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Expression of a Heat Shock Protein 70 from the Brown Alga *Ectocarpus* sp. Imparts Salinity Stress Tolerance in *Arabidopsis thaliana*

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1 Abstract

The brown alga *Ectocarpus* sp. belongs to Phaeophyceae, a class of macroalgae in the phylum 2 3 Heterokonts, which is also known as the Stramenopiles lineage. Ectocarpus is a dominant seaweed in temperate regions around the globe, abundant mostly in the intertidal zones, a habitat 4 with harsh environmental conditions resulting from tidal cycles. Analysis of previously 5 generated transcriptomic data of brown alga showed the up-regulation of the Esi0379_0027 6 7 gene, encoding a HSP70 protein, in response to various abiotic stresses. Bioinformatics study demonstrated that the HSP70 protein is soluble, monomeric and well conserved compared to 8 other organisms. Subcellular localization of EsHSP70 revealed that the protein is localized in 9 nucleus. To explore the role of HSP70 in stress tolerance, it was expressed in Arabidopsis under 10 constitutive and stress inducible promoters. Transgenic Arabidopsis plants generated using both 11 12 promoters exhibited higher tolerance to salinity stress compared to wild type plant. Transcript analysis of various abiotic stress-responsive genes showed that genes participating in Na⁺ efflux 13 and sequestration, and in ABA-mediated stress tolerance were remarkably upregulated in the 14 *EsHSP70*-expressing transgenic *Arabidopsis*. Overall, our results showed that the expression of 15 16 the EsHSP70 promotes salt stress tolerance by upregulating stress responsive genes in Arabidopsis. 17

18 Keywords: Arabidopsis thaliana, Ectocarpus sp., Phaeophyceae, heat shock protein, salinity

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26 1. Introduction

27 Plants being sessile organisms are incapable to avoid stressful or unfavorable growth conditions by changing place. These organisms are constantly exposed to several environmental stresses 28 such as salinity, drought, high temperature, heavy metal and ultra-violet radiation. These 29 30 stressors negatively affect plant growth and development leading to significant loss in productivity. High soil salinity is the predominant among various abiotic stresses which causes 31 32 severe crop loss globally. In addition, the effect of global climate change further exasperates the effects of abiotic stresses on agricultural production (Lesk et al. 2016). The crop loss due to these 33 34 stressors account up to 50% loss in production (Lobell et al. 2011). High salinity inhibits plant 35 growth in multiple ways such as osmotic stress, ion accumulation and secondary stress. The primary stresses, such as salinity, drought and high temperature are often interconnected and lead 36 to secondary stresses such as oxidative stress. At cellular level, these stresses result in 37 38 physiological dehydration, which further damages cellular machinery (Wang et al. 2003). 39 Increased soil osmotic potential due to presence of salt reduces the plants ability to uptake water and nutrients (Hasegawa et al. 2000). Accumulation of Na⁺ and Cl⁻ ions in significantly higher 40 concentration than those of outside in the soil helps to maintain turgor pressure but cells must 41 strictly regulate contents of these ions in each cellular compartment to avoid inactivation of 42 43 enzymes thus prevent metabolic dysfunction (Munns and Gilliham 2015). Based on their ability to tolerate salt stress, plants are classified as halophytes and glycophytes (Flowers et al. 1977); 44 45 halophytes are highly tolerant to salinity stress. These plants have evolved unique structural features such salt secretory glands in leaves that has the capacity to excrete excess salt that 46 47 ensures their survival under higher levels of soil salinity. However, most of the crop plants are glycophytic and lacks such structures therefore doesn't exhibit higher level of salinity stress 48 49 tolerance (Hasegawa et al. 2000; Julkowska and Testerink 2015; Hasegawa et al. 2000). Generally, halophytes have higher concentration of Na⁺ and Cl⁻ ions in leaves than the outside 50 51 environment that helps to maintain higher osmotic potential in the cells and therefore higher turgor pressure. These plants store Na⁺ and Cl⁻ in vacuoles and uses compatible solutes and K⁺ 52 ions to equilibrate the osmotic differences in different compartments of cytoplasm (Shabala 53 2013). Accumulation of Na⁺ and Cl⁻ ions in some leaves may be deleterious but at whole plant 54 level it might be beneficial as plant can store the excess Na⁺ and Cl⁻ ions in those leaves and later 55 remove these ions via abscission (Munns and Tester 2008). 56

57 Heat shock proteins are classified on the basis of their molecular weight into five major groups named as sHSP (small heat shock proteins), HSP60, HSP70, HSP90 and HSP100 (Wang et al. 58 59 2004). These proteins are present and conserved in almost all living organisms from prokaryotes 60 to eukaryotes (De Maio 1999). Heat shock proteins have a vital role in developmental processes and response to abiotic stresses like salt (Zou et al. 2012), drought (Cho and Choi 2009) and 61 extremes of temperature (Lopez-Matas et al. 2004). Among several HSPs, HSP70 is a highly 62 conserved protein and has been extensively studied in bacteria, plants and animals. It is the most 63 abundant molecular chaperon, and is localized to various cellular compartments including 64 cytosol, nucleus, mitochondria and endoplasmic reticulum, protecting proteins by folding of 65 misfolded or unfolded proteins, disassembly of protein complex to translocate in another cellular 66 compartment and in disaggregation of complex aggregates (Saibil 2013). HSP70 contains two 67 main domains: a substrate binding domain and an ATPase domain (Kampinga and Craig 2010; 68 Mayer 2010; Zuiderweg et al. 2012). The activity of HSP70 depends on the interaction between 69 these two domains and other co-chaperons (Saibil 2013). Proteins which are not folded correctly 70 71 in their native state contains several binding sites usually at every 30 to 40 residues for HSP70 72 (Rüdiger et al. 1997). It is known that HSP70 binds to the 7-residue segment of a polypeptide chain which is hydrophobic in nature (Clerico et al. 2015). Even transient binding of polypeptide 73 74 segment with HSP70 can prevent the misfolding and aggregation of proteins thus maintains protein in native state (Young 2010). Once reached to right destination polypeptide regains the 75 76 native state in free solution by detaching from HSP70. If it fails to refold properly it will lead to rebinding to HSP70. Therefore, the function of HSP70 in proper folding seems to be in 77 78 stabilization of unfolded proteins until it can refold correctly (Sharma et al. 2010). HSP70 proteins have been identified in several plant species (Vierling 1991; Boston et al. 1996). In 79 80 Arabidopsis 18 genes encoding the HSP70 family proteins have been discovered. Analysis of the expression profile of these genes showed that members of HSP70 family were expressed in 81 response to several environmental stimuli such as high temperature, cold, drought, salinity and 82 other chemical stresses (Lin et al. 2001; Sung et al. 2001). Several studies have been carried out 83 and reported that overexpression of HSP70 improved drought, salinity and high temperature 84 85 stress tolerance in transgenic plants. Cho and Choi (2009), reported that constitutive overexpression of nuclear localized HSP70 from Nicotiana tabacum improved high temperature 86 87 and drought stress tolerance in transgenic tobacco, whereas the antisense plants were highly

