

Enhanced production of lignans and neolignans in chitosan-treated flax (Linum usitatissimum L.) cell cultures

Waqar Ahmad, Adnan Zahir, Muhammad Nadeem, Laurine Garros, Samantha Drouet, Sullivan Renouard, Joel Doussot, Nathalie Giglioli-Guivarc'h, Christophe Hano, Bilal Haider Abbasi

▶ To cite this version:

Waqar Ahmad, Adnan Zahir, Muhammad Nadeem, Laurine Garros, Samantha Drouet, et al.. Enhanced production of lignans and neolignans in chitosan-treated flax (Linum usitatissimum L.) cell cultures. Process Biochemistry, 2019, 79, pp.155-165. 10.1016/j.procbio.2018.12.025 . hal-02527735

HAL Id: hal-02527735 https://univ-tours.hal.science/hal-02527735v1

Submitted on 22 Oct 2021

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.



Distributed under a Creative Commons Attribution - NonCommercial 4.0 International License

1 Research Article for Process Biochemistry

| 2 | Enhanced production of lignans and neolignans in chitosan-treated flax |
|----|---|
| 3 | (Linum usitatissimum L.) cell cultures |
| 4 | Waqar Ahmad ¹ , Adnan Zahir ¹ , Muhammad Nadeem ¹ , Laurine Garros ^{2,4,5} , Samantha Drouet ^{2,4} , |
| 5 | Sullivan Renouard ^{2,4} , Joël Doussot ^{2,4,6} , Nathalie Giglioli-Guivarc'h ^{3,4} , |
| 6 | Christophe Hano ^{2,4*} , Bilal Haider Abbasi ^{1,2,3,4} * |
| 7 | ¹ Department of Biotechnology, Quaid-i-Azam University, Islamabad-45320, Pakistan |
| 8 | ² Laboratoire de Biologie des Ligneux et des Grandes Cultures (LBLGC), Plant Lignans Team, INRA |
| 9 | USC1328, Université d'Orléans, F 28000 Chartres, France |
| 10 | ³ EA2106 Biomolécules et Biotechnologies Végétales, Université François-Rabelais de Tours, Tours |
| 11 | ⁴ Bioactifs et Cosmétiques, GDR 3711 COSMACTIFS, CNRS/Université d'Orléans, France, France |
| 12 | ⁵ Institut de Chimie Organique et Analytique, ICOA UMR7311, Université d'Orléans-CNRS, 45067 |
| 13 | Orléans CÉDEX 2, France |
| 14 | ⁶ Le CNAM, Conservatoire National des Arts et Métiers, CASER-SITI-CG, 2 rue Conté, 75003 Paris, |
| 15 | France |
| 16 | *Correspondence |
| 17 | Bilal Haider Abbasi: bhabbasi@qau.edu.pk_Christophe Hano: christophe.hano@univ-orleans.fr |
| 18 | Phone & Fax: +92-51-90644121 |

19 Abstract

20 *Linum usitatissimum* is a source of pharmacologically active lignans and neolignans. An effective 21 protocol has been established for the enhanced biosynthesis of lignans and neolignans in cell cultures 22 of Linum usitatissimum by using chitosan addition. Gene expression analysis of monoligols (PAL, 23 CCR and CAD), lignans (DIR, PLR and UGT) and neolignans (PCBER) biosynthetic genes by RTqPCR as well as monolignol biosynthetic PAL, CCR and CAD enzyme activities evidenced a 24 25 stimulation following chitosan treatment. Validated reverse phase high-performance liquid 26 chromatography coupled to diode array detection was used to quantify secoisolariciresinol 27 diglucoside (SDG) and lariciresinol diglucoside (LDG), dehydrodiconiferyl alcohol glucoside (DCG) 28 and guaiacylglycerol- β -coniferyl alcohol ether glucoside (GGCG) showed that chitosan treated cell 29 cultures had better accumulation of these metabolites. Maximum enhancements of 7.3-fold (28 mg/g 30 DW) occurred for LDG, 3.5-fold (58.85 mg/g DW) in DCG and while the least enhancement of 2-31 fold (18.42 mg/g DW) for SDG was observed in 10 mg/L chitosan treated cell cultures than to controls. Furthermore, same concentration of chitosan also resulted in 1.3-fold increase in 32 33 antioxidant activity. Compared to the lignans and neolignans accumulations observed in wild type 34 and RNAi-PLR transgenic flaxseeds, chitosan-treated cell cultures appeared to be a very effective 35 production system for these compounds.

36 Keywords: Linum usitatissimum; chitosan; lignans; neolignans; elicitation; cell culture.

37 1. Introduction

38

Flax (Linum usitatissimum L.) is used for more than 10,000 years in terms of consumption and 39 cultivation [1, 2]. More recently, the detection of polyphenols (lignans, neolignans) has opened 40 new dimensions for flax in pharmaceutical and nutraceutical industries to be used for preventing 41 cancers, cardiovascular disorders, diabetes, lupus nephritis and other disorders [3]. Along with 42 lignans, L. usitatissimum is considered a good source for accumulation of neolignans which are 43 potential candidates in anti-inflammatory and antifungal applications [4].

44 Haworth (1942) coined the term lignan for the first time to define a class of dimeric 45 phenylpropanoids in which two units C_6 - C_3 are linked by the central C_8 [5], lignans are a group 46 of phytochemicals (polyphenols) which are formed by connection of 2 cinnamyl alcohols [6]. 47 Whereas Gottlieb (1978) speculated that molecules having 2 phenylpropanoid parts attached in a 48 different fashion, such as C5-C5' should be called neolignans [7]. Lignans and neolignans are 49 structurally made of two propyl benzene units (Fig 1). In lignans these units are associated by a 50 β - β' bond while this substitution pattern is different in neolignans [8]. Lignans are reported in 51 more than 65 families of vascular plants, and are extracted from almost all parts of a plant [9].

52 Pharmacological activities of lignans have been demonstrated in various experimental models. Lignans induce the synthesis of 2-hydroxy estrogen in females which has a potential role in 53 54 deterrence of cancer [10]. Lignans are believed to be responsible for inhibiting the growth of 55 different human prostate cancer cell lines [11, 12] According to reported data [13] when a dose 56 of 10 mg/kg of lignans administered subcutaneously in athymic mice, have diminished the 57 proliferation of 201 human colon cancer cell lines. Flax was also reported to abate the elevated 58 blood glucose concentration in post meal duration [14, 15]. A study conducted on a group of 59 females in which they were fed with ground flax seeds 50 g/day, after four weeks their blood 60 glucose level has been significantly reduced [16].

The production of secondary metabolites in different plant culture techniques using biotechnological interventions is an attractive substitute to the isolation from whole plant materials [16]. Using plant cell cultures coupled with elicitation strategies such as introduction of physical and chemical entities to the cell culture *per se* or growth conditions, as a biological platform for the synthesis of secondary metabolites is a promising approach for the sustainable production in modern medicinal and aromatic industry [17].

67 Due to growing interests on lignans and neolignans, alternate platforms for their production other 68 than conventional plant cultivation are needed. Cell and tissue culture techniques could be used 69 for the enhanced biosynthesis of these metabolites. Chitosan is a polycationic β -1,4 linked D-70 glucosamine polymer known to act as a bioactive antifungal agent [18] though the elicitation of 71 pathogenesis-related proteins in the host [19] and stimulation of phytoalexin production [20]. 72 Chitosan has not been exploited previously for the accumulation of these valuable lignans and 73 neolignans in cell cultures of flax. Therefore, in current study effect of chitosan is evaluated 74 based on its impact on the biosynthesis and dynamics of these anti-cancer lignans and neolignans. A validated reverse-phase high performance liquid chromatography (RP-HPLC 75 76 DAD) was used for the quantification of lignans and neolignans. As per our knowledge, this is 77 the first report on enhanced biosynthesis of lignans (secoisolariciresinol diglucoside (SDG) and 78 lariciresinol diglucoside (LDG)) and neolignans (dehydrodiconiferyl alcohol diglucoside (DCG) 79 and guaiacylglycerol- β -coniferyl ether diglucoside (GGCG)) using chitosan as a stimulator of 80 lignans and neolignans production in flax cell cultures. Current research has a potential to be 81 scaled up to bioreactor levels for the feasible biosynthesis of these commercially important 82 metabolites.

