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ABSTRACT

Paulownia is a genus of fast-growing and multipurpose tree species that is native to China. Due to their rapid growth and value in the timber market, many *Paulownia* species are cultivated in several temperate zones worldwide. Economic importance of *Paulownia* is increasing as new uses and related products are developed. It is also suitable as a lignocellulosic feedstock crop for the bioethanol industry in the Southeastern USA. A number of *Paulownia* species are valuable sources of secondary metabolites including flavonoids with high antioxidant activities. A high demand for planting material in domestic and international markets for afforestation and bioenergy production has necessitated the development of efficient micropropagation protocols for rapid and mass propagation of *Paulownia*. Over the past several decades, research on *Paulownia* species has been conducted to develop micropropagation, somatic embryogenesis and genetic transformation protocols for use in agroforestry and reforestation programs. Given the economic importance and current and potential future uses of *Paulownia*, this paper reviews the development of biotechnological approaches for plant propagation and genetic improvement, and antioxidant potential of secondary metabolites occurring in species.

Keywords: Micropropagation; Biofuel; Plant Growth Regulator; Regeneration; Somatic Embryogenesis; Transformation; Antioxidant Potential

1. Introduction

Paulownia is a deciduous, fast growing, hardwood tree (family *Paulowniaceae*, previously in the family *Scrophulariaceae*) comprised of nine species and a few natural hybrids that are native to China [1]. Important species in this genus include *P. albiphloea*, *P. australis*, *P. catalpifolia*, *P. elongata*, *P. fargesii*, *P. fortunei*, *P. kawakamii*, and *P. tomentosa* [2]. *Paulownia* species are found growing naturally and under cultivated conditions in several parts of the world including China, Japan and Southeast Asia, Europe, north and central America, and Australia. Species in the genus are extremely adaptive to wide variations in edaphic and climatic factors, and grow well on lands deemed marginal. In China, *Paulownia* grows in regions from the plains to elevations up to 2000 feet [2]. It exhibits a number of desirable characteristics

such as rot resistance, dimensional stability and a high ignition point [3], which ensures the popularity of its timber in the world market [4,5]. For decades, Japanese craftsmen have utilized it as revered wood in ceremonial furniture, musical instruments, decorative moldings, laminated structural beams and shipping containers. The tree made its way to the United States during the mid-1800 s in the form of seed, which was as packaging material for delicate porcelain dishes [5]. Once unpacked, the tiny seeds were dispersed by wind and naturalized throughout the eastern states. Paulownia cultivation for timber production is an unorganized but emerging enterprise in the US and gaining importance because of the strong demand in Japan and some other countries. The total consumption of Paulownia wood in Japan was approximately 17 million board feet (MBF) during 1971-1973. In a few years imported Paulownia wood volume increased from 16% to 60% of total consumption [6]. With a shift in paradigm in favor of alternative fuels, a



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change from food and feedstock to non-food and feedstock sources for cellulosic ethanol is mandatory. The US has already mandated a goal of producing 36 billion gallons of biofuels by 2022 via the Renewable Fuels Standard, RFS2 [7].

In recent years, molecular and genetic engineering techniques have gathered momentum in forest tree research for industrial use and assistance with reforestation and forest management programs. Paulownia species have received due attention in tree-tissue culture owing to their multifaceted significance. In vitro propagation has ensured that the growing demand for superior planting material, biomass and forest products is met. A number of factors including explant selection, macro- and micronutrient composition, incorporation of plant growth regulators, antioxidants, additives and adsorbents during in vitro culture have been optimized to develop successful regeneration protocols for several Paulownia species. This review attempts to highlight the current procedures available for in vitro propagation of Paulownia species and their applications in genetic engineering for crop improvement. Additionally, antioxidant capacity of leaf extract from two Paulownia species for their potential medicinal value is also reviewed.

2. A Multipurpose Tree

Under natural conditions a 10 year old Paulownia tree measures 30 - 40 cm diameter at breast height (dbh), and contains a timber volume of 0.3 - 0.5 m³ [2]. Paulownia timber is lightweight, yet strong, dries rather rapidly and has an aesthetically pleasing light colored grain that does not warp, crack, or deform easily. In addition, the wood is easily worked, suitable for carving and has excellent insulation properties [2]. Several species have been planted extensively in Australia to meet demand for timber [8]. Due to its rapid growth and high cellulose content (440 g·cellulose/kg) studies have been conducted to evaluate its suitability for solid biofuel and cellulose pulp industry [9]. P. elongata wood fillers are successfully employed to create biodegradable bio-composite with poly lactic acid (PLA), introducing a new product in the market [10]. Paulownia wood flour filler produced composites that had comparable or superior mechanical, flexural, and impact strength properties to composites of pine wood flour filler [11]. A recent study showed that P. elongata wood flour could be utilized in the production of the filled polypropylene composites [11]. Paulownia flowers and leaves are a good source of fat, sugar and protein, and utilized as fodder for pigs, sheep and rabbits [2]. The nitrogen content in Paulownia leaves can be compared favorably with some leguminous plants. Paulownia leaves are used as a green manure crop by farmers in Kwangsi, China. Paulownia is used to treat various ailments in traditional Chinese medicine due to medicinal compounds it contains [2]. *Paulownia* inflorescences are large in size and a good source of honey [2]. *Paulownia* has been capitalized for agroforestry [12,13], biomass production [14], land reclamation [15], and animal waste remediation [16]. Various attributes of *Paulownia* are summarized in the **Figures 1(A)-(I)**.