susceptible (Cho and Choi 2009). Similarly, constitutive expression of *HSP70* from cotton
improved drought stress tolerance in transgenic tobacco (Ni et al. 2021). Overexpression of *HSP70* from chrysanthemum have shown to improve salinity, drought and high temperature
stress tolerance in transgenic *Arabidopsis* (Song et al. 2014). *Arabidopsis* plants transformed
using fungal *HSP70* from *Trichoderma* improved tolerance to heat, salinity, osmotic and
oxidative stress (Montero-Barrientos et al. 2010).

94 Seaweeds are an integral component of marine coastal ecosystems, where they form large 95 dense forests and provides habitat for many organisms (Khan et al. 2009). Brown alga are 96 multicellular organisms belonging to Stramenopiles lineage (also known as Heterokonts) (Cock 97 et al. 2012). This lineage is distantly related to Archaeplastida (including green plants and red algae) and Opisthokonts (including animal and fungi) (Baldauf 2003; Brodie et al. 2017). Since 98 99 each of these lineages have evolved independently it is thought that organisms in each of these 100 lineages have evolved mechanisms necessary for the development of complex multicellularity. 101 These mechanisms are well studied in land plants and in animals but very little is known in brown algae (Coelho et al. 2012). During the billions year of evolution brown algae have made 102 103 the transition from unicellularity to complex multicellularity and therefore acquired novel features which are absent in other lineages (Cock et al. 2012; Brodie et al. 2017). Endosymbiotic 104 105 gene transfer led to the significant incorporation of foreign genes and enriched the nuclear genome. Some of these genes were targeted to specific organelle through N-terminal transit 106 107 peptide and many of these evolved novel functions in these organisms (Brodie et al. 2017). These novel features make it very interesting to explore and decipher the metabolisms and 108 109 cellular biology of these organisms. Moreover, genome sequencing demonstrated that more than 110 36% of genes are of unknown functions and doesn't match to any other existing organisms. This indicates that these are novel genes or got considerably diverged from the homologue genes 111 112 present in other organisms (Cock et al. 2012). Some of the novel features include metabolism of halogenated compounds, accumulation of complex polysaccharides and higher tolerance to biotic 113 and abiotic stresses (Charrier et al. 2008). Moreover, in brown algae the photosynthetically fixed 114 carbon is not stored as starch granules, instead it is stored as laminarin and mannitol (Craigie 115 1974; Davis et al. 2003). In contrast to land plants, these organisms produce complex 116 polysaccharides such as alginates and sulfated fucans (Kloareg and Quatrano 1988). Genome 117 118 editing tools have been routinely applied to land plants to understand their complex organization.

119 However, their application in other lineages for instance in Stramenopile is very challenging as 120 these are not easily amenable, lack of standardized protocols for genetic transformation, 121 mutation, promoter analysis and subcellular localization. The genome sequencing of Ectocarpus provided some insights to brown algal biology, however, various biological aspects still remains 122 largely unknown. Transcriptomics study on brown algae showed that the expression level of 123 several genes was upregulated under different abiotic stresses conditions, along with elevated 124 125 levels of stress tolerance (Ritter et al. 2014). One of these genes was identified as EsHSP70 (*Esi0379_0027*). In the present work, to examine the role of *EsHSP70* in abiotic stress tolerance, 126 it was expressed in A.-rabidopsis thaliana. Transgenic Arabidopsis plants expressing EsHSP70 127 showed higher tolerance to salt stress. Furthermore, the transcript level of various stress-128 responsive genes was found to be significantly higher in HSP70-expressing transgenic plants 129 130 compared to the control (normal condition without salt) plants.

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132 2. Materials and Methods

133 **2.1. Brown alga growth condition and RNA isolation**

The axenic culture of brown algal model *Ectocarpus* sp. (Dilwyn) Lyngbye unialgal strain 134 32 (accession CCAP 1310/4, origin San Juan de Marcona, Peru) was established in a 10 liters-L 135 plastic tank filled with filtered, autoclaved natural sea water containing 1% (v/v) of provasoli 136 137 Provasoli nutrient medium. Culture was maintained at 14 °C in the growth room with light cycle of 14h light/10h dark, with light intensity of 40 µmol- photons m⁻²s⁻¹. Compressed air passing 138 through a filter was used to continuously air bubble the nutrient medium. The culture was then 139 treated with 1450 mM NaCl for 6 h to induce salt stress condition. Following the exposure to 140 141 high salinity stress condition culture was collected using filtration, carefully dried on absorbent paper and promptly flash frozen in liquid nitrogen. Total RNA isolation was performed using 0.1 142 g of tissue following the protocol described earlier with minor modifications (Apt et al. 1995). 143 The modifications to the protocol were made as previously stated (Le Bail et al. 2008). One 144 145 microgram of RNA was treated with Turbo DNAse (Ambion Austin, USA) following to the 146 manufacturer's instruction. The DNAse-treated RNA was converted to cDNA, using a SuperScript IV Reverse Transcriptase (Life Technologies, France), following the manufacturer's 147 148 procedures.