83 **2. Materials and Methods**

84 **2.1** Plant materials

Flax seeds (brown variety) were collected from malakand division hills (natural habitat) Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan. The flax cultivar Barbara was supplied by Coopérative Terre de Lin (St Pierre le Viger, France). The generation of the RNAi plants and the homozygous transgenic lines were obtained as previously described [21].

For germination, seeds were surface sterilized using 0.1% mercuric chloride and 70% ethanol for 30 and 60 seconds respectively, subsequently washed 3 times with dH₂O (autoclaved water) and dried using sterilized filter paper sheet. The sterilized seeds were inoculated on MS (Murashige and Skoog basal Media) following the protocol described earlier [22]. Growth room temperature was maintained at $25\pm2^{\circ}$ C and 16/8 h (light/dark) photoperiod having 40 µmol/m²/s light intensity for all cultures was adjusted.

95

2.2 Establishment of callus cultures

96 For establishing callus, stem explant was excised from 4 week-old plantlets (in vitro). Explant 97 was inoculated using the optimized protocol [23]. Stem explants (~1.0 cm long) were inoculated 98 on MS media modified with NAA (α-naphthalene acetic acid) 1.0 mg/L, sucrose 30g/L, agar 99 8g/L and pH was adjusted to 5.6 using 2 M NaOH (sodium hydroxide) prior to autoclaving 100 (121°C, 20 min)and kept at above said conditions for growth.. The explant derived calli were 101 subcultured after 4 weeks to ensure 100% callogenesis. The experiment was executed in 102 triplicates. Chemicals used in experimentation were all purchased from Sigma Corporation 103 (USA).

104 **2.3** Cell suspension culture

For cell suspension culture, the 3-weeks old calli (subcultured) were inoculated in Erlenmeyer flasks (250 ml) containing liquid MS media with sucrose (30g/L) and 1.0 mg/L NAA. Flasks were kept on gyratory shaker ($25 \pm 2^{\circ}$ C) at constant agitation (120 rpm) in 16/8 h (light/dark) photoperiod with light intensity of 40 µm/m²/s for 15 days. For inoculum preparation 250 ml Erlenmeyer flasks containing 100 ml Media (each flask) were used.

110 **2.4 Elicitor preparation and treatment**

111 Chitosan (C6H11NO4)_n (deacetylating grade: 70-85%) was used as an elicitor. Chitosan was 112 dissolved in 0.1% acetic acid at 50°C with continuous stirring for 5 hours. For elicitation liquid 113 MS media was prepared having sucrose 30g/L and NAA 1.0 mg/L. To that media different 114 concentrations (0.1, 0.5, 1.0, 10, 20, 50, 100, 200 and 500 mg/L) of chitosan were added. Prior to 115 autoclaving (121°C, 20 min), pH was set to 5.6. Experiment was performed in Erlenmeyer flasks 116 (100 ml) containing 40 ml of media. To each flask 10 ml of inoculum (15 days old fine cells) was 117 added. Triplicate flasks were used for each concentration. Cultures were kept on gyratory shaker 118 (25±2 °C) at constant agitation (120 rpm) in 16/8 h (light/dark) photoperiod. MS media 119 containing sucrose 30g/L and NAA 1.0 mg/L without any elicitor was used as control. 120 Observation of the experiment and tracking data of the growth dynamics and secondary 121 metabolites accumulation was executed with the gap of 5 days interval for 50 days.

122 **2.5 Biomass determination**

To determine the fresh weight (FW), respective cell cultures were harvested through filtration using 0.45 μm stainless steel sieve (Sigma), to remove any attached media, cell cultures were gently washed using dH₂O. To remove the excess water, cells were gently rubbed on filter paper sheets and cells were weighed for FW. To obtain dry weight (DW) cell were dried in oven (45°C,
48 hours).

128 **2.6** RNA extraction

Total RNA was extracted from 100 mg of liquid nitrogen ground frozen tissues using the Plant
GeneJet RNA Purification Kit (Life Technologies) according to supplier instructions.
Quantification of RNA was each performed using a fluorometer, with the Quant-iT RNA Assay
Kit (Invitrogen) adapted for the Qubit fluorometer, according to the manufacturer's protocol.

133 2.7 RT-qPCR analysis

134 Reverse transcription was performed using a First-strand cDNA synthesis kit (Thermo). 135 Quantitative PCR was performed in 96-well plates with a PikoReal real time PCR system 136 (ThermoFisher) using the DyNAmoColorFlash SYBR Green qPCR Kit (ThermoFisher). Each 137 reaction was made in 10 μ L (1 μ M of each primer pairs, 0.5 μ L diluted cDNAs and 2 × SYBR 138 Green mix). All PCR reactions were carried out with the following protocol: 7 min at 95 °C, 40 139 cycles of 10 s at 95 °C, 10 s at 55 °C and 30 s at 72 °C. The specificity of the amplified product 140 was confirmed for each primer pair, via a melting curve. Data analysis was carried out with 141 Pikoreal software. Three biological replicates and two technical repetitions were performed for 142 each sample. Relative transcript levels were obtained using specific primers (Table S1), designed 143 with Primer3 software, and normalized via the comparative $\Delta\Delta Cq$ method using two validated housekeeping reference genes selected by Huis et al.²⁴: LuCYC encoding for cyclophilin and 144 145 LuETIF5A encoding for Eukaryotic Translation Initiation Factor 5A. Results were presented on a 146 heat map format using the MeV software computed with a hierarchical clustering analysis (HCA) 147 representation employing the Euclidean distance as a clustering method with a complete linkage 148 clustering as parameters.

149 **2.8** *PAL activity*

Soluble proteins were extracted from 1.5 g of fresh frozen tissue by homogenization in 3 ml of 0.1 M sodium borate buffer (SBB) pH 8.8 containing 10 mM β -mercaptoethanol and kept on ice for 30 min. After centrifugation (10 min, 16,000 g) at 4°C the supernatant was collected and used in the assay. Protein concentrations were quantified using a Qubit fluorimeter and the Quant-iT Protein Assay Kit (Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's protocol.

PAL specific activity was assayed spectrophotometrically by monitoring the production of *trans*cinnamate at 290 nm as previously described [25]. The reaction mixtures contained 50 lg proteins
and 50 mM l-phenylalanine in 5 ml of SBB (pH 8.8) and were incubated at 40°C.

158 **2.9 CCR and CAD activities**

Soluble proteins were extracted by grinding 1.5 g of fresh frozen tissue in a pre-chilled mortar containing a cold extraction buffer (0.1 M Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 5% w:v ethylene glycol, 2% w:v polyvinyl polypyrrolidone and 0.1 M β -mercaptoethanol). The crude extract was centrifuged (10 min, 16,000 g) at 4°C and the supernatant was used in the assays. Protein concentrations were quantified using a Qubit fluorimeter and the Quant-iT Protein Assay Kit (Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's protocol.

165 CCR specific activity was determined spectrophotometrically as described previously [26] using 166 feruloyl-CoA as substrate. Feruloyl-CoA was synthesized according to the optimized protocol 167 reported previously [27].

168 CAD specific activities were determined spectrophotometrically as described earlier [28]

169 **2.10 Plant extracts preparation**

170 Extracts of cell cultures were prepared following the protocol described previously [29] with 171 slight modifications. Dried cell cultures were grounded finely and mixed with methanol in 1:5 172 (100 mg in 500 ul). All mixtures were sonicated for 30 minutes and followed by vortexing for 5 173 minutes, this process is repeated twice. These mixtures were then kept on gyratory shaker (25 \pm 174 2°C) at constant agitation (80 rpm) for 24 hours. The sonication and vortexing were repeated and 175 finally the mixtures were centrifuged at 10,000 rpm for 10 minutes and supernatant was collected 176 and subsequently syringe filtered and stored at 4°C to be analyzed. For the extraction of lignans 177 and neolignans from cell cultures of flax the protocol described by [4] was followed. Extraction 178 of lyophilized cells was carried out using 80% v/v (20 ml) methanol (aqueous) using ultra 179 sonication (USC1200TH) having 30 kHz frequency for 1 hour at 25 ± 2 °C. The mixture was subjected to centrifugation. The supernatant was extracted and evaporated (40 °C) and followed 180 181 by suspending (4 h at 40°C) in 0.1 M (1 ml) 4.8 pH buffer (citrate-phosphate). In order to release 182 the aglycones the buffer was equipped with β -glucosidase from almonds (5 units/ml; Sigma 183 Adrich).

