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### 1 Research article

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# Transcriptome profiling and digital gene expression analysis of genes associated with salinity resistance in peanut

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### ABSTRACT

Background: Soil salinity can significantly reduce crop production, but the molecular mechanism of salinity 18 tolerance in peanut is poorly understood. A mutant (S1) with higher salinity resistance than its mutagenic 19 parent HY22 (S3) was obtained. Transcriptome sequencing and digital gene expression (DGE) analysis were 20 performed with leaves of S1 and S3 before and after plants were irrigated with 250 mM NaCl. Results: A total of 107,725 comprehensive transcripts were assembled into 67,738 unigenes using TIGR Gene 22 Indices clustering tools (TGICL). All unigenes were searched against the euKaryotic Ortholog Groups (KOG), 23 gene ontology (GO) and Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) databases, and these unigenes 24 were assigned to 26 functional KOG categories, 56 GO terms, 32 KEGG groups, respectively. In total 112 25 differentially expressed genes (DEGs) between S1 and S3 after salinity stress were screened, among them, 86 26 were responsive to salinity stress in S1 and/or S3. These 86 DEGs included genes that encoded the following 27 kinds of proteins that are known to be involved in resistance to salinity stress: late embryogenesis abundant 28 proteins (LEAs), major intrinsic proteins (MIPs) or aquaporins, metallothioneins (MTs), lipid transfer protein 29 (LTP), calcineurin B-like protein-interacting protein kinases (CIPKs), 9-cis-epoxycarotenoid dioxygenase 30 (NCED) and oleosins, etc. Of these 86 DEGs, 18 could not be matched with known proteins. 31 Conclusion: The results from this study will be useful for further research on the mechanism of salinity resistance 32 and will provide a useful gene resource for the variety breeding of salinity resistance in peanut. 33

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### 53 **1. Introduction**

54 Over the past few decades, there has been a dramatic increase in the 55 salinization of arable land. As the land available for conventional 56 agriculture becomes increasingly limited, plants grown on marginal 57 soils will be exposed to higher levels of soil salinity. Soil salinity is a 58 major abiotic stress responsible for reduced growth and yield of many 59 crops [1]. Consequently, a better understanding of salt tolerance in 60 crops is needed.

Peanut (*Arachis hypogaea* L.), which is an important oil-crop and protein production in the tropics and subtropics [2], is likely to face increased drought and salinity stresses in the near future [3]. Hence, genes responsible for resistance to drought and salinity stress in peanut need to be identified and studied. Unfortunately, little progress has been made in the study of salinity tolerance in peanut, in part

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because of the lack of peanut germplasm with high resistance to 67 salinity stress. In our previous studies, we conducted in vitro 68 mutagenesis (with pingyangmycin as the mutagen) and directed 69 screening with a medium containing NaCl to generate mutants with 70 salt tolerance [4]. One mutant (designated S1) with enhanced salinity 71 tolerance was obtained. This mutant had a much higher germination 72 rate than its mutagenic parent Huayu 22 (designated S3) in a 0.7% 73 NaCl solution, and its self-pollinated offspring grew better than S3 in a 74 saline-alkali field in Dongying City, China. Little is known, however, 75 about the molecular mechanisms resulting in salt tolerance in peanut.

High-throughput RNA-sequencing (RNA-Seq) is a recent and 77 effective technology for the analysis of gene expression, the discovery 78 of novel transcripts, and the identification of differentially expressed 79 genes (DEGs). This powerful technology makes it possible to study 80 non-model organisms [5,6,7].