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151 **2.2. Bioinformatics analysis**

The protein transmembrane helices or domain were identified using HMMTOP v.2.0 152 (http://www.enzim.hu/hmmtop/) and TMHMM v.2.0 (https://services.healthtech.dtu.dk/) 153 154 prediction servers. To determine the subcellular localization of protein, the amino acid sequence was analyzed using TargetP 2.0, Signal P and DeepLoc-1.0 (https://services.healthtech.dtu.dk/), 155 156 iPSORT (http://ipsort.hgc.jp), and WoLF PSORT (https://wolfpsort.hgc.jp) prediction servers. 157 Homology modelling for secondary structure was carried out using PSIPRED (Buchan and Jones 2019) (http://bioinf.cs.ucl.ac.uk/psipred). To obtain information about the tertiary structure and 158 the folding of EsHSP70, protein model was generated using SWISS-MODEL (Waterhouse et al. 159 160 2018). The best model (77.64 % sequence identity) was built using bovine heat shock cognate 71 kDA as a template (SMTL ID: 4fl9.1; structure solved by X-ray diffraction 1.90 Å). BlastP 161 search was performed using EsHSP70 as a query to find the protein sequence homology with 162 different other taxa. MUSCLE alignments (Edgar 2004) of some selected protein sequences were 163 done using MEGA X software (Kumar et al. 2018). The evolutionary history was inferred by 164 165 using the Maximum Likelihood method and JTT matrix-based model (Jones et al. 1992). The evolutionary analysis, comprised of 49 sequences including EsHSP70, analyses were performed 166 using MEGA X software (Kumar et al. 2018). 167

168 2.3. Plasmid construction and transformation of Arabidopsis

To create the plant transformation constructs, pEarleyGate 100 (Earley et al. 2006) and a 169 promoterless vector pMCS:GW (Michniewicz et al. 2015) were obtained from ABRC 170 (Columbus, OH, USA). Promoter sequence for a stress inducible gene RESPONSIVE TO 171 172 DESICCATION 29A (RD29A) was amplified from the wild type (Col-0) Arabidopsis. Gateway vector containing stress inducible promoter of RD29A gene, was generated as described earlier 173 (Rathor et al. 2021). The coding sequence of EsHSP70 was amplified by RT-PCR using gene 174 specific primers flanked by attB sequences and cloned into pDONR221 by the BP ClonaseTM II 175 Gateway[®], following the manufacturer's protocol to generate entry clone (Gateway[®] Technology 176 with Clonase II, Invitrogen, Ontario, Canada). The entry clone harboring full gene sequence was 177

then recombined into pEarleyGate 100 (35S) and pMCS:GW (RD29A promoter) by LR 178 ClonaseTM II Gateway[®], following the manufacturer's protocol (Gateway[®] Technology, 179 180 Invitrogen, Ontario, Canada). The correctness of the RD29A promoter and EsHSP70 sequences was confirmed by PCR using the forward primer sequence from the RD29A promoter and 181 reverse primer sequence from the EsHSP70. The expression clone was then transformed into 182 Agrobacterium strain GV310 (pMB90) using the freeze-thaw method followed by Arabidopsis 183 (ecotype Col-0) transformation through the floral dipping protocol (Clough and Bent 1998). 184 Positive transformants were screened as stated earlier (Rathor et al. 2021). Expression of the 185 transgene was analyzed in these lines using quantitative real time polymerase chain reaction 186 (qRT-PCR) as described in later section. For further experiments two homozygous independent 187 transgenic lines named as EsHSP-Ox1 and EsHSP-Ox2 (for 35S promoter) and three 188 homozygous independent lines for stress inducible promoter (EsHSP-A, B, and C) were used. 189

190 2.4. Plasmid construction for subcellular localization

To generate the transformation vector, pEarleyGate 103 (C-GFP-HIS) (Earley et al. 2006) was obtained from ABRC. Stop codon was removed from the coding sequence of *EsHSP70* and the entry clone produced as described in previous section. The entry clone harboring full gene sequence without stop codon was then recombined into pEarleyGate 103 (C-GFP-HIS) using LR ClonaseTM II Gateway[®] as mentioned in previous section.

196 **2.5. Analysis of salinity stress tolerance**

Seeds of the wild type and transgenic Arabidopsis lines were germinated and grown 197 198 vertically on half strength Murashige and Skoog (MS) solid media (Phytotech, USA) for 4 days. Uniform 4-day-old seedlings were selected and transferred on 1/2 MS solid media plates 199 200 containing 100 mM NaCl. Plates were placed vertically for 7 days at 22 °C with 16 h light/8 h dark cycle, with light intensity of 100 μ mol- photons m⁻²s⁻¹. Primary root length was marked on 201 the day of seedling transfer. After 7 days, plates were scanned using a scanner (Epson 202 Expression 10000 XL, Epson, Ontario, Canada), and increase in root length and the lateral roots 203 204 number was measured using Image J software (NIH, United States USA). The percent leaf chlorosis was recorded visually on 7th day after transfer. The seedlings were harvested on the 9th 205 day to determine the fresh weight, subsequently oven-dried for 5 days at 70 °C for dry weight 206 measurement. All the experiments were conducted in triplicate and 30 plants per each treatment 207

208 were examined. To investigate if the phenotypes observed in seedlings were evident in plants, seeds of wild type and of *EsHSP70*-overexpressing lines were stratified for 2 days at 4 °C and 209 210 were sown directly on Jiffy peat pellets (Jiffy, NB, Canada). 13-day-old plants grown on peat pellets were completely saturated with water to equilibrate amount of water in all peat pellets 211 across the treatments. After three days, they were treated with NaCl at the final concentration of 212 the 100 mM. The peat pellets moisture were kept equally during the experiment by irrigation 213 once every three days. Plants were photographed after 3 weeks and their fresh and dry biomass 214 were measured. Three independent experiments with five replications were performed. 215

In order to understand the effect of salinity stress on membrane intactness an experiment for electrolyte leakage was performed. Plants were grown and treated as described above. Following the exposure to salinity stress rosette leaves were harvested from 3 plants in one biological replicate (5 biological replicates) and transferred into vials comprising 20 ml of deionized water. Electrolyte leakage was measured using SympHony SB70C (VWR, ON, Canada) conductivity meter as described by (Cao et al. 2007).