184

2.11 Determination of total phenolic production

185 Total phenolic content (TPC) was evaluated according to the previously reported protocol [22] using Folin-Ciocalteu (FC) reagent. Twenty microliter of sample extract and 90 µl of FC reagent 186 187 were mixed and diluted 10x using dH₂O followed by incubation for 5 minutes at 25 ± 2 °C. 188 Sodium carbonate (6%, w/v) was added to the mixture. Absorbance was recorded by Absorbance 189 Microplate Reader (ELx808 BioTek, USA) at 725 nm. In order to plot the calibration curve 190 (R²=0.967), 0-40 µg/ml of gallic acid used as standard. TPC was expressed as equivalents of 191 gallic acid (GAE)/g of dry weight). Equation (I) was used to calculate the total phenolic 192 production (TPP).

193 Total phenolic production
$$\frac{mg}{l} = DW\left(\frac{g}{l}\right) \times TPC\left(\frac{mg}{g}\right)$$
____(I)

194 TPP was expressed in mg gallic acid/l.

195 2.12 Quantification of lignans and neolignans by RP-HPLC

196 The extract was centrifuged for another time and prior to injection the resultant supernatant was 197 filtered (0.45 µm). The quantification of Lignans and neolignans aglycones was carried out using 198 RP-HPLC by Varian liquid chromatographic system equipped with a Varian Prostar 230 pump, a 199 Metachem Degasit, a Varian Prostar 410 autosampler and a Varian Prostar 335 Photodiode Array 200 Detector (PAD) and controlled by Galaxie version 1.9.3.2 software. For separation the method 201 described by [21] was followed using Purospher RP-18 (Merck) column (250 × 4.0 mm i.d.; 5 202 µm). Calibration curves were used to perform the quantification of Lignans and neolignans. In 203 order to compare the results with published literature easily, results were expressed as mg of 204 glycosides like SDG, LDG, DCG and GGCG equivalent per gram of dry weight. Molecular 205 weight of compounds was used for conversion. Equation (II) was used to calculate the 206 productivity of lignans and neolignans:

207 Lignans and neolignans productivity
$$\frac{mg}{l} = DW\left(\frac{g}{l}\right) \times \operatorname{accumulation}\left(\frac{mg}{g}\right)$$
____(II)

208 2.13 Method validation

The quantification was performed with standard calibration curves obtained using five standard dilutions ranging from 50 to 1000 μ g/ml. Each standard solution was injected in triplicate. Arithmetic means of each triplicate were calculated. The linear regression equations were carried out by plotting the peak areas against the injected amounts of standard compounds. The linearity was demonstrated by coefficient of determination (R²). The limits of detection (LOD) and the limits of quantification (LOQ) were determined based on the signal-to-noise ratio (S:N) of approximately 3:1 and 10:1, respectively. Accuracy was evaluated by measuring recovery rates.
Dried flax cell cultures were homogenized and separated into two parts of equal mass, one of
which was spiked with a known volume of stock solutions. The spiked and non-spiked parts were
analyzed by HPLC in triplicate following the procedures described. The recovery rates were
calculated according to the following formula:

220

Recovery rate = (amount in spiked part - amount in non-spiked part) / (spiked amount) x 100.

The method precision and stability were evaluated by determining the intraday and interday variations respectively, which were calculated from data obtained by the repeated injections of standard solutions. The intraday variation was obtained by five replicates in a day and the interday variation was determined by three injections over three continuous days. Retention times and peak areas were assessed. The precision was further checked by measuring the repeatability using five continuous injections of the same extracted sample. The precision was expressed as the relative standard deviation (RSD, %).

228

2.8 **2.14 Determination of antioxidant activity**

229 For evaluation of antioxidant activity 2, 2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) free radical 230 scavenging assay (FRSA) was performed according to the reported protocol [30] with minor 231 alterations. Twenty microliter of sample extract mixed with 180 µl of DPPH (3.2 mg/100 ml 232 methanol) and the resultant mixture was incubated at $25 \pm 2^{\circ}$ C for 60 minutes and followed by 233 the addition of 160 µl of dH₂O. Absorbance was recorded by Absorbance Microplate Reader 234 (ELx808 BioTek, USA) at 517 nm. In order to plot the calibration curve (R²=0.989) methanolic 235 extract of DPPH solution (0.5 ml) was used as standard. The following equation (III) was used to 236 calculate the free radical scavenging activity as percentage of discoloration of DPPH.

237 Free radical scavenging activity (%) =
$$100 \times \left(1 - \frac{Ac}{As}\right)$$
 (III)

where AC stands for absorbance of the solution when sample extract was mixed at a specificconcentration, and AS denotes the absorbance of standard (DPPH solution).

Ferric reducing antioxidant power (FRAP) was measured as described by [31] with some modifications. Briefly, 10 μ l of the extracted sample was mixed with 190 μ l of FRAP (10mM TPTZ; 20mM FeCl₃ 6H₂O and 300mM acetate buffer pH3.6; ratio 1:1:10 (v/v/v)). Incubation lasted 15min at room temperature. Absorbance of the reaction mixture was measured at 630nm with a BioTek ELX800 Absorbance Microplate Reader. Assays were made in triplicate and antioxidant capacity was expressed as Trolox C equivalent antioxidant capacity (TAEC).

246 2.15 Statistical analysis

All the experiments were carried out in a synchronized manner and repeated twice. Each treatment was consisted of triplicates. All the mean values were analyzed using Pareto analysis of variance (ANOVA). The significance at P<0.05 was determined by Duncan's multiple range test (DMRT, Windows version 7.5.1, SPSS Inc., Chicago) Graphs were generated using Origin pro (8.5).

3. Results and Discussion

253 **3.1** Influence of different concentrations of chitosan on biomass accumulation and (neo)

254 *lignans biosynthesis*

The effects of different concentrations of chitosan (0.1-500 mg/L) were evaluated on cell cultures of *L. usitatissimum* for biomass accumulation (FW and DW). Data recorded for chitosan-treated (each concentration) and control cell cultures after 30 days. All treatments were also analyzed for its total phenolic content (TPC). Maximum biomass accumulation (both fresh weight (FW) and
dry weight (DW)) occurred at 10 mg/l of chitosan (hereafter called CHI-10) as compared to
control. Morphological changes induced by different concentrations of chitosan (0.1-500 mg/L)
treatments of flax cell suspensions are presented in Fig. 2A. The cell culture treated with 10 mg/l
chitosan also presented the highest accumulation of TPC (Table 1) evidencing an activation of
phenylpropanoid metabolism.

Following this first evaluation, to assess the impact of chitosan on phenylpropanoid pathway, transcript accumulation of monolignols as well as lignans and neolignans (i.e., monolignolderived products) biosynthetic genes by RT-qPCR (Fig. 3) and enzyme activity of key enzymes involved in monolignols biosynthesis (Fig. 4) in flax cell suspensions treated with 0 (control, CTL), 1 (CHI-1), 10 (CHI-10) and 100 (CHI-100) mg/l chitosan were evaluated.

269 The expression of i) monolignols biosynthetic genes LuPAL encoding for a phenylalanine 270 ammonia lyase, LuCCR encoding for a cinnamoyl-CoA reductase and LuCAD encoding for a 271 cinnamyl alcohol dehydrogenase, previously characterized in flax cell suspension challenging 272 with elicitors [32], ii) lignans biosynthetic genes, encoding for biochemically characterized 273 enzymes, LuDIR5 encoding for a (-)-pinoresinol forming dirigent protein [33, 34], LuPLR1 274 encoding for a (-)-pinoresinol/(-)-lariciresinol reductase [35, 36] and LuUGT74S1 encoding for a 275 (+)-secoisolariciresinol uridine glycosyltransferase [37], and iii) neolignans biosynthetic genes 276 LuPCBER encoding for a phenylcoumaran benzylic ether reductase [35] (Fig. 3A), were 277 monitored after 8h, 24h and 48h after chitosan addition and their relative gene expression levels 278 (relative to control cell suspension) are presented in Fig. 3B. Here, chitosan treatment triggered 279 the expression of monolignols, lignans and neolignans biosynthetic genes. This gene expression 280 stimulation appeared to be dependent on the chitosan concentration applied with a highest 281 stimulatory effect observed with 10 mg/l chitosan treatment (CHI-10, Fig. 3B). The gene expression kinetic also appeared specific to the metabolic steps thus highlighting the possibilityof a coordinated regulation of these metabolic pathways.

