaji et al., 2017). PI, a global index of performance, is composed of three components: the force due to the concentration of active reaction centers, the force of the light reactions related to the quantum yield of primary photochemistry and the force related to the dark reactions (Živčák et al., 2008). PI has been described as a "drought factor index" during dehydration (Goltsev et al. 2012). Here, the observed water loss was not severe enough to induce changes in F_V/F_M and PI values that remained stable ($Table\ 1$), as well as the others OJIP flux parameters (data not shown, see Ripoll et al. (2016) for a user-friendly approach of these parameters). Respiration is known to increase during senescence and may limit the shelf life of lettuce (Del Nobile et al. 2006). The monitoring of headspace O_2 showed no variation here, according to the package permeability.

2- RNA-seq quality

67,989 distinct contigs were identified, and among them 19,107 genes were conserved after the edgeR filtering and normalization procedure (Robinson et al. 2010). The sequenced data aligned well

(\approx 95 %) to the reference genome (supplementary data 1A). Intersample global expression range displayed a strong homogeneity (supplementary data 1B). The sample correlation table (supplementary data 1C) showed that the biological replicates clustered together well. The averaged biological coefficient of variation was 22.38 % (supplementary data 2A, red line). As expected, highly expressed genes displayed a lower variation (Marioni et al. 2008).

3- RNA-seg differential expression analysis

A total of 1,048 and 1,846 genes were differentially expressed (DE, |log₂ fold change (FC)| > 1.5 and false discovery rate (FDR) < 0.01) respectively after 2 and 7 d of storage under cold darkness (supplementary data 2B and C, red spots). At day 2, 511 genes were upregulated and 537 were downregulated. At day 7, 749 and 1,097 genes were respectively up- and downregulated. Day 2 and day 7 shared 695 modulated genes while 353 genes were specific to day 2 and 1,151 to day 7 (Figure 1). For the selected genes, 60 % were well-described through the TopGO enrichment and 25 % had a known KEGG pathway. As a comparison, it has been initially shown on *Arabidopsis thaliana* that the dark-induced and the developmental senescence respectively raised 385 and 827 differentially expressed genes (Schippers et al. 2007). However, these data have been supplemented progressively and now raise more than 3,500 SAGs through the leaf senescence database (Li et al. 2017).

4- Chloroplast and primary metabolism related genes

Among the cellular compartments, the chloroplast is the most affected by abiotic stress and senescence (Pintó-Marijuan and Munné-Bosch 2014). Free Chl breakdown products, especially pheophorbide a, are strong light-absorbing molecules that can produce reactive oxygen species that in turn induce oxidative damage and accelerate senescence (Pružinská et al. 2005). In addition, hydroxylations of chlorophyllide a in b were hypothesized to be catalyzed by cytochrome P450-type enzymes, also known to take a role in detoxification processes (Hörtensteiner and Lee 2007). During the storage of lettuce leaves, the RNA-seq data highlighted the modulation of many ChI hemostasis-related genes: a chlorophyllide b reductase, a protochlorophyllide reductase and two chlorophyllases (Table 2). Other Chl components and key enzymes were globally downregulated: 5 palmitoylmonogalactosyldiacylglycerol delta-7 desaturase (except for one that was upregulated during the whole storage period), a chorismate mutase, a geranylgeranyl diphosphate reductase (which provides phytol for both chlorophyll and tocopherol biosynthesis) and some palmitoyl-monogalactosyldiacylglycerol delta-7 desaturases (required for chloroplast biogenesis at low temperatures (Hugly and Somerville 1992)). These fatty acid desaturases are also involved in thylakoid membrane management and in response to wounding (Heilmann et al. 2004). Concomitantly, no phaephorbide-related genes were significantly modulated during the storage of lettuce leaves. All of these data suggest the absence or low level of chlorophyll dismantling in terms of transcriptomic regulation.

Our data also highlighted 26 DE cytochrome P450-related genes during storage: 15 were upregulated and 11 were downregulated at day 2 and/or day 7 (supplementary data 3). Further studies are needed to understand the roles of P450s in the context of postharvest storage and senescence due to their numerous functions.

During natural senescence, photosynthetic performance decreases due to alterations of some chloroplast structures and functions (Panda and Sarkar 2013). The chronology of these phenomena that mainly target the thylakoids through the dismantling of PSI and PSII, vary strongly from one species to another (Kotakis et al. 2014; Wang et al. 2014). During the storage of lettuce leaves, our RNA-seq data showed that many photosystem subcomponent-related genes were affected. Three chlorophyll *a-b* binding protein (CAB) genes were downregulated at day 2 and/or day 7 (*Table 2*). Two PsbP related genes (PSII subunit) were downregulated at day 7, as were a gene coding for the PSI reaction center subunit XI and a gene related to the cytochrome b6-*f* complex. A gene related to the PSII reaction center W protein was induced during the 7 d of storage while two genes related to oxygen-evolving enhancer proteins required for PSII stability (Yi et al. 2006) were affected; one was upregulated at day 2 and one was downregulated during the whole storage period. Globally, the overall expression of these photosystem-related genes agree with the progressive loss of photosynthetic activity that takes place during storage in darkness and the initiation of the senescence. However, the Chl fluorescence measurements indicated no significant loss of photosynthetic function during the 7 d of storage (*Table 1*).

When considering the primary metabolism, i.e., energy-related genes (Calvin cycle, glycolysis, starch metabolism, fermentation, ATP synthesis, photorespiration), that were significantly affected by the storage period, 21 markers among 24 were downregulated (Table 3). This is highly coherent with the absence of light during storage. Only one enolase, an alcohol dehydrogenase and a probable adenylate kinase were upregulated at day 2 and/or day 7. Enolase converts phosphoglycerate to phosphoenolpyruvate which then contributes to the shikimic acid pathway and phenylpropanoids biosynthesis (Voll et al. 2009). Alcohol dehydrogenases are enzymes related to fermentation processes. Here, two alcohol dehydrogenases were downregulated at day 7. Adenylate kinases are responsible for the transfer of phosphate between ATP and AMP, and here one was downregulated at day 7 (Table 3). Among the downregulated markers, there were two genes related to ATP production, two genes with related photorespiratory activity and two genes related to RuBisCO activation. Three enzymes involved in the Calvin cycle were concomitantly downregulated at day 7 (Table 3). One of these enzymes was proposed to be a chloroplastic fructose-1,6-bisphosphatase, which is mainly involved in starch biosynthesis (Cho and Yoo 2011). Three other starch biosynthesis related genes were downregulated (at day 2 and/or 7), as was a gene related to glucose homeostasis (day 7). With respect to glycolysis, three genes related to the fructose and xylulose pathways were downregulated. Two chloroplastic phosphate translocators were negatively affected (*Table 3*). These genes play a role in phosphoenolpyruvate transport and are also involved in the shikimic acid pathway (Flügge 1999).

To summarize, during storage under darkness at cold temperatures, lettuce leaves showed an expected global shutdown of primary-metabolism (photosynthesis) related genes. In terms of genes regulation, they also displayed no obvious Chl breakdown (we can note the absence of phaephorbide a oxygenase regulation) and a slight expression decrease in genes coding for photosystem substructures. This indicated no global transcriptomic regulation of photosystem dismantling as confirmed by the stable photosynthesis functionality (Chl a fluorescence measurements). Finally, we can note that an enolase (glycolysis pathway) was upregulated and appeared to be linked to the phenylpropanoids pathway, which is involved in discoloration symptoms.

5- Wound and antioxidant response

Postharvest mechanical wounding results in the activation of defensive genes similarly to herbivore attacks, including proteinase inhibitors (Farmer and Ryan 1990) and lipoxygenase (JA and ABA signaling) (Bell et al. 1995) associated with potential deleterious effects on membrane functions (Baysal and Demirdöven 2007). Accordingly, our data highlighted here the induction of trypsin inhibitor genes and a chloroplastic lipoxygenase 2 at day 7 (Figure 2).