222 **2.6.** Plant RNA isolation and quantitative RT-PCR (qRT-PCR)

The expression of abiotic stress associated key marker genes was examined in *EsHSP*-Ox1 223 (35S promoter) and EsHSP-A (RD29A promoter) lines. Plants were grown and treated as 224 described above. Total RNA was isolated from leaves at 24 and 120 h after salt stress treatment 225 226 using GeneJET plant RNA purification kit (Thermoscientific, ON, Canada). After quantification of the RNA using a NanoDrop spectrophotometer (Thermoscientific, ON, Canada), 2 µg of total 227 RNA was treated with RQ1 RNAse free DNAse following the manufacturer's protocol 228 (Promega, ON, Canada) and used for cDNA synthesis using the RevetAID cDNA Synthesis kit 229 230 according to the manufacturer's instructions (Thermoscientific, ON, Canada). qRT-PCR was conducted on the StepOne plus Real-Time PCR system (Applied Biosystems, Ontario, Canada), 231 232 using iTaq SYBR green (Bio-RAD, ON, Canada). The relative expression was determined by normalization to the Actin transcript abundance (as an internal control) following the $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$ 233 234 method (Pfaffl 2001). Finally, transcript levels were expressed relative to the treatment with lowest expression. The oligonucleotide primer sequences are given in Supplemental Table S1. 235

236 2.7 Protoplast isolation and transfection

Four weeks old *Arabidopsis* wild-type (Col-0) plant was used for protoplast isolation and transfection as previously described (Yoo et al. 2007). The transformed protoplasts were incubated for 16-18h at room temperature before imaging using an LSM 710 LASER scanning confocal microscope (Carl Zeiss, Canada) following the protocol stated earlier (Wu et al. 2009).

241 **2.8. Statistical analyses**

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was accomplished for all the data followed by Tukey post hoc test at $P \le 0.05$ using Minitab 19.0 software (Minitab LLC, State College, Pennsylvania, USA).

245 **3. Results**

246 **3.1. Prediction of transmembrane domain and intracellular localization of EsHSP70**

The presence of the transmembrane domains in EsHSP70 (Esi0379_0027) was analyzed 247 using the HMMTOP v.2.0 and TMHMM v.2.0 online prediction servers, however, 248 249 transmembrane domains was not identified in this protein. SignalP, iPSORT and TargetP 2.0 250 online servers were employed to analyse the subcellular localization of EsHSP70 protein. 251 According to the results, the presence of a mitochondrial signal peptide, chloroplast, or thylakoid luminal transfer peptide was ruled out. In plants, it is known that endogenous HSP70 is present 252 253 in different cellular compartments and it is likely that EsHSP70 in transgenic plants likely to be same. However, final destination in particular cellular compartment may occur by interaction 254 255 with other proteins. Protein structure prediction was performed based on the PSIPRED method and exhibited the secondary structure of EsHSP70 protein with a MW of 71.9 kDa and an 256 257 isoelectric point (pI) of 5.0 (Fig. 1 a). The EsHSP70 protein structure was further explored using the SWISS-MODEL server. The best model (77.64% sequence identity) was obtained using 258 259 bovine Heat shock cognate 71 kDA as a template (SMTL ID: 4fl9.1). This suggested that EsHSP70 is a well-structured protein. Information coming from all these databases indicated that 260 261 EsHSP70 is a soluble, monomeric protein (Fig. 1 b-d).

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(a) PsiPred sequence plot. The secondary structure prediction of EsHSP70. Model was generated
at: http://bioinf.cs.ucl.ac.uk/psipred/ (b) EsHSP70 three-dimensional (3D) structure modelling.
3D structure of the full length protein generated with ProMod3 3.0.0 in SWISS-MODEL. (c)
Template (SMTL ID: 4f19.1). (d) Sequence alignment of EsHSP70 (Model_02) with bovine Heat
shock cognate 71 kDA template.

287 **3.2.** Phylogenetic analysis indicated that EsHSP70 considerable diverged from land plants

Phylogenetic analyses of EsHSP70 (Fig. 2) showed the close evolutionary relationships 288 between Ectocarpus sp. sequences and other two brown alga (Saccharina japonica and Undaria 289 290 pinnatifida). Three sequences from Ectocarpus genus were in the same group as EsHSP70, while these taxa are clustered separately from the Tracheophytes (vascular plants), and Bryophyta 291 292 (non-vascular land plants). These results implying that these Ectocarpus sp. sequences occurred duplication divergent evolution. 293 through and



295 Fig. 2. Phylogenetic analysis of HSP70 in different species. The numbers of node indicate the 296 percentages of bootstrapping after 500 replications. Phylogenetic tree was generated using Maximum Likelihood method and JTT matrix-based model. Tracheophytes (vascular plants), 297 298 Chlorophyta (green algae), Bryophyta (non-vascular land plants), Opalinata (non-phagotrophic heterokonts), Oomycote (fungus), Pelagophyceae (heterokont algae), Bacillariophyta (diatoms), 299 300 Xanthophyceae (yellow-green algae), Eustigmatophytes eustigmatophytes (eukaryotic algae), Phaeophyceae (brown 301 and algae).

302 3.3. EsHSP70 is highly expressed in nucleus

To determine the protein expression pattern, the C-terminal fusion construct of EsHSP70 with GFP tag was transiently expressed in *Arabidopsis* protoplast. Fluorescence microscopy analysis of protoplast revealed the nucleus localization of the EsHSP70 (Fig. 3).



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Fig. 3. Subcellular localization of EsHSP70. The coding region of EsHSP70 without stop codon
was fused to GFP under control of the constitutive 35S cauliflower mosaic virus promoter
(CaMV35S promoter). *Arabidopsis* protoplast was transformed with p35S::EsHSP70-GFP by
using PEG-mediated protocol. Scale bars = 20 μm.