PAL, CCR and CAD specific activities were then monitored in control and chitosan-treated cell suspensions during a 48h period following chitosan addition (Fig. 4). In a good agreement with the gene expression analyses, a rapid, strong and dose-dependent stimulation of PAL activity was observed in all treated cell cultures, reaching a maximum activation 24h after chitosan addition (Fig. 4A). In the same way, a very similar rapid, transient and dose-dependent activation of both CCR and CAD activities were observed for chitosan-treated cells (Fig. 4B, C). From these enzyme activities data, it appeared that saturation occurred beyond 10 mg/l chitosan addition.

291 Activation of genes, at both expression and enzyme levels, during the early steps of the 292 phenylpropanoid pathway in response to biotic or abiotic stresses has already been reported in 293 other plant systems. The PAL enzyme catalyzes the entry point of L-phenylalanine into the 294 phenylpropanoid pathway. This enzyme is known to play a crucial role in plant defense 295 mechanisms and is presumably responsible for the increased carbon flux into this pathway 296 leading to an increased biosynthesis of defense/stress-related compounds deriving from this 297 phenylpropanoid pathway [38]. Chitosan induces the enzymatic defensive mechanisms in plants 298 by producing chitinases, pectinases and glucanases enzymes and stimulates plant's immunity 299 which results in enhanced accumulation of biomass while some reports suggest that chitosan is 300 also responsible for enhancing the availability and uptake of water as well as essential nutrients 301 by regulating the osmotic pressure of cells [39, 40]. In agreement with our results Mathew & 302 Sankar (2012) [41] also reported up to 3.5 times enhancement in biomass accumulation in 303 chitosan treated cell cultures of three species of Ocimum i.e. O. basilicum, O. sanctum and O. 304 gratissimum. Similar results were also reported by [42] for O. basilicum after application of 305 chitosan. From its polycationic β -1,4 linked D-glucosamine polymer chemical structure, chitosan 306 could be consider either as a biotic elicitor or fertilizer as a source of nitrogen and sugars [18].

Here, gene expression analyses and enzyme kinetics, confirmed the trend observed for TPC measured in the corresponding cell suspensions (Table 1). From all these results, 10 mg/L concentration of chitosan was selected for further investigation.

310

3.2 Effect of chitosan on biosynthesis and productivity of lignans and neolignans

For determination of trends in growth kinetics and biomass accumulation data was monitored periodically at an interval of 5 days for a total of 50 days (Fig. S1). The growth curves of cell cultures of flax grown in 10 mg/L of chitosan exhibited nearly same degree of lag phase (10 days), log phase (exponential phase) starting from day 10 to day 30 comprised of 20 days and followed by 10 days of stationary phase from day 30 to day 40. From day 40 onwards decline phase was observed (Fig. 2B, Fig. S1).

317 Chitosan exhibited a positive influence on accumulation of total phenolic content (Fig. S2). Upon 318 analysis it was noted that highest TPC accumulation of 19.36 mg/g DW and a productivity of 315.89 mg/l were recorded at 30th day of inoculation. The probable explanation behind this 319 320 enhancement is that chitosan upon contact with plant cells induces antioxidant defense 321 mechanism, as a result plant synthesize phenolic compounds to scavenge harmful reactive 322 oxygen species (ROS) [43]. Chitosan also has a possible key role in signaling pathways of 323 biological synthesis of phenolics [44]. The accumulated TPC in Flax cell cultures grown in 10 324 mg/L of chitosan is 2.1 times (19.36 mg/g DW) higher than control (9.1 mg/g DW) (Fig 5). 325 Similar findings were reported previously [45] who obtained a 2 fold increase in phenolic content 326 in chitosan elicited adventitious root cultures of Morinda citrifolia.

Lignans and neolignans are polyphenols formed via phenylpropanoid metabolic pathway from a common precursor (the monolignol coniferyl alcohol). These polyphenolic compounds are pharmacologically important [46].

330 To get further insight in their accumulation profile and kinetics, the main lignans (SDG and 331 LDG) and neolignans (DCG and GGCG) accumulated in flax cell cultures were quantified using 332 RP-HPLC method (Figure S3). For this purpose the HPLC-DAD method used to quantify these 333 lignans and neolignans, in the different plant materials analyzed in the present study, was 334 validated in term of precision, accuracy, stability and repeatability. Results of this validation are 335 presented in Table S2. Representation of the peak area and standard concentrations revealed high 336 linear correlations in the range of 50-1000 µg/mL. The linear regression of the 5-point calibration 337 graph showed a R²-value ranging from 0.9989 for LDG to 0.9998 for DCG, whereas the slope of 338 the standards covering the analytical range varied at most 1% relative standard deviation (RSD) 339 over a four weeks period. In term of limits of detection (LOD, S/N = 3) and limits of 340 quantification (LOQ, S/N = 10), values obtained were 3.4 ng and 10.6 ng for LDG, 2.7 ng and 341 9.2 ng for SDG, 3.1 ng and 10.0 ng for DCG, and 4.2 ng and 13.4 ng for GGCG, respectively. 342 The determination of the instrumental precision was realized by five injections of the same 343 sample. The chromatographic method used proved its precision (intraday precision) with RSD 344 values ranging from 0.45 (SDG) to 1.25 (LDG). The same sample was injected six times (0, 6, 345 12, 24, 48 and 72 h after its preparation) in order to evaluate the method stability (interday 346 precision). The small observed values for the RSD, from 0.84 (SDG) to 1.65 (GGCG) confirmed 347 the good stability of the extracted sample. Application of the whole extraction procedure three 348 times to the same batch of material allowed the verification of the high repeatability with RSD 349 values ranging from 0.99 (SDG) to 2.16 (LDG). The separation method accuracy measurement 350 was assessed with standard addition at three concentration levels (50%, 100% and 150%) and a 351 good recovery of the compounds ranging from 97.5% (DCG) to 102.5 (GGCG) was observed.

In current study, lignans (SDG and LDG) and neolignans (DCG and GGCG) were accumulated in their glycosylated forms since aglycones were not detected before β -glucosidase hydrolysis (data not shown). The maximum accumulation of lignans and neolignans were observed at day 30 and 35, respectively (Figure 5). All these current results are in agreement with previously reported results [4, 19, 20]

Upon evaluation of growth dynamics it was noted that the maximum accumulation of SDG occurred at 35th day (stationary phase) of inoculation (Fig 5A). Results revealed that maximum accumulation of lariciresinol diglucoside (LDG) was observed at 40th day of inoculation in cell cultures of *L. usitatissimum* (Fig 5B). The accumulation of LDG in late stationary phase is showing its involvement in alleviating nutrients depletion-induced stress.

Furthermore, the maximum accumulation of dehydrodiconiferyl alcohol glucoside (DCG) was observed at 30^{th} day of inoculation in flax cell cultures (Fig 5C). Surprisingly, chitosan showed inhibitory effects on the accumulation of guaiacylglycerol- β -coniferyl alcohol ether glucoside (GGCG) (Fig. 5D). This observation will deserve future study in order to understand the partition regulation of the monolignol into these different monolignol-derived products upon chitosan treatment.

LDG and DCG showed growth-associated behavior, maximum accumulation observed with enhanced biomass. However, highest accumulation of SDG in late stationery phase showed that its biosynthesis was growth non-associated and its involvement if ameliorating stresses induced by nutrient depletion. Similar enhancing effects of chitosan on accumulation of lignans and neolignans have been reported [43].