3. Potential Biomass Crop

Greater than 30 million acres of woodland, and idle pasture and cropland exist in the southeast United States, and much of this land could potentially be used to produce valuable tree-crops, *Paulownia* being one of them [17]. Due to the fast growth and coppicing property (**Figure 1(D**)), its potential as a biofuel crop has been extensively studied [10,18,19]. A major advantage of using biomass as a source of fuels or chemicals is its renewability. Wood from forest trees modified for greater cellulose or hemicelluloses could be a major feedstock for fuel ethanol. In a biomass comparison study performed in Germany, *P. tomentosa* (12.7 tons·ha⁻¹) out-produced *Salix viminalis* (8.2 tons·ha⁻¹) on short rotation coppice under dry land conditions [20].

An evaluation of *Paulownia* wood revealed the composition to be 14.0% extractive, 50.55% cellulose, 21.36% lignin, 0.49% ashes, 13.6% hemi-cellulose [19]. Ongoing research at Fort Valley State University (FVSU) has determined that the harvestable biomass of *Paulownia elongata* after 30 months (after three growing seasons) is almost 92 kg/tree (unpublished results). Under favorable conditions, an intensive plantation of 2000 trees per ha can yield up to 150 - 300 tons wood annually, only 5 - 7 years after planting [21]. Additional studies are required to study biomass potential in variable soils and climates.

Paulownia produces many fine winged seeds (up to 2000 seeds per fruit) weighing about 5000 seeds per gram [21]. Scanning electron microscopy of seeds reveal an extensive network of fine tubes that may play an important role in maintaining structural integrity of the wing to assist with wind dispersal, and create water channels for promoting seed germination (Figures 1(A) and (B)). Seedling development studies indicate that a 16 h photoperiod is optimum for leaf production, stem elongation, root elongation, and total dry mass accumulation [22]. Seeds sown in a greenhouse germinated in as little as one week, with true leaf emergence within two weeks after germination. Lipids in P. tomentosa seed extract consist of linoleic (64.1%), oleic (21.2% and palmitic acids (7.3%). y-Tocopherol (approx. 100.0%) predominated in the tocopherol fraction, and in the sterol fraction— β -sitosterol (79.2%), campesterol (10.3%) and stigmasterol (7.7%) were the dominant components. Though lipid profile of seeds is suitable for biodiesel

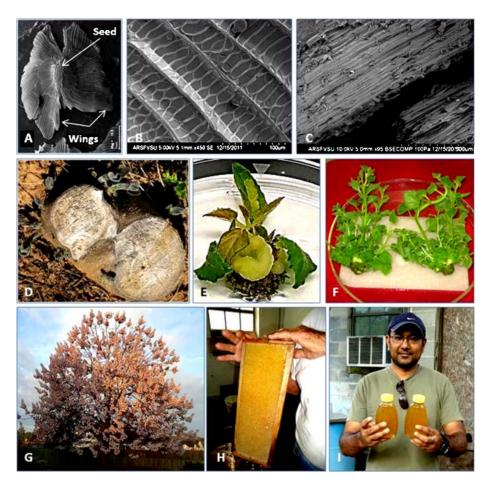


Figure 1. *Paulownia elongata* as a multipurpose tree for SE USA. (A) Scanning electron micrographs (SEM) of a seed, (B) SEM of *Paulownia elongata* seed (wing) exhibiting structural organization to support dispersal, (C) SEM of unaltered ground wood, (D) One-year-old tree exhibiting coppicing potential after cutting, (E) and (F) Micropropagation protocols resulting in multiple adventitious shoot generation for commercial mass production, (G) A seven year old tree blooming in Central Georgia, USA, (H) and (I) Scope for monofloral honey production as trees bloom for 4 - 6 weeks.

production, it would potentially be labor-intensive due to high number of small seed production. Seeds contain 10.6% protein, 9.5% cellulose and 38.2% hydrolysable carbohydrates [23]. Research addressing development of a suitable machine for fruit/seed collection and further processing would be required to make this aspect a reality.

4. Plant Regeneration and Genetic Transformation in *Paulownia*

Documented proof of plant tissue culture work on *Paulownia* spans little over three decades and are presented in the **Table 1**. Various aspects of plant tissue culture dealing with callus induction, micropropagation, protoplast culture, somatic embryogenesis and the need of a reproducible regeneration system for genetic transformation of the plant is discussed below.

4.1. Organogenesis and Micropropagation

Paulownia is conventionally propagated using seed and

root cuttings. Seed propagation is not reliable due to presence of seed borne pathogens and pests, poor seed germination and altered growth habit. Additionally, seedling growth is slow compared to root cutting-derived plants [4,24]. Propagation by root cuttings pose limitations as these can be a potential source of pathogens.