We can also note the increased expression of a PERK1-like gene (receptor kinase) at day 2 which has been described as an early-induced wound-response gene (Silva and Goring 2002).

Keeping fresh products in the dark at cold temperatures with a high humidity level in packages has been shown to best maintain their fresh weight (Martín-Belloso and Soliva-Fortuny 2011; Liu et al. 2015). However, once lettuce leaves are packaged, they undergo dehydration during the overall postharvest storage as confirmed in *Table 1*. The dehydrins belong to the late embryogenesis abundant (LEA) group and have a protective role mainly in response to abiotic stress, although their complex roles are not fully understood (Graether and Boddington 2014). Promoters of dehydrin genes can display ABA-responsive elements, C-repeat / drought-responsive / low temperature-responsive elements and bZIP TFs interactions (Hanin et al. 2011). Our data showed an increased expression of many dehydration-responsive genes mainly at day 7 (Dehydrin family, Dehydrin LEA, Lea5, and Dehydration-responsive element-binding protein 3) (Figure 2). Interestingly, some of these markers have also been shown to be involved in senescence (Weaver et al. 1998) and the abiotic stress response (Nakashima et al. 2014; Franco-Zorrilla et al. 2014). Four bZIP TFs were differentially expressed in lettuce leaves during storage (3 up- and 1 downregulated, supplementary data 3); bZIP TFs have been shown to take important roles during abiotic stress responses, notably during drought (Llorca et al. 2014)

During genetically programmed senescence, the decrease in antioxidant capacity leads to an oxidative stress that accelerates the overall phenomenon (Zentgraf 2007). However, postharvest

procedures, and, to a larger extent, plant wounding, have been linked to an increased respiration rate, the early production of reactive oxygen species (which can participate in a defensive strategy and signaling through the plant tissues, including the cut-edge discoloration phenomenon observed in packaged lettuces), and the consequent increased antioxidant activity (Toivonen 2004; Sinha et al. 2010; Savatin et al. 2014). In the present work, 30 genes associated with redox regulation were affected by the postharvest storage, among which 20 showed a high expression at day 0 and a progressive downregulation during storage (Figure 2).

Proline has a fundamental role in the stress response by promoting cellular apoptosis or survival through its interactions with redox proteins and glutathione (Liang et al. 2013). During storage here, two genes involved in proline biosynthesis were induced, while two proline dehydrogenases were downregulated. Two genes related to glutathione metabolism were respectively down- and upregulated at day 7. In parallel, 24 DE genes were assigned to an oxidoreductase activity: two catalases showed opposite profiles, two superoxide dismutases were downregulated during storage, two quinoneoxidoreductases were downregulated, five thioredoxins were affected (2 downregulated and 3 upregulated) and 10 genes coding for a peroxidase activity were modulated (3 upregulated and 7 downregulated mainly at day 7, Figure 2), among which were two L-ascorbate peroxidases and two ligninforming anionic peroxidase. The downregulation of catalase and superoxide dismutase related genes during storage appeared coherent with their decreased activities observed in tobacco during senescence and the consequent increase in chloroplast lipid peroxidation (Dhindsa et al. 1981). However, one catalase gene appeared to be only upregulated from the second day of storage. Among the five thioredoxin related genes, the two downregulated genes showed an F-type activity which has been shown to activate numerous enzymes of the photosynthetic carbon cycle (Serrato et al. 2008). Concerning the three upregulated genes, they take roles in the redox homeostasis through their disulfide reductase and isomerase activities (Serrato et al. 2008).

Concerning stress-related genes, most of them were upregulated late during storage (Figure 2) such as two universal stress A-like protein, an S-(+)-linalool synthase (upregulated at day 7), a zeaxanthin epoxidase (decreased at day 2) and a soluble inorganic chloroplastic pyrophosphatase (decreased at day 7). Universal stress protein A has a potential role in redox state regulation through its chaperone function (Jung et al. 2015). Zeaxanthin epoxidase is known to play an important role in the xanthophyll cycle and abscisic acid biosynthesis. It also participates in nonphotochemical quenching processes and redox state homeostasis (Zhao et al. 2016). In addition, during storage, two heat shock proteins were positively regulated at day 7, while another one was negatively regulated at day 2. Three heat stress-related TFs were also upregulated at day 7. Mutants lacking such TFs have been described to show increased senescence symptoms (Breeze et al. 2008).

To conclude, in terms of gene expression regulation, the senescence process observed during storage of lettuce leaves appeared to be widely characterized by a chronological sequence that starts with an early antioxidant response (day 0) and ends with both dehydration and stress responses (day 7).

6- Cut-edge discoloration and the phenylpropanoids pathway

Enzymatic discoloration is commonly reported as a consequence of both the oxidation of phenolic compounds by PPO and an increase in PAL activity. Peroxidases activity on lignins in presence of H₂O₂ has also been associated to the production of brown pigments (Landi et al. 2013; Hunter et al. 2017). Recent studies on lettuce also suggested that some specific sesquiterpenes syntheses may contribute to tissue discoloration at ambient temperature (Mai and Glomb 2013; Mai and Glomb 2014). The present data identified 4 PAL- and 6 PPO-related genes in lettuce leaves (supplementary data 3). No PAL gene was significantly affected by storage (Figure 3), and 3 PPO genes were downregulated at day 2 while one was upregulated. Measurements of PPO activities are required to understand their role in the cut-edge discoloration, but we can hypothesize that a poststress pool of enzymes (expressed between day 0 and day 2) may explain the observed phenomenon as described earlier (Landi et al. 2013). In addition, the recent literature highlighted no systematic correlation between discoloration and PPO levels (Hunter et al. 2017).

Globally, the majority of genes involved in the phenylpropanoids pathway showed a high expression immediately after cutting and were downregulated during storage (Figure 3) except for a PPO, a 4-coumarate-CoA-ligase-like and a flavonol synthase / flavanone-3-hydroxylase. This enzyme is very sensitive to abiotic stress and is known to be activated during dehydration (Ma et al. 2014). Other DE genes downregulated during storage were two 4-coumarate-CoA-ligases, a chalcone synthase, 2 chalcone isomerases and a trans-cinnamate 4-monooxygenase (CYP73A). Finally, a probable cinnamyl alcohol dehydrogenase involved in the latest steps of lignin biosynthesis was only upregulated at day 0, suggesting an adjustment of the cinnamyl alcohols pathway at the onset of postharvest senescence.

7- Phytohormones

Auxins, gibberellins and cytokinins may delay the process of senescence, whereas ethylene, SA, JA, brassinosteroids and ABA promote it (Sarwat et al. 2013). Our experiment on storage of cut lettuce leaves raised more than 80 DE hormone-related genes (Figure 4). The data highlighted early-responding (day 0) and late-responding (day 7) genes. Day 2 appeared as an intermediate physiological state. When focusing on ethylene- and auxin-related genes, 55 to 60 % of them were upregulated at day 0, while 26 % were upregulated at day 7. These data suggest a strong mobilization of auxin- and ethylene-responding pathways at the onset of the storage (*i.e.*, immediately after the cut stress). However, ABA-related genes showed a different profile and were only upregulated from day 2 to day 7. Finally, cytokinins-related markers did not display such an asymmetrical pattern between early- and late-responsive genes. Eleven

genes associated with the NAC TF family, known to play a role in the hormonal response to abiotic stress and senescence (Nakashima et al. 2012; Takasaki et al. 2015), were upregulated during postharvest storage (supplementary data 3).