From these data, discrepancies can be pointed in our results from the expression levels (Fig. 3), enzyme activities (Fig. 4) and lignans and neolignans production (Fig. 5). First, the expression 375 levels shown in Fig. 3 suggested a very rapid response of gene expression to chitosan induction 376 after 8-24h of chitosan treatment. On the contrary, the lignans and neolignans production reached 377 the highest levels after 35 days, whereas the expression of related genes appeared to slightly 378 decrease after 48 h of treatment with the 10 mg/L chitosan treatment. This first discrepancy 379 between the accumulations of lignans and neolignans concentration and their biosynthetic gene 380 expression could result from the regulation of key genes involved in monolignol biosynthesis, as 381 it has been reported for the effects of ABA and GA on lignin accumulation by Kim et al. [50] and 382 Zhao and Dixon [51] as well as for the accumulations of lignans and neolignans [52]. For 383 example, CAD and/or COMT genes could be the target of such regulation [50,53] thus modifying 384 the availability of the precursor monomers for lignin or lignans and neolignans biosynthesis. For 385 instance, CAD is of particular interest, since here the CCR and CAD enzyme activities, could 386 also appear not consistent with their corresponding gene expression levels. Indeed, the CCR and 387 CAD enzyme activities reached their maxima 8h post-treatment and then decreased, whereas 388 their expression remained at very high levels. Nevertheless, we have to keep in mind that CCR 389 and CAD both belong to small multigene families, therefore the enzyme activities measured can 390 result from the action of distinct enzymes encoded by different genes involved in different 391 biosynthetic pathways. Here, we have determined gene expression profile of CCR and CAD 392 genes previously associated with the production of lignans and neolignans in flax cell 393 suspensions [35]. However, other CCR and CAD genes could be associated with the production 394 of lignin as reported by Le Roy et al. [54] and can contribute to the overall enzyme activities 395 measured. The induction of gene expression associated with a decrease in enzyme activity could 396 not only be due to a differential transcriptional regulation within a multigene family, but also 397 result from posttranslational regulation events also known to occur in the phenylpropanoid 398 pathway. This have been, for example, described by Allwood et al. [55] evidencing the 399 implication of phosphorylation event(s) and the involvement of a protein kinase in the 400 posttranslational regulatory mechanism of the PAL enzyme. Moreover, to date no data about the 401 turnover of proteins involved in production of lignans and neolignans are available.

Last, these apparent discrepancies between gene expression levels, enzyme activities and lignans and neolignans production might be due to the fact that the first results provide an indication of the gene expression of the enzyme activity at a precise time whereas metabolite accumulation summarize the effect during the whole duration of the experiment.

406 Finally, we cannot exclude a possible metabolization of chitosan into a more or less active407 elicitor compound(s) by flax cells following its addition to the culture medium.

408 3.3 Impact of chitosan-treatment on antioxidant potential of flax cell culture compared to flax 409 seeds

410 DPPH assay was conducted to examine the antioxidant potential of the flax cell cultures. It was noted that the cell cultures exhibited highest antioxidant potential (93.6%) at its 30th day of 411 412 inoculation as compared to control cell cultures (Fig. 6). ROS are normally formed during light 413 dependent processes in plants and can lead to oxidative stress which can be extremely harmful 414 for photosynthetic cells and can damage cellular compounds like membrane lipids, proteins or 415 nucleic acid [47]. Chitosan and its derivatives are involved in accumulation of hydrogen peroxide 416 (H₂O₂) in plants which has a key role in oxidative burst and stimulation of scavenging system of 417 ROS in plants [48, 49]. Chitosan is considered to be responsible for alleviation of membrane 418 lipid peroxidation which results in lowering the phytotoxicity in plant cells by reducing the high 419 chemical oxygen demand. All such antioxidative activities contribute additively to the free 420 radical scavenging capacity of a medicinal plant, therefore, free radical scavenging activity was 421 performed in order to analyze and compare the antioxidant potential of chitosan elicited and 422 control cell cultures of Flax. Results showed that 10 mg/L chitosan efficiently enhanced the free radical scavenging (93.6 %) compared to control (69 %). Similar results were observed for
chitosan treated cell cultures of *Ocimum basilicum* [41].

425 Last but not least, Table 2 presents the comparison of the accumulation of lignans and neolignans 426 and resulting antioxidant activity of the extracts prepared from control and chitosan-treated flax 427 cell suspensions vs wild seeds (from Barbara cultivars known to be highly productive in term of 428 lignans accumulation) [34]; and LuPLR1 gene silenced transgenic flax [21]. Seeds of wild type 429 flax mainly accumulated SDG whereas seeds of transgenic RNA silencing PLR1 transgenic flax 430 mainly accumulated neolignans. On the contrary flax cell suspensions accumulated both lignans 431 and neolignans, and chitosan treatment was able to enhanced lignans and neolignans 432 accumulation in this in vitro system. Moreover, flax seeds are cultivated only once a year 433 whereas flax cell suspension constituted a continuous and efficient production system. Last 434 important point, our in vitro production system is non transgenic and therefore could be less 435 controversial in term of public acceptance, safety and usefulness. Altogether these results clearly 436 indicated that flax cell suspension and in particular chitosan treatment are effective production 437 systems of antioxidant lignans and neolignans.

438 **4.** Conclusion

439 In current study, we evaluated the impact of a number of concentrations from 0.1 to 500 mg/L of 440 chitosan in order to elicit the biosynthesis of pharmaceutically important polyphenols i.e. lignans 441 (SDG and LDG) and neolignans (DCG and GGCG) in L. usitatissimumcell cultures. Among all, 442 10 mg/l chitosan proved to be highly effective in the stimulation of gene expressions, enzyme 443 activities and metabolite accumulation of anticancer lignans and neolignans than control cells. 444 Beside, chitosan (10 mg/L) also remarkably enhanced the accumulation of biomass (FW and 445 DW) and antioxidant potential of the flax cells. The productivity of lignans and neolignans as 446 well as antioxidant potential of these chitosan-treated cells were higher than those of flax evidencing the interest of this non transgenic *in vitro* system. Based on the current findings it is
suggested that chitosan treatment of cell cultures of *L. usitatissimum* using chitosan (10 mg/L)
for the enhanced productivity of anticancer polyphenols is a feasible and promising approach.

450 Authors Contributions

WA performed experiments of cell culture, elicitation with chitosan and analyses of TPC, TFC and antioxidant activity. AZ and MN assisted WA with all of these experiments. BHA conceived idea, supervised research and critically evaluated MS. CH contributed to HPLC analysis, performed gene expression analysis and enzymatic measurements and contributed to the conception, writing and critical reading of the manuscript. LG and SD performed HPLC. SR and JD contributed to enzymatic measurements and HPLC quantification. NGG discussed research and critically reviewed the manuscript.

458 Acknowledgements

Dr. Bilal Haider Abbasi acknowledges research fellowship of Le Studium-Institute for Advanced
Studies, Loire Valley, Orléans, France. This research was in part supported by Cosmetosciences,
a global training and research program dedicated to the cosmetic industry. Located in the heart of
the cosmetic valley, this program led by University of Orléans, France is funded by the Region
Centre-Val de Loire.

464 **Conflict of interest**

465 Authors declare no conflict of interest

466 **References**

467 [1] H. Helbaek, Plant collecting, dry-farming, and irrigation agriculture in prehistoric Deh Luran,468 1968.

469 [2] V. Zeist, Paleobotanical results of the 1970 season at Cayonu, Turkey, Helinium 12(1) (1972) 3470 19.

471 [3] N.D. Westcott, A.D. Muir, Chemical studies on the constituents of Linum spp, Flax, the genus
472 Linum (2003) 55-73.

[4] S. Anjum, B.H. Abbasi, J. Doussot, A. Favre-Réguillon, C. Hano, Effects of photoperiod regimes
and ultraviolet-C radiations on biosynthesis of industrially important lignans and neolignans in cell
cultures of Linum usitatissimum L.(Flax), Journal of Photochemistry and Photobiology B: Biology
167 (2017) 216-227.

- 477 [5] R. Haworth, The chemistry of the lignan group of natural products, Journal of the Chemical
 478 Society (Resumed) (1942) 448-456.
- [6] Z.-Q. Xia, M.A. Costa, J. Proctor, L.B. Davin, N.G. Lewis, Dirigent-mediated podophyllotoxin
 biosynthesis in Linum flavum and Podophyllum peltatum, Phytochemistry 55(6) (2000) 537-549.
- [7] O. Gottlieb, Neolignans, Fortschritte der Chemie Organischer Naturstoffe/Progress in the
 chemistry of organic natural products, Springer1978, pp. 1-72.
- [8] R.B. Teponno, S. Kusari, M. Spiteller, Recent advances in research on lignans and neolignans,
 Natural product reports 33(9) (2016) 1044-1092.
- 485 [9] M. Gordaliza, P. Garcia, J.M. Del Corral, M. Castro, M. Gomez-Zurita, Podophyllotoxin:
- 486 distribution, sources, applications and new cytotoxic derivatives, Toxicon 44(4) (2004) 441-459.
- 487 [10] M.E. Martin, M. Haourigui, C. Pelissero, C. Benassayag, E.A. Nunez, Interactions between
- 488 phytoestrogens and human sex steroid binding protein, Life sciences 58(5) (1995) 429-436.