To investigate the molecular basis for the salinity-tolerance in 82 peanut, we compared the transcriptome and digital gene expression 83 (DGE) profiles in the leaves of S1 and its salinity-sensitive parent, S3, 84 before and after the application of a salinity-stress treatment. We 85 identified the specific transcripts related to salinity-stress resistance in 86 peanut, and we discussed the possible roles of the DEGs. 87

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J. Sui et al. / Electronic Journal of Biotechnology xxx (2017) xxx-xxx

### 88 2. Materials and methods

### 89 **2.1**. Plant growth and stress treatments

The seeds of S1 (the mutant with enhanced salinity tolerance) and 90 91 S3 (Huayu 22, the control) were grown in a growth chamber with a 92 dark/light cycle of 8/16 h at 28°C for six weeks. Then, the seedlings of 93 each genotype were irrigated with 250 mM NaCl for salinity stress 94 under culture-room conditions according to our previous report [8]. At 95 0, 6, 12, 24, and 48 h after the seedlings were subjected to the NaCl solution, the leaves of the S1 and S3 seedlings were removed and 96 placed in liquid nitrogen. 97

### 98 2.2. Library construction and transcriptome sequencing

A total amount of 1.5-µg RNA per sample was used as input material 99 for the RNA sample preparations. Sequencing libraries were generated 100 101 using NEBNext® Ultra<sup>™</sup> RNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina® (NEB, USA) f and index codes were added to attribute sequences to each 102 sample. Briefly, mRNA was purified from total RNA using poly-T 103 oligo-attached magnetic beads. Fragmentation was carried out using 104 divalent cations under elevated temperature in NEBNext First Strand 105 106 Synthesis Reaction Buffer (5X). First strand cDNA was synthesized using random hexamer primer and M-MuLV Reverse Transcriptase 107 (RNase H-). Second strand cDNA synthesis was subsequently 108 performed using DNA Polymerase I and RNase H. Remaining 109 overhangs were converted into blunt ends via exonuclease/ 110 111 polymerase activities. After adenylation of 3' ends of DNA fragments, NEBNext Adaptor with hairpin loop structure were ligated to prepare 112 for hybridization. In order to select cDNA fragments of preferentially 113 114 150-200 bp in length, the library fragments were purified with 115 AMPure XP system (Beckman Coulter, Beverly, USA). Then, 3-µl USER 116 Enzyme (NEB, USA) was used with size-selected, adaptor-ligated cDNA at 37°C for 15 min followed by 5 min at 95°C before PCR. Then 117 PCR was performed with Phusion High-Fidelity DNA polymerase, 118 Universal PCR primers and Index (X) Primer. At last, The RNA from 119 120 each combination of seedling type (S1 or S3) and time after salt treatment was pooled and then analyzed with an Agilent 2100 121 Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA). Sequencing of the 122 RNA was carried out by Novogene Bioinformatics Technology Co., Ltd. 123 (Beijing, China) on an Illumina HiSeq2000 sequencer. For no reference 124 125 genome, after the acquisition of clean reads, the clean reads needs to be spliced to obtain the reference sequence for subsequent analysis. 126 127 All clean sequence read data were deposited in the NCBI SRA database 128 (accession number SRR3114511), and then they were assembled into comprehensive unigenes using Trinity and TGICL [9]. 129

### 130 2.3. Transcriptome functional annotation

The assignment of sequence orientations and functional annotations 131 of the all-unigenes were determined by BLASTx against the following 132 133 databases: the NCBI non-redundant (NR) protein database, the Swiss-Prot protein database with an E-value cut-off of 10<sup>-5</sup>, the Kyoto 134 Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) pathway database with 135 an E-value of  $10^{-10}$ , and the euKaryotic Ortholog Groups of proteins 136 (KOG) database with an E value of  $10^{-3}$ . The all-unigenes were 137 assigned to Gene Ontology (GO) categories with an E-value cut-off of 138  $10^{-6}$ . In addition, unigenes were aligned with the NCBI nucleotide 139 (NT) databases using BLASTn with an E value of  $10^{-5}$ . 140

141 2.4. Digital gene expression (DGE) sequencing and mapping

The RNA samples from S1 and S3 were labeled with the sampling times (0, 6, 12, 24, and 48 h after NaCl treatment) as follows: S1\_0, S1\_6, S1\_12, S1\_24, and S1\_48 for S1, and S3\_0, S3\_6, S3\_12, S3\_24, and S3\_48 for S3. Each combination of genotype and sampling time after salt treatment was represented by two replicate RNA samples. 146 DGE sequencing was carried out with a single 50-bp end read for each 147 reaction; all clean sequence read data were deposited in the NCBI SRA 148 database (accession number SRR3204213 and SRR3204348). Then, all 149 reads of each library were separately mapped onto the unigenes using 150 the default parameters in SOAP, and the uniquely mapped reads were 151 extracted for abundance quantification. Finally, unigene expression 152 was normalized using the value of RPKM (reads per kilobase per 153 million reads). Multiple comparisons were carried between the data 154 sets of different samples. 157

Expression was compared both within each genotype and between 156 the two genotypes. The comparison between S1 and S3 samples 157 resulted in D series data sets, which represented the DEGs between S1 158 and S3 samples in response to salinity stress treatment; they were 159 denoted as D\_0, D\_6, D\_12, D\_24 and D\_48 with the sampling time 160 point of 0, 6, 12, 24 and 48 h. Between the genotypes, expression was 161 compared at 0, 6, 12, 24, and 48 h. If the level of expression was 162 significantly different (the adjusted *P*-value < 0.05) in a comparison, 163 the gene was considered to be differentially expressed. Within S1 and 164 S3, expression was compared between each two sampling time of 0, 6, 165 12, 24, and 48 h; if the level of expression was significantly up- or 166 down-regulated (the adjusted *P*-value < 0.05) in a comparison, this 167 gene was proposed to be responsive to salinity stress. Pathways that 168 were statistically significant (FDR  $\leq$  0.05) were enriched with KEGG. Q4

### 2.5. Real-time PCR analysis

To determine whether the expression analyses were correct, we 171 performed real-time PCR analysis on selected DEGs. Reverse 172 transcription were performed using an Invitrogen SuperScript Reagent 173 Kit. For real-time PCR, the SYBR® Premix Ex Taq<sup>M</sup> (TAKARA) was 174 used on a Bio-Rad CFX96 real-time PCR detection system (Bio-Rad, 175 Hercules, CA). Gene expression was analyzed for S1 and S3 samples at 176 0, 6, 12, 24, and 48 h after application of the salinity-stress treatment. 177 All reactions for each gene were performed in three biological 178 replications with a 20-µl reaction volume. The relative expression level 179 of each gene among samples was calculated using the 2<sup>- $\Delta$ Ct</sup> method 180 with normalization to the internal reference *actin* gene from peanut. 181 The parameters of the thermal cycle were 95°C for 30 s, followed by 182 40 cycles of 95°C for 10 s and 50–56°C for 25 s.

3. Results

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### 3.1. Transcriptomic sequencing and de novo assembly 185

The transcriptomic analysis of pooled samples resulted in a total of 186 62,887,762 clean reads and 7.86 G clean base pairs. The 187 comprehensive reads were assembled into transcripts using 188 paired-end reads, resulting in 107,725 comprehensive transcripts. 189 With the criteria of more than 50-bp overlap and 90% identity, the 190 transcripts were further assembled into 67,738 unigenes using TGICL. 191 The size of unigenes ranged from 201 to 18,360 bp with an average 192 length of 766 bp; the N50 value was 1362 bp (Fig. S1). 193

### 3.2. Function annotation and classification 194

Predicted functions of these unigenes were obtained by searching 195 against several protein databases. The number and percentage of the 196 67,738 unigenes that were annotated in the NR, NT, SwissProt, and 197 PFAM databases are indicated in Table S1. 198

All unigenes were searched against the euKaryotic Ortholog Groups 199 (KOG) database to divide ortholog clusters by phylogenetical relations. 200 A total of 10,571 (15.61%) of the 67,738 unigenes were assigned to the 201 26 function categories (Fig. 1, Table S2). The top five categories were 202 "General function prediction only" (1983, 18.76%), "Posttranslational 203 modification, protein turnover, chaperones" (1369, 12.95%), "Signal 204

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