An efficient plant regeneration system (Figures 1(E) and (F)) is a prerequisite for transgenic plant production and further studies. Micropropagation protocols have been established for a number of *Paulownia* species (Table 1) including *P. catalpifolia* [25,26], *P. elongata* [27,28], *P. fortunei* [29-34], *P. kawakamii* [35-38], *P. taiwaniana* [39-41] and *P. tomentosa* [29-31,37,38,42-45]. Most protocols developed to date predominantly use nodal explants. Another explant used successfully, though to a lesser extent, is petiole with cut leaf [46]. Callus production and plant regeneration *via* organogenesis was observed in *P. fortunei* shoot tip explants cultured on MS medium containing 4.4 mg·L⁻¹ thidiazuron (TDZ) for 4 weeks followed by transfer to MS medium

rooting Bahri et al., 2013	Bah	ect Castillo-Martínez tenesis et al. 2012	Corre	rmination Çelik et al., 2008	duction Lobna <i>et al.</i> , 2008	ling ation Ozaslan	6	somatic Ipecki and genesis Gozulirmizi, 2004	embryogenesis Ipecki and duction) Gozulirmizi, 2003	luction; Sharma <i>et. al.</i> , 2003 uction;	duction ShaValli Khan et al., 2003	ensions Ho and Chang, 2002	duction Ipecki et al., 2001	duction, luction, Fan <i>et al.</i> , 2001 luction	duction, plication, Rout <i>et al.</i> , 2001 uction	Juction, Venkateswarlu duction <i>et al.</i> , 2001	ĕ≥
In vitro rooting	Shoot buds In vitro rooting	Direct organogenesis	Adventitious shoot induction	Seedling germination	Shoot induction	Seedling	Shoot induction	Indirect somatic embryogenesis	Direct somatic embryogenesis (callus induction)	Shoot induction; root induction;	Shoot induction	Cell suspensions	Shoot induction	Callus induction, shoot induction, Root induction	Shoot induction, shoot multiplication, root induction	Shoot induction, callus induction	Root induction
	BAP: 0 - 2 mg/L	BA: 0 - 10mg/L	BA: 0.88 & 8.9 μΜ TDZ: 4.5 - 45.4 μΜ	BA: 5 mg/L	BA: 0 - 6 mg/L		BAP: 0 - 7 mg/L; Kinetin: 0 - 7 mg/L	BA: 1 - 4 mg/L; Kinetin: 0.5 - 2.5 mg/L	BA: 0.1 - 1 mg/L TDZ: 1 - 4 mg/L Kinetin: 0.1 - 2 mg/L	BA: 0.11 - 4.0 mg/L	BA: 0.3 mg/L;	Kinetin: 1.0 mg/L; BA: 2.5 mg/L	BAP: 0.1 - 2.0 mg/L	BA: 2 - 12 mg/L	BA: 0 - 8.88 μM; Kinetin: 0 - 9.3 μM; Ads: 0 - 148 μM	BAP: 0.1 - 2 mg/L; Kinetin: 0.1 mg/L	BA: 4.0 mg/L
IBA: 1 mg/L	IBA: 0 - 1 mg/L	NAA: 0 - 1 mg/l	NAA: Ι.Ί μΜ; ΙΑΑ: Ι.Ι-ΙΙ.4 μΜ;		NAA: 0.5 - 1 mg/L; IBA: 0.5 - 1 mg/L; IAA: 0.5 - 1 mg/L		IAA: 0 - 2 mg/L; NAA: 0 - 2 mg/L	NAA: 0.1, 0.5 mg/L; IAA: 1 - 4 mg/L;	2,4-D: 1 - 4 mg/L;	NAA: 0.1 - 1.0 mg/L	IBA: 0.3 mg/L;	2,4-D: 1.0 mg/L; NAA: 2.5 mg/L	NAA: 0.1 - 0.5 mg/L; IAA: 0.1 - 2.0 mg/L	NAA: 0.1 - 1.1 mg/L	IAA: 0 - 1.42 μΜ; IBA: 0 - 1.32 μΜ; NAA: 0 - 1 34 μΜ	NAA: 0.1 mg/L	NAA: 0.2 mg/L; IBA: 0.4 mg/L
Agar	Agar	Agar	Agar (Sigma)	Agar	Agar	Agar (Difco-bacto)	agar (Difco-bacto)	Agar	Phytagel		Agar	Ι	Agar	Agar	Agar	Agar	Agar
MS	MS	MS	MS	MS	MS	MS and 1/2 MS	WS	MS	SM	MS; 1/2 MS; 1/4 MS	MS, ½ MS	MS Liquid	MS; WPM	1/2 MS; MS; B5; N6	MS	MS; 1/2MS	MS
Node	Node	Leaf, petiole, Internode	Shoots	Seed	Shoot tip	Seed	Seedling, shoot tip, root tip, leaf w/petiole and node	Leaf, internode	Leaf, internode	Shoot tips	Node with leaves, axilliary buds	Seed, seedling, shoot tip, leaf, hypocotyl, shoot	Leaf, leaf w/petiole, Node, internode	Leaf	Node	Node from juvenile shoot	Shoot
P. tomentosa	P. tomentosa	P. elongata	P. tomentosa	P. tomentosa	P. kawakamii		P. tomentosa	P. elongata	P. elongata	P. fortunei	P. fortunei	P. fortunei; P. kawakamii; P. tomentosa; P. taiwaniana	P. elongata	P. tomentosa; P. australis; P. fortunei; P. elongata; P. tomentosa x fortunei hvbrid	P. tomentosa	P. fortunei	P. elongata
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NoduleMSPetiolated leafMSPetiolated leafMSReview articleMSReview articleMSCotyledon; Hypocotyl; Shoot tip; Node; Internode; LeafMSCotyledon; Hypocotyl; Meristem, shootMS; BTM; I/2 BTMMeristem, shootMS; BTM and I/2 BTMModeI/2 MSNodeI/2 MSMypocotyl, shoot tipMSFertilized ovule,MSMSMS		oidbacto- agar	ΝΑΑ: 4 μΜ ΙΑΑ: 10 μΜ	BA: 20 μM and 50 μM	Adventitious shoot induction	Kumar <i>et al.</i> , 1998
Petiolated leafMSReview articleMSReview articleMSCotyledon; Hypocotyl; Shoot tip; Node; Internode; LeafMSCotyledon; Hypocotyl; Shoot tip; Node; Internode; LeafMSSeed, seedling, leafMSMeristem, shootMS; BTM; 1/2 BTM, WPMMeristem, shootMS, BTM and 1/2 BTM, WPMMeristem, shootMS; BTM and 1/2 BTM, WPMMeristem, shootMS; BTM and 1/2 BTM, MSHypocotyls from in vitro grown seedlings1/2 MS, MSNode1/2 MS, MShypocotyl, shoot tip hypocotyl, shoot tip Fertilized ovule, MSMS		emi-solid and iquid media	IAA: I - 4 mg/L NAA: I - 4 mg/L 2,4-D: I - 4 mg/L	BA: 1 - 4 mg/L Kinetin: 1 - 4 mg/L	Organogenesis	Ho <i>et al.</i> , 199 7
P. taiwanianaReview articleP. fortunei; D. kawakamii; P. taiwanianaCotyledon; Hypocotyl; Shoot tip; Node; Internode; LeafMSP. taiwanianaSeed, seedling, leafMSP. taiwanianaSeed, seedling, leafMSP. fortuneiSeed, seedling, leafMSP. fortuneiSeed, seedling, leafMSP. taiwanianaMeristem, shootMS, BTM, 1/2 BTM, MS, BTM and 1/2 BTM, MS, 1/2 MSP. taiwanianaMeristem, shootMS, 1/2 MSP. taiwanianaMeristem, shoot1/3 MSP. tomentosaNode1/2 MS, MSP. tomentosaNode1/2 MSP. tomentosaNode1/2 MSP. tomentosahypocotyl, shoot tipMSP. tomentosahypocotyl, shoot tipMSP. tomentosahypocotyl, shoot tipMSP. tomentosahypocotyl, shoot tipMS	MS	Agar	ΙΑΑ: 0 - 50 μΜ ΝΑΑ: 0 - 50 μΜ 2,4-D: 0 - 50 μΜ	BA: 0 - 50 μM Kinctin: 0 - 50 μM	Shoot bud induction	Rao et al., 1996
P. fortunet; Rawakamii; P. tomentosu; Internode; LeafCotyledon; Hypocotyl; Shoot tip; Node; Internode; LeafMS MSP. tomentosu; Internode; LeafShoot tip; Node; Internode; LeafMS MSP. fortuneiSeed, seedling, leafMS 						Yang et al., 1996
P. fortuneiSeed, seedling, leafMSP. catalpifoliaMeristem, shootMS, BTM; 1/2 BTMP. catalpifoliaMeristem, shootMS, BTM and 1/2 BTM, WPMP. taiwanianaMeristem, shootMS, 1/2 MSP. taiwanianaMeristem, shootMS, 1/2 MSP. taiwanianaMeristem, shootMS, 1/2 MSP. tomentosaNode1/2 MS, MSP. tomentosaNode1/2 MSP. tomentosaNode1/2 MSP. tomentosaNode1/2 MSP. tomentosaFertilized ovule,MS		Difco Agar; 3iolab Agar	NAA: 0.5 - 2.5 mg/L	BA: 0.5 - 2.5 mg/L	Adventitious shoot induction	Ho <i>et al.</i> , 1994
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P. catalpifolia Meristem, shoot MS, BTM and 1/2 BTM, WPM P. taiwaniana Meristem, shoot MS; 1/2 MS P. tomentosa Hypocotyls from 1/3 MS P. tomentosa in vitro grown seedlings 1/2 MS, MS P. tomentosa Node 1/2 MS P. tomentosa Fotot tip MS P. tomentosa Fotot tip MS	MS; BTM; 1/2 BTM	Agar	NAA: 0 - 1 mg/L;	Kinetin: 0 - 8 mg/L; BAP: 1 mg/L	Shoot induction	Song, et al., 1991
P. taiwaniana Meristem, shoot MS; 1/2 MS P. taiwaniana Hypocotyls from 1/3 MS P. tomentosa Hypocotyls from 1/2 MS, MS P. tomentosa Node 1/2 MS P. tomentosa Fotyledon, MS P. tomentosa Hypocotyl, shoot tip MS P. tomentosa Fertilized ovule, MS	MS, BTM and 1/2 BTM, WPM	Agar	IBA: 0 - 4 mg/L;	BAP: 0 - 16 mg/L;	Shoot induction	Song, et al., 1990
P. tomentosa Hypocotyls from in vitro grown seedlings 1/2 MS, MS P. tomentosa Node 1/2 MS P. tomentosa Cotyledon, hypocotyl, shoot tip MS P. tomentosa Fertilized ovule, MS MS	MS; 1/2 MS 1/3 MS	Agar	NAA: 0 - 4 mg/L; IBA: 0 - 4 mg/L	BAP: 0.1 - 15 mg/L; Kinetin: 0.1 - 15 mg/L	Shoot induction	Yang, et al., 1989
P. tomentosa Node 1/2 MS P. tomentosa hypocotyl, shoot tip MS P. tomentosa Fettilized ovule, MS		Agar	IAA: 17.1 μΜ IBA: 4.9 μΜ	Kinetin: 14 μM	Callus, Shoot	Jagannathan and Marcotrigiano, 1986
P. tomentosa Cotyledon, MS P. tomentosa hypocotyl, shoot tip P. tomentoco Fertilized ovule, MS		Agar	NAA: 0.1 - 1 mg/L; IBA 0.5 - 1.0 mg/L	BAP: 1 - 10 mg/L;	Adventitious shoot induction	Burger et al., 1985
P tomentoco Fertilized ovule, MS		fcoBacto agar	IBA: 0.1 - 1.0 mg/L	BA: 1.0 mg/L GA ₃ : 0.1 mg/L	Shoot induction, root induction	Marcotrigiano and Stimart, 1983
zygotic embryo	MS	Agar	2,4-D: 1 mg/L IAA: 1 mg/L NAA:1 mg/L	Kinetin: 1 mg/L	Embryogenesis; embyogeniccalli	Radojević, 1978

Mo. Mutaning and Shoog (1702), 12 Mo. 14 Sucratu Mutaning and Shoog, M. M. Woody riant Medium (1209) and Medium (1701), D. M. Mutaning and Shoog, 170, Du and Shoog, 170, Du and Shough (1772), D. M. Mutaning (1772), D. Mutaning (17

containing 1.0 mg \cdot L⁻¹ activated charcoal [47]. Other explants including petioles, stems and leaves failed to produce an organogenic response on the same medium thereby underlying the importance of explant selection. Current research at FVSU includes shoot induction from leaf and seed explants. In addition, studies are underway to optimize thin cell layer (TCL) culture protocols for leaf and nodal explants. Murashige and Skoog (1962) [48] medium (MS) and woody plant medium (WPM) [49] have been widely used for *Paulownia* micropropagation with considerable success. Among various growth regulators studied, benzyl amino purine (BAP) is effective in most Paulownia species; however, specific species may exhibit variable responses. For instance, TDZ in combination with IAA produced the best regeneration response from *P. tomentosa* mature leaf explants [43]. Rooting in Paulownia, in general, is fairly easy as microcuttings can root efficiently in MS basal medium [50] without inclusion of an auxin. Production of hyperhydric shoots has been frequently observed during in vitro culture of several Paulownia species. A significant reduction in shoot hyperhydricity was achieved by adjusting culture medium conditions, especially gelling agent and sucrose concentrations [51]. Paulownia species is amenable to photoautotrophic culture exhibiting satisfactory shoot growth and spontaneous rooting [52,53]. The system takes advantage of chlorophyllous explant by placing it an environment conducive to photosynthesis by cutting down carbon source (sucrose) with CO₂ enrichment. An exposure of P. tomentosa and P. fortunei nodal cultures to magnetic field enhanced adventitious shoot bud multiplication and improved plant regeneration while significantly reducing the amount of time required for obtaining whole plants [30,54].

Molecular studies aimed at understanding the mechanism of organogenesis in *P. kawakamii* reported differential expression of a cDNA encoding a putative bZIP transcription factor during multiple shoot proliferation [55]. Molecular dissection of the chronology of gene expression using Quantitative PCR revealed that only basal levels of transcripts were present in callus-forming tissues at day 0 and day 10, whereas a six-fold increase in gene expression was seen in shoot-forming tissues at day 10, suggesting that *PKSF*1 is associated with adventitious shoot bud development in *Paulownia*. Induction of polyploidy to obtain phenotypes with enlarged morphology and lower fertility has been successfully employed in *Paulownia tomentosa* using colchicine [56,57].

4.2. Callus Initiation and Somatic Embryogenesis

The first report of somatic embryogenesis in *Paulownia* was reported [58] using placental tissue of fertilized

ovules as an explant. Zygotic embryos cultured on medium containing MS macro-, micronutrients and vitamins, 200 mg·L⁻¹ casein hydrolysate, 100 mg·L⁻¹ myoinositol, 10 mg·L⁻¹ pantothenic acid, 0.7% agar and IAA produced embryogenic callus; medium containing other growth regulators including 2,4-D and NAA produced non-embryogenic callus. Callus induced from fertilized ovular explants showed a persistent embryogenic capacity, eventually differentiating into embryos and plants. Callus induction was optimized in five Paulownia species (P. tomentosa, P. australis, P. fortunei, P. elongata, P. tomentosa \times P. fortunei) using leaf explants [31]. MS medium [48] containing varying levels of NAA (0.1 - 1.1 $mg\cdot L^{-1}$) and BAP (2 - 12 $mg\cdot L^{-1}$) were tested for embryogenic culture induction and plant regeneration. Although five different media formulations were used, MS medium supplemented BAP and NAA produced an embryogenic response. Other Paulownia species tested elsewhere failed to produce an embryogenic response on the same medium composition suggesting a strong media \times genotype interaction [40]. Direct and indirect somatic embryogenesis was observed from leaf and internode explants in P. elongata [59,60]. Somatic embryos were found suitable for synthetic seed production [59]. The technology assumes significance in terms of its utility for large-scale plant propagation in bioreactors, short- and long-term germplasm conservation, and easy transportation of planting stock material. Other reports on somatic embryogenesis and plant regeneration in P. elongata have been described [4,27,31,61], but have been difficult to replicate using stated procedures.

Suspension cultures have great potential for screening and production of secondary metabolites in light of numerous medicinal phytochemicals occurring in *Paulownia*. Callus cultures of *P. taiwaniana* were obtained from leaf explants on MS medium supplemented with multiple plant growth regulators [37]. Histology and morphology analyses distinguished cultures as nodular cell aggregated of three distinct sizes, which eventually exhibited plant regeneration. Suspension cultures were produced by transferring such nodular aggregated to liquid medium with the same composition and maintained for over a year.

The protocol was modified to establish suspension cultures of four *Paulownia* species (*P. fortunei*, *P. kawakamii*, *P. tomentosa*, and *P. taiwaniana*). Seeds, germinated seedlings, shoot tips and leaves were directly cultured in liquid MS medium containing 1.0 mg·L⁻¹ 2,4-D and 0.1 mg·L⁻¹ kinetin [37]. Suspension cultures were obtained from all species tested but long-term maintenance (over one year) with frequent transfers to fresh medium was feasible only for *P. taiwaniana* and *P. tomentosa*.

2076

4.3. Genetic Transformation

Technology advances for *in vitro* propagation and improvement in genetic transformation protocols have accelerated the development of genetically engineered trees during the past 15 years. Targeted traits include herbicide tolerance, pest resistance, abiotic stress tolerance, modified fiber quality and quantity, and altered growth and reproductive development [62].

Genetic transformation of Paulownia has been achieved using both Agrobacterium-mediated transformation and biolistic bombardment [61,63,64]. In vitro shoots used for co-cultivation with Agrobacterium tumefaciens produced transgenic callus after transfer to induction medium. Hairy root production occurred in 33% shoot explants that were wounded by nicking and then co-cultivated with A. rhizogenes strain R1601. Hairy roots were observed from the site of explant wounding. Opine analyses demonstrated transgene expression in proliferating galls/hairy roots shortly after emergence from wound sites and in callus and roots after 12 weeks of in vitro culture [63]. Agrobacterium rhizogenes (LBA 9402 and A4 strains) was successfully used to induce eleven independent hairy root lines of Paulownia tomentosa by infecting stem explants. Transformation efficiency was dependent on explant age. Hairy root cultures grew rapidly in hormone-free Woody Plant liquid medium. Depending on the line used, the level of verbascoside varied from 1.7 to 8% of dry weight. Experiments with a high producing line PT-3 showed maximum verbascoside yield was achieved in half-strength Gamborg's B5 liquid medium being approximately double compared with the roots of 4.5-month-old-plants grown outside.

Biolistic bombardment of *P. elongata* leaf explants with a construct pBI121 harboring the β glucuronidase (GUS) and neomycin phosphotransferase (NPT II) genes produced transgenic plants via organogenesis. Transgene insertion was demonstrated using PCR while expression was studied using fluorometric assay for GUS and paper chromatographic assay for NPT II. Optimizing transformation systems will greatly aid in the development of improved genotypes with rapid growth habits for lignocellulosic feedstock in future [61].

A MADS box transcription factor *PkMADS*1 regulating adventitious shoot bud induction was constitutively expressed in *P. kawakamii* using *Agrobacterium*-mediated transformation (strain GV3850). Transgenic plants were obtained by selection of proliferating shoots on medium supplemented with 10 mg·L⁻¹ kanamycin [35]. *Paulownia* shoots cultured *in vitro* exhibited a high sensitivity to kanamycin, thereby making it an effective selection agent for screening transgenic plants. Transgenic Paulownia plants expressing an antimicrobial *Shiva*-1 lytic peptide that encodes cecropin were produced using *Agrobacterium*-mediated transformation [65]. Enhanced resistance to a mycoplasms causing Witches' Broom disease was observed in transgenic plants. Another useful application of *A. tumefaciens* mediated gene transfer was the introduction of *shiva-1* gene that produces cecropin peptides imparting increased resistance to mycoplasma causing Paulownia Witches' Broom disease [65].

Following development of genetic engineering protocols for tree species such as *Paulownia*, the next step in determining acceptability of transgene technology for forest tree improvement is to assess the adverse environmental impacts, if any, from field-release of genetically modified species. Ecological risks associated with commercial release range from transgene escape and introgression into wild gene pools, to the impact of transgene products on other organisms and ecosystem processes. Evaluation of those risks is confounded by the long life span of trees, and by limitations of extrapolating results from small-scale studies to larger-scale plantations.

5. Medicinal Properties of Paulownia

Polyphenolic compounds produced by plants as secondary metabolites exhibit high antioxidant activity [66]. Free radicals are implicated in several disorders in human body including atherosclerosis, central nervous system injury and gastritis [67,68]. Flavonoids with strong antioxidant properties inhibit hydrolytic and oxidative enzymes, prevent decomposition of peroxides into free radicals, act in anti-inflammatory pathways and minimize damage caused at the cellular level [69,70]. Plant-based antioxidants are used as therapeutics to supplement the human body's immune system [71]. A number of plant species in the Lamiaceae family including Basil (Ocimum spp.), Mint (Mentha spp.), Rosemary (Rosmarinus officinalis), Lavender (Lavandula spp.) and Baikal skullcap (Scutellaria baicalensis) [72,73] exhibit high total phenols and antioxidant activity [74,75]. Research on antioxidant properties and medicinal value of seconddary metabolites of Paulownia is gaining importance and lately many publications have appeared. Paulownia species are rich in phenolic substances distributed in different parts and tissues of the tree [76,77]. P. tomentosa leaves contain ursolic acid, and matteucinol. Xylem vessels contain paulownin, and d-sesamin while syringin and catalpinoside occur in bark extracts. Phytochemical screening of P. tomentosa var. tomentosa bark resulted in eight phenolic compounds through spectroscopic analysis [77]. Analysis of P. tomentosa fruits indicated presence of numerous C-geranyl compounds in ethanol fraction [78] that exhibited antiradical and cytoprotective activity when tested on Alloxan-induced diabetic mice [79]. Aqueous extract of Paulownia leaves and silage exhibit pronounced inhibitory activity against the Gram-negative bacteria in vitro [80]. Tablets and injections derived from *Paulownia* leaf, fruit and wood extracts are effective for bronchitis, especially relieving cough and reducing phlegm. Pharmacological experiments demonstrate utility of fruit extracts to relieve cough and asthma, and cause a reduction in blood pressure [2].

Fresh and dry leaves of *P. elongata* and *P. fortunei*, from FVSU experimental plots were used to conduct a comparative study on the antioxidant potential of leaf extracts. The colorimetric Folin-Ciocalteu reagent method [81] with modification [82] was used to measure total polyphenol (TPP) contents with gallic acid as a standard. Average TPP contents of fresh leaf extracts was 144.28 mg/g Gallic Acid Equivalent (GAE) (for *P. elon-gata*) and 207.53 mg/g GAE (*P. fortunei*) respectively, while the average TPP content ranged from 94.15 mg/g GAE (*P. elongata*) to 266.74 mg/g GAE (*P. fortunei*) (**Figure 2**).

5.1. Antioxidant Capacity Measurement

Additional studies were conducted to determine antioxidant capacity of leaf extracts of P. elongata and P. fortunei. ABTS (2, 2'-azinobis (3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6sulfonic acid) diammonium salt) is the chemical of choice used to measure the antioxidant capacity by the food industry and agricultural researchers. The ABTS radical cation is reactive towards most antioxidants including phenolics, thiols and Vitamin C. This assay is often referred to as the TROLOX (6-hydroxy-2, 5, 7, 8-tetramethychroman-2-carboxylic acid) equivalent antioxidant capacity (TEAC) assay. The reactivity of the various antioxidants in the leaf extracts are compared to that of TROLOX, which is a water-soluble analog of vitamin E. Antioxidant capacity calculation is based on inhibition exerted by TROLOX compared with sample mixed with diluted ABTS. A standard curve was generated for percent inhibition of TROLOX concentration in the range 300 - 1500 μ M with R² = 0.9935. TEAC assay was carried out following the original protocol with minor modifications [82,83].

The percent inhibition exhibited against TROLOX by these two species ranged from 48.84% to 97.53%. *P. elongata's* fresh and dry leaf extract average inhibitions were 50.21% and 63.88% respectively and for *P. fortunei* it recorded 61.03% for fresh and 95.09% for dry extract in average inhibition against TROLOX. *P. fortunei's* average inhibition was among the highest of all percent inhibition. TEAC was calculated using a TROLOX standard curve. The TEAC values obtained ranged from 1255.30 µmol/g (dry extract of *P. elongata*) to 2377.10 µmol/g for *P. fortunei* dry extract (**Figure 2**).

The percent inhibition against TROLOX by two leaf extracts ranged between 48.84% to 97.53%. *P. elon-gata's* fresh and dry leaf extract average inhibitions were 50.21% and 63.88% and for *P. fortunei* it recorded

61.03% for fresh and 95.09% for dry extracts. *P. fortunei's* average inhibition for both fresh and dry leaf extracts were higher than *P. elongata*. The average TEAC values of fresh and dry leaf extracts of *P. elongata* was 1255.30 μ mol/g, and 1596.33 μ mol/g respectively whereas for *P. fortunei* it was 1525.66 μ mol/g and 2377.10 μ mol/g (**Figure 2**).

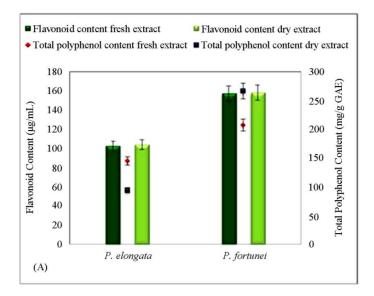
5.2. Estimation of Total Flavonoid Contents

Estimation of total flavonoid content was conducted using aluminum chloride colorimetric method [84]. Quercetin dihydrate was used as a standard to make the calibration curve with concentrations ranging from 10 - 125 µg/mL. The test solutions were prepared mixing fresh and dry leaf extracts with 10% aluminum chloride, 1 M potassium acetate, 95% ethanol and distilled water, then absorption of the test solutions (for dry and fresh leaf extracts) were recorded using a spectrophotometer at 415 nm. Once the readings were obtained, total flavonoid content was calculated and absorbance was plotted against µg/mL where the relationship is linear and regression equation is determined by y = mx + b. For each species, three independent replications were done and averaged. Flavonoid content in the fresh leaf extracts of P. elongata and P. fortunei were 102.58 µg/mL and 157.53 µg/mL, respectively. In the extracts derived from dried leaves, flavonoid content of P. elongata was 104 µg/mL whereas in case of P. fortunei it was at 158.45 $\mu g/mL$.

Out of three assays conducted, the results from total polyphenol concentration measurement and total flavonoid content exhibited a strong correlation (**Figure 2(A)**). As the TPP value increased, flavonoid content also increased. In addition, an increase in TPP caused a subsequent increase in TEAC values as well as flavonoid contents. Though results obtained in this study only establish the quantities available in fresh and dry extracts for TPP, TEAC and estimation of total flavonoid in general, it corroborates previous evidence for the antioxidant properties of specific bioactive compounds occurring in *P. tomentosa* [78].

6. Future Prospects and Conclusions

Forest biotechnology is an emerging field of interest. Existing protocols make it possible to genetically improve existing varieties using biotechnology. With the current economic importance and future uses of *Paulownia* species being developed, it is clear that plant regeneration using micropropagation is of paramount importance. *Paulownia* plants are now produced through tissue culture and shipped to domestic and international destinations. The potential for plant regeneration via organogenesis, from cotyledons and hypocotyls, as well as



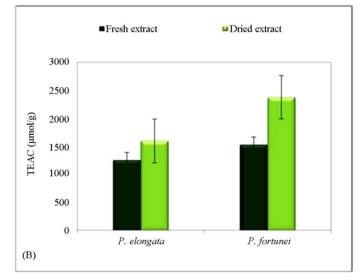


Figure 2. Paulownia leaf extract as a source of polyphenols with high antioxidant activity. (A) Correlation between total polyphenol and flavonoid content for fresh and dry extracts of *P. elongata* and *P. fortunei*, (B) TEAC value of extracts from fresh and dry leaf samples of *P. elongata* and *P. fortunei*. Values represent means of three replicates. The analysis of variance (ANOVA) single factor for fresh and dry extracts were performed to compare the means with significant differences between treatments at p < 0.05 level.

determined requirements for rapid adventitious shoot generation from shoot tips, needs additional studies [85]. Although several techniques for plant regeneration have been described here, protocols for culture induction and plant regeneration from a number of explants including seed and roots are still lacking. Culture induction via Thin Cell Layer techniques also has not been widely documented. Lack of a reliable tissue culture would hinder downstream research applications such as genetic transformation, genomic and transcriptome analysis. A variety of techniques described in this review is a guideline, which lays a solid groundwork for additional studies by researchers.

The introduction of genes into plant cells and recovery

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of stable fertile transgenic plants is a viable alternative to conventional breeding techniques for making desired modifications in existing varieties. As gene isolation, characterization and genetic engineering technology become routine procedures, forest-tree species are becoming a major target for genetic improvement using molecular breeding [62]. The first genetically modified tree (*Populus*) was produced 20 years ago [85]. Despite this advance, the number of forest tree species for which transformation and regeneration techniques have been optimized remains low; they include aspen, cottonwood, eucalyptus and walnut. Recently, transformation and regeneration protocols have been developed for several gymnosperms, mostly species within the genera *Pinus*, Larix and Picea. For each of these species, only a few genotypes are known to be amenable to the recovery of transgenic plants. In general, effective plant regeneration has been more difficult to achieve through organogenesis than through somatic embryogenesis. Plant regeneration via somatic embryogenesis is a reliable method for genetic transformation since it has a single cell origin. The potential of cell suspension cultures for the production of somatic embryos offers a possibility of reducing time in obtaining synthetic seeds especially in case of woody tree species with a long seed generation time. Several forest trees (poplar, conifers) have been used for genetic manipulation and transgenic plants are being tested under field conditions. Ultimately, the real value of in vitro techniques lies in their extension and applications in forest-tree improvement programs.

Development of new drug is a complex, time-consuming, and an expensive process. The time taken from discovery of a new drug to its reaching the clinic is more than a decade, involving high financial commitment. Essentially, the new drug discovery involves the identification of new chemical entities (NCEs), having the required characteristic of druggability and medicinal chemistry. Many of these NCEs can be sourced through natural products (plants). *Paulownia* trees have been extensively used in many traditional medical systems in the East and a systematic study on their medicinal components and their activity holds promise for the health sector.

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