- [11] D. Li, J.A. Yee, L.U. Thompson, L. Yan, Dietary supplementation with secoisolariciresinol
 diglycoside (SDG) reduces experimental metastasis of melanoma cells in mice, Cancer letters 142(1)
 (1999) 91-96.
- 492 [12] W. Demark-Wahnefried, D.T. Price, T.J. Polascik, C.N. Robertson, E.E. Anderson, D.F.
 493 Paulson, P.J. Walther, M. Gannon, R.T. Vollmer, Pilot study of dietary fat restriction and flaxseed
 494 supplementation in men with prostate cancer before surgery: exploring the effects on hormonal
 495 levels, prostate-specific antigen, and histopathologic features, Urology 58(1) (2001) 47-52.
- [13] N. Danbara, T. Yuri, M. Tsujita-Kyutoku, R. Tsukamoto, N. Uehara, A. Tsubura, Enterolactone
 induces apoptosis and inhibits growth of Colo 201 human colon cancer cells both in vitro and in
 vivo, Anticancer research 25(3B) (2005) 2269-2276.
- 499 [14] S.C. Cunnane, S. Ganguli, C. Menard, A.C. Liede, M.J. Hamadeh, Z.-Y. Chen, T.M. Wolever,
- 500 D.J. Jenkins, High α-linolenic acid flaxseed (Linum usitatissimum): some nutritional properties in
 501 humans, British Journal of Nutrition 69(2) (1993) 443-453.
- 502 [15] D. Jenkins, Kendall CW, Vidgen E, Agarwal S, Rao AV, Rosenberg RS, Diamandis EP, 503 Novokmet R, Mehling CC, Perera T, Griffin LC, and Cunnane SC, Health aspects of partially 504 defatted flaxseed, including effects on serum lipids, oxidative measures, and ex vivo androgen and 505 progestin activity: a controlled crossover trial. Am J Clin Nutr 69 (1999) 395-402.
- 506 [16] E. Skrzypczak-Pietraszek, J. Słota, J. Pietraszek, The influence of L-phenylalanine, methyl
 507 jasmonate and sucrose concentration on the accumulation of phenolic acids in Exacum affine Balf. f.
 508 ex Regel shoot culture, Acta Biochimica Polonica 61(1) (2014).
- 509 [17] H.N. Murthy, E.-J. Lee, K.-Y. Paek, Production of secondary metabolites from cell and organ 510 cultures: strategies and approaches for biomass improvement and metabolite accumulation, Plant 511 Cell, Tissue and Organ Culture (PCTOC) 118(1) (2014) 1-16.

512 [18] S. Hirano, N. Nagao, Effects of chitosan, pectic acid, lysozyme, and chitinase on the growth of
513 several phytopathogens, Agricultural and biological chemistry 53(11) (1989) 3065-3066.

[19] N. Benhamou, P. Lafontaine, M. Nicole, Induction of systemic resistance to Fusarium crown
and root rot in tomato plants by seed treatment with chitosan, Phytopathology 84(12) (1994) 14321444.

- 517 [20] R. Cuero, E. Duffus, G. Osuji, R. Pettit, Aflatoxin control in preharvest maize: effects of 518 chitosan and two microbial agents, The Journal of Agricultural Science 117(2) (1991) 165-169.
- 519 [21] S. Renouard, M.-A. Tribalatc, F. Lamblin, G. Mongelard, O. Fliniaux, C. Corbin, D. Marosevic,
- S. Pilard, H. Demailly, L. Gutierrez, RNAi-mediated pinoresinol lariciresinol reductase gene
 silencing in flax (Linum usitatissimum L.) seed coat: consequences on lignans and neolignans
 accumulation, Journal of plant physiology 171(15) (2014) 1372-1377.
- [22] B.H. Abbasi, S. Anjum, C. Hano, Differential effects of in vitro cultures of Linum usitatissimum
 L.(Flax) on biosynthesis, stability, antibacterial and antileishmanial activities of zinc oxide
 nanoparticles: a mechanistic approach, RSC Advances 7(26) (2017) 15931-15943.
- 526 [23] S. Anjum, B.H. Abbasi, C. Hano, Trends in accumulation of pharmacologically important 527 antioxidant-secondary metabolites in callus cultures of Linum usitatissimum L, Plant Cell, Tissue 528 and Organ Culture (PCTOC) 129(1) (2017) 73-87.
- 529 [24] T. Koressaar, M. Remm, Enhancements and modifications of primer design program Primer3,
 530 Bioinformatics 23(10) (2007) 1289-1291.
- [25] D.C. Dunn, L.W. Duncan, J.T. Romeo, Changes in arginine, pal activity, and nematode
 behavior in salinity-stressed citrus in honour of Professor GH Neil Towers 75th birthday,
 Phytochemistry 49(2) (1998) 413-417.

- 534 [26] D. Goffner, M.M. Campbell, C. Campargue, M. Clastre, G. Borderies, A. Boudet, A.M. Boudet,
- 535 Purification and characterization of cinnamoyl-coenzyme A: NADP oxidoreductase in Eucalyptus 536 gunnii, Plant physiology 106(2) (1994) 625-632.

537 [27] T. Beuerle, E. Pichersky, Enzymatic synthesis and purification of aromatic coenzyme A esters, 538 Analytical biochemistry 302(2) (2002) 305-312.

- 539 [28] S.W. Hawkins, A.M. Boudet, Purification and characterization of cinnamyl alcohol 540 dehydrogenase isoforms from the periderm of Eucalyptus gunnii Hook, Plant Physiology 104(1) 541 (1994) 75-84.
- 542 [29] M. Ali, B.H. Abbasi, Production of commercially important secondary metabolites and antioxidant activity in cell suspension cultures of Artemisia absinthium L, Industrial crops and 543 544 products 49 (2013) 400-406.
- 545 [30] H. Fazal, B.H. Abbasi, N. Ahmad, M. Ali, S. Ali, Sucrose induced osmotic stress and 546 photoperiod regimes enhanced the biomass and production of antioxidant secondary metabolites in 547 shake-flask suspension cultures of Prunella vulgaris L, Plant Cell, Tissue and Organ Culture 548 (PCTOC) 124(3) (2016) 573-581.
- 549 [31] I.F. Benzie, J.J. Strain, The ferric reducing ability of plasma (FRAP) as a measure of 550 "antioxidant power": the FRAP assay, Analytical biochemistry 239(1) (1996) 70-76.

551 [32] C. Hano, I. Martin, O. Fliniaux, B. Legrand, L. Gutierrez, R. Arroo, F. Mesnard, F. Lamblin, E.

Lainé, Pinoresinol-lariciresinol reductase gene expression and secoisolariciresinol diglucoside 553 accumulation in developing flax (Linum usitatissimum) seeds, Planta 224(6) (2006) 1291-1301.

552

- 554 [33] D.S. Dalisay, K.W. Kim, C. Lee, H. Yang, O. Rübel, B.P. Bowen, L.B. Davin, N.G. Lewis,
- 555 Dirigent protein-mediated lignan and cyanogenic glucoside formation in flax seed: integrated omics
- 556 and MALDI mass spectrometry imaging, Journal of natural products 78(6) (2015) 1231-1242.