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313 3.4. Gene expression analysis shown that *EsHSP70* is abundantly expressed in Arabidopsis 314 under control and salt stress conditions

To understand the role of this protein in abiotic stress tolerance it was expressed under 35S 315 316 and stress inducible promoter RD29A. Results of qPCR demonstrated that in control condition (normal condition without salt stress), the transcript level in the EsHSP-overexpressing lines 317 (*EsHSP*-Ox1 and –Ox2) was markedly high as compared to the *EsHSP*-A, *EsHSP*-B and *EsHSP*-318 C lines (Fig.4). In *EsHSP*-Ox lines, having 35S promoter the expression level was very close to 319 320 as actin, the reference gene. Ct values for actin ranged between 21-22 cycles while those of EsHSP70 in EsHSP-Ox1 and EsHSP-Ox2 were 20 and 20.5, respectively, suggesting the 321 efficient transcription of EsHSP70 and high mRNA stability in A. thaliana. When exposed to salt 322 323 stress, the gene expression level was remarkably enhanced in *EsHSP*-A, *EsHSP*-B and *EsHSP*-C lines (57.8, 7.0 and 8.5 times, respectively), whereas in *EsHSP*-Ox1 and *EsHSP*-Ox2 the changes 324 325 in transcripts level were on the lower range compared to other transgenic lines (8.0 and 5.8 times, respectively). Further up-regulation of this gene in the 35S lines under salinity stress 326 suggests that mRNA is likely more stable under salinity stress (Shi et al. 2003). 327



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Fig. 4. Expression of *EsHSP70* in two independent lines under the 35S promoter and three independent lines harboring the stress inducible (*RD29A*) promoter under control (normal condition without salt stress) and salt stress conditions. The values on the bars indicate fold change ratio compared to the line with the lowest *EsHSP70* expression, *i.e. EsHSP*-C in normal condition. Different letters above the bars represent significant differences according to Tukey's test (p \leq 0.05).

335 **3.5.** Expression of *EsHSP70* ameliorated salt tolerance in Arabidopsis

To investigate the salt stress tolerance of overexpression lines, 4-day-old seedlings grown 336 on 1/2 MS solid media mediam plate were treated with 100 mM NaCl and further grown for 7 337 338 days. All the transgenic lines exhibited higher tolerance to salt stress (Fig. 5). After one week 339 following the exposure to salinity stress it was noticed that seedlings of overexpression lines had significantly longer roots (12-13 and 9-10% increase under standard conditions and 35-36 and 340 30-40% increase under salinity stress for 35S and stress inducible overexpression lines, 341 respectively), higher number of lateral roots per cm of primary root (16-23 and 7-8% decrease 342 343 under standard conditions and 15-20 and 17-38% increase under salinity stress for 35S and stress inducible overexpression lines, respectively), reduced leaf chlorosis (50-60 and 50-73% for 35S 344 and stress inducible overexpression lines, respectively), higher fresh weight (10-15 and 10-15% 345 increase under standard conditions and 75-80 and 45-50% increase under salinity stress for 35S 346 and stress inducible overexpression lines, respectively), and higher dry weight (14-15 and 10-347 15% increase under standard conditions and 70-80 and 40-42% increase under salinity stress for 348 35S and stress inducible overexpression lines, respectively) in contrast to the wild type plants 349 (Fig. 5). Under *in-vivo* condition, wild type plants exposed to the salt stress, displayed severe 350 growth retardation in contrast to transgenic plants which continued to grow better (Fig. 6). In 351 response to salt stress, transgenic plants showed higher fresh weight (50-60 and 40-50% increase 352 353 under salinity stress for 35S and stress inducible overexpression lines, respectively) and dry weight (60-65 and 45-60% increase under salinity stress for 35S and stress inducible 354 355 overexpression lines, respectively) in compared to the wild type plants (Fig. 6). Interestingly, no significant differences were observed between transgenic lines generated using 35S promoter 356 357 and stress inducible promoter under both normal and salt stress condition (Fig. 7).



359 Fig. 5. Salt stress tolerance in control and EsHSP70-expressing Arabidopsis under in-vitro condition. (a, g) WT, (b, h) EsHSP-A, (c, i) EsHSP-B, (d, j) EsHSP-C, (e, k) EsHSP-Ox1, (f, l) 360 EsHSP-Ox2. Wild type, 2 independent 35S promoter (EsHSP-Ox1-2,) and 3 independent stress 361 inducible promoter (EsHSPA-C) transgenic Arabidopsis lines were treated with 0 (control) and 362 100 mM NaCl. (a) to (f), seedlings grown under salt stress conditions (100mM NaCl). (g) to (l), 363 seedlings grown in normal conditions. Seedlings were photographed 9 days after transfer to the 364 365 control and 100 mM NaCl solid media. (m) root length, (n) number of lateral roots per cm of primary root, (o) fresh weight, (p) dry weight and (q) leaf chlorosis of the wild type and 366 367 transgenic plant expressing HSP70. Values correspond to the means \pm SE (n = 3). Different letters above the bars represent significant differences according to Tukey's test ($p \le 0.05$). 368



Fig. 6. Salt stress tolerance in wild type and EsHSP70-expressing Arabidopsis under in-vivo 383 condition. Wild type, 2 independent 35S promoter (EsHSP-Ox1-2,) and 3 independent stress 384 385 inducible promoter (EsHSPA-C) transgenic Arabidopsis lines were grown for 13 days under normal condition and subsequently treated with no (control) and 100 mM NaCl. (a) WT, (b) 386 EsHSP-A, (c) EsHSP-B, (d) EsHSP-C, (e) EsHSP-Ox1, (f) EsHSP-Ox2, (g) fresh weight and (h) 387 dry weight. The plants were photographed after 3 weeks. Values correspond to the means \pm SE 388 (n = 3). Different letters above the bars represent significant differences according to Tukey's 389 test ($p \le 0.05$). 390





Fig. 7. Phenotype of wild type and 2 independent 35S promoter (*EsHSP*-Ox1-2,) and of 3
independent stress inducible promoter (*EsHSPA*-C) transgenic *Arabidopsis* plants, expressing *EsHSP70*, in normal conditions. (a) WT, (b) *EsHSP*-A, (c) *EsHSP*-B, (d) *EsHSP*-C, (e) *EsHSP*Ox1, (f) *EsHSP*-Ox2.

397 3.6. Expression of *EsHSP70* demonstrated reduced leakage of electrolytes

To examine the membrane stability under salt stress condition, 15-day-old wild type and overexpression lines were exposed to 100 mM NaCl. Electrolyte leakage was estimated at 24 and 400 48 h after salinity stress exposure. Electrolyte leakage at 48 h was significantly lower in both 35S 401 and stress inducible promoter lines (50-53 and 52-60% in 35S and stress inducible 402 overexpression lines, respectively) in compared to control plants (wild type) suggesting that 403 membranes were highly intact in overexpression lines (Fig. 8).

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Fig. 8. Electrolyte leakage in wild type and *EsHSP70*-expressing *Arabidopsis* under salt stress condition. Wild type, 2 independent 35S promoter (*EsHSP*-Ox1-2) and of 3 independent stress inducible promoter (*EsHSPA*-C) transgenic *Arabidopsis* plants were grown and treated as described in materials and method<u>d</u> section. Values correspond to the means \pm SE (n = 5). Different letters above the bars represent significant differences according to Tukey's test (p \leq 0.05).

412 **3.7.** Expression of the stress responsive genes is modulated in *EsHSP70*-expressing

413 *Arabidopsis*

To elucidate the mechanism by which EsHSP70 improved salt tolerance in Arabidopsis, 414 the gene expression level of various stress responsive genes including DREB2A (Dehydration-415 416 Responsive Element-Binding Protein 2A), RD29A (Response to Desiccation 29A), RD29B (Response to Desiccation 29B), RD26 (Response to Desiccation 26), RD22 (Response to 417 Desiccation 22), RD20 (Response to Desiccation 20), RAB18 (Responsive to ABA), LEA14 (Late 418 Embryogenesis Abundant), HSP70 (Heat Shock Protein 70), SOS1 (Salt Overly Sensitive 1) and 419 420 NHX1 (Sodium/Hydrogen Exchanger 1) was measured in EsHSP-Ox1(35S promoter) and EsHSP-A (RD29A promoter) by qRT-PCR. No significant change in transcript level of the 421 422 studied genes was observed between wild type and transgenic lines in normal condition except for RAB18 that was 3.9-fold up-regulated in EsHSP-A at 120 h. Contrary to this, EsHSP-Ox1 423 424 and EsHSP-A exhibited higher expression level of the stress responsive genes after 24 h and 120 425 h salt stress exposure (Figs. 9 and 10). The expression level of DREB2A and HSP70 genes was more than 2-fold higher in *EsHSP*-Ox1 in compared to wild type under both time points of the 426 427 salt stress condition (Figs. 9a and i, respectively). The expression of these genes was 428 significantly up-regulated in EsHSP-A line at both time points under salinity stress, and the 429 difference was 1.7 and 1.4-fold for DREB2A and 1.7 and 2.4-fold for HSP70 (Figs. 10a and i, respectively). In general, the expression level of RD29A, RD29B, RD26, RD22, and RD20 was 430 431 enhanced (> 2-fold) at 24 h and reduced at 120 h salt stress conditions (Figs. 9b-f, respectively). 432 However, the expression of *RD29A*, and *RD26* was significantly different from wild type at 120 433 h (Figs. 9b and d, respectively). The expression of these genes except RD22 was up-regulated in EsHSP-A line. The difference was 2.0 and 1.8-fold for RD29A, 2.0 and 2.1-fold for RD29B, 1.9 434 and 2.2-fold for RD26 and 1.9 and 1.5-fold for RD20 (Figs. 10b-f, respectively). The Expression 435 of RD22 was significantly different at 24 h salt stress but not at 120 h in EsHSP-OX1 whereas no 436 437 significant differences were found in EsHSP-A line at both time points (Figs. 9e and 10e). The expression of RAB18 (coding for a protein from the dehydrin family), and LEA14 were also 438 increased by salt stress in both EsHSP-Ox1 and EsHSP-A, at both time points, and this 439 difference was 1.9 and 3.0-fold for RAB18 and 1.6 and 1.9 fold for LEA14 (Figs. 9g and h 440 respectively) in EsHSP-OX1, whereas the difference was 1.5-fold at both time points for RAB18 441 and 1.5 and 1.3-fold for LEA14 in EsHSP-A line (Figs. 10g and h respectively). Expression of 442

443	SOS1, an Na ⁺ /H ⁺ antiporter, was significantly up-regulated in <i>EsHSP</i> -Ox1 at both 24 h and 120 h
444	salt stress exposure by 1.5 and 2.4-fold, respectively (Fig. 9j), whereas no significant differences
445	were observed in EsHSP-A line at both time points (Fig. 10j). The expression of NHX1, an
446	Na ⁺ /H ⁺ antiporter showed 1.5-fold induction in <i>EsHSP</i> -OX1 and 1.3-fold induction in <i>EsHSP</i> -A
447	at 24 h and no significant difference was observed at 120 h in both lines (Figs. 9k and 10k).
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Fig 9. Expression of stress inducible genes in response to salt stress in EsHSP-Ox1(35S) 463 promoter) and wild type plants. qRT-PCR results indicating the transcript levels of various stress 464 inducible genes in the wild type and *EsHSP70-Arabidopsis* under normal (control) and salt stress 465 466 condition (100 mM NaCl for 24 h and 120 h). Actin was used as the internal control and transcript levels were normalized to the individual with the lowest expression. Values under the 467 468 bars indicate fold difference. Default font values represent up-regulation while italicised values represent down-regulation. Data represents mean \pm SE (n=3). (a) DREB2A, (b) RD29A, (c) 469 470 RD29B, (d) RD26, (e) RD22, (f) RD20, (g) RAB 18, (h) LEA14, (i) HSP70, (j) SOS1 and (k)



471 *NHX1*. Different letters above the bars represent significant differences according to Tukey's test 472 $(p \le 0.05)$.

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Fig. 10. Expression of stress inducible genes in response to salt stress in *EsHSP-A* (*RD29A* promoter) and wild type plants. qRT-PCR results indicating the transcript levels of various stress inducible genes in the wild type and *EsHSP70-Arabidopsis* under normal (control) and salt stress condition (100 mM NaCl for 24 h and 120 h). *Actin* was used as the internal control and transcript levels were normalized to the individual with the lowest expression. Values under the bars indicate fold difference. Default font values represent up-regulation while italicised values

480 represent down-regulation. Data represents mean \pm SE (n=3). (a) *DREB2A*, (b) *RD29A*, (c)

RD29B, (d) *RD26*, (e) *RD22*, (f) *RD20*, (g) *RAB 18*, (h) *LEA14*, (i) *HSP70*, (j) *SOS1* and (k) *NHX1*. Different letters above the bars represent significant differences according to Tukey's test

483 ($p \le 0.05$).