 The auxin signaling pathway involves a large group of responsive genes such as auxin-responsive and induced proteins, auxin response factors (ARF), small auxin upregulated RNA (SAUR), auxin-responsive Gretchen Hagen3 (GH3) and YUCCA genes (Mueller-Roeber and Balazadeh 2014). In dark-induced and developmental senescence, IAA levels were found to decrease while RNAs of the GH3 genes family were increased; GH3 genes aim to conjugate IAA into amino acids, contributing to auxin homeostasis (Mueller-Roeber and Balazadeh 2014). The main hypothesis on the auxin delaying effect on senescence was linked to an increase in free auxin levels (Mueller-Roeber and Balazadeh 2014). Although it is not simple to interpret, some aspects of our data are consistent with this statement (Figure 4). The majority of IAA related genes were highly expressed at day 0, and a GH3 gene was progressively upregulated during the storage progression. Expressions of Auxin transport and efflux carrier genes were also modulated, suggesting an adjustment of the auxin-signaling pathway.

Cytokinin phytohormones have an important role in both cell division and proliferation at early plant developmental stages, and they also maintain existing cells at late stages by limiting senescence (Dani et al. 2016). They have been shown to maintain chloroplast integrity via an upregulation of the antioxidant response during dark-induced senescence (Zavaleta-Mancera et al. 2007). They also contribute to maintaining the chlorophyll cycle and the LHC (Talla et al. 2016). A few actors of the senescence-delaying role of cytokinins have been elucidated such as a receptor (AHK3), a response regulator (ARR2) and a response factor (CRF6) (Zwack and Rashotte 2013). However, enzymes such as cytokinin-O-glucosyltransferase and phosphoribosyltransferase have been shown to downregulate the cytokinin signal (Allen et al. 2002; Sakakibara 2006). Our data showed that 17 genes linked to theses enzymes were affected (8 up- and 9 down-regulated), suggesting a complex modulation of cytokinins homeostasis and the subsequent senescence process (Figure 4).

Ethylene has an important role in the senescence of leaves and the ripening of fruits. The biosynthesis of ethylene, although complex, is catalyzed by a 1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylic acid synthase, ACC (Xu and Zhang 2014). ACC downregulation has been shown to delay the senescence process, suggesting a role for ethylene in promoting senescence (Khan et al. 2014). Our results showed that the lettuce storage did not directly affect ethylene biosynthesis but rather impacted 3 receptors/sensors and 28 ethylene responsive TFs mainly at the onset of the storage period (Figure 4). A deeper analysis of the TFs functions is necessary to draw a precise conclusion of the role of ethylene in this context.

Abscissic acid is known to induce senescence (Khan et al. 2014). Lettuce storage led to the upregulation of 4 members of the ABA signaling pathway, mainly from the middle to the end of the storage

period (Figure 4), including one hydroxylase and 3 ABA-insensitive 5-like proteins. These genes are involved in the response to water deprivation conditions (Kang et al. 2002; Kushiro et al. 2004), suggesting a higher effect of dehydration than senescence on ABA signaling in the present work. Our data also highlighted a probable glutamate carboxypeptidase (upregulated at day 7), which is involved in ABA homeostasis and the stress response (Shi et al. 2013) and could play a role in the implementation of senescence.

Salicylic acid level is known to increase in senescing leaves (Khan et al. 2014), but SA appeared not to be involved in dark- or starvation-induced senescence (Buchanan-Wollaston et al. 2005). The absence of SA-related genes from our DE analyses appeared consistent.

Jasmonate compounds are involved in signaling during plant responses to abiotic and biotic stresses and play a positive role in leaf senescence (Wasternack 2014). Only one gene related to the complex JA biosynthesis, the allene oxide synthase enzyme, was upregulated, mainly at the end of the storage period (Figure 4).

Brassinosteroid hormones were suggested as regulators of senescence mechanisms via the alteration of the cell lipid composition (Fedina et al. 2017), but the literature remains scarce. Only one related gene was upregulated at day 0, a serine carboxypeptidase 24 (Figure 4).

To conclude, although cytokinin and ethylene treatments generally promote senescence (Gan and Amasino 1997), here the regulations of these pathways were clearly affected by the crosstalk between wound, dehydration and dark-induced senescence. The small number of SA, JA and brassinosteroid response genes found in our results, and the complex regulations of auxin, ethylene and cytokinin pathways may suggest a delay in the involvement of senescence mechanisms.

8- Markers of senescence

Regulation of senescence involves a large and complex panel of molecular actors among which are many TFs related to SAG regulation such as the WRKY family. Here, we identified 12 DE WRKY genes: 5 were upregulated and 7 were downregulated (supplementary data 3). Further studies are needed to determine their specific roles in the context of lettuce leaf storage.

Cell cycle shutdown

The cell cycle shutdown has been widely described during senescence (Sablowski and Carnier Dornelas 2014). Here, 8 genes related to cell division processes, mainly highly expressed at the onset of storage, were DE (7 downregulated at day 7, Table 4). They include 4 cyclin-D and 3 cyclin-dependent kinase (CDK). One of the CDK genes was the only upregulated marker during storage. These actors are fundamental regulators of cell cycle homeostasis and are linked to cytokinins (Lee et al. 2006; Sablowski and Carnier Dornelas 2014). Further, a phospholipid hydroperoxide glutathione peroxidase was

downregulated at day 7. This has been described as showing a cell-protecting role against heat stress induced cell death (Chen et al. 2004).

Cell wall dismantling

The plant cell wall, composed of a cellulose/xyloglucan network, continually changes in composition and structure throughout plant development and can be modified in stress conditions. Our data highlighted a global shutdown of cell-wall-associated markers that were mainly upregulated at the onset of the experiment (day 0). Among 25 genes, only 4 were upregulated during storage (Table 5). This trend indicates a possible shutdown of cell wall maintenance and even cell wall loosening. Lettuce mutants showing higher xyloglucan endotransglucosylase / hydrolase activity can have a higher shelf life (Wagstaff et al. 2010). Our data highlighted 11 of these markers in lettuce leaves during storage (all were downregulated during storage, except one). A probable glycerophosphoryl diester phosphodiesterase 2 was downregulated at day 7. This type of protein was suggested to be involved in cell wall organization (Hayashi et al. 2008). In addition, one repetitive proline-rich cell wall protein was downregulated at day 7, and a wall-associated receptor kinase 2 was upregulated at day 2 only. Repetitive proline-rich cell wall proteins constitute a large family of cell wall proteins inducible by environmental stimuli (Marcus et al. 1991) with specific organ expression patterns, such as the wall-associated receptor kinase (He et al. 1999). Six genes related to cell wall extension (Expansin-A family) were downregulated at day 7 except for one. These proteins mediate cell wall loosening and contributes to the strength of the cell (Marowa et al. 2016). Four genes involved in demethylesterification of cell wall proteins (probable pectinesterases) were downregulated at day 7 and one was upregulated at day 2.