- [34] C. Corbin, S. Drouet, L. Markulin, D. Auguin, É. Lainé, L.B. Davin, J.R. Cort, N.G. Lewis, C.
 Hano, A genome-wide analysis of the flax (Linum usitatissimum L.) dirigent protein family: from
 gene identification and evolution to differential regulation, Plant molecular biology (2018) 1-29.
- 560 [35] C. Hano, M. Addi, L. Bensaddek, D. Crônier, S. Baltora-Rosset, J. Doussot, S. Maury, F.
- 561 Mesnard, B. Chabbert, S. Hawkins, Differential accumulation of monolignol-derived compounds in
- bicited flax (Linum usitatissimum) cell suspension cultures, Planta 223(5) (2006) 975-989.
- [36] C. Von Heimendahl, Scha fer KM, Eklund P, Sjo holm R, Schmidt TJ & Fuss E (2005)
 Pinoresinol-lariciresinol reductases with different stereospecificity from Linum album and Linum
 usitatissimum, Phytochemistry 66 1254-1263.
- 566 [37] K. Ghose, K. Selvaraj, J. McCallum, C.W. Kirby, M. Sweeney-Nixon, S.J. Cloutier, M.
- 567 Deyholos, R. Datla, B. Fofana, Identification and functional characterization of a flax UDP-568 glycosyltransferase glucosylating secoisolariciresinol (SECO) into secoisolariciresinol 569 monoglucoside (SMG) and diglucoside (SDG), BMC plant biology 14(1) (2014) 82.
- [38] R.A. Dixon, N.L. Paiva, Stress-induced phenylpropanoid metabolism, the plant cell 7(7) (1995)
 1085.
- 572 [39] S. Bautista-Baños, M. Hernández-López, E. Bosquez-Molina, C. Wilson, Effects of chitosan 573 and plant extracts on growth of Colletotrichum gloeosporioides, anthracnose levels and quality of 574 papaya fruit, Crop protection 22(9) (2003) 1087-1092.
- 575 [40] N.Q. Hien, Radiation degradation of chitosan and some biological effects, Radiation processing
 576 of polysaccharides 1422 (2004) 67.
- 577 [41] R. Mathew, P.D. Sankar, Effect of methyl jasmonate and chitosan on growth characteristics of
- 578 Ocimum basilicum L., Ocimum sanctum L. and Ocimum gratissimum L. cell suspension cultures,
- 579 African Journal of Biotechnology 11(21) (2012) 4759.

- [42] H.-J. Kim, F. Chen, X. Wang, N.C. Rajapakse, Effect of chitosan on the biological properties of
 sweet basil (Ocimum basilicum L.), Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry 53(9) (2005) 36963701.
- [43] S. Esmaeilzadeh Bahabadi, M. Sharifi, J. Murata, H. Satake, The effect of chitosan and chitin
 oligomers on gene expression and lignans production in Linum album cell culture, Journal of
 Medicinal Plants, 1 (2014) 53-46.
- 586 [44] R. Dixon, M. Harrison, C. Lamb, Early events in the activation of plant defense responses,
 587 Annual review of phytopathology 32(1) (1994) 479-501.
- 588 [45] M.A. Baque, M.H.K. Shiragi, E.-J. Lee, K.-Y. Paek, Elicitor effect of chitosan and pectin on the
- 589 biosynthesis of anthraquinones, phenolics and flavonoids in adventitious root suspension cultures
- 590 of Morinda citrifolia'(L.), Australian Journal of Crop Science 6(9) (2012) 1349.
- 591 [46] T.J. Schmidt, M. Klaes, J. Sendker, Lignans in seeds of Linum species, Phytochemistry 82592 (2012) 89-99.
- 593 [47] C.H. Foyer, M. Lelandais, K.J. Kunert, Photooxidative stress in plants, Physiologia plantarum
 594 92(4) (1994) 696-717.
- 595 [48] G.K. Agrawal, R. Rakwal, S. Tamogami, M. Yonekura, A. Kubo, H. Saji, Chitosan activates
 596 defense/stress response (s) in the leaves of Oryza sativa seedlings, Plant Physiology and
 597 Biochemistry 40(12) (2002) 1061-1069.
- [49] W. Lin, X. Hu, W. Zhang, W.J. Rogers, W. Cai, Hydrogen peroxide mediates defence responses
 induced by chitosans of different molecular weights in rice, Journal of plant physiology 162(8)
 (2005) 937-944.

- [50] Y.-H. Kim, J.M. Bae, G.-H. Huh, Transcriptional regulation of the cinnamyl alcohol
 dehydrogenase gene from sweetpotato in response to plant developmental stage and environmental
 stress, Plant cell reports 29(7) (2010) 779-791.
- 604 [51] Q. Zhao, R.A. Dixon, Transcriptional networks for lignin biosynthesis: more complex than we 605 thought, Trends in plant science 16(4) (2011) 227-233.
- [52] C. Corbin, S. Renouard, T. Lopez, F. Lamblin, E. Lainé, C. Hano, Identification and
 characterization of cis-acting elements involved in the regulation of ABA-and/or GA-mediated
 LuPLR1 gene expression and lignan biosynthesis in flax (Linum usitatissimum L.) cell cultures,
 Journal of plant physiology 170(5) (2013) 516-522.
- [53] P.G. Mohr, D.M. Cahill, Suppression by ABA of salicylic acid and lignin accumulation and the
 expression of multiple genes, in Arabidopsis infected with Pseudomonas syringae pv. tomato,
 Functional & integrative genomics 7(3) (2007) 181-191.
- [54] J. Le Roy, A.-S. Blervacq, A. Créach, B. Huss, S. Hawkins, G. Neutelings, Spatial regulation of
 monolignol biosynthesis and laccase genes control developmental and stress-related lignin in flax,
 BMC plant biology 17(1) (2017) 124.
- 616 [55] E.G. Allwood, D.R. Davies, C. Gerrish, B.E. Ellis, G.P. Bolwell, Phosphorylation of
 617 phenylalanine ammonia-lyase: evidence for a novel protein kinase and identification of the
 618 phosphorylated residue, Febs Letters 457(1) (1999) 47-52.

Figures Legends

Figure 1. Schematic representation of biosynthetic pathways of lignans and neolignans, quantified in cell cultures of flax using RP-HPLC-DAD adopted from Anjum et al.,⁴ DIR: dirigent protein; PLR: pinoresinol lariciresinol reductase; UGT/UDP-GT: UDP-Glucosyl Transferase.

Figure 2. A. Morphological characteristic of flax cell cultures grown in 0.1-500 mg/L of chitosan at day 30 of culture. B. Morphological characteristic of the different growth phases of flax cell cultures grown in 10 mg/L of chitosan. B1: lag phase. B2: exponential phase. (Log) B3: stationary phase. B4: death phase.

Figure 3. A. Monolignol and monolignol-derived biosynthetic pathway occuring in flax cell suspension (from Hano et al., 2006a). PAL: phenylalanine ammonia-lyase; CCR: cinnamoyl-CoA reductase; CAD: cinnamyl alcohol dehydrogenase; DIR5: dirigent protein 5; PLR1: pinoresinol lariciresinol reductase 1; UGT74S1: secoisolariciresinol uridine glucosyl transferase; PCBER: phenylcoumaran benzylic ether reductase; L-Phe: L-phenylalanine; SDG: secoisolariciresinol diglucoside; LDG: lariciresinol diglucoside; DCG: dehydrodiconiferyl glucoside; GGCG: guaiacylglycerol- β -coniferyl ether diglucoside. B. Normalized relative gene expression profiles in flax cell suspension as determined by RT-qPCR (normalized with cyclophilin (*CYC1*) and Eukaryotic Translation Initiation Factor 5A (*ETIF5A*)) following exogenous addition of chitosan at 1 (CHI-1), 10 (CHI-10) and 100 (CHIU-100) mg/l. Results are presented as a clustering classification realized by a hierarchical clustering analysis (HCA) based on the complete linkage Pearson uncentered correlation method performed with MeV.

Figure 4. Time course of specific PAL (A), CCR (B) and CAD (C) activities of the soluble protein fraction of control and chitosan-treated (at 1 (CHI-1), 10 (CHI-10) and 100 (CHIU-100) mg/l) cell suspension cultures. CTL is control cells. Bars represent SE of 3 independent experiments.

Figure 5. Biosynthesis and production dynamics of lignans SDG (A) and LDG (B) as well as neolignans DCG (C) and GGCG (D) in chitosan-treated cell cultures of *Linum usitatissimum* (CHI-10) versus control (CTL) flax cell cultures. Values are mean of three triplicates ±SE

Figure 6. Antioxidant potential (radical scavenging activity) of cell cultures of *Linum usitatissimum* grown in chitosan (CHI-10) versus control (CTL) cell cultures.

Supplementary Figure Legends

Figure S1. Biomass accumulation in cell cultures of *Linum usitatissimum* grown in chitosan. CTL: control, CHI-10: chitosan 10 mg/L, FW: fresh weight, DW: dry weight.

Figure S2. Total Phenolic content and production of cell cultures of *Linum usitatissimum* grown in chitosan (CHI-10) versus control (CTL) cell cultures.