484 **4. Discussion**

485 Role of heat shock proteins have been extensively studied in bacteria, plants and animals. 486 Functions of HSP70 protein in response to abiotic stresses has been investigated in several crop 487 plants including rice, soybean, pepper, and Arabidopsis (Lin et al. 2001; Jung et al. 2013; Sarkar et al. 2013; Zhang et al. 2015a; Zhang et al. 2015b). Transcriptomics analysis of the brown alga 488 489 *Ectocarpus* sp. identified *HSP70* gene in this organism and similarity searches revealed that this 490 protein is well conserved. This gene was consistently up-regulated in *Ectocarpus* sp. under 491 different abiotic stresses suggesting that it plays an important role to provide protection against these physiological conditions in this organism (Ritter et al. 2014). To understand the function of 492 493 this gene we expressed it in A. thaliana under the 35S and stress inducible promoter 494 RESPONSIVE TO DESSICATION 29A (RD29A). This is the first report on the overexpression of *Ectocarpus* sp. *HSP70* improving high salinity stress tolerance in land plants. 495

Heat shock proteins, also known as chaperons, plays critical role in maintaining the metabolic 496 and structural integrity of cells by ensuring proper folding of misfolded or unfolded proteins and 497 498 preventing protein aggregation under abiotic stress conditions (Vierling 1991; Sung and Guy 2003; Wang et al. 2004). HSPs are shown to be induced by salinity stress in rice (Ngara and 499 Ndimba 2014), wheat (Sobhanian et al. 2011) and Poplar (Manaa et al. 2011). Previously, 500 transgenic plants have been generated to promote abiotic stress tolerance by expressing HSP70 501 502 gene from microbes and other land plants. HSP70 from these two types of organism had higher sequence similarity to the HSP70 of other plants. For instance, overexpression of HSP70 from 503 504 Erianthus arundinaceus has been shown to enhance salinity and drought stress tolerance of 505 sugarcane (Augustine et al. 2015). This increase in tolerance was due to higher membrane 506 stability and up-regulation of abiotic stress responsive genes including DREB2A, LEA, RD29 and ERD. It has been reported that overexpression of HSP70 gene (T34) from Trichoderma 507 508 harzianum improved salinity stress tolerance in Arabidopsis (Montero-Barrientos et al. 2010). 509 Higher salt stress tolerance was ascribed to the higher expression level of SOS1 and APX1 in

510 transgenic plants. In another study, drought tolerance was enhanced by overexpression of NtHSP70-1 (Cho and Hong 2006). Similarly, MsHSP70-expressing transgenic Arabidopsis 511 512 showed higher drought tolerance (Li et al. 2017). Its multiple sequence alignment showed that it had higher sequence similarity with other land plants including wheat, rice, corn and peas. 513 Transgenic Arabidopsis lines expressing chrysanthemum HSP70 exhibited enhanced tolerance to 514 abiotic stress (Song et al. 2014). Taken together, all these studies suggest that HSP70 plays an 515 important role in abiotic stress tolerance in plants. However, HSP70 gene used in these studies 516 had high sequence similarity to the HSP70 of the plants. In the current study, we isolated the 517 HSP70 gene from brown algal model Ectocarpus. sp. Phylogenetic analysis indicated that this 518 519 gene got considerably diverged from HSP70 in land plants as the close relatives were only two brown algae and other algae from Xanthophyceae family. This gene has no similarity to HSP70 520 of the plants suggesting that this is a novel HSP70. Expression of EsHSP70 in A. thaliana 521 significantly improved plant tolerance to salinity stress in all lines, irrespective of the promoter 522 used. It is worth mentioning that under both salinity stress and normal conditions, there was no 523 positive correlation between the *EsHSP70* transcript abundance and phenotypic data. Although, 524 525 *EsHSP70* expression was higher in 35S lines (constitutive over-expressed lines) than that of RD29A lines (stress-inducible lines), they exhibited a similar phenotype (Figures 5, 7, and 8). 526 527 This might be due to the similar protein expression in these lines. Indeed, there is no correlation between the transcript level and the final protein expression. It has been shown that several 528 529 processes such as translation rates, translation rate modulation, delay in protein synthesis, and protein transport are significantly contribute in protein expression. This was further observed in 530 531 the transcriptomics and proteomics studies (Maier et al. 2009; Vogel and Marcotte 2012; Liu et al. 2016). Furthermore, the elevated expression level of *EsHSP70* in constitutive over-expressed 532 533 lines, might already very high for the translational system leading to a saturation or a plateau level. 534

Plants face alterations in their growing environment and responds to these variations by adjusting their metabolism and physiology. The crucial changes during these alterations include osmotic adjustment by production and accumulation of compatible solutes to maintain turgor pressure, exclusion of Na⁺ ions, modulation of root architecture, shoot growth, organization of leaves, leaf senescence, flowering time and biomass accumulation (Munns 2002; Sun et al. 2008; Park et al. 2013). Phytohormone-The phytohormone_ABA plays <u>a</u> crucial role in plant tolerance 541 to abiotic stresses (Finkelstein et al. 2002). ABA is involved in the activation of the various 542 stress responsive genes, however, some of them are activated through an ABA-independent 543 pathway (Zhu 2002; Yamaguchi-Shinozaki and Shinozaki 2005). Stress responsive genes in plant contain two main classes of cis acting elements referred as ABRE and DRE in the promoter 544 regions. ABRE functions in ABA dependent signaling pathway and DRE functions in ABA 545 independent pathway (Kim et al. 2011). In the present work, we analyzed the expression level of 546 various key marker genes associated to abiotic stress tolerance in Arabidopsis (i.e., DREB2A, 547 RD29A, RD29B, RD26, RD22, RD20, RAB18, LEA14, HSP70, SOS1 and NHX1). 548

A DRE binding transcription factor DREB2A contains ethylene responsive factor elements 549 550 in promoter region (ERF/APETALA2). It functions as transcriptional activator of downstream stress responsive genes by binding to DRE sequences present in promoter regions (Liu et al. 551 1998; Nakashima et al. 2000; Sakuma et al. 2002). The DREB2A expression was significantly 552 553 up-regulated in EsHSP70-expressing Arabidopsis under salt stress condition (at both 24 and 120 554 h) when compared to the wild-wild-type plant (Figs. 9a and 10a). It was shown that the overexpression of the DREB2A activated the expression of several downstream genes including 555 556 RD29A, RD29B, RD17 and LEA14 (Sakuma et al. 2006a). Likewise, the expression of these genes i.e., RD29A, RD29B and LEA14 was significantly up-regulated in EsHSP70-expressing 557 558 Arabidopsis when compared to the wild-wild-type plant (Figs. 9 and 10b, c, and h, respectively). Promoter region of these genes contain DRE suggesting that expression of these genes was 559 560 regulated by DREB2A (Sakuma et al. 2006b). Therefore, higher expression of these genes in transgenic lines can be ascribed to the EsHSP70-mediated activation of the DREB2A. RD26 561 562 encodes NAC transcription factor functions in ABA dependent pathway as its expression was up-regulated by salinity, drought, and ABA (Fujita et al. 2004). RD20 encodes a Ca2+ binding 563 protein functions is directly regulated by *RD26* as the expression of this gene was up-regulated in 564 transgenic plants overexpressing RD26 (Fujita et al. 2004). Our result showed the higher 565 expression of RD26 and its target gene RD20 in EsHSP70-expressing Arabidopsis line at both 566 time points for RD26 and at 24 h for RD20 (Figs. 9 and 10d and f, respectively). 567

568 Salinity stress causes disorganization of membrane and therefore results more electrolyte 569 leakage (Tuteja 2007). Electrolyte leakage is widely used to understand and measure the plant 570 tolerance to abiotic stresses. It determines the intactness of cellular membranes under abiotic 571 stress condition. In this study, a lower leakage of electrolytes was found in *EsHSP70*-expressing 572 plants under salt stress condition suggesting higher membrane stability in transgenic lines. 573 Several LEA proteins accumulated in response to abiotic stresses in plants. These proteins protect macromolecules such as nucleic acid and enzymes by balancing redox and stabilization 574 of cellular membranes (Baker et al. 1988; Ingram and Bartels 1996; Veeranagamallaiah et al. 575 2011; Jia et al. 2014). Moreover, the expression level of LEA14 in *EsHSP70*-expressing 576 577 Arabidopsis was significantly higher than that of control (Figs. 9 and 10h). In support of our result, Jia et al. (2014) demonstrated that overexpression of LEA14 increased salt stress tolerance 578 (Jia et al. 2014). 579

580 The expression of HSP70 was significantly up-regulated (> 2 fold) under salt stress condition in the transgenic line in contrast to WT (Fig. 9 and 10i). Similarly, overexpression of 581 HSP70 improved plant tolerance to high salinity, drought and temperature stress in Arabidopsis 582 583 (Wang et al. 2004). To improve plant salt tolerance, it is important to prevent the entry of Na⁺ 584 into plants to avoid its accumulation in the cytoplasm or organelles, except in the vacuoles. If plant fails to restrict movement of Na⁺ from outside environment then it stores these toxic ion 585 into vacuoles by increased activity of transporters, and utilizes K⁺ and other compatible solutes 586 to balance the osmotic differences in cytoplasm thus reduces the concentration in cytoplasm to 587 588 prevent damage to cellular machinery (Shabala 2013). In Arabidopsis, SOS1 has been shown localized at plasma membrane (Shi et al. 2000; Qiu et al. 2002; Quintero et al. 2002; Shi et al. 589 590 2002). Based on its expression in different tissues it was suggested that it plays diverse role in Na^+ efflux from roots, reducing concentration of Na^+ ions in cytoplasm (Zhu 2002). 591 592 Overexpression of SOS1 increased tolerance to salt stress (Shi et al. 2003). AtNHX1 encodes Na⁺/H⁺ antiporter localized on tonoplast membrane of vacuoles. It functions in sequestration of 593 594 Na⁺ ions into vacuoles (Blumwald 2000). Overexpression of *NHX1* increased salt tolerance in Arabidopsis (Gaxiola et al. 2001) and rice (Ohta et al. 2002). In our study, higher expression of 595 596 the SOS1 and NHX1 was observed in EsHSP70-expressing lines in compared to control under salt stress condition (at 24 and 120 h) (Figs. 9 and 10j and k, respectively). Together, these 597 results suggest that overexpression of EsHSP70 improves salinity stress tolerance by 598 599 transcriptional activation of Arabidopsis stress responsive genes.

600 **6.** Conclusions

In the present study, heterologous expression of the heat shock protein 70, from <u>the</u> brown alga *Ectocarpus* sp., increased salt stress tolerance in *Arabidopsis*. According to the gene expression analysis, higher tolerance of *HSP70*-expressing *Arabidopsis* can be ascribed to the higher expression of the stress-responsive genes involved in ABA-induced abiotic stress tolerance, K^+ homeostasis, and Na⁺ sequestration. Our results suggest that, in addition to the land plants and microbes, brown algae can be employed as a genetic source to generate transgenic plants with promoted tolerance to various abiotic stresses.

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615 **CRediT authorship contribution statement**

Pramod Rathor: Conceptualization, methodology, validation, formal analysis, investigation, data 616 617 curation, writing—original draft preparation, writing—review and editing, visualization. Tudor Borza: Conceptualization, methodology, validation, formal analysis, investigation, data curation, 618 619 writing—original draft preparation, writing—review and editing, visualization. Ramin Bahmani: formal analysis, investigation, validation, visualization, writing - review & editing. Sophia 620 621 Stone: writing - review & editing. Thierry Tonon: resources, writing-review and editing, funding acquisition. Svetlana Yurgel: Writing - review & editing. Philippe Potin: resources, 622 writing-review and editing, funding acquisition. Balakrishnan Prithiviraj: Conceptualization, 623 methodology, supervision, project administration, writing-review and editing, funding 624 625 acquisition, resources.

626 Data availability

627 Data are available for the authors upon reasonable request.

628 **Declaration of competing interest**

629 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal630 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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