Lipid homeostasis

During senescence, alteration of lipids occurs in all compartments. In chloroplasts it is mainly due to an increase in ROS. Figure 5 details the 65 lipid-related genes that were affected during the storage of lettuce leaves. A very clear pattern emerges: ≈82 % of the markers highly expressed at the start of the experiment were downregulated during storage. Day 2 appeared as an intermediate state but showed 7 markers specifically upregulated, while only 4 genes were upregulated at day 7. This indicates both an overall shutdown of lipid biosynthesis and no clear senescence initiation. Fatty acids are known to decrease with the age of the leaf while glycerolipid synthesis is expected to increase (Troncoso-Ponce et al. 2013). Regarding chloroplastic lipids, two genes related to probable plastid-lipid-associated proteins were downregulated at day 7, whereas one was upregulated. Genes involved in fatty acid biosynthesis were progressively decreased from 6 at day 2 to 13 genes at day 7. Only two were upregulated at day 7. Phospholipid biosynthesis was upregulated for 3 genes at day 2, while 2 others were downregulated. Degradation of lipids during senescence mainly serves to provide substrates to sink tissues generating an important traffic and changes in lipid metabolism (Troncoso-Ponce et al. 2013). In senescing membranes,

alterations in lipid composition are enzymatically mediated. The transcriptome of Arabidopsis leaves revealed senescence responses such as lipases, acyl hydrolases, phospholipases (especially the phospholipase D pathway), lipoxygenases and β-oxidation enzymes (Guo et al. 2004). Here, 5 genes that show a lipolytic activity were upregulated while 26 were downregulated. One lipase was upregulated at day 7. The GDSL esterase/lipase family is a relatively new subclass of lipolytic enzymes that can hydrolyze acyl-CoA, esters or amino acid derivatives substrates (Chepyshko et al. 2012). Sixteen GDSL esterase/lipase were downregulated at day 7, and three were upregulated at day 2. GDSL esterase/lipase are subjected to regulations in response to stressful conditions (Chepyshko et al. 2012). The phospholipase D family is known to display increased expression in senescent Arabidopsis leaves (Fan et al. 1997), and its silencing led to blocked lipid degradation and delayed ABA-promoted senescence (Jia et al. 2013). Here, 4 genes with phospholipase D activity were downregulated, one at day 2 and three at day 7. Other genes with a phospholipase activity were also downregulated such as the phospholipase A1 Igamma 3 gene sharing similarities with an Arabidopsis enzyme (At2g30550) known to handle the de-esterification of fatty acids from complex lipids during senescence (Guo et al. 2004). Concerning β-oxidation enzymes, only a longchain-alcohol oxidase was upregulated at day 2. A long-chain-fatty-acid--CoA ligase 1 was downregulated at day 7, as well as a peroxisomal 3-ketoacyl-CoA thiolase 2 at day 2. Patatin-like proteins are also lipases involved in galactolipid turnover and are known to be upregulated during leaf senescence (Troncoso-Ponce et al. 2013). Four genes in the patatin-like family were downregulated at day 7, except for one. Lipids, phospholipids and sterol transport were affected as illustrated by the two nonspecific lipid-transfer protein-like protein At5g64080 and 6 nonspecific lipid-transfer proteins downregulated at day 2 and three at day 7. One oxysterol-binding protein-related protein 2A involved in sterols transport was downregulated during storage. Annexin proteins interact with membrane lipids in response to stress and are involved in interconnections between Ca²⁺, ROS, actin and lipid signaling (Laohavisit and Davies 2011). The annexin multigene family is known to be regulated by abiotic stress, such as dehydration or wounding (Cantero et al. 2006). Here, two annexins were downregulated.

Protein catabolism

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During natural senescence, protein breakdown is one of the most important contributing processes to nitrogen remobilization (Woo et al. 2013; Poret et al. 2016). Eight genes showing an aspartic proteinase activity were downregulated at day 7, comprising 6 aspartic proteinase nepenthesin genes (Table 6) and two basic 7S globulin. Aspartic proteases take part in environmental stress responses such as wounding or dehydration (Chen et al. 2015). The ubiquitination process corresponds to the tagging of proteins by ubiquitins (monomers or polyubiquitins) mainly to induce the degradation of the targeted protein but also to modify its activity or cellular location. It can also take a role in cell signaling (Li and Ye 2008). For that purpose, E1 (activation), E2 (conjugation) and E3 (ligation) enzyme types are required

(Hershko and Ciechanover 1998). E3 ubiquitin-protein ligase and the U-box domain confer the specificity of substrate for ubiquitination processes. E3 are involved in the transfer of ubiquitin to E2 ligases, while U-box proteins participate in stress signaling (Lee and Kim 2011). Nineteen genes catalyzing the ubiquitination process were involved: 15 E3 ubiquitin-protein ligases (Table 6), 3 U-box domain-containing proteins upregulated at day 7, and 1 anaphase-promoting complex APC10 downregulated at day 2 and 1 ubiquitin carboxyl-terminal hydrolase downregulated at day 7. Among the E3 ubiquitin-protein ligases, seven of them can be associated with negative regulation of water stress response (Cho et al. 2008), and they were downregulated at day 7 except for one. The anaphase-promoting complex APC10 is a subunit of the APC/C complex (an E3 ubiquitination complex), and this subunit is implied in leaf growth regulation in Arabidopsis (Eloy et al. 2011). Ubiquitin carboxyl-terminal hydrolase are deubiquitinating enzymes of the autophagic pathway. They ensure a pool of reusable ubiquitin (Ingvardsen and Veierskov 2001). The SCF protein complex participates in the E3 ubiquitination process and is required in senescing leaves (Woo et al. 2001; Hopkins et al. 2007). This complex is composed of F-box domains, each one of which has a specific role in the stress response or senescence (Stefanowicz et al. 2015). Many components of the SCF complex were affected by the storage period: one SKP1-like protein was induced at day 7, a cullin-1 was downregulated at day 7 and 10 F-box genes were affected (6 upregulated and 4 downregulated, Table 6). The affected F-box in this experiment were not all characterized, and further studies are needed. Only one was downregulated and has been involved in the regulation of the ethylene signaling pathway (Qiu et al. 2015). A zinc finger A20 and AN1 domain-containing stress-associated protein was upregulated at day 7. It is involved in the environmental stress response (Vij and Tyagi 2006) and is required for RING fingercontaining protein stability.

Globally, the downregulation of genes involved in the cell cycle suggests a cell cycle arrest in stored lettuce leaves. The metabolisms around the cell wall were also downregulated, as well as lipid biosynthesis, degradation and transport. The absence of phospholipase D activity or oxidation of fatty acids contradicts the expected effects of senescence or wounding (Vu et al. 2014) and suggests a delay in the onset of senescence. Concomitantly, the postharvest storage induced regulations of ubiquitination processes mainly related to dehydration while links to senescence cannot be made without complementary studies on the various highlighted F-box containing genes.

Conclusion

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As expected, dark and cold storage did not limit discoloration symptoms and reduced activities of glycolysis and the Calvin cycle. However, transcriptome data highlighted a complex pattern of PPO-related gene expression that challenges the usual link made between PPO and discoloration. The postharvest senescence appeared here as a mixture between an early stress response to wound followed by a late dehydration and dark-induced senescence. The early antioxidant activity observed may delay the

senescence implementation. In chloroplasts, the diminution of CAB biosynthesis at day 7 suggested that senescence may begin only 7 d after harvest. Despite the downregulation of phospholipase D biosynthesis here, lipid metabolism can be proposed as a good target or indicator of postharvest senescence since an overall decrease in biosynthesis, degradation and transport were suggested. The cold and dark postharvest storage also created favorable conditions to maintain chlorophylls. It induced modifications of hormonal signalization mainly in response to stresses rather than senescence and appeared to down-regulate cell cycle maintenance. Many questions remain, due to the numerous TFs and unannotated genes highlighted. The present work has focused mainly on transcriptomic modulations. Although regulation models appear, translatome, proteome and epigenetic studies are needed to confirm and specify the phenomena described.

631	ABA: abscissic acid
632	ARF: auxin response factor
633	bZIP: the basic region/leucine zipper (transcription factor)
634	CAB: chlorophyll a/b binding protein
635	CDK: cyclin-dependent kinase
636	Chl: chlorophyll
637	DE: differentially expressed
638	FC: fold change
639	FDR: false discovery rate
640	$F_{V}/F_{M}\!\!:$ maximum photochemical efficiency of light harvesting of PSII
641	GH3: auxin-responsive Gretchen Hagen 3
642	IAA: indole acetic acid
643	JA: jasmonic acid
644	KEGG: Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes
645	LHC: light harvesting complex
646	NAC: NAM/ATAF/CUC (transcription factor)
647	PAL: phenylalanine ammonia-lyase
648	PI: performance index
649	PPO: polyphenol oxidase
650	PS: photosystems
651	RCs: reaction centers
652	ROS: reactive oxygen species
653	RuBisCO: ribulose bisphosphate carboxylase
654	SA: salicylic acid
655	SAG: senescence associated-genes
656	SAUR: small auxin upregulated RNA
657	SCF: Skp1/Cul1/F-box (complex)
658	SOD: superoxide dismutase
659	TF: transcription factor

Abbreviations

Declaration 660 661 Availability of data and material 662 The datasets used and/or analyzed during the current study are available from the corresponding 663 author on reasonable request. 664 **Competing interests** 665 The authors declare that they have no competing interests. **Funding** 666 667 This work was financed by a grant offered by the University of Avignon, France. 668 **Authors' contributions** 669 The original idea of this project was developed by FC, VV, HS, FL and DR. DR, SL and VV performed 670 the experiments. CK performed RNA-seq quality analyses. JR compiled data and performed data analyses. JR and DR were the major contributors in writing the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final 671 672 manuscript. 673 Acknowledgements

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Figures and tables legends 1108 1109 **Tables** 1110 Table 1: Lettuce leaves physiological parameters. Letters indicate significant differences at p < 0.051111 (Kruskal-Wallis test); s.e.: standard error; a.u.: arbitrary unit. 1112 1113 Table 2: Chloroplastic genes differentially expressed in lettuce leaves after 2 and 7 d of storage in darkness 1114 at 6 °C. DE genes were filtered with a cut-off |log2-FC| > 1.5 and FDR < 0.01. NDE: non-differentially 1115 expressed. 1116 1117 Table 3: Energy-related genes (Calvin cycle, glycolysis, starch metabolism, fermentation, ATP synthesis, 1118 photorespiration) differentially expressed in lettuce leaves after 2 and 7 d of storage in darkness at 6 °C. 1119 DE genes were filtered with a cut-off $\lfloor \log 2$ -FC $\rfloor > 1.5$ and FDR < 0.01. NDE: non-differentially expressed. 1120 Table 4: Cell-cycle-regulation related genes differentially expressed in lettuce leaves after 2 and 7 d of storage in darkness at 6 °C. DE genes were filtered with a cut-off |log2-FC| > 1.5 and FDR < 0.01. NDE: non-1121 1122 differentially expressed. 1123 1124 Table 5: Cell-wall related genes differentially expressed in lettuce leaves after 2 and 7 d of storage in 1125 darkness at 6 °C. DE genes were filtered with a cut-off |log2-FC| > 1.5 and FDR < 0.01. NDE: non-1126 differentially expressed. 1127 1128 Table 6: Protein catabolism related genes differentially expressed in lettuce leaves after 2 and 7 d of storage 1129 in darkness at 6 °C. DE genes were filtered with a cut-off |log2-FC| > 1.5 and FDR < 0.01. NDE: non-1130 differentially expressed. 1131 1132 **Figures** 1133 Figure 1: Number of differentially expressed genes in lettuce leaves after 2 and 7 d of storage in darkness 1134 at 6 °C (|log2| fold change (FC)|>1.5 and FDR <0.01). 1135 1136 Figure 2: Relative expression of stress and anti-oxidant response related genes DE in lettuce leaves stored 1137 in darkness at 6 °C during 7 d. Coloration is based on mean CPM after normalization (TMM method) and

1138 screening (|log2-FC| > 1.5 and FDR < 0.01). Red and green colors indicate respectively down- and up-1139 regulated genes. 1140 Figure 3: Phenylpropanoid pathway related genes DE in lettuce leaves stored in darkness at 6 °C during 7 d. 1141 1142 Coloration is based on mean CPM after normalization (TMM method) and screening (|log₂-FC| > 1.5 and 1143 FDR < 0.01) and indicates relative expression of selected markers over time. Enzymes catalyzing reactions 1144 are expressed in italics. PAL: phenylalanine ammonia-lyase, CYP73A: trans-cinnamate 4-monooxygenase, 1145 4CL: 4-coumarate—CoA ligase, HCT: shikimate *O-hydroxycinnamoyltransferase,* C3'H: 1146 coumaroylquinate(coumaroylshikimate) 3'-monooxygenase, PPO: polyphenol oxidase, CSE: 1147 caffeoylshikimate esterase, CHS: Chalcone synthase, CHI: Chalcone isomerase, F3H: flavanone,2oxoglutarate:oxygen oxidoreductase (3-hydroxylating), FLS: flavonol synthase, PCAH: Probable cinnamyl 1148 1149 alcohol dehydrogenase. 1150 1151 Figure 4: Relative expression of phytohormone related genes DE in lettuce leaves stored in darkness at 6 °C 1152 during 7 d. Coloration is based on mean CPM after normalization (TMM method) and screening (|log₂-FC| 1153 > 1.5 and FDR < 0.01). Red and green colors indicate respectively down- and up-regulated genes. 1154 1155 Figure 5: Relative expression of lipid metabolism related genes DE in lettuce leaves stored in darkness at 1156 6 °C during 7 d. Coloration is based on mean CPM after normalization (TMM method) and screening (|log₂-

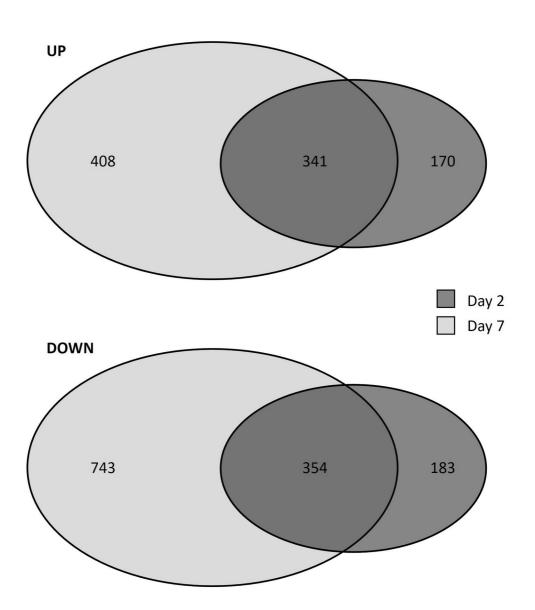
FC > 1.5 and FDR < 0.01). Red and green colors indicate respectively down- and up-regulated genes.

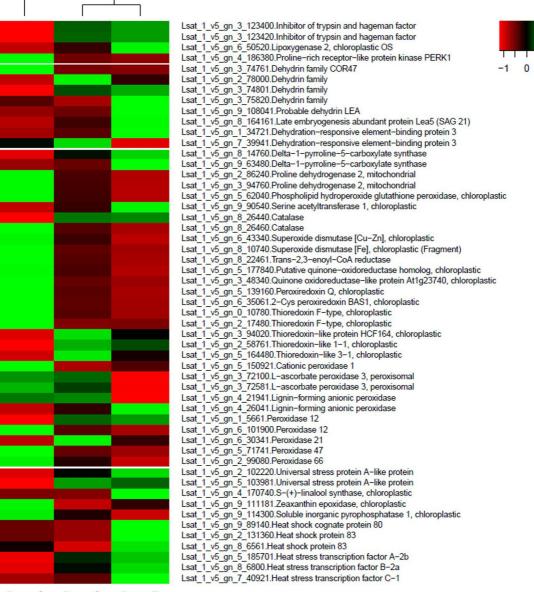
(Supplementary data (1, 2 and 3) joined aside.)

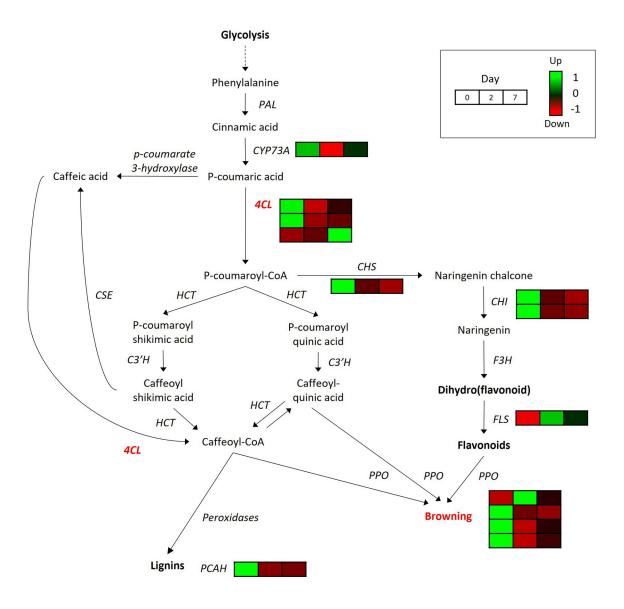
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	DAY 0		DAY 2		DAY 7	
	mean	s.e.	mean	s.e.	mean	s.e.
Cut-edge discoloration (%)	0.00 a	0.00	22.40 b	2.50	23.70 b	6.90
Weight loss (%)	0.00 a	0.00	5.42 ab	1.64	10.43 b	1.72
F _V /F _M (a.u.)	0.85 a	0.01	0.86 a	0.01	0.85 a	0.01
PI (a.u.)	1.98 a	0.46	2.30 a	0.60	2.40 a	0.39
O ₂ (%)	20.77 a	0.06	20.57 a	0.21	20.83 a	0.06

Lsat number	Orthologue	Gene_name	log₂FC Day 2	log₂FC Day 7	FDR Day 2	FDR Day 7
Lsat_1_v5_gn_5_103641	NYC1_ARATH	Probable chlorophyll(ide) b reductase NYC1	4.38	3.90	3.04E-12	1.31E-10
Lsat_1_v5_gn_5_6580	POR_DAUCA	Protochlorophyllide reductase	2.29	1.53	1.74E-10	1.49E-05
Lsat_1_v5_gn_8_66120	CLH2_ARATH	Chlorophyllase-2	2.88	2.81	7.05E-20	1.99E-19
Lsat_1_v5_gn_8_66180	CLH2_ARATH	Chlorophyllase-2	-2.93	NDE	7.97E-04	NDE
Lsat_1_v5_gn_2_88180	CHMU_ARATH	Chorismate mutase	-1.56	-1.59	8.19E-13	8.58E-14
Lsat_1_v5_gn_4_108620	CHLP_TOBAC	Geranylgeranyl diphosphate reductase	1.56	NDE	1.52E-03	NDE
Lsat_1_v5_gn_1_33240	ADS3_ARATH	Palmitoyl-monogalactosyldiacylglycerol delta-7 desaturase	-3.53	-3.94	1.96E-07	2.88E-09
Lsat_1_v5_gn_1_33441	ADS3_ARATH	Palmitoyl-monogalactosyldiacylglycerol delta-7 desaturase	NDE	-2.46	NDE	6.95E-03
Lsat_1_v5_gn_1_34480	ADS3_ARATH	Palmitoyl-monogalactosyldiacylglycerol delta-7 desaturase	-2.98	-10.73	2.28E-05	1.08E-20
Lsat_1_v5_gn_2_58980	ADS3_ARATH	Palmitoyl-monogalactosyldiacylglycerol delta-7 desaturase	-1.82	NDE	1.03E-04	NDE
Lsat_1_v5_gn_5_131560	ADS3_ARATH	Palmitoyl-monogalactosyldiacylglycerol delta-7 desaturase	NDE	-3.42	NDE	2.45E-11
Lsat_1_v5_gn_5_37300	ADS3_ARATH	Palmitoyl-monogalactosyldiacylglycerol delta-7 desaturase	2.27	2.66	8.83E-04	4.20E-05
Lsat_1_v5_gn_2_102941	CB21_TOBAC	Chlorophyll a-b binding protein 16	NDE	1.93	NDE	2.92E-07
Lsat_1_v5_gn_9_104780	CB23_TOBAC	Chlorophyll a-b binding protein 36	NDE	-1.87	NDE	4.66E-04
Lsat_1_v5_gn_4_28820	CB2G_SOLLC	Chlorophyll a-b binding protein 3C	-2.06	-1.53	6.36E-08	4.15E-05
Lsat_1_v5_gn_9_16861	PSAL_ARATH	Photosystem I reaction center subunit XI	NDE	-1.78	NDE	2.91E-13
Lsat_1_v5_gn_9_9761	PSBW_ARATH	Photosystem II reaction center W protein	4.58	2.79	2.75E-75	6.97E-31
Lsat_1_v5_gn_9_48361	PPD3_ARATH	PsbP domain-containing protein 3	NDE	-3.37	NDE	2.56E-39
Lsat_1_v5_gn_5_23660	PPL1_ARATH	PsbP-like protein 1	NDE	-2.42	NDE	1.82E-40
Lsat_1_v5_gn_4_110701	PSBQ2_ARATH	Oxygen-evolving enhancer protein 3-2	1.63	NDE	2.66E-15	NDE
Lsat_1_v5_gn_5_4581	PSBQ2_ARATH	Oxygen-evolving enhancer protein 3-2	-1.57	-2.68	1.12E-06	4.56E-17
Lsat_1_v5_gn_0_5321	UCRIA_PEA	Cytochrome b6-f complex iron-sulfur subunit	NDE	-1.79	NDE	4.35E-11

Lsat number	Orthologue	Gene_name	log₂FC Day 2	log ₂ FC Day 7	FDR Day 2	FDR Day 7
Lsat_1_v5_gn_5_153800	RCA1_LARTR	Ribulose bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase activase 1, chloroplastic	-3.24	-1.54	3.61E-14	4.67E-05
Lsat_1_v5_gn_2_118741	RCA2_LARTR	Ribulose bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase activase 2, chloroplastic	-1.51	-2.33	9.14E-08	2.38E-17
Lsat_1_v5_gn_0_40540	G3PB_PEA	Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase B, chloroplastic	NDE	-2.53	NDE	1.15E-18
Lsat_1_v5_gn_8_80661	F16P1_PEA	Fructose-1,6-bisphosphatase, chloroplastic	NDE	-1.75	NDE	1.12E-13
Lsat_1_v5_gn_7_69401	PGKH_TOBAC	Phosphoglycerate kinase, chloroplastic	NDE	-2.51	NDE	3.26E-21
Lsat_1_v5_gn_2_91600	TPT2_BRAOB	Phosphate translocator, chloroplastic	-3.17	-5.75	1.46E-20	5.83E-50
Lsat_1_v5_gn_5_14941	TPT2_BRAOB	Phosphate translocator, chloroplastic	NDE	-1.77	NDE	4.01E-19
Lsat_1_v5_gn_7_65521	GLGL1_ARATH	Glucose-1-phosphate adenylyltransferase large subunit 1, chloroplastic	NDE	-2.45	NDE	3.87E-30
Lsat_1_v5_gn_5_27340	GLGL1_BETVU	Glucose-1-phosphate adenylyltransferase large subunit, chl/amyloplastic	-3.47	NDE	1.45E-06	NDE
Lsat_1_v5_gn_2_73301	SSG1_SOLTU	Granule-bound starch synthase 1, chloroplastic/amyloplastic	-3.20	-3.81	1.14E-33	3.00E-45
Lsat_1_v5_gn_9_52960	PGMP_SOLTU	Phosphoglucomutase, chloroplastic /cytoplasmic	NDE	-1.68	NDE	4.52E-16
Lsat_1_v5_gn_4_61761	PFPB_SOLTU	Pyrophosphatefructose 6-phosphate 1-phosphotransferase subunit beta	-2.03	-2.44	1.48E-13	1.99E-19
Lsat_1_v5_gn_2_129481	ENO_ORYSJ	Enolase	2.41	3.65	2.73E-13	3.78E-28
Lsat_1_v5_gn_7_51781	DXS_ORYSJ	Probable 1-deoxy-D-xylulose-5-phosphate synthase, chloroplastic	NDE	-1.58	NDE	6.38E-06
Lsat_1_v5_gn_8_41941	ALFC3_ARATH	Probable fructose-bisphosphate aldolase 3, chloroplastic	-1.74	NDE	1.97E-12	NDE
Lsat_1_v5_gn_6_96701	ADH1_PETHY	Alcohol dehydrogenase	NDE	2.35	NDE	6.43E-05
Lsat_1_v5_gn_3_14780	ADHL3_ARATH	Alcohol dehydrogenase-like	NDE	-1.68	NDE	2.36E-05
Lsat_1_v5_gn_8_28340	ADHL7_ARATH	Alcohol dehydrogenase-like	NDE	-2.08	NDE	5.52E-14
Lsat_1_v5_gn_2_109940	KADC1_ARATH	Probable adenylate kinase, chloroplastic	2.95	3.42	1.23E-27	8.82E-37
Lsat_1_v5_gn_5_90580	KADC2_ARATH	Probable adenylate kinase, chloroplastic	NDE	-1.80	NDE	1.11E-16
Lsat_1_v5_gn_7_16100	ATPG_TOBAC	ATP synthase gamma chain, chloroplastic	NDE	-1.53	NDE	2.25E-09
Lsat_1_v5_gn_6_21280	ATPX_SPIOL	ATP synthase subunit b, chloroplastic	NDE	-1.80	NDE	2.78E-13
Lsat_1_v5_gn_4_156361	GLYM_FLAPR	Serine hydroxymethyltransferase 1, mitochondrial	NDE	-2.91	NDE	1.86E-19
Lsat_1_v5_gn_5_77601	GLNA2_DAUCA	Glutamine synthetase, chloroplastic	NDE	-2.95	NDE	2.42E-31

Lsat number	Orthologue	Gene_NDEme	log₂FC Day 2	log₂FC Day 7	FDR Day 2	FDR Day 7
Lsat_1_v5_gn_5_116960	CCD11_ARATH	Cyclin-D1-1	NDE	-2.38	NDE	1.14E-04
Lsat_1_v5_gn_3_88380	CCD32_ARATH	Cyclin-D3-2	NDE	-1.86	NDE	2.11E-09
Lsat_1_v5_gn_1_124201	CCD61_ARATH	Putative cyclin-D6-1	NDE	-1.65	NDE	7.21E-06
Lsat_1_v5_gn_1_84401	CCU41_ARATH	Cyclin-U4-1	-1.88	-1.69	1.54E-09	2.12E-08
Lsat_1_v5_gn_3_91021	KRP3_ARATH	Cyclin-dependent kiNDEse inhibitor 3	NDE	-2.36	NDE	1.89E-07
Lsat_1_v5_gn_5_179460	KRP3_ARATH	Cyclin-dependent kiNDEse inhibitor 3	1.70	1.84	8.68E-03	2.95E-03
Lsat_1_v5_gn_7_87161	KRP7_ARATH	Cyclin-dependent kiNDEse inhibitor 7	-2.62	NDE	1.50E-05	NDE
Lsat_1_v5_gn_5_62040	GPX1_PEA	Phospholipid hydroperoxide glutathione peroxidase, chloroplastic	NDE	-1.97	NDE	1.64E-22

Lsat number	Orthologue	Gene_name	log ₂ FC Day 2	log₂FC Day 7	FDR Day 2	FDR Day 7
Lsat_1_v5_gn_7_83821	XTH15_ARATH	Probable xyloglucan endotransglucosylase/hydrolase protein 15	NDE	-5.68	NDE	2.69E-08
Lsat_1_v5_gn_7_83841	XTH15_ARATH	Probable xyloglucan endotransglucosylase/hydrolase protein 15	NDE	-4.31	NDE	1.35E-10
Lsat_1_v5_gn_8_67581	XTH23_ARATH	Probable xyloglucan endotransglucosylase/hydrolase protein 23	-1.90	-1.55	8.39E-06	1.81E-04
Lsat_1_v5_gn_8_67381	XTH23_ARATH	Probable xyloglucan endotransglucosylase/hydrolase protein 23	NDE	-1.83	NDE	3.99E-05
Lsat_1_v5_gn_8_67401	XTH23_ARATH	Probable xyloglucan endotransglucosylase/hydrolase protein 23	NDE	-1.55	NDE	3.01E-05
Lsat_1_v5_gn_6_24740	XTH32_ARATH	Probable xyloglucan endotransglucosylase/hydrolase protein 32	-2.31	-3.54	4.69E-03	2.03E-05
Lsat_1_v5_gn_6_44180	XTH32_ARATH	Probable xyloglucan endotransglucosylase/hydrolase protein 32	3.31	5.00	1.71E-09	1.51E-22
Lsat_1_v5_gn_3_47880	XTH33_ARATH	Probable xyloglucan endotransglucosylase/hydrolase protein 33	-2.39	-4.13	1.29E-04	6.22E-10
Lsat_1_v5_gn_4_6921	XTH33_ARATH	Probable xyloglucan endotransglucosylase/hydrolase protein 33	NDE	-4.85	NDE	1.48E-11
Lsat_1_v5_gn_3_84840	XTH6_ARATH	Probable xyloglucan endotransglucosylase/hydrolase protein 6	-3.91	-6.31	1.37E-24	2.97E-50
Lsat_1_v5_gn_4_159341	XTH7_ARATH	Probable xyloglucan endotransglucosylase/hydrolase protein 7	NDE	-2.47	NDE	2.17E-08
Lsat_1_v5_gn_5_3340	GLPQ2_ARATH	Probable glycerophosphoryl diester phosphodiesterase 2	NDE	-1.71	NDE	3.20E-06
Lsat_1_v5_gn_3_45680	PRP2_MEDTR	Repetitive proline-rich cell wall protein 2	NA	-2.81	NA	2.20E-11
Lsat_1_v5_gn_8_33001	WAK2_ARATH	Wall-associated receptor kinase 2	2.65	NA	1.36E-04	NA
Lsat_1_v5_gn_4_178600	EXPA1_ARATH	Expansin-A1	-2.09	-2.10	5.58E-04	3.10E-04
Lsat_1_v5_gn_4_109320	EXP15_ARATH	Expansin-A15	NDE	2.23	NDE	2.29E-03
Lsat_1_v5_gn_8_73960	EXPA4_ARATH	Expansin-A4	-2.22	-2.00	6.42E-06	1.98E-05
Lsat_1_v5_gn_5_170161	EXPA4_ARATH	Expansin-A4	NDE	-2.38	NDE	6.79E-06
Lsat_1_v5_gn_2_124880	EXPA8_ARATH	Expansin-A8	-1.71	-2.23	8.73E-15	1.56E-24
Lsat_1_v5_gn_9_59761	EXPA8_ARATH	Expansin-A8	NDE	-1.60	NDE	3.03E-06
Lsat_1_v5_gn_5_137740	PME3_CITSI	Pectinesterase 3	1.98	NDE	2.83E-11	NDE
Lsat_1_v5_gn_1_52601	PME15_ARATH	Probable pectinesterase 15	-2.11	-1.71	1.38E-04	8.46E-04
Lsat_1_v5_gn_5_138221	PME12_ARATH	Probable pectinesterase/pectinesterase inhibitor 12	NDE	-1.73	NDE	1.12E-07
Lsat_1_v5_gn_9_2560	PME40_ARATH	Probable pectinesterase/pectinesterase inhibitor 40	-2.17	-2.96	3.88E-06	2.17E-10
Lsat_1_v5_gn_8_144820	PME51_ARATH	Probable pectinesterase/pectinesterase inhibitor 51	-2.12	-1.77	6.99E-04	3.45E-03

Lsat number	Orthologue	Gene_name	log ₂ FC Day 2	log ₂ FC Day 7	FDR Day 2	FDR Day 7
Lsat_1_v5_gn_1_115840	NEP1_NEPGR	Aspartic proteinase nepenthesin-1	NDE	-2.04	NDE	6.13E-11
Lsat_1_v5_gn_2_25300	NEP1_NEPGR	Aspartic proteinase nepenthesin-1	-1.62	NDE	4.31E-03	NDE
Lsat_1_v5_gn_2_37681	NEP1_NEPGR	Aspartic proteinase nepenthesin-1	NDE	-1.56	NDE	1.45E-03
Lsat_1_v5_gn_8_38360	NEP1_NEPGR	Aspartic proteinase nepenthesin-1	NDE	-3.76	NDE	2.89E-07
Lsat_1_v5_gn_2_55601	NEP2_NEPGR	Aspartic proteinase nepenthesin-2	NDE	-1.95	NDE	1.06E-13
Lsat_1_v5_gn_3_61320	NEP2_NEPGR	Aspartic proteinase nepenthesin-2	-1.81	-3.65	6.01E-04	3.73E-12
Lsat_1_v5_gn_7_68021	7SB1_SOYBN	Basic 7S globulin	NDE	-1.65	NDE	4.02E-09
Lsat_1_v5_gn_9_4161	7SB1_SOYBN	Basic 7S globulin	NDE	-1.90	NDE	2.41E-08
Lsat_1_v5_gn_1_64121	UBL5_ARATH	Ubiquitin-like protein 5	NDE	1.87	NDE	8.23E-11
Lsat_1_v5_gn_1_127601	UBI2P_PETCR	Polyubiquitin	-1.51	NDE	1.37E-10	NDE
Lsat_1_v5_gn_7_16760	UBI2P_PETCR	Polyubiquitin	-1.52	NDE	1.97E-10	NDE
Lsat_1_v5_gn_2_53840	PUB22_ARATH	E3 ubiquitin-protein ligase PUB22	1.74	NDE	7.85E-11	NDE
Lsat_1_v5_gn_1_58201	PUB23_ARATH	E3 ubiquitin-protein ligase PUB23	NDE	-2.30	NDE	1.05E-07
Lsat_1_v5_gn_1_58280	PUB23_ARATH	E3 ubiquitin-protein ligase PUB23	NDE	-2.01	NDE	1.31E-08
Lsat_1_v5_gn_2_34501	PUB23_ARATH	E3 ubiquitin-protein ligase PUB23	NDE	-1.74	NDE	5.75E-04
Lsat_1_v5_gn_2_35740	PUB23_ARATH	E3 ubiquitin-protein ligase PUB23	NDE	-2.45	NDE	9.54E-05
Lsat_1_v5_gn_6_33780	PUB23_ARATH	E3 ubiquitin-protein ligase PUB23	NDE	-1.94	NDE	2.90E-08
Lsat_1_v5_gn_7_10960	PUB23_ARATH	E3 ubiquitin-protein ligase PUB23	NDE	-2.61	NDE	8.87E-08
Lsat_1_v5_gn_8_133561	RMA1_CAPAN	E3 ubiquitin-protein ligase RMA1H1	NDE	1.51	NDE	4.04E-05
Lsat_1_v5_gn_9_25941	SINA2_ARATH	E3 ubiquitin-protein ligase SINAT2	NDE	-1.71	NDE	6.62E-07
Lsat_1_v5_gn_4_3921	RGLG2_ARATH	E3 ubiquitin-protein ligase RGLG2	NDE	1.82	NDE	2.02E-07
Lsat_1_v5_gn_4_33741	SINA5_ARATH	E3 ubiquitin-protein ligase SINAT5	1.71	NDE	6.80E-05	NDE
Lsat_1_v5_gn_2_127400	ARATH	E3 ubiquitin-protein ligase	2.18	1.97	1.75E-12	1.46E-10
Lsat_1_v5_gn_7_97260	RHA1B_ARATH	E3 ubiquitin-protein ligase RHA1B	NDE	-1.59	NDE	1.27E-05
Lsat_1_v5_gn_4_17160	ATL6_ARATH	E3 ubiquitin-protein ligase ATL6	NDE	-2.37	NDE	1.46E-03
Lsat_1_v5_gn_8_52720	RNG1L_ARATH	E3 ubiquitin-protein ligase RING1-like	NDE	1.64	NDE	9.47E-09
Lsat_1_v5_gn_0_34660	PUB11_ARATH	U-box domain-containing protein 11	NDE	3.48	NDE	3.03E-15
Lsat_1_v5_gn_5_17060	PUB19_ARATH	U-box domain-containing protein 19	NDE	2.66	NDE	5.29E-19
Lsat_1_v5_gn_9_17860	PUB9_ARATH	U-box domain-containing protein 9	NDE	1.55	NDE	1.53E-12
Lsat_1_v5_gn_4_151201	APC10-ARATH	APC10	-1.54	NDE	4.75E-07	NDE
Lsat_1_v5_gn_2_35221	UBP8_ARATH	Ubiquitin carboxyl-terminal hydrolase 8	NDE	-1.50	NDE	2.27E-07

Lsat_1_v5_gn_3_47680	SKP1B_ARATH	SKP1-like protein 1B	NDE	1.93	NDE	3.19E-05
Lsat_1_v5_gn_3_24140	CUL1_ARATH	Cullin-1	NDE	-1.68	NDE	3.83E-11
Lsat_1_v5_gn_5_157480	FB118_ARATH	F-box protein At2g26850	NDE	2.67	NDE	2.48E-08
Lsat_1_v5_gn_9_103981	FB135_ARATH	F-box protein At3g07870	1.58	1.65	5.06E-05	1.91E-05
Lsat_1_v5_gn_9_104220	FB135_ARATH	F-box protein At3g07870	-1.79	NDE	3.37E-10	NDE
Lsat_1_v5_gn_9_104300	FB135_ARATH	F-box protein At3g07870	NDE	-2.33	NDE	1.67E-04
Lsat_1_v5_gn_9_51281	FB253_ARATH	F-box protein At5g07610	NDE	3.59	NDE	3.07E-06
Lsat_1_v5_gn_9_125181	P2B15_ARATH	F-box protein PP2-B15	NDE	-1.80	NDE	2.60E-09
Lsat_1_v5_gn_9_65340	FB20_ARATH	F-box protein At1g30790	NDE	-2.13	NDE	4.44E-09
Lsat_1_v5_gn_6_97240	SKP2A_ARATH	F-box protein SKP2A	2.60	2.88	1.84E-03	6.06E-04
Lsat_1_v5_gn_0_29401	FBK67_ARATH	F-box/kelch-repeat protein At3g23880	2.93	NDE	1.75E-03	NDE
Lsat_1_v5_gn_7_12620	FDL7_ARATH	Putative F-box/FBD/LRR-repeat protein At1g66290	1.55	1.60	4.22E-05	2.03E-05
Lsat_1_v5_gn_5_95460	EBF2_ARATH	EIN3-binding F-box protein 2	-3.24	-1.89	4.56E-25	1.78E-10
Lsat_1_v5_gn_1_66321	SAP5_ARATH	Zinc finger A20 and AN1 domain stress-associated protein 5	NDE	2.02	NDE	3.15E-10