Figure S3: Typical HPLC chromatogram of a Flax cell culture extracts. IS: internal standard (enterolactone)

 Table 1: Growth (fresh weights (FW) and dry weights (DW)) and total phenolic

 concentrations (TPC) in control and chitosan-treated (at different concentration levels) flax

 cell cultures

| Treatment | FW | DW | TPC | |
|-----------|---------------|--------------|-----------------|--|
| (mg/l) | (g/l) | (g/l) | (mg/g DW) | |
| Control | 60.35 ± 3.02 | 5.50 ± 0.07 | 9.1 ± 0.1 | |
| 0.1 | 187.08 ± 5.16 | 12.55 ± 0.15 | 10.37 ± 0.13 | |
| 0.5 | 130.58 ± 4.39 | 9.71 ± 0.09 | 13.9 ± 0.26 | |
| 1 | 176.08 ± 4.89 | 13.10 ± 0.27 | 14.32 ± 0.29 | |
| 10 | 390.66 ± 8.11 | 16.31 ± 0.33 | 19.36 ± 0.39 | |
| 20 | 193.25 ± 5.05 | 10.24 ± 0.28 | 15.34 ± 0.33 | |
| 100 | 121.66 ± 3.23 | 11.32 ± 0.11 | 13.76 ± 0.27 | |
| 200 | 56.33 ± 2.71 | 5.50 ± 0.08 | 10.9 ± 0.14 | |
| 500 | 35.83 ±1.19 | 12.55 ± 0.17 | 8.1 ± 0.09 | |

 Table 2. Comparison of lignans and neolignans accumulations and antioxidant activities in flax cell

 culture (control and chitosan-treated) vs seeds (wild type seeds and RNAi-LuPLR1 transgenic seeds).

| | in vitro c | ell cultures | se | ds | |
|-------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|--|
| | Control | Chitosan-treated | Wild type | RNAi-LuPLR1 | |
| | control | | (cv Barbara) | transgenic seeds | |
| SDG ^a | 4 73 + 0 22 ^B | 23 15 + 2 0/ ^A | 20.62 + 4.71 | 0.62 ± 0.15 ^c | |
| (mg/g DW) | $+.75 \pm 0.22$ | 23.13 ± 2.04 | 20.02 ± 4.71 | 0.02 ± 0.15 | |
| LDGª | 8 01 + 0 57B | 18 26 + 1 07A | NDD | Tracoc | |
| (mg/g DW) | 8.91 ± 0.57 | 18.20 ± 1.07 | ND | Taces | |
| DCGª | 17 52 + 0 84 ^B | 56 25 + 6 25 ^A | NDC | 14 22 + 2 67 ^B | |
| (mg/g DW) | 17.52 ± 0.84 | 50.25 ± 0.35 | ND | 14.22 ± 3.07 | |
| GGCG ^a | F F 2 ± 0 28 ^A | 1 42 ± 0 67 ^B | | Traces | |
| (mg/g DW) | 5.52 ± 0.28° | 1.42 ± 0.67- | ND | Traces | |
| DPPH | | 02 27 + 8 024 | 70 25 ± 11 42 ⁸ | F2 14 ± 10 20 ⁰ | |
| (%RSA)⁵ | 68.36 ± 5.12 ⁵⁰ | 93.37 ± 8.93^ | 78.25 ± 11.42° | $52.14 \pm 10.26^{\circ}$ | |
| FRAP | 207 C2 ± C 20C | 10F 20 ± 12 14A | 210 24 ± 6 57 ^B | 156 45 ± 4 12D | |
| (TEAC)° | 207.05 I 5.38° | 403.20 I 12.14 [^] | 319.34 I 0.37° | 130.45 ± 4.12° | |

ND: not detected below the LOD; Traces: detected below LOQ (see Table 2); ^a maximum accumulation for control and chitosan-treated flax cell suspension; ^b expressed as percentage of radical scavenging activity measured at day 30 for control and chitosan-treated flax cell suspensions; ^c expressed in mM of Trolox C equivalent antioxidant capacity (TEAC) measured at day 30 for control and chitosan-treated flax cell suspensions; Data are expressed as the mean of n = 4 independent experiments ± standard deviation of the mean and different superscript majuscule letters indicate significant differences between conditions (*P*<0.05).

| Gene | Phytozome ID | Designation | Sequence 5' \rightarrow 3' | Length | |
|---|--------------|-------------|------------------------------|--------|--|
| | - | - | | (bp) | |
| | Luc10028740 | Forward | TCATTCTTCATCTTGCCTTCCT | 1.4.1 | |
| LUDIKS | LUS10028749 | Reverse | CATGGCTTATTGGGATTTCTTC | 141 | |
| 1 | Luc10012145 | Forward | TATGGAGATGGCAACGTCAA | 101 | |
| LUPLKI | LUS10012145 | Reverse | GAAGTTGGTTGCCTGAGAGC | 181 | |
| | 1 | Forward | GGACTCGTTGTGTCATGGTG | 200 | |
| LUUG17451 | LUS10017825 | Reverse | TCAGCTCTCACTCCGGTTTT | 200 | |
| (| Luc1002C240 | Forward | TCAATGACCTTGTGGCTCTG | 470 | |
| LUPCBER | LUS10026348 | Reverse | CGGCTCGATCTCAAAGTAGG | 1/5 | |
| 1 | 1.0026518 | Forward | ATGGACTGCCATCGAATCTC | 170 | |
| Gene LuDIR5 LUPLR1 LUVGT74S1 LUPCBER LUPAL LUCAD LUCCR LUCYC LUETIF5A | LUS10020518 | Reverse | AATCCCAACGAGTTCACGTC | 1/5 | |
| 1CAD | Luc10010011 | Forward | TGAAGCACTGGATCATCTCG | 161 | |
| LUCAD | Lus10019811 | Reverse | TCAACTTCCCATCGACCTTC | 101 | |
| Luccp | 1.0041654 | Forward | ATTCCCCGAGTATCCTGTCC | 101 | |
| LUCCK | LUS10041051 | Reverse | TGTGCTGCTGTTGTTTAGGG | 191 | |
| | 1 | Forward | TGATTGCGGTCAGCTGTAAG | | |
| LUCYC | LUS10012167 | Reverse | AGGTGAAACGCTAGGCAGAA | 147 | |
| | 1 | Forward | TGCCACATGTGAACCGTACT | | |
| LUETIF5A | Lus10036801 | Reverse | CTTTACCCTCAGCAAATCCG | 159 | |

able S1. Primers for expression analysis of flax selected-DIR

Table S2: Validation parameters of the HPLC-DAD method for the quantification of the

 main lignans and neolignans from flax cell suspension extract

| Compound | Retention | Regression | R ² | Linear | LOD | LOQ | Intraday | Interday | Repeatabilit | Recove |
|----------|-----------|------------|----------------|---------|------|------|----------|-----------|--------------|--------|
| а | time | equation | | Range | (ng) | (ng) | Precisio | Precision | У | ry |
| | (min) | | | (µg/ml) | | | nÞ | b | | |
| LDG | 31.87 | y=0.208x- | 0.998 | 50-1000 | 3.4 | 10.6 | 1.25 | 1.44 | 2.15 | 98.7 |
| | | 1.979 | 9 | | | | | | | |
| SDG | 27.12 | y=0.221x- | 0.999 | 50-1000 | 2.7 | 9.2 | 0.45 | 0.84 | 0.99 | 100.4 |
| | | 0.063 | 2 | | | | | | | |
| DCG | 36.45 | y=0.230x- | 0.999 | 50-1000 | 3.1 | 10.0 | 0.86 | 1.48 | 1.81 | 97.5 |
| | | 0.708 | 8 | | | | | | | |
| GGCG | 33.11 | y=0.239x- | 0.999 | 50-1000 | 4.2 | 13.4 | 0.79 | 1.65 | 2.03 | 102.5 |
| | | 1.375 | 7 | | | | | | | |

^a quantified under their aglycone form; ^b expressed as % RSD (relative standard deviation); ^c expressed as % recovery.

Figure 1:



Figure 2:

A.



B.



Figure 3:

A.



B.



Figure 4:



38

Figure 5:



39

Figure 6:



Supplementary Figure S1:



Supplementary Figure S2:



Supplementary Figure S3:



