

Deciphering lead tolerance mechanisms in a population of the plant species *Biscutella auriculata* L. from a mining area: accumulation strategies and antioxidant defenses

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HIGHLIGHTS

- *Biscutella auriculata* tolerates high concentration of Pb without toxic symptoms being observed.
- Pb is mainly sequestered by PC2 and accumulated in the root cell wall and the vacuoles.
- Differential activation of antioxidant defenses was induced by Pb in leaves and roots.

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2 **species *Biscutella auriculata* L. from a mining area: accumulation**
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28 **ABBREVIATIONS**

29 **APX**, Ascorbate peroxidase enzyme; **AsA**, Ascorbate; **CAT**, Catalase; **DHAR**,
30 Dehydroascorbate reductase; **GOX**, Glycolate oxidase; **GR**, Glutathione reductase;
31 **GSH**, Reduced glutathione; **GSNOR**, S-Nitrosoglutathione reductase; **GSSG**, Oxidized
32 glutathione; **GST**, Glutathione S-Transferase; **MDA**, Malondialdehyde; **MDHAR**,
33 Monodehydroascorbate reductase; **NADP-G6PDH**, NADP⁺-dependent glucose-6-
34 phosphate dehydrogenase; **NADP-IDH**, NADP⁺-dependent isocitrate dehydrogenase;
35 **NADP-MS**, NADP⁺-dependent malate dehydrogenase; **NO**, Nitric oxide; **PC**,
36 Phytochelatin; **POD**, Peroxidase; **ROS**, Reactive oxygen species; **SOD**, Superoxide
37 dismutase.

38

39 **ABSTRACT**

40 The uptake and distribution of Pb and the mechanisms involved in the metal tolerance
41 have been investigated in a mine population of *Biscutella auriculata*. Seedlings were
42 exposed to 125 µM Pb(NO₃)₂ for 15 days under semihydroponic conditions. The results
43 showed an increase in the size of Pb-treated seedlings and symptoms of toxicity were
44 not observed. ICP-OES analyses showed that Pb accumulation was restricted to root
45 tissue. Imaging of Pb accumulation by dithizone histochemistry revealed the presence
46 of the metal in vacuoles and cell wall in root cells. The accumulation of Pb in vacuoles
47 could be stimulated by an increase in phytochelatin PC2 content. Pb did not promote
48 oxidative damage and this is probably due the increase of antioxidative defenses. In the
49 leaves, Pb produced a significant increase in superoxide dismutase activity, while in
50 roots an increase in catalase and components of the Foyer– Halliwell–Asada cycle were
51 observed. The results indicated that *Biscutella auriculata* has a high capacity to tolerate
52 Pb and this is mainly due to a very efficient mechanism to sequester the metal in roots
53 and a capacity to avoid oxidative stress. This species could therefore be very useful for
54 phytostabilization and repopulation of areas contaminated with Pb.

55 **Keywords:** Phytoremediation, Oxidative Stress, ROS, Phytochelatin, *Biscutella auriculata*

56

57 **1. INTRODUCTION**

58 Lead (Pb) is a potent heavy metal pollutant that is toxic for living organisms and
59 has prolonged persistence in the environment due to its non-biodegradable nature
60 (Wuana and Okieimen, 2014). The occurrence of Pb in the environment mainly results
61 from mining, metallurgy, manufacturing and recycling activities and, in some countries,
62 from the persistent use of Pb-based paints and leaded gasolines (Benavides et al., 2005;
63 Kumar and Kumari, 2015). Pb persists in the soil and causes multiple direct and indirect
64 toxic effects on plant growth and metabolism (Whitacre, 2015; Kumar and Prasad,
65 2018). High concentrations of Pb in the soil inhibit the germination of seeds and reduce
66 plant growth due to the severe alteration of different metabolic pathways, including
67 photosynthesis and transpiration, hormone balance, membrane permeability, mineral
68 nutrition, ATP production and the promotion of oxidative damage due to the increased
69 production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) (Kumar and Prasad, 2018).

70 Phytoremediation is a clean-up process that is effective, inexpensive and
71 environmentally friendly for the remediation of metal-contaminated soils by using
72 plants (Kidd et al., 2009; Dickinson, 2016). There are several different decontamination
73 techniques within phytoremediation, namely phytofiltration, phytovolatilization,
74 phytodegradation, phytoextraction and phytostabilization (Ali et al., 2013).
75 Phytoextraction involves extraction of the metal from the soil by absorbing it in metal-
76 accumulating plants and this approach is considered to be the main and most useful
77 technique for the removal heavy metals and metalloids (Kumar and Prasad, 2018). The
78 efficiency of phytoextraction depends on numerous factors such as the heavy metal
79 characteristics and bioavailability, soil properties and plant species (Ali et al., 2013).
80 Plants usually show little tolerance to the presence of heavy metals and they do not
81 usually accumulate such metals within their tissues in appreciable amounts, but some

82 plants develop resilience mechanisms to overcome the restraints caused by the presence
83 of high concentrations of pollutants. A thorough study of plant tolerance strategies is
84 crucial to address the rehabilitation of degraded land (Cutright et al., 2012; Dickinson,
85 2016).

86 Different mechanisms for Pb tolerance and accumulation have been reported for
87 plants (Kumar and Prasad, 2018). The most tolerant species accumulate around 95% of
88 the absorbed Pb in root and only a small proportion is translocated to aerial parts of the
89 plant (Ruiz et al., 2009; Gupta et al., 2009; Whitacre, 2015). Phytochelatin (PC)
90 synthesis is a mechanism induced by Pb to neutralize and accumulate the metals in the
91 vacuole (Andra et al., 2009; Wojas et al., 2010; Fischer et al., 2014; García et al., 2017).
92 The metal accumulation capacity of plants is also affected by their ability to survive the
93 oxidative stress caused by the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) during Pb
94 exposure (Syta et al., 2013). Plants have complex enzymatic and non-enzymatic
95 antioxidative defenses to maintain ROS levels that are compatible with the regular
96 functioning of the cells (Romero-Puertas et al., 2018). The main enzymatic
97 antioxidative defenses are catalase (CAT), superoxide dismutase (SOD), glutathione
98 peroxidase (GPOX), NADP-dependent dehydrogenases, glutathione S-transferase
99 (GST) and the enzymes of the Foyer–Halliwell–Asada Cycle (ascorbate peroxidase
100 [APX], monodehydroascorbate reductase [MDHAR], dehydroascorbate reductase
101 [DHAR] and glutathione reductase [GR]) (Sandalo et al., 2012). Non-enzymatic
102 components of the antioxidative defense system include ascorbate (AsA), glutathione
103 (GSH), tocopherol, carotenoids and phenolic compounds, amongst others (Sharma et
104 al., 2012). It has been reported that Pb exposure induces changes in antioxidant systems
105 either by overexpressing or downregulating antioxidants to avoid damage caused by
106 ROS production (Kumar and Prasad, 2018). Nitric oxide (NO) is a simple molecule

107 which acts as regulator of many physiological processes in plants, including the defence
108 against heavy metal (Gill et al., 2013; Terrón-Camero et al., 2019; Terrón-Camero et al.,
109 2020). It has been reported that NO can prevent oxidative damages by improving
110 antioxidant defences and therefore it could be a key factor in the tolerance against heavy
111 metals (Romero-Puertas et al., 2018; Souri et al., 2020).

112 Metal hypertolerance and hyperaccumulation are found in a large number of
113 plant families, with the highest occurrence in the *Brassicaceae* family (Mohtadi et al.,
114 2012). *Biscutella* is a genus herbal member of the *Brassicaceae* family that grows in
115 areas bordering agricultural fields, roadsides and polluted areas (Peco et al., 2020). The
116 species *Biscutella laevigata* has already been described as an accumulator with a
117 tolerance to the metals thallium (LaCoste et al., 1999; Fellet et al., 2012; Pošćić et al.,
118 2013; Wierzbicka et al., 2016; Pavoni et al., 2017), cadmium, lead and zinc
119 (Pielichowska and Wierzbicka, 2004; Wierzbicka and Pielichowska, 2004; Escarré et
120 al., 2011). A population of *Biscutella auriculata* has been recently identified as one of
121 the few species growing in a multimetal (Cu, Zn, Pb and Cd) contaminated area close to
122 the San Quintin mine area located in Ciudad Real (Spain). This species has been
123 reported as a Cd-tolerant plant which efficiently accumulates this metal in roots and
124 trichomes and differentially regulate antioxidant damage prevention in roots and leaves
125 (Peco et al., 2020). Given that Pb is one of the metals present in the soil from which the
126 seeds were taken, we investigated Pb tolerance in *B. auriculata* and the mechanisms
127 involved. The study therefore focuses on the effects of Pb on growth parameters, ROS
128 and NO metabolism, Pb accumulation patterns, as well as leaf and root mineral status.
129 Our results demonstrate that *B. auriculata* is a new Pb-tolerant growth-enhancing plant
130 in the presence of high concentrations of Pb, which could be useful in restoring areas
131 contaminated by this heavy metal.

132 2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

133 2.1 Plant materials and growth conditions

134 *B. auriculata* seeds were obtained from a natural population located in the San
135 Quintin mining area (38°48'52.6"N 4°17'15.5"W) in Villamayor de Calatrava (Ciudad
136 Real province, South Central Spain) (Supplementary Fig. 1A and B). This area has been
137 altered by mining activity (Pb-Zn-Ag mine) and is contaminated Pb, Zn, Cu and Cd
138 (Rodríguez et al., 2009). The seeds were hydrated for 24 h and then germinated on wet
139 filter paper in Petri dishes at 25 °C. Healthy homogenous seedlings were transferred to a
140 semi-hydroponic system containing perlite (Flores-Cáceres et al., 2015) and a Hoagland
141 nutrient solution (Hoagland and Arnon, 1950) for 15 days. After this period, seedlings
142 were then irrigated with Hoagland nutrient solution supplemented with 0 or 125 µM of
143 Pb(NO₃)₂ for 15 days (Pereira et al., 2016). Cultures were placed in a growth chamber
144 under the following conditions: 24 °C, 60% relative humidity and 16/8 h light/dark
145 photoperiod. The experiment was repeated three times. Finally, leaves and roots were
146 processed separately, frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 °C. Sterilized seeds
147 were also germinated and were grown vertically in square Petri dishes (10 × 10 cm)
148 containing MS medium supplemented with 0 or 125 µM of Pb(NO₃)₂ for 10 days (Sanz-
149 Fernández et al., 2017). These plants were grown under the same growth chamber
150 conditions as previously mentioned.

151 2.2 Growth parameters, photosynthesis data, photosynthetic pigments, phenolics 152 and flavonoids content

153 Morphological and growth parameters were analyzed: leaf and root fresh weight,
154 number of leaves and root length. Leaf area, trichomes and stomata density were
155 analyzed from leaf images using ImageJ software. Gas exchange parameters (net
156 photosynthesis rate, stomatal conductance, transpiration ratio and intercellular CO₂

157 concentration) were determined using a portable photosynthesis system (Ciras-3, PP
158 Systems). Contents of chlorophylls, carotenoids and anthocyanins were analyzed by
159 spectrophotometric methods according to Lichtenthaler and Buschmann (2001) and
160 Sims and Gamon (2002), respectively. Total phenolics content was determined by a
161 spectrophotometric technique according to Folin–Ciocalteu’s method proposed by
162 Singleton and Rossi (1965), using a calibration curve for gallic acid. Total flavonoids
163 content was determined by the aluminium chloride spectrophotometric method (Zhishen
164 et al., 1999) using a calibration curve for quercetin.

165 **2.3 Mineral analysis and histochemical localization of Pb**

166 In order to assess the mineral contents, plant samples were oven-dried at 60 °C
167 for 72 hours. Roots and leaves were weighed to determine the dry mass and were
168 digested with an HNO₃/H₂O₂ mixture using a microwave digestion system (ETHOS 1,
169 Milestone). Mineral composition was measured by inductively coupled plasma-optical
170 emission spectrometry (ICP-OES, Varian 720-ES). The phytoextraction ability was
171 determined using the translocation factor (TF) and the bioaccumulation factor (BF)
172 equations described by Melo et al. (2009).

173 Pb storage was detected histochemically using the dithizone method described
174 by Seregin and Kozhevnikova (2011). Leaves and roots were incubated in a solution of
175 dithizone in acetone, glacial acetic acid and Milli-Q water (3:5:1) and incubated for one
176 hour. Leaves were bleached by immersion in boiling ethanol. Stained roots were
177 embedded in 5% low-melting agarose D1 EEO (Conda Pronadise) and cross-sections
178 were obtained using a vibratome (VT1200/VT1200S Leica) and examined by optical
179 microscopy (Leica DMI600B).

180

181 **2.4 Quantification of glutathione, ascorbate and phytochelatin**

182 Reduced and oxidized glutathione (GSH and GSSG) and total ascorbate (AsA)
183 were determined by liquid chromatography-electrospray/mass spectrometry (LC-
184 ES/MS) using a method described by El-Zohri et al. (2005). Plant extracts were
185 prepared in HCl and analyzed on an HPLC system (H-Class, Waters, Mildford) coupled
186 to a triple quadrupole mass spectrometer (Quattro-Micro, Waters, Mildford). PC2 and
187 PC3 contents were analyzed in the same extracts by following the procedure described
188 by El-Zohri et al. (2005). The supernatant was injected onto an Xselect CSH column
189 (100 mm × 2.1 mm, Waters, Mildford) with a Vanguard Xselect CSH C18 cartridge (5
190 mm × 2.1 mm, Waters, Mildford). The results were calculated using pattern on PC2,
191 PC3 and PC4 from Pepmic Co., Ltd (Suzhou, China). Biothiols and AsA were
192 determined by multiple reaction monitoring (MRM) using positive electrospray and
193 negative electrospray.

194 **2.5 Lipid peroxidation, H₂O₂ content, NO content and total antioxidant capacity**

195 Lipid peroxidation was determined in terms of malondialdehyde (MDA)
196 concentration according to the method described by Buege and Aust (1978). The results
197 were calculated using a calibration curve for MDA. H₂O₂ accumulation was analyzed
198 by a spectrofluorometric method as described by Romero-Puertas et al. (2004). The
199 results were calculated using a calibration curve for H₂O₂. NO content was determined
200 by a spectrofluorometric method as described by Nakatsubo et al. (1988), using 4,5-
201 diamino-fluorescein (DAF-2) and results are expressed in arbitrary fluorescence units.
202 Total antioxidant capacity was determined according to the ABTS assay (Jiménez-
203 Escrig et al., 2003) and the results were calculated using a Trolox calibration curve.

204

205 **2.6 Enzymatic assays**

206 Leaves and roots were ground in liquid nitrogen and the powder obtained was
207 homogenized in 0.1 M Tris-HCl pH 7.5, containing 0.1 mM EDTA, 0.2 % Triton X100,
208 2 mM DTT, 0.2 % PVP and 1X protease inhibitor cocktail (Sigma-Aldrich). The
209 homogenates were centrifuged at 14000 g for 20 min. Enzymatic activity was assayed
210 spectrophotometrically according to the following methods: CAT activity (EC
211 1.11.1.6); POD activity; GOX activity (EC 1.1.3.1); APX activity (EC 1.11.1.11), GR
212 activity (EC 1.6.4.2); MDHAR activity (EC 1.6.5.4) and DHAR activity (EC 1.8.5.1) as
213 reported by Hafsi et al. (2010); NADP-G6PDH (EC 1.1.1.49), NADP-IDH (EC
214 1.1.1.42) and NADP-MS (EC 4.1.3.2) as reported by León et al. (2002); GST activity
215 (EC 2.5.1.1) as described by Habig et al. (1974) and GSNOR (EC 1.2.1.46) as described
216 by Ortega-Galisteo et al. (2012). The enzymatic assays were carried out according to the
217 method described by Peco et al. (2020).

218 **2.7 Characterization of SOD isoenzyme and activity**

219 SOD activity (EC 1.15.1) was assayed by native polyacrylamide gel
220 electrophoresis (native-PAGE, 10% acrylamide/Bis) and activity was imaged in the gels
221 according to the photochemical method described by Beauchamp and Fridovich (1971).
222 The effects of 5 mM H₂O₂ and 2 mM KCN on SOD activity were evaluated to identify
223 the different SOD isoenzymes (Srivalli and Khanna-Chopra, 2001). The activity was
224 expressed as % of total SOD activity by determining the area under the peaks using
225 ImageJ. The different SOD bands obtained (Supplementary Fig. 2A) were analyzed by
226 MALDI-TOF mass spectrometry (UltrafleXtrem, Bruker). The sequences obtained were
227 compared with those found in UniProt for Fe SOD, Mn SOD and CuZn SOD of
228 *Arabidopsis thaliana*. Theoretical digestions of proteins, belonging to the three SOD
229 bands, were carried out while keeping the peptides corresponding to the conserved areas

230 obtained from the isoenzyme's alignment. Finally, peptides belonging to the different
231 SOD isoenzymes were located in the mass spectrum using a MASCOT software.

232 **2.8 Histochemical localization of H₂O₂ and O₂⁻**

233 H₂O₂ and O₂⁻ accumulation were imaged in leaves and roots according to
234 Romero-Puertas et al. (2004). For H₂O₂ histochemistry the leaves and roots were
235 immersed in a 0.1% solution of DAB (3,3'-diaminobenzidine), vacuum-infiltrated for 5
236 min and then incubated in the dark at room temperature overnight. For O₂⁻ localization,
237 leaves and roots were immersed in a 0.1% solution of Nitro Blue Tetrazolium (NBT)
238 and 10 mM Na-azide and were vacuum-infiltrated for 10 min and illuminated until dark
239 blue spots appeared. In both cases, leaves were bleached by immersing in boiling
240 ethanol.

241 **2.9 Other assays**

242 The protein contents in plant extracts were determined according to the method
243 of Bradford (1976) using a bovine serum albumin (BSA) calibration curve.

244 **2.10 Data analysis**

245 Statistical analyses were carried out by a Student's t-test in IBM SPSS Statistics 24.
246 Asterisks (P<0.05: *; P<0.01: **; P<0.001: ***) represent the level of significance in
247 the figures. Images were analyzed using ImageJ software.

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252 3. RESULTS

253 3.1 Effect of lead on plant growth and photosynthetic parameters

254 The effects of Pb on the growth and phenotype of *B. auriculata* plants growing
255 in a semi-hydroponic medium are represented in Fig. 1A and Fig. 1C. Pb exposure for
256 15 days produced a significant increase in the FW of leaves and roots (1.4 fold), as well
257 as in the leaf area (1.17 fold). However, changes were not observed in the number of
258 leaves. The number of trichomes per area decreased in Pb-treated plants (1.7 fold),
259 while the number of stomata per area increased in response to Pb-treatment (1.7 fold)
260 (Fig 1C). Seedlings grown in square Petri dishes are shown in Fig. 1B and it can be
261 observed that Pb induced the growth of the main root, while the secondary roots and
262 hair roots were considerably reduced in number and size with respect to the control
263 plants (Fig. 1B and Fig. 1D). Interestingly, Pb did not statistically affect the
264 photosynthesis parameters, net photosynthesis rate, stomatal conductance, transpiration
265 ratio, intercellular CO₂ concentration and leaf temperature (Supplementary Table 1). Pb
266 exposure did not affect the chlorophylls and carotenoids contents, which remained
267 unchanged, while the phenols content decreased slightly and the opposite trend was
268 observed for the flavonoids content (Supplementary Table 1).

269 3.2 Lead uptake and accumulation

270 The mineral contents of roots and leaves in *B. auriculata* treated and untreated
271 with Pb are shown in Supplementary Table 2. Pb was mainly accumulated in roots
272 (3.686 mg g⁻¹) with a bioaccumulation factor of 1.081 and only a small content was
273 translocated to the aerial part (0.028 mg g⁻¹), with the translocation factor being 0.007
274 (Supplementary Table 2). A statistically significantly decrease in zinc content in Pb-
275 treated leaves and roots was observed but the other metals and macronutrients did not

276 change significantly in either roots or leaves. Dithizone histochemistry allows observing
277 Pb accumulation mainly in the cell wall and vacuole of root cortex cells (Fig. 2) but Pb
278 accumulation was not observed in root vascular bundles.

279 The results from the analysis of biothiols such as GSH and PCs, which could be
280 involved in metal sequestering, are shown in Fig. 3. GSH accounted for over 80 % of
281 biothiol content in leaves and for ~70 % in roots, with GSSG
282 accounting for ~15 % in leaves and ~10 % in roots; no statistically significant
283 differences between treatments were observed in either roots or leaves. PCs, which
284 were not found in leaves, made up approximately 20 % of biothiol content in roots.
285 While significant amounts of PC2-type were induced in the roots of Pb-treated plants,
286 no PC3 or PC4 were found.

287 3.3 Oxidative stress markers and antioxidant defenses

288 Oxidative stress is a common effect caused by Pb and other metals in plants;
289 however, the H₂O₂ and MDA contents, used as oxidative markers in leaves (Fig. 4A),
290 suggest that Pb does not induce oxidative damage in *B. auriculata*. Imaging of H₂O₂
291 and O₂⁻ accumulation in *B. auriculata* leaves did not show any significant changes in
292 Pb-treated plants (Supplementary Fig. 3), although microscopic images revealed a slight
293 accumulation of H₂O₂ in the central nerve (brown spots) of leaves, while O₂⁻
294 accumulated in small spots (blue spots) on the base of trichomes. Glycolate oxidase
295 activity is a source of H₂O₂ from leaf photorespiration and changes in this activity were
296 not observed. Changes were also not detected in H₂O₂ and O₂⁻ accumulation in roots
297 although slight staining was observed in vascular tissue and the zone of cell division
298 (Supplementary Fig. 4).

299 The ratio GSH/GSSG is used as a redox marker and this ratio did not change in
300 Pb-treated plants, although the ascorbic acid content was statistically higher in Pb-
301 treated leaves with respect to the control (Fig. 4A). The total antioxidant capacity did
302 not change either in leaves or roots in response to Pb (Fig. 4A).The activity of
303 enzymatic antioxidants CAT, GST, POD, MDHAR, DHAR, APX and GR were also
304 analyzed, although APX and GR activity could not be detected (Fig. 4B) even on testing
305 different buffers. The activity of GST and POD enzymes in leaves and roots remained
306 unchanged between treatments, although Pb-treated roots showed an increase in CAT,
307 MDHAR and DHAR with respect to untreated roots. Changes were also not observed in
308 the activity of the NADP-dependent dehydrogenases analyzed (NADP-G6PDH, NADP-
309 IDH, NADP-MS) in leaves due to Pb treatment (Fig. 4B). The activity of SOD was
310 analyzed in leaves by native-PAGE and specific staining (Fig. 5). The results showed
311 four different bands for SOD activity in *B. auriculata* and these increased markedly in
312 Pb-treated leaves. In an effort to identify the different isoforms, the effects of two
313 inhibitors specific for Fe-SOD and CuZn-SOD were analyzed (Fig. 5). The results
314 showed a slight inhibition of the activity with 2 mM KCN and total inhibition with 5
315 mM H₂O₂, which ruled out the presence of Mn-SOD as this is resistant to both
316 inhibitors, suggesting that all isoforms observed could be Fe-SODs. We proceeded to
317 analyze three bands of SOD activity by MALDI/TOF mass spectrometry and identified
318 some peptides that corresponded to the conserved sequences of Mn-SOD and Fe-SOD
319 of *Arabidopsis thaliana*, but CuZn-SOD was not detected (Supplementary Fig. 2B and
320 C).

321 Nitric oxide is also an important factor in the cell response to heavy metals and,
322 for this reason, we analyzed the effect of Pb on the NO content in roots and leaves. A
323 reduction in NO was observed in Pb-treated roots with respect to the control (Fig. 4C).

324 However, nitrosogluthione reductase (GSNOR) activity, which regulates the level of
325 nitrosogluthione, a NO donor, decreased in leaves but did not differ significantly in
326 roots in response to Pb treatment (Fig. 4C).

327

328 4. DISCUSSION

329 4.1 Lead stimulates the growth of *B. auriculata*

330 Lead is a toxic metal which causes inhibition of plant growth in different species
331 such as *Brassica oleracea* (Sinha et al., 2006), *Lolium perenne* (Bai et al., 2014) and
332 *Vigna unguiculate* (Bezerril et al., 2017), amongst others. However, in the present
333 study, using a concentration of Pb in the range described as effective to cause
334 significant inhibition of plants growth under hydroponic conditions (Kumar and
335 Prasad, 2018), a significant increase in both leaf and root growth in *B. auriculata* was
336 observed. Several studies have also shown the beneficial effect of Pb on plant growth,
337 although in most cases plants were exposed to low concentrations of Pb (Seth et al.,
338 2011; Batista et al., 2017; Sidhu et al., 2018). For example, in *Helianthus annuus* the
339 exposure to concentrations of Pb up to 100 mg L⁻¹ stimulated biomass production,
340 while higher concentrations led to the opposite effect (Batista et al., 2017). *Lupinus*
341 *albus* did not show any toxicity symptoms when grown with 180 µM Pb (García et al.,
342 2017) and *Coronopus didymus* also tolerated increasing Pb concentrations up to 2.5 mg
343 g⁻¹, with a concentration-dependent enhancement of root and shoot length being
344 observed (Sidhu et al., 2018). This positive effect was explained by the phenomenon of
345 hormesis, the stimulatory or beneficial effect induced by low doses of metals or toxic
346 compounds (Calabrese and Blain, 2009; Seth et al., 2011; Batista et al., 2017). The
347 mechanisms of hormesis have been widely discussed and the activation of specific and

348 general stress defenses is considered to be the main mechanism to explain this
349 phenomenon (Poschenrieder et al., 2013). However, in this study *B. auriculata* was
350 exposed to high Pb levels and therefore the induction of growth in this species cannot be
351 explained as being due to hormesis. Taking into account that the seeds were isolated
352 from a mine area that was heavily contaminated with Pb (San Quintin mine; Rodríguez
353 et al., 2009), and other metals (Cu, Zn and Cd), a natural adaptation could occur to
354 allow *B. auriculata* to grow under adverse conditions. A study carried out on two
355 populations of *Biscutella laevigata*, one from waste heaps contaminated with Pb and Zn
356 and the other from the mountain (non-contaminated area), showed a metal-dependent
357 growth stimulation of *B. laevigata* from the waste-heap area when grown under
358 hydroponic conditions, while the other population under the same conditions was
359 inhibited by almost to 50 % (Wierzbicka and Pielichowska, 2004). Interestingly, in
360 addition to the larger leaf size, the most remarkable issue observed in *B. auriculata*
361 exposed to Pb was the increase in the principal root length and thickening, and the
362 reduction in the number and the length of lateral and hair roots. The opposite effect was
363 described by Koppitke et al. (2007) in a sensitive species *Vigna unguiculate*, which
364 showed growth inhibition with a loss of apical dominance and a large number of lateral
365 roots in response to Pb. Inhibition of root elongation was also reported in *Triticum*
366 *aestivum* (Pena et al., 2015), *Vicia faba* (Mroczek-Zdyrska and Wójcik, 2012), *Silene*
367 *vulgaris* and *Noccaea caerulescens* (Mohtadi et al., 2012), amongst others. Root
368 architecture is controlled by auxin and exogenous auxin has been reported to inhibit
369 primary root elongation and promote the formation of lateral roots (Alarcón et al.,
370 2019). More recently, a mechanism linking cytokinin signaling and the auxin pool to
371 tune root system architecture has been reported (Michniewicz et al., 2019). Therefore,
372 the Pb-dependent changes observed in the root architecture in *B. auriculata* could be

373 due to changes in auxin efflux and influx and the balance of IAA and cytokinins. In *Zea*
374 *mays* an improvement has been observed in Pb phytoextraction by IAA and gibberellins
375 (Hadi et al., 2010). *B. auriculata* managed to grow in the presence of Pb without any
376 symptoms of toxicity, complete its life cycle and to produce seeds in Pb-contaminated
377 soils, thus demonstrating its high tolerance to Pb.

378 In line with the results observed for the growth parameters, Pb did not affect
379 photosynthetic parameters, chlorophylls and carotenoids content in *B. auriculata*, while
380 in Pb-sensitive species gas exchange inhibition and a reduction in photosynthetic
381 pigments have been reported (Farooq et al., 2013; Bai et al., 2014; Bezerril et al., 2017).
382 Leaf temperature, which has been reported as a good index of heavy metal stress
383 (Thakur and Singh, 2012) did not change either, according with the absence of changes
384 in leaf transpiration and stomatal conductance. The increase of stomata density per leaf
385 area observed in *B. auriculata* could contribute to maintaining the gas exchange and
386 photosynthesis rate in a similar way to that reported by Peco et al. (2020) in this plant
387 species in response to Cd . These results demonstrate that *B. auriculata* leaves are not
388 affected by Pb – probably because the metal is restricted to the root. Phenols and
389 flavonoids are compounds that are strongly induced by heavy metals due to their role as
390 antioxidants and metal chelators (Hernández et al., 2009; Sytar et al., 2013). In *B.*
391 *auriculata* Pb produced a slight but statistically significant decrease in the phenol
392 content and this was accompanied by a significant increase in the content of flavonoids
393 in leaves. These results suggest that flavonoids can play a role in the tolerance to Pb in
394 this species, as reported in *Lupinus luteus* (Pawlak-Sprada et al., 2011) and *Medicago*
395 *sativa* (Sima et al., 2012). However, the contribution of flavonoids to Pb tolerance has
396 not been established to date, although they are excellent antioxidants and also could
397 regulate IAA transport (Kuhn et al., 2011). Interestingly, one of the major phenotypic

398 characteristics of *B. auriculata* in response to Cd was the high level of red/blue pigment
399 anthocyanins in leaves (Peco et al., 2020), while anthocyanin accumulation was
400 unaffected by Pb (Fig 1).

401 **4.2 *B. auriculata* efficiently sequestered Pb in roots**

402 One of the mechanisms involved in Pb tolerance of *B. auriculata* could be its
403 high efficiency in uptaking and accumulating Pb in a non-toxic way to prevent toxicity
404 and without disturbing the nutrient balance. Comparing with other non-
405 hyperaccumulator plant species, shown in Supplemental Table 3, *B. auriculata* has one
406 of the highest capacity to accumulate Pb in roots with a BF value of 1.08 and a TF of
407 0.01, showing even an increase of growth instead of reduction, which is a considerable
408 advantage in phytoremediation processes. Similar values of Pb accumulation in roots
409 have been reported in *Jatropha curcas*, *Pisum sativum* and *Coronopus didymus*, (see
410 review by Kumar and Prasad, 2018), although these species were more sensitive than
411 *B. auriculata* to Pb. Pb could be taken up by the root through Ca²⁺-permeable channels
412 (Pourrut et al., 2011) and, in fact, Pb caused a reduction of Ca²⁺ in *Oryza sativa*,
413 probably due to competition between the two cations for the same Ca²⁺ channels (Kim
414 et al., 2002). The contents of Zn, Mn, Ca and Fe were markedly affected by Pb exposure
415 in *Zea mays* (Seregin et al., 2004), *Oryza sativa* (Chatterjee et al., 2004) and *Brassica*
416 *oleracea* (Sinha et al., 2006). However, in *B. auriculata* only the content of Zn in the
417 leaves and roots was statistically significantly reduced by Pb, thus suggesting
418 competition between Pb/Zn for the same transporters. Another important factor that
419 contributes to Pb tolerance in this species is the low translocation of the metal to the
420 leaves by sequestration of the metal in cell wall and vacuoles, as observed in optical
421 microscopy images of root cross sections. Most plants accumulate 90% of the total Pb
422 in roots (Fahr, 2013). The cell wall is a mechanical barrier against Pb given its high

423 affinity for pectins and callose, which also restricts cell-to-cell Pb movement (Fahr,
424 2013). Other mechanisms that avoid Pb translocation include Pb precipitation by
425 binding to the ion-exchangeable location in the cell walls (Kopittke et al., 2007; Islam et
426 al., 2008; Zheng et al., 2012), precipitation as insoluble salts in intercellular spaces
427 (Kopittke et al., 2007; Małecka et al., 2008) and vacuolar sequestration in the cortical
428 and rhizodermal cells (Małecka et al., 2008; Meyers et al., 2008; Zheng et al., 2012).
429 Interestingly, this species behaves differently in reaction to Cd, which accumulates in
430 vascular bundles, the epidermis and in the amorphous structure surrounding epidermal
431 root cells (Peco et al., 2020), thus demonstrating the different strategies adopted by the
432 plant depending on the contaminating metal.

433 Previous research has suggested that trichomes can function as a site of
434 accumulation and exclusion of heavy metals (Pielichowska and Wierzbicka, 2004; Peco
435 et al., 2020) and an increase in the number of trichomes was observed in *Glycine max*
436 treated with Pb (Weryszko-Chmielewska and Chwil, 2005). However, in this research
437 Pb was not accumulated in trichomes and a reduction in the number of trichomes was
438 observed in line with the low Pb translocation to the leaves. Intriguingly, trichome
439 density and Cd accumulation in Cd-treated *B. auriculata* have been reported to
440 increase in specific trichome rings (Peco et al., 2020), thus confirming that both Cd and
441 Pb induce significantly different responses in *B. auriculata* that affect both plant
442 phenotype and physiology.

443 Phytochelatins are oligomers of glutathione that are induced in response to
444 heavy metal stress and these oligomers bind the metal and transport it to the vacuole to
445 avoid metal toxicity (Whitacre, 2015; Turull et al., 2017). The high tolerance of *B.*
446 *auriculata* to this metal could be due in part to its capacity to induce PC synthesis, as
447 reported in other plant species (Supplementary Table 3), without, however, reducing the

448 **GSH content required for antioxidant defenses.** *B. auriculata* contains PC2 under
449 control conditions and its biosynthesis is induced in response to Pb, while PC3 were not
450 present neither in roots and leaves. *Lupinus albus* also showed a high tolerance to Pb
451 accompanied by an increase in PCs in the roots (García et al. 2017) as well as it has
452 been observed in other species (Supplemental Table 3). The essential role of PCs for Pb
453 detoxification was demonstrated in *Arabidopsis thaliana* phytochelatin synthase
454 mutants, which showed a higher sensitivity to Pb than wild type (Fischer et al. 2014).
455 Interestingly *B. auriculata* responded to Cd by inducing PC2 and PC3, mainly in leaves
456 (Peco et al., 2020), demonstrating that this species can discriminate between different
457 metals triggering a differential response.

458 **4.3 Lead does not induce oxidative stress in *B. auriculata***

459 One of the mechanisms of Pb toxicity that has been widely established in
460 different plants species is the indirect ROS production and oxidative damage to lipids
461 and proteins (Farooq et al., 2013; Bai et al., 2014; Saleem et al., 2018; Kumar and
462 Prasad, 2018). However, Pb does not promote oxidative stress in *B. auriculata*, as
463 suggested by the absence of changes in the lipid peroxidation marker MDA, H₂O₂
464 content, the balance between GSH/GSSG, which is considered as a good index of plant
465 oxidative stress, as well as the activities of antioxidants analyzed in leaves, except for
466 the SOD and the ASC contents, which increase in leaves. The activity of NADP-
467 recycling enzymes was not affected by Pb in leaves and therefore NADPH availability
468 is not a limitation in the response to Pb. The absence of oxidative stress damage could
469 be due to the efficient mechanism for the accumulation of the metal in roots to avoid its
470 toxicity, as mentioned previously, although an increase in the MDHAR and DHAR
471 activities, components of the Foyer–Halliwell–Asada cycle, in roots could help to
472 maintain the redox balance in the tissue. Interestingly, other activities in this cycle, APX

473 and GR, were not detected in the tissue of *B. auriculata* in spite of the use of different
474 extraction buffers, which suggests that these activities could be very sensitive to
475 proteolytic degradation or inactivation by unknown compounds present in the extracts.
476 The Pb tolerance of plant species, *Coronopus didymus* and *Eclipta prostrata* (Sidhu et
477 al., 2016; Chandrasekhar et al., 2019), is also associated with factors such as
478 increased enzymatic activity in the AsA-GSH cycle, suggesting that this cycle plays
479 an important role in the prevention of Pb-related oxidative stress.

480 SOD is one of the primary antioxidative defenses against ROS accumulation in
481 cells and it is induced by its substrate, O_2^- (Del Río et al., 1991; Alscher et al., 2002). In
482 our study, SOD activity considerably increased in Pb-treated leaves, probably in order
483 to remove O_2^- generated by Pb. However, opposite results were found in *B. auriculata*
484 against Cu (data not shown) and Cd (Peco et al., 2020) with a strong SOD activity
485 inhibition being observed, which could indicate that SOD makes a significant
486 contribution to Pb tolerance in *B. auriculata*. Increased SOD activity in response to Pb
487 has also been reported in other Pb-tolerant plants such as *Eclipta prostrate*
488 (Chandrasekhar et al., 2019), *Coronopus didymus* (Sidhu et al., 2016), and *Peganum*
489 *harmala* L. (Mahdavian et al., 2016). However, some discrepancies have been reported
490 in the literature, with increases or decreases of SOD observed depending on the
491 intensity and duration of Pb exposure and the plant species (Venkatachalam et al.,
492 2017). Based on the inhibitory effect of H_2O_2 and CN^- on the SOD activity analyzed in
493 native gels, *B. auriculata* only contains Fe-SOD. MALDI-TOF analysis demonstrated
494 the absence of CuZn-SOD, while peptides with Fe-SOD and Mn-SOD homology were
495 observed. Taking into account the high homology between both Mn- and Fe-SOD (del
496 Río et al., 1991) and the results obtained with the inhibitors, one can conclude that *B.*

497 *auriculata* contains Fe-SODs while neither Mn- nor CuZn-SOD are present in this
498 species.

499 NO plays an important role in counteracting metal toxicity in different plant
500 species (Sandalo et al., 2012; Terrón-Camero et al., 2019). In *B. auriculata*, Pb
501 treatment produces an increase in the NO content in roots. NO has been associated with
502 Pb uptake in *Pogonatherum crinitum* root cells (Yu et al., 2012) and inhibits the
503 translocation of Pb from roots to shoots in ryegrass (Bai et al., 2014), although the
504 mechanisms have not been established as yet. NO has recently been reported to control
505 metal root uptake by regulating metal transporters such as proton pumps and antiporters
506 (CAX), NIP, NRAMP and ABC (reviewed in Terrón-Camero et al., 2019). Other
507 protective mechanisms regulated by NO could be the increases in pectin and
508 hemicellulose content (Xiong et al., 2009) and lignin (Zafari et al., 2017) in the root cell
509 wall to prevent accumulation of metals in the soluble fraction of the cells. NO could
510 also increase the tolerance to Pb by increasing the content of auxin, cytokinins and
511 gibberellins and by decreasing abscisic acid (Sadeghipour, 2017). In *B. auriculata*
512 exposed to Pb, the GSNOR activity which can regulate NO levels in the cell, did not
513 change in roots but it was significantly reduced in leaves – a finding that supports an
514 important role of both NO and GSNOR in Pb uptake and translocation. Recently, Li et
515 al. (2019), have reported that the differences of GSNOR expression might be
516 responsible for the natural variation of root tolerance to high Fe in different *Arabidopsis*
517 accessions. The antioxidant activity of NO reported in different plant species and in
518 response to different metals (Bai et al., 2014; Terrón-Camero et al., 2019) could also
519 contribute to the tolerance of *B. auriculata* to Pb.

520

521

522 5. CONCLUSIONS

523 The data obtained from the present study demonstrate that *B. auriculata* is a new
524 Pb tolerant plant able to accumulate high concentrations of Pb in the roots while
525 increasing its growth in presence of high Pb concentrations. However, *B. auriculata* can
526 not be considered a hyper-accumulator because does not accumulate the metal in leaves,
527 which demonstrate that Pb tolerance is not necessarily associated with Pb hyper-
528 accumulation, such it has been reported in *N. caerulescens* (Mohtadi et al., 2012). Pb
529 tolerance in *B. auriculata* could be due to its ability to accumulate Pb in the cell walls
530 and vacuoles of root cells and the induction of PC2, as well as to the restriction of metal
531 translocation to the shoot. Treatment with Pb produced a decrease in the Zn content in
532 the plant, which could indicate that both elements may use the same
533 channel/transporters. In line with the absence of symptoms of toxicity, Pb does not
534 induce oxidative stress in this species – probably as a consequence of the low
535 availability of the metal to participate in ROS production. However, the differential
536 induction of some enzymatic antioxidant defense system such as SOD activity in leaf
537 and CAT, and the Foyer-Halliwell-Asada cycle-activities in roots could also contribute
538 to prevent ROS accumulation and oxidative damage. Differential changes in NO
539 production and GSNOR activity could contribute to the tolerance to Pb in *B.*
540 *auriculata*.. Therefore, *B. auriculata* may be useful for the phytostabilization and
541 repopulation of areas contaminated with Pb and other metals.

542

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1 **Deciphering lead tolerance mechanisms in a population of the plant**
2 **species *Biscutella auriculata* L. from a mining area: accumulation**
3 **strategies and antioxidant defenses**

4

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28 **ABBREVIATIONS**

29 **APX**, Ascorbate peroxidase enzyme; **AsA**, Ascorbate; **CAT**, Catalase; **DHAR**,
30 Dehydroascorbate reductase; **GOX**, Glycolate oxidase; **GR**, Glutathione reductase;
31 **GSH**, Reduced glutathione; **GSNOR**, S-Nitrosoglutathione reductase; **GSSG**, Oxidized
32 glutathione; **GST**, Glutathione S-Transferase; **MDA**, Malondialdehyde; **MDHAR**,
33 Monodehydroascorbate reductase; **NADP-G6PDH**, NADP⁺-dependent glucose-6-
34 phosphate dehydrogenase; **NADP-IDH**, NADP⁺-dependent isocitrate dehydrogenase;
35 **NADP-MS**, NADP⁺-dependent malate dehydrogenase; **NO**, Nitric oxide; **PC**,
36 Phytochelatin; **POD**, Peroxidase; **ROS**, Reactive oxygen species; **SOD**, Superoxide
37 dismutase.

38

39 **ABSTRACT**

40 The uptake and distribution of Pb and the mechanisms involved in the metal tolerance
41 have been investigated in a mine population of *Biscutella auriculata*. Seedlings were
42 exposed to 125 µM Pb(NO₃)₂ for 15 days under semihydroponic conditions. The results
43 showed an increase in the size of Pb-treated seedlings and symptoms of toxicity were
44 not observed. ICP-OES analyses showed that Pb accumulation was restricted to root
45 tissue. Imaging of Pb accumulation by dithizone histochemistry revealed the presence
46 of the metal in vacuoles and cell wall in root cells. The accumulation of Pb in vacuoles
47 could be stimulated by an increase in phytochelatin PC2 content. Pb did not promote
48 oxidative damage and this is probably due the increase of antioxidative defenses. In the
49 leaves, Pb produced a significant increase in superoxide dismutase activity, while in
50 roots an increase in catalase and components of the Foyer– Halliwell–Asada cycle were
51 observed. The results indicated that *Biscutella auriculata* has a high capacity to tolerate
52 Pb and this is mainly due to a very efficient mechanism to sequester the metal in roots
53 and a capacity to avoid oxidative stress. This species could therefore be very useful for
54 phytostabilization and repopulation of areas contaminated with Pb.

55 **Keywords:** Phytoremediation, Oxidative Stress, ROS, Phytochelatin, *Biscutella auriculata*

56

57 **1. INTRODUCTION**

58 Lead (Pb) is a potent heavy metal pollutant that is toxic for living organisms and
59 has prolonged persistence in the environment due to its non-biodegradable nature
60 (Wuana and Okieimen, 2014). The occurrence of Pb in the environment mainly results
61 from mining, metallurgy, manufacturing and recycling activities and, in some countries,
62 from the persistent use of Pb-based paints and leaded gasolines (Benavides et al., 2005;
63 Kumar and Kumari, 2015). Pb persists in the soil and causes multiple direct and indirect
64 toxic effects on plant growth and metabolism (Whitacre, 2015; Kumar and Prasad,
65 2018). High concentrations of Pb in the soil inhibit the germination of seeds and reduce
66 plant growth due to the severe alteration of different metabolic pathways, including
67 photosynthesis and transpiration, hormone balance, membrane permeability, mineral
68 nutrition, ATP production and the promotion of oxidative damage due to the increased
69 production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) (Kumar and Prasad, 2018).

70 Phytoremediation is a clean-up process that is effective, inexpensive and
71 environmentally friendly for the remediation of metal-contaminated soils by using
72 plants (Kidd et al., 2009; Dickinson, 2016). There are several different decontamination
73 techniques within phytoremediation, namely phytofiltration, phytovolatilization,
74 phytodegradation, phytoextraction and phytostabilization (Ali et al., 2013).
75 Phytoextraction involves extraction of the metal from the soil by absorbing it in metal-
76 accumulating plants and this approach is considered to be the main and most useful
77 technique for the removal heavy metals and metalloids (Kumar and Prasad, 2018). The
78 efficiency of phytoextraction depends on numerous factors such as the heavy metal
79 characteristics and bioavailability, soil properties and plant species (Ali et al., 2013).
80 Plants usually show little tolerance to the presence of heavy metals and they do not
81 usually accumulate such metals within their tissues in appreciable amounts, but some

82 plants develop resilience mechanisms to overcome the restraints caused by the presence
83 of high concentrations of pollutants. A thorough study of plant tolerance strategies is
84 crucial to address the rehabilitation of degraded land (Cutright et al., 2012; Dickinson,
85 2016).

86 Different mechanisms for Pb tolerance and accumulation have been reported for
87 plants (Kumar and Prasad, 2018). The most tolerant species accumulate around 95% of
88 the absorbed Pb in root and only a small proportion is translocated to aerial parts of the
89 plant (Ruiz et al., 2009; Gupta et al., 2009; Whitacre, 2015). Phytochelatin (PC)
90 synthesis is a mechanism induced by Pb to neutralize and accumulate the metals in the
91 vacuole (Andra et al., 2009; Wojas et al., 2010; Fischer et al., 2014; García et al., 2017).
92 The metal accumulation capacity of plants is also affected by their ability to survive the
93 oxidative stress caused by the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) during Pb
94 exposure (Syta et al., 2013). Plants have complex enzymatic and non-enzymatic
95 antioxidative defenses to maintain ROS levels that are compatible with the regular
96 functioning of the cells (Romero-Puertas et al., 2018). The main enzymatic
97 antioxidative defenses are catalase (CAT), superoxide dismutase (SOD), glutathione
98 peroxidase (GPOX), NADP-dependent dehydrogenases, glutathione S-transferase
99 (GST) and the enzymes of the Foyer–Halliwell–Asada Cycle (ascorbate peroxidase
100 [APX], monodehydroascorbate reductase [MDHAR], dehydroascorbate reductase
101 [DHAR] and glutathione reductase [GR]) (Sandalo et al., 2012). Non-enzymatic
102 components of the antioxidative defense system include ascorbate (AsA), glutathione
103 (GSH), tocopherol, carotenoids and phenolic compounds, amongst others (Sharma et
104 al., 2012). It has been reported that Pb exposure induces changes in antioxidant systems
105 either by overexpressing or downregulating antioxidants to avoid damage caused by
106 ROS production (Kumar and Prasad, 2018). Nitric oxide (NO) is a simple molecule

107 which acts as regulator of many physiological processes in plants, including the defence
108 against heavy metal (Gill et al., 2013; Terrón-Camero et al., 2019; Terrón-Camero et al.,
109 2020). It has been reported that NO can prevent oxidative damages by improving
110 antioxidant defences and therefore it could be a key factor in the tolerance against heavy
111 metals (Romero-Puertas et al., 2018; Souri et al., 2020).

112 Metal hypertolerance and hyperaccumulation are found in a large number of
113 plant families, with the highest occurrence in the *Brassicaceae* family (Mohtadi et al.,
114 2012). *Biscutella* is a genus herbal member of the *Brassicaceae* family that grows in
115 areas bordering agricultural fields, roadsides and polluted areas (Peco et al., 2020). The
116 species *Biscutella laevigata* has already been described as an accumulator with a
117 tolerance to the metals thallium (LaCoste et al., 1999; Fellet et al., 2012; Pošćić et al.,
118 2013; Wierzbicka et al., 2016; Pavoni et al., 2017), cadmium, lead and zinc
119 (Pielichowska and Wierzbicka, 2004; Wierzbicka and Pielichowska, 2004; Escarré et
120 al., 2011). A population of *Biscutella auriculata* has been recently identified as one of
121 the few species growing in a multimetal (Cu, Zn, Pb and Cd) contaminated area close to
122 the San Quintin mine area located in Ciudad Real (Spain). This species has been
123 reported as a Cd-tolerant plant which efficiently accumulates this metal in roots and
124 trichomes and differentially regulate antioxidant damage prevention in roots and leaves
125 (Peco et al., 2020). Given that Pb is one of the metals present in the soil from which the
126 seeds were taken, we investigated Pb tolerance in *B. auriculata* and the mechanisms
127 involved. The study therefore focuses on the effects of Pb on growth parameters, ROS
128 and NO metabolism, Pb accumulation patterns, as well as leaf and root mineral status.
129 Our results demonstrate that *B. auriculata* is a new Pb-tolerant growth-enhancing plant
130 in the presence of high concentrations of Pb, which could be useful in restoring areas
131 contaminated by this heavy metal.

132 2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

133 2.1 Plant materials and growth conditions

134 *B. auriculata* seeds were obtained from a natural population located in the San
135 Quintin mining area (38°48'52.6"N 4°17'15.5"W) in Villamayor de Calatrava (Ciudad
136 Real province, South Central Spain) (Supplementary Fig. 1A and B). This area has been
137 altered by mining activity (Pb-Zn-Ag mine) and is contaminated Pb, Zn, Cu and Cd
138 (Rodríguez et al., 2009). The seeds were hydrated for 24 h and then germinated on wet
139 filter paper in Petri dishes at 25 °C. Healthy homogenous seedlings were transferred to a
140 semi-hydroponic system containing perlite (Flores-Cáceres et al., 2015) and a Hoagland
141 nutrient solution (Hoagland and Arnon, 1950) for 15 days. After this period, seedlings
142 were then irrigated with Hoagland nutrient solution supplemented with 0 or 125 µM of
143 Pb(NO₃)₂ for 15 days (Pereira et al., 2016). Cultures were placed in a growth chamber
144 under the following conditions: 24 °C, 60% relativity humidity and 16/8 h light/dark
145 photoperiod. The experiment was repeated three times. Finally, leaves and roots were
146 processed separately, frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 °C. Sterilized seeds
147 were also germinated and were grown vertically in square Petri dishes (10 × 10 cm)
148 containing MS medium supplemented with 0 or 125 µM of Pb(NO₃)₂ for 10 days (Sanz-
149 Fernández et al., 2017). These plants were grown under the same growth chamber
150 conditions as previously mentioned.

151 2.2 Growth parameters, photosynthesis data, photosynthetic pigments, phenolics 152 and flavonoids content

153 Morphological and growth parameters were analyzed: leaf and root fresh weight,
154 number of leaves and root length. Leaf area, trichomes and stomata density were
155 analyzed from leaf images using ImageJ software. Gas exchange parameters (net
156 photosynthesis rate, stomatal conductance, transpiration ratio and intercellular CO₂

157 concentration) were determined using a portable photosynthesis system (Ciras-3, PP
158 Systems). Contents of chlorophylls, carotenoids and anthocyanins were analyzed by
159 spectrophotometric methods according to Lichtenthaler and Buschmann (2001) and
160 Sims and Gamon (2002), respectively. Total phenolics content was determined by a
161 spectrophotometric technique according to Folin–Ciocalteu’s method proposed by
162 Singleton and Rossi (1965), using a calibration curve for gallic acid. Total flavonoids
163 content was determined by the aluminium chloride spectrophotometric method (Zhishen
164 et al., 1999) using a calibration curve for quercetin.

165 **2.3 Mineral analysis and histochemical localization of Pb**

166 In order to assess the mineral contents, plant samples were oven-dried at 60 °C
167 for 72 hours. Roots and leaves were weighed to determine the dry mass and were
168 digested with an HNO₃/H₂O₂ mixture using a microwave digestion system (ETHOS 1,
169 Milestone). Mineral composition was measured by inductively coupled plasma-optical
170 emission spectrometry (ICP-OES, Varian 720-ES). The phytoextraction ability was
171 determined using the translocation factor (TF) and the bioaccumulation factor (BF)
172 equations described by Melo et al. (2009).

173 Pb storage was detected histochemically using the dithizone method described
174 by Seregin and Kozhevnikova (2011). Leaves and roots were incubated in a solution of
175 dithizone in acetone, glacial acetic acid and Milli-Q water (3:5:1) and incubated for one
176 hour. Leaves were bleached by immersion in boiling ethanol. Stained roots were
177 embedded in 5% low-melting agarose D1 EEO (Conda Pronadise) and cross-sections
178 were obtained using a vibratome (VT1200/VT1200S Leica) and examined by optical
179 microscopy (Leica DMI600B).

180

181 **2.4 Quantification of glutathione, ascorbate and phytochelatin**

182 Reduced and oxidized glutathione (GSH and GSSG) and total ascorbate (AsA)
183 were determined by liquid chromatography-electrospray/mass spectrometry (LC-
184 ES/MS) using a method described by El-Zohri et al. (2005). Plant extracts were
185 prepared in HCl and analyzed on an HPLC system (H-Class, Waters, Mildford) coupled
186 to a triple quadrupole mass spectrometer (Quattro-Micro, Waters, Mildford). PC2 and
187 PC3 contents were analyzed in the same extracts by following the procedure described
188 by El-Zohri et al. (2005). The supernatant was injected onto an Xselect CSH column
189 (100 mm × 2.1 mm, Waters, Mildford) with a Vanguard Xselect CSH C18 cartridge (5
190 mm × 2.1 mm, Waters, Mildford). The results were calculated using pattern on PC2,
191 PC3 and PC4 from Pepmic Co., Ltd (Suzhou, China). Biothiols and AsA were
192 determined by multiple reaction monitoring (MRM) using positive electrospray and
193 negative electrospray.

194 **2.5 Lipid peroxidation, H₂O₂ content, NO content and total antioxidant capacity**

195 Lipid peroxidation was determined in terms of malondialdehyde (MDA)
196 concentration according to the method described by Buege and Aust (1978). The results
197 were calculated using a calibration curve for MDA. H₂O₂ accumulation was analyzed
198 by a spectrofluorometric method as described by Romero-Puertas et al. (2004). The
199 results were calculated using a calibration curve for H₂O₂. NO content was determined
200 by a spectrofluorometric method as described by Nakatsubo et al. (1988), using 4,5-
201 diamino-fluorescein (DAF-2) and results are expressed in arbitrary fluorescence units.
202 Total antioxidant capacity was determined according to the ABTS assay (Jiménez-
203 Escrig et al., 2003) and the results were calculated using a Trolox calibration curve.

204

205 **2.6 Enzymatic assays**

206 Leaves and roots were ground in liquid nitrogen and the powder obtained was
207 homogenized in 0.1 M Tris-HCl pH 7.5, containing 0.1 mM EDTA, 0.2 % Triton X100,
208 2 mM DTT, 0.2 % PVP and 1X protease inhibitor cocktail (Sigma-Aldrich). The
209 homogenates were centrifuged at 14000 g for 20 min. Enzymatic activity was assayed
210 spectrophotometrically according to the following methods: CAT activity (EC
211 1.11.1.6); POD activity; GOX activity (EC 1.1.3.1); APX activity (EC 1.11.1.11), GR
212 activity (EC 1.6.4.2); MDHAR activity (EC 1.6.5.4) and DHAR activity (EC 1.8.5.1) as
213 reported by Hafsi et al. (2010); NADP-G6PDH (EC 1.1.1.49), NADP-IDH (EC
214 1.1.1.42) and NADP-MS (EC 4.1.3.2) as reported by León et al. (2002); GST activity
215 (EC 2.5.1.1) as described by Habig et al. (1974) and GSNOR (EC 1.2.1.46) as described
216 by Ortega-Galisteo et al. (2012). The enzymatic assays were carried out according to the
217 method described by Peco et al. (2020).

218 **2.7 Characterization of SOD isoenzyme and activity**

219 SOD activity (EC 1.15.1) was assayed by native polyacrylamide gel
220 electrophoresis (native-PAGE, 10% acrylamide/Bis) and activity was imaged in the gels
221 according to the photochemical method described by Beauchamp and Fridovich (1971).
222 The effects of 5 mM H₂O₂ and 2 mM KCN on SOD activity were evaluated to identify
223 the different SOD isoenzymes (Srivalli and Khanna-Chopra, 2001). The activity was
224 expressed as % of total SOD activity by determining the area under the peaks using
225 ImageJ. The different SOD bands obtained (Supplementary Fig. 2A) were analyzed by
226 MALDI-TOF mass spectrometry (UltrafleXtrem, Bruker). The sequences obtained were
227 compared with those found in UniProt for Fe SOD, Mn SOD and CuZn SOD of
228 *Arabidopsis thaliana*. Theoretical digestions of proteins, belonging to the three SOD
229 bands, were carried out while keeping the peptides corresponding to the conserved areas

230 obtained from the isoenzyme's alignment. Finally, peptides belonging to the different
231 SOD isoenzymes were located in the mass spectrum using a MASCOT software.

232 **2.8 Histochemical localization of H₂O₂ and O₂⁻**

233 H₂O₂ and O₂⁻ accumulation were imaged in leaves and roots according to
234 Romero-Puertas et al. (2004). For H₂O₂ histochemistry the leaves and roots were
235 immersed in a 0.1% solution of DAB (3,3'-diaminobenzidine), vacuum-infiltrated for 5
236 min and then incubated in the dark at room temperature overnight. For O₂⁻ localization,
237 leaves and roots were immersed in a 0.1% solution of Nitro Blue Tetrazolium (NBT)
238 and 10 mM Na-azide and were vacuum-infiltrated for 10 min and illuminated until dark
239 blue spots appeared. In both cases, leaves were bleached by immersing in boiling
240 ethanol.

241 **2.9 Other assays**

242 The protein contents in plant extracts were determined according to the method
243 of Bradford (1976) using a bovine serum albumin (BSA) calibration curve.

244 **2.10 Data analysis**

245 Statistical analyses were carried out by a Student's t-test in IBM SPSS Statistics 24.
246 Asterisks (P<0.05: *; P<0.01: **; P<0.001: ***) represent the level of significance in
247 the figures. Images were analyzed using ImageJ software.

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251

252 3. RESULTS

253 3.1 Effect of lead on plant growth and photosynthetic parameters

254 The effects of Pb on the growth and phenotype of *B. auriculata* plants growing
255 in a semi-hydroponic medium are represented in Fig. 1A and Fig. 1C. Pb exposure for
256 15 days produced a significant increase in the FW of leaves and roots (1.4 fold), as well
257 as in the leaf area (1.17 fold). However, changes were not observed in the number of
258 leaves. The number of trichomes per area decreased in Pb-treated plants (1.7 fold),
259 while the number of stomata per area increased in response to Pb-treatment (1.7 fold)
260 (Fig 1C). Seedlings grown in square Petri dishes are shown in Fig. 1B and it can be
261 observed that Pb induced the growth of the main root, while the secondary roots and
262 hair roots were considerably reduced in number and size with respect to the control
263 plants (Fig. 1B and Fig. 1D). Interestingly, Pb did not statistically affect the
264 photosynthesis parameters, net photosynthesis rate, stomatal conductance, transpiration
265 ratio, intercellular CO₂ concentration and leaf temperature (Supplementary Table 1). Pb
266 exposure did not affect the chlorophylls and carotenoids contents, which remained
267 unchanged, while the phenols content decreased slightly and the opposite trend was
268 observed for the flavonoids content (Supplementary Table 1).

269 3.2 Lead uptake and accumulation

270 The mineral contents of roots and leaves in *B. auriculata* treated and untreated
271 with Pb are shown in Supplementary Table 2. Pb was mainly accumulated in roots
272 (3.686 mg g⁻¹) with a bioaccumulation factor of 1.081 and only a small content was
273 translocated to the aerial part (0.028 mg g⁻¹), with the translocation factor being 0.007
274 (Supplementary Table 2). A statistically significantly decrease in zinc content in Pb-
275 treated leaves and roots was observed but the other metals and macronutrients did not

276 change significantly in either roots or leaves. Dithizone histochemistry allows observing
277 Pb accumulation mainly in the cell wall and vacuole of root cortex cells (Fig. 2) but Pb
278 accumulation was not observed in root vascular bundles.

279 The results from the analysis of biothiols such as GSH and PCs, which could be
280 involved in metal sequestering, are shown in Fig. 3. GSH accounted for over 80 % of
281 biothiol content in leaves and for ~70 % in roots, with GSSG
282 accounting for ~15 % in leaves and ~10 % in roots; no statistically significant
283 differences between treatments were observed in either roots or leaves. PCs, which
284 were not found in leaves, made up approximately 20 % of biothiol content in roots.
285 While significant amounts of PC2-type were induced in the roots of Pb-treated plants,
286 no PC3 or PC4 were found.

287 **3.3 Oxidative stress markers and antioxidant defenses**

288 Oxidative stress is a common effect caused by Pb and other metals in plants;
289 however, the H₂O₂ and MDA contents, used as oxidative markers in leaves (Fig. 4A),
290 suggest that Pb does not induce oxidative damage in *B. auriculata*. Imaging of H₂O₂
291 and O₂⁻ accumulation in *B. auriculata* leaves did not show any significant changes in
292 Pb-treated plants (Supplementary Fig. 3), although microscopic images revealed a slight
293 accumulation of H₂O₂ in the central nerve (brown spots) of leaves, while O₂⁻
294 accumulated in small spots (blue spots) on the base of trichomes. Glycolate oxidase
295 activity is a source of H₂O₂ from leaf photorespiration and changes in this activity were
296 not observed. Changes were also not detected in H₂O₂ and O₂⁻ accumulation in roots
297 although slight staining was observed in vascular tissue and the zone of cell division
298 (Supplementary Fig. 4).

299 The ratio GSH/GSSG is used as a redox marker and this ratio did not change in
300 Pb-treated plants, although the ascorbic acid content was statistically higher in Pb-
301 treated leaves with respect to the control (Fig. 4A). The total antioxidant capacity did
302 not change either in leaves or roots in response to Pb (Fig. 4A). The activity of
303 enzymatic antioxidants CAT, GST, POD, MDHAR, DHAR, APX and GR were also
304 analyzed, although APX and GR activity could not be detected (Fig. 4B) even on testing
305 different buffers. The activity of GST and POD enzymes in leaves and roots remained
306 unchanged between treatments, although Pb-treated roots showed an increase in CAT,
307 MDHAR and DHAR with respect to untreated roots. Changes were also not observed in
308 the activity of the NADP-dependent dehydrogenases analyzed (NADP-G6PDH, NADP-
309 IDH, NADP-MS) in leaves due to Pb treatment (Fig. 4B). The activity of SOD was
310 analyzed in leaves by native-PAGE and specific staining (Fig. 5). The results showed
311 four different bands for SOD activity in *B. auriculata* and these increased markedly in
312 Pb-treated leaves. In an effort to identify the different isoforms, the effects of two
313 inhibitors specific for Fe-SOD and CuZn-SOD were analyzed (Fig. 5). The results
314 showed a slight inhibition of the activity with 2 mM KCN and total inhibition with 5
315 mM H₂O₂, which ruled out the presence of Mn-SOD as this is resistant to both
316 inhibitors, suggesting that all isoforms observed could be Fe-SODs. We proceeded to
317 analyze three bands of SOD activity by MALDI/TOF mass spectrometry and identified
318 some peptides that corresponded to the conserved sequences of Mn-SOD and Fe-SOD
319 of *Arabidopsis thaliana*, but CuZn-SOD was not detected (Supplementary Fig. 2B and
320 C).

321 Nitric oxide is also an important factor in the cell response to heavy metals and,
322 for this reason, we analyzed the effect of Pb on the NO content in roots and leaves. A
323 reduction in NO was observed in Pb-treated roots with respect to the control (Fig. 4C).

324 However, nitrosogluthione reductase (GSNOR) activity, which regulates the level of
325 nitrosogluthione, a NO donor, decreased in leaves but did not differ significantly in
326 roots in response to Pb treatment (Fig. 4C).

327

328 **4. DISCUSSION**

329 **4.1 Lead stimulates the growth of *B. auriculata***

330 Lead is a toxic metal which causes inhibition of plant growth in different species
331 such as *Brassica oleracea* (Sinha et al., 2006), *Lolium perenne* (Bai et al., 2014) and
332 *Vigna unguiculate* (Bezerril et al., 2017), amongst others. However, in the present
333 study, using a concentration of Pb in the range described as effective to cause
334 significant inhibition of plants growth under hydroponic conditions (Kumar and
335 Prasad, 2018), a significant increase in both leaf and root growth in *B. auriculata* was
336 observed. Several studies have also shown the beneficial effect of Pb on plant growth,
337 although in most cases plants were exposed to low concentrations of Pb (Seth et al.,
338 2011; Batista et al., 2017; Sidhu et al., 2018). For example, in *Helianthus annuus* the
339 exposure to concentrations of Pb up to 100 mg L⁻¹ stimulated biomass production,
340 while higher concentrations led to the opposite effect (Batista et al., 2017). *Lupinus*
341 *albus* did not show any toxicity symptoms when grown with 180 µM Pb (García et al.,
342 2017) and *Coronopus didymus* also tolerated increasing Pb concentrations up to 2.5 mg
343 g⁻¹, with a concentration-dependent enhancement of root and shoot length being
344 observed (Sidhu et al., 2018). This positive effect was explained by the phenomenon of
345 hormesis, the stimulatory or beneficial effect induced by low doses of metals or toxic
346 compounds (Calabrese and Blain, 2009; Seth et al., 2011; Batista et al., 2017). The
347 mechanisms of hormesis have been widely discussed and the activation of specific and

348 general stress defenses is considered to be the main mechanism to explain this
349 phenomenon (Poschenrieder et al., 2013). However, in this study *B. auriculata* was
350 exposed to high Pb levels and therefore the induction of growth in this species cannot be
351 explained as being due to hormesis. Taking into account that the seeds were isolated
352 from a mine area that was heavily contaminated with Pb (San Quintin mine; Rodríguez
353 et al., 2009), and other metals (Cu, Zn and Cd), a natural adaptation could occur to
354 allow *B. auriculata* to grow under adverse conditions. A study carried out on two
355 populations of *Biscutella laevigata*, one from waste heaps contaminated with Pb and Zn
356 and the other from the mountain (non-contaminated area), showed a metal-dependent
357 growth stimulation of *B. laevigata* from the waste-heap area when grown under
358 hydroponic conditions, while the other population under the same conditions was
359 inhibited by almost to 50 % (Wierzbicka and Pielichowska, 2004). Interestingly, in
360 addition to the larger leaf size, the most remarkable issue observed in *B. auriculata*
361 exposed to Pb was the increase in the principal root length and thickening, and the
362 reduction in the number and the length of lateral and hair roots. The opposite effect was
363 described by Koppitke et al. (2007) in a sensitive species *Vigna unguiculate*, which
364 showed growth inhibition with a loss of apical dominance and a large number of lateral
365 roots in response to Pb. Inhibition of root elongation was also reported in *Triticum*
366 *aestivum* (Pena et al., 2015), *Vicia faba* (Mroczek-Zdyrska and Wójcik, 2012), *Silene*
367 *vulgaris* and *Noccaea caerulescens* (Mohtadi et al., 2012), amongst others. Root
368 architecture is controlled by auxin and exogenous auxin has been reported to inhibit
369 primary root elongation and promote the formation of lateral roots (Alarcón et al.,
370 2019). More recently, a mechanism linking cytokinin signaling and the auxin pool to
371 tune root system architecture has been reported (Michniewicz et al., 2019). Therefore,
372 the Pb-dependent changes observed in the root architecture in *B. auriculata* could be

373 due to changes in auxin efflux and influx and the balance of IAA and cytokinins. In *Zea*
374 *mays* an improvement has been observed in Pb phytoextraction by IAA and gibberellins
375 (Hadi et al., 2010). *B. auriculata* managed to grow in the presence of Pb without any
376 symptoms of toxicity, complete its life cycle and to produce seeds in Pb-contaminated
377 soils, thus demonstrating its high tolerance to Pb.

378 In line with the results observed for the growth parameters, Pb did not affect
379 photosynthetic parameters, chlorophylls and carotenoids content in *B. auriculata*, while
380 in Pb-sensitive species gas exchange inhibition and a reduction in photosynthetic
381 pigments have been reported (Farooq et al., 2013; Bai et al., 2014; Bezerril et al., 2017).
382 Leaf temperature, which has been reported as a good index of heavy metal stress
383 (Thakur and Singh, 2012) did not change either, according with the absence of changes
384 in leaf transpiration and stomatal conductance. The increase of stomata density per leaf
385 area observed in *B. auriculata* could contribute to maintaining the gas exchange and
386 photosynthesis rate in a similar way to that reported by Peco et al. (2020) in this plant
387 species in response to Cd . These results demonstrate that *B. auriculata* leaves are not
388 affected by Pb – probably because the metal is restricted to the root. Phenols and
389 flavonoids are compounds that are strongly induced by heavy metals due to their role as
390 antioxidants and metal chelators (Hernández et al., 2009; Sytar et al., 2013). In *B.*
391 *auriculata* Pb produced a slight but statistically significant decrease in the phenol
392 content and this was accompanied by a significant increase in the content of flavonoids
393 in leaves. These results suggest that flavonoids can play a role in the tolerance to Pb in
394 this species, as reported in *Lupinus luteus* (Pawlak-Sprada et al., 2011) and *Medicago*
395 *sativa* (Sima et al., 2012). However, the contribution of flavonoids to Pb tolerance has
396 not been established to date, although they are excellent antioxidants and also could
397 regulate IAA transport (Kuhn et al., 2011). Interestingly, one of the major phenotypic

398 characteristics of *B. auriculata* in response to Cd was the high level of red/blue pigment
399 anthocyanins in leaves (Peco et al., 2020), while anthocyanin accumulation was
400 unaffected by Pb (Fig 1).

401 **4.2 *B. auriculata* efficiently sequestered Pb in roots**

402 One of the mechanisms involved in Pb tolerance of *B. auriculata* could be its
403 high efficiency in uptaking and accumulating Pb in a non-toxic way to prevent toxicity
404 and without disturbing the nutrient balance. Comparing with other non-
405 hyperaccumulator plant species, shown in Supplemental Table 3, *B. auriculata* has one
406 of the highest capacity to accumulate Pb in roots with a BF value of 1.08 and a TF of
407 0.01, showing even an increase of growth instead of reduction, which is a considerable
408 advantage in phytoremediation processes. Similar values of Pb accumulation in roots
409 have been reported in *Jatropha curcas*, *Pisum sativum* and *Coronopus didymus*, (see
410 review by Kumar and Prasad, 2018), although these species were more sensitive than
411 *B. auriculata* to Pb. Pb could be taken up by the root through Ca^{2+} -permeable channels
412 (Pourrut et al., 2011) and, in fact, Pb caused a reduction of Ca^{2+} in *Oryza sativa*,
413 probably due to competition between the two cations for the same Ca^{2+} channels (Kim
414 et al., 2002). The contents of Zn, Mn, Ca and Fe were markedly affected by Pb exposure
415 in *Zea mays* (Seregin et al., 2004), *Oryza sativa* (Chatterjee et al., 2004) and *Brassica*
416 *oleracea* (Sinha et al., 2006). However, in *B. auriculata* only the content of Zn in the
417 leaves and roots was statistically significantly reduced by Pb, thus suggesting
418 competition between Pb/Zn for the same transporters. Another important factor that
419 contributes to Pb tolerance in this species is the low translocation of the metal to the
420 leaves by sequestration of the metal in cell wall and vacuoles, as observed in optical
421 microscopy images of root cross sections. Most plants accumulate 90% of the total Pb
422 in roots (Fahr, 2013). The cell wall is a mechanical barrier against Pb given its high

423 affinity for pectins and callose, which also restricts cell-to-cell Pb movement (Fahr,
424 2013). Other mechanisms that avoid Pb translocation include Pb precipitation by
425 binding to the ion-exchangeable location in the cell walls (Kopittke et al., 2007; Islam et
426 al., 2008; Zheng et al., 2012), precipitation as insoluble salts in intercellular spaces
427 (Kopittke et al., 2007; Małecka et al., 2008) and vacuolar sequestration in the cortical
428 and rhizodermal cells (Małecka et al., 2008; Meyers et al., 2008; Zheng et al., 2012).
429 Interestingly, this species behaves differently in reaction to Cd, which accumulates in
430 vascular bundles, the epidermis and in the amorphous structure surrounding epidermal
431 root cells (Peco et al., 2020), thus demonstrating the different strategies adopted by the
432 plant depending on the contaminating metal.

433 Previous research has suggested that trichomes can function as a site of
434 accumulation and exclusion of heavy metals (Pielichowska and Wierzbicka, 2004; Peco
435 et al., 2020) and an increase in the number of trichomes was observed in *Glycine max*
436 treated with Pb (Weryszko-Chmielewska and Chwil, 2005). However, in this research
437 Pb was not accumulated in trichomes and a reduction in the number of trichomes was
438 observed in line with the low Pb translocation to the leaves. Intriguingly, trichome
439 density and Cd accumulation in Cd-treated *B. auriculata* have been reported to
440 increase in specific trichome rings (Peco et al., 2020), thus confirming that both Cd and
441 Pb induce significantly different responses in *B. auriculata* that affect both plant
442 phenotype and physiology.

443 Phytochelatins are oligomers of glutathione that are induced in response to
444 heavy metal stress and these oligomers bind the metal and transport it to the vacuole to
445 avoid metal toxicity (Whitacre, 2015; Turull et al., 2017). The high tolerance of *B.*
446 *auriculata* to this metal could be due in part to its capacity to induce PC synthesis, as
447 reported in other plant species (Supplementary Table 3), without, however, reducing the

448 GSH content required for antioxidant defenses. *B. auriculata* contains PC2 under
449 control conditions and its biosynthesis is induced in response to Pb, while PC3 were not
450 present neither in roots and leaves. *Lupinus albus* also showed a high tolerance to Pb
451 accompanied by an increase in PCs in the roots (García et al. 2017) as well as it has
452 been observed in other species (Supplemental Table 3). The essential role of PCs for Pb
453 detoxification was demonstrated in *Arabidopsis thaliana* phytochelatin synthase
454 mutants, which showed a higher sensitivity to Pb than wild type (Fischer et al. 2014).
455 Interestingly *B. auriculata* responded to Cd by inducing PC2 and PC3, mainly in leaves
456 (Peco et al., 2020), demonstrating that this species can discriminate between different
457 metals triggering a differential response.

458 **4.3 Lead does not induce oxidative stress in *B. auriculata***

459 One of the mechanisms of Pb toxicity that has been widely established in
460 different plants species is the indirect ROS production and oxidative damage to lipids
461 and proteins (Farooq et al., 2013; Bai et al., 2014; Saleem et al., 2018; Kumar and
462 Prasad, 2018). However, Pb does not promote oxidative stress in *B. auriculata*, as
463 suggested by the absence of changes in the lipid peroxidation marker MDA, H₂O₂
464 content, the balance between GSH/GSSG, which is considered as a good index of plant
465 oxidative stress, as well as the activities of antioxidants analyzed in leaves, except for
466 the SOD and the ASC contents, which increase in leaves. The activity of NADP-
467 recycling enzymes was not affected by Pb in leaves and therefore NADPH availability
468 is not a limitation in the response to Pb. The absence of oxidative stress damage could
469 be due to the efficient mechanism for the accumulation of the metal in roots to avoid its
470 toxicity, as mentioned previously, although an increase in the MDHAR and DHAR
471 activities, components of the Foyer–Halliwell–Asada cycle, in roots could help to
472 maintain the redox balance in the tissue. Interestingly, other activities in this cycle, APX

473 and GR, were not detected in the tissue of *B. auriculata* in spite of the use of different
474 extraction buffers, which suggests that these activities could be very sensitive to
475 proteolytic degradation or inactivation by unknown compounds present in the extracts.
476 The Pb tolerance of plant species, *Coronopus didymus* and *Eclipta prostrata* (Sidhu et
477 al., 2016; Chandrasekhar et al., 2019), is also associated with factors such as
478 increased enzymatic activity in the AsA-GSH cycle, suggesting that this cycle plays
479 an important role in the prevention of Pb-related oxidative stress.

480 SOD is one of the primary antioxidative defenses against ROS accumulation in
481 cells and it is induced by its substrate, O_2^- (Del Río et al., 1991; Alscher et al., 2002). In
482 our study, SOD activity considerably increased in Pb-treated leaves, probably in order
483 to remove O_2^- generated by Pb. However, opposite results were found in *B. auriculata*
484 against Cu (data not shown) and Cd (Peco et al., 2020) with a strong SOD activity
485 inhibition being observed, which could indicate that SOD makes a significant
486 contribution to Pb tolerance in *B. auriculata*. Increased SOD activity in response to Pb
487 has also been reported in other Pb-tolerant plants such as *Eclipta prostrate*
488 (Chandrasekhar et al., 2019), *Coronopus didymus* (Sidhu et al., 2016), and *Peganum*
489 *harmala* L. (Mahdavian et al., 2016). However, some discrepancies have been reported
490 in the literature, with increases or decreases of SOD observed depending on the
491 intensity and duration of Pb exposure and the plant species (Venkatachalam et al.,
492 2017). Based on the inhibitory effect of H_2O_2 and CN^- on the SOD activity analyzed in
493 native gels, *B. auriculata* only contains Fe-SOD. MALDI-TOF analysis demonstrated
494 the absence of CuZn-SOD, while peptides with Fe-SOD and Mn-SOD homology were
495 observed. Taking into account the high homology between both Mn- and Fe-SOD (del
496 Río et al., 1991) and the results obtained with the inhibitors, one can conclude that *B.*

497 *auriculata* contains Fe-SODs while neither Mn- nor CuZn-SOD are present in this
498 species.

499 NO plays an important role in counteracting metal toxicity in different plant
500 species (Sandalo et al., 2012; Terrón-Camero et al., 2019). In *B. auriculata*, Pb
501 treatment produces an increase in the NO content in roots. NO has been associated with
502 Pb uptake in *Pogonatherum crinitum* root cells (Yu et al., 2012) and inhibits the
503 translocation of Pb from roots to shoots in ryegrass (Bai et al., 2014), although the
504 mechanisms have not been established as yet. NO has recently been reported to control
505 metal root uptake by regulating metal transporters such as proton pumps and antiporters
506 (CAX), NIP, NRAMP and ABC (reviewed in Terrón-Camero et al., 2019). Other
507 protective mechanisms regulated by NO could be the increases in pectin and
508 hemicellulose content (Xiong et al., 2009) and lignin (Zafari et al., 2017) in the root cell
509 wall to prevent accumulation of metals in the soluble fraction of the cells. NO could
510 also increase the tolerance to Pb by increasing the content of auxin, cytokinins and
511 gibberellins and by decreasing abscisic acid (Sadeghipour, 2017). In *B. auriculata*
512 exposed to Pb, the GSNOR activity which can regulate NO levels in the cell, did not
513 change in roots but it was significantly reduced in leaves – a finding that supports an
514 important role of both NO and GSNOR in Pb uptake and translocation. Recently, Li et
515 al. (2019), have reported that the differences of GSNOR expression might be
516 responsible for the natural variation of root tolerance to high Fe in different *Arabidopsis*
517 accessions. The antioxidant activity of NO reported in different plant species and in
518 response to different metals (Bai et al., 2014; Terrón-Camero et al., 2019) could also
519 contribute to the tolerance of *B. auriculata* to Pb.

520

521

522 5. CONCLUSIONS

523 The data obtained from the present study demonstrate that *B. auriculata* is a new
524 Pb tolerant plant able to accumulate high concentrations of Pb in the roots while
525 increasing its growth in presence of high Pb concentrations. However, *B. auriculata* can
526 not be considered a hyper-accumulator because does not accumulate the metal in leaves,
527 which demonstrate that Pb tolerance is not necessarily associated with Pb hyper-
528 accumulation, such it has been reported in *N. caerulescens* (Mohtadi et al., 2012). Pb
529 tolerance in *B. auriculata* could be due to its ability to accumulate Pb in the cell walls
530 and vacuoles of root cells and the induction of PC2, as well as to the restriction of metal
531 translocation to the shoot. Treatment with Pb produced a decrease in the Zn content in
532 the plant, which could indicate that both elements may use the same
533 channel/transporters. In line with the absence of symptoms of toxicity, Pb does not
534 induce oxidative stress in this species – probably as a consequence of the low
535 availability of the metal to participate in ROS production. However, the differential
536 induction of some enzymatic antioxidant defense system such as SOD activity in leaf
537 and CAT, and the Foyer-Halliwell-Asada cycle-activities in roots could also contribute
538 to prevent ROS accumulation and oxidative damage. Differential changes in NO
539 production and GSNOR activity could contribute to the tolerance to Pb in *B.*
540 *auriculata*.. Therefore, *B. auriculata* may be useful for the phytostabilization and
541 repopulation of areas contaminated with Pb and other metals.

542

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Typo mistakes have been corrected according with the reviewers's suggestions

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Declaration of interests

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

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

Dear Dr Teresa Cutright

We have corrected the manuscript following the suggestions by the reviewers. I expect the new manuscript could be suitable for publication in Chemosphere

Looking forward to hearing from you soon

Luisa M. Sandalio



High $\text{Pb}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ concentrations stimulate *Biscutella auriculata* growth

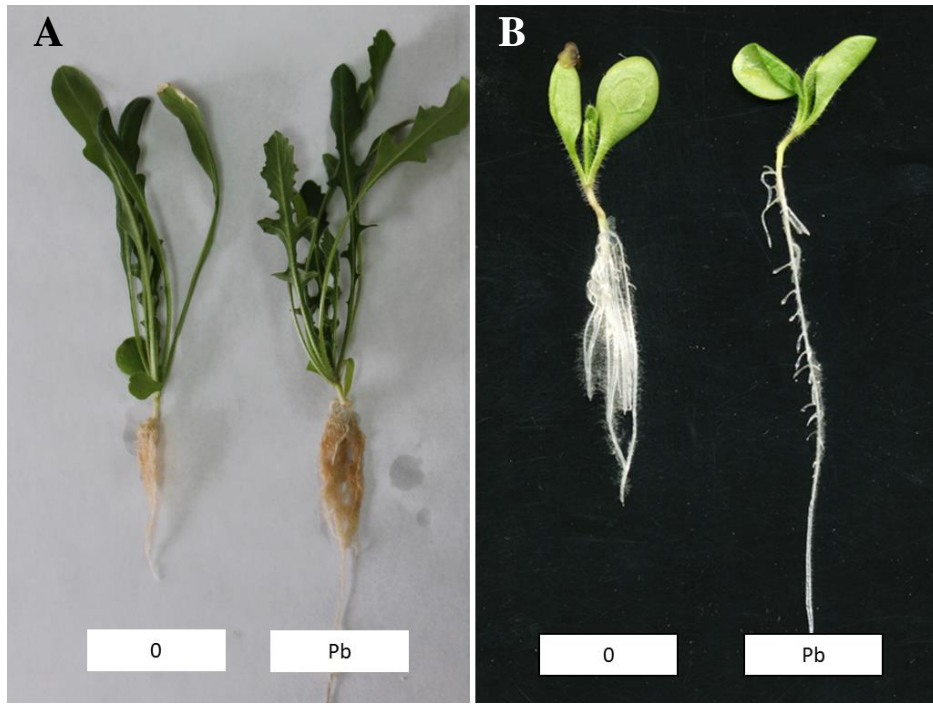
Pb tolerance mechanisms

- Accumulation of Pb in vacuoles and cell wall by induction of PC2.
- Prevents Pb translocation to the aerial part.
- Activation of antioxidative defenses:
 - SOD in leaves.
 - CAT, MDHAR and DHAR in roots.

The uptake and distribution of Pb and the mechanisms involved in the metal tolerance have been investigated in a mine population of *Biscutella auriculata*. Seedlings were exposed to 125 μM $\text{Pb}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ for 15 days under semihydroponic conditions. The results showed an increase in the size of Pb-treated seedlings and symptoms of toxicity were not observed. ICP-OES analyses showed that Pb accumulation was restricted to root tissue. Imaging of Pb accumulation by dithizone histochemistry revealed the presence of the metal in vacuoles and cell wall in root cells. The accumulation of Pb in vacuoles could be stimulated by an increase in phytochelatin PC2 content. Pb did not promote oxidative damage and this is probably due the increase of antioxidative defenses. In the leaves, Pb produced a significant increase in superoxide dismutase activity, while in roots an increase in catalase and components of the Foyer–Halliwell–Asada cycle were observed. The results indicated that *Biscutella auriculata* has a high capacity to tolerate Pb and this is mainly due to a very efficient mechanism to sequester the metal in roots and a capacity to avoid oxidative stress. This species could therefore be very useful for phytostabilization and repopulation of areas contaminated with Pb.

FIGURES

Figure 1. Phenotype of *Biscutella auriculata* seedlings treated with 0 and 125 μM Pb (NO_3)₂ grown in: hydroponic culture for 30 days (**A, C**) and square Petri dishes for 10 days (**B and D**). Asterisk indicates that the mean value is significantly different between treatments and controls (\pm standard error) (* $p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; *** $p \leq 0.001$). (1.5 column)



C

	Leaves DW (g)	Root DW (g)	Leaves area (cm ²)	Leaf number	Number of trichomes / mm ²	Number of stomata / mm ²
0	1.69 ± 0.12	0.35 ± 0.02	54.80 ± 4.87	9.40 ± 0.37	44.73 ± 6.78	140.5 ± 10.62
Pb	2.38 ± 0.12***	0.50 ± 0.04**	64.64 ± 3.28	9.45 ± 0.34	26.47 ± 1.48*	239.14 ± 14.42***

D

	Primary roots size (cm)	Number of lateral roots	Lateral roots size (cm)
0	7.08 ± 0.29	15.60 ± 0.93	1.99 ± 0.14
Pb	9.40 ± 0.37*	10.40 ± 2.84*	0.53 ± 0.05***

Figure 2. Pb accumulations in roots of *B. auriculata* growth in hydroponic conditions with and without Pb for 15 days. Pb is visualized using the dithizone staining (brown colour). Red arrows show Pb localization. (1.5 column)

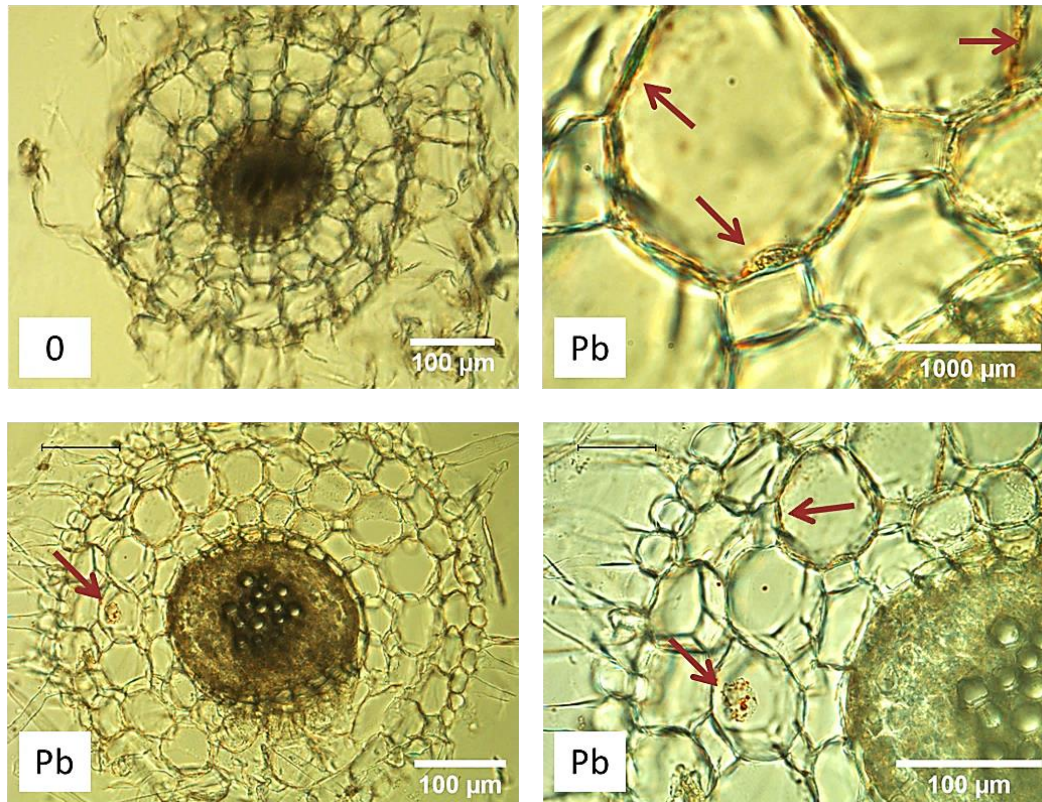


Figure 3. Effect of Pb (125 μM) on biothiols content in *B. auriculata* plants (**A**) and relative biothiols concentration (%) (**B**) in leaves and roots of *B. auriculata*. Values represent the mean \pm standard error and asterisks indicates significant differences between treatment and control plants (* $p \leq 0.05$). (1.5 column)

A

	0		Pb	
	Leaves	Root	Leaves	Root
GSH ($\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ FW)	40.23 \pm 1.03	38.76 \pm 3.3	56.18 \pm 6.4	43.51 \pm 3.23
GSSG ($\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ FW)	8.15 \pm 1.33	4.63 \pm 1.2	8.78 \pm 2.03	6.57 \pm 1.79
PC2 ($\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ FW)	< LD	10.47 \pm 0.25	< LD	13.43 \pm 0.85*
PC3 ($\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ FW)	< LD	< LD	< LD	< LD
PC4 ($\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ FW)	< LD	< LD	< LD	< LD
Total biothiols ($\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ FW)	48.38 \pm 1.39	53.86 \pm 4.75	64.96 \pm 8.43	63.51 \pm 5.87

B

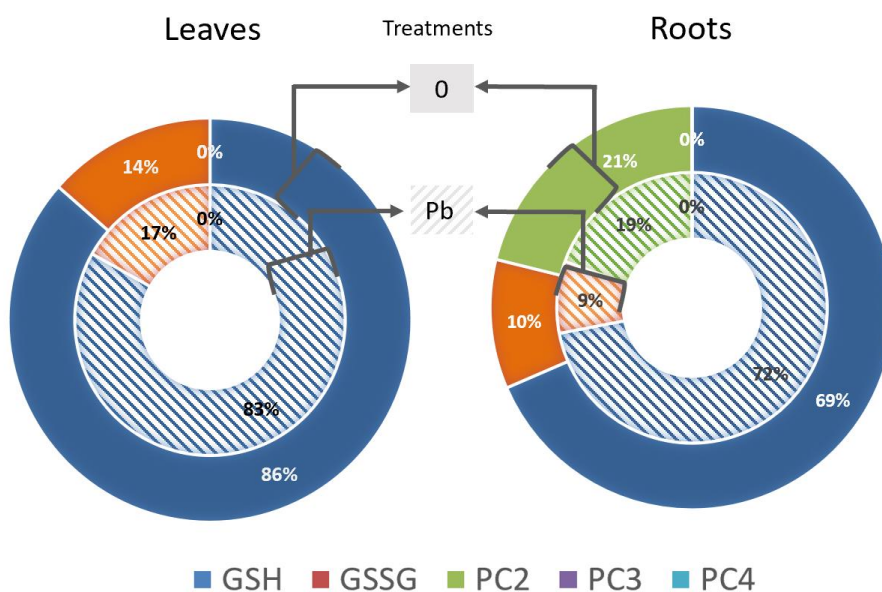


Figure 4. Effects of Pb (125 μ M) on ROS and NO metabolism in *B. auriculata* plants grown in hydroponic conditions for 15 days. **(A)** oxidative stress parameters (H_2O_2 content, lipid peroxidation, GOX activity, ascorbate content (AA), GSH/GSSG ratio and total antioxidant capacity), **(B)** enzymatic antioxidant activities (CAT, GST, POD, MDHAR, DHAR and NADPH-dependent dehydrogenase enzymes). **(C)** NO content and GSNOR activity in *B. auriculata* leaves and roots. Asterisk indicates that the mean value is significantly different between treatments and controls (\pm standard error) (* $p \leq 0.05$). (1.5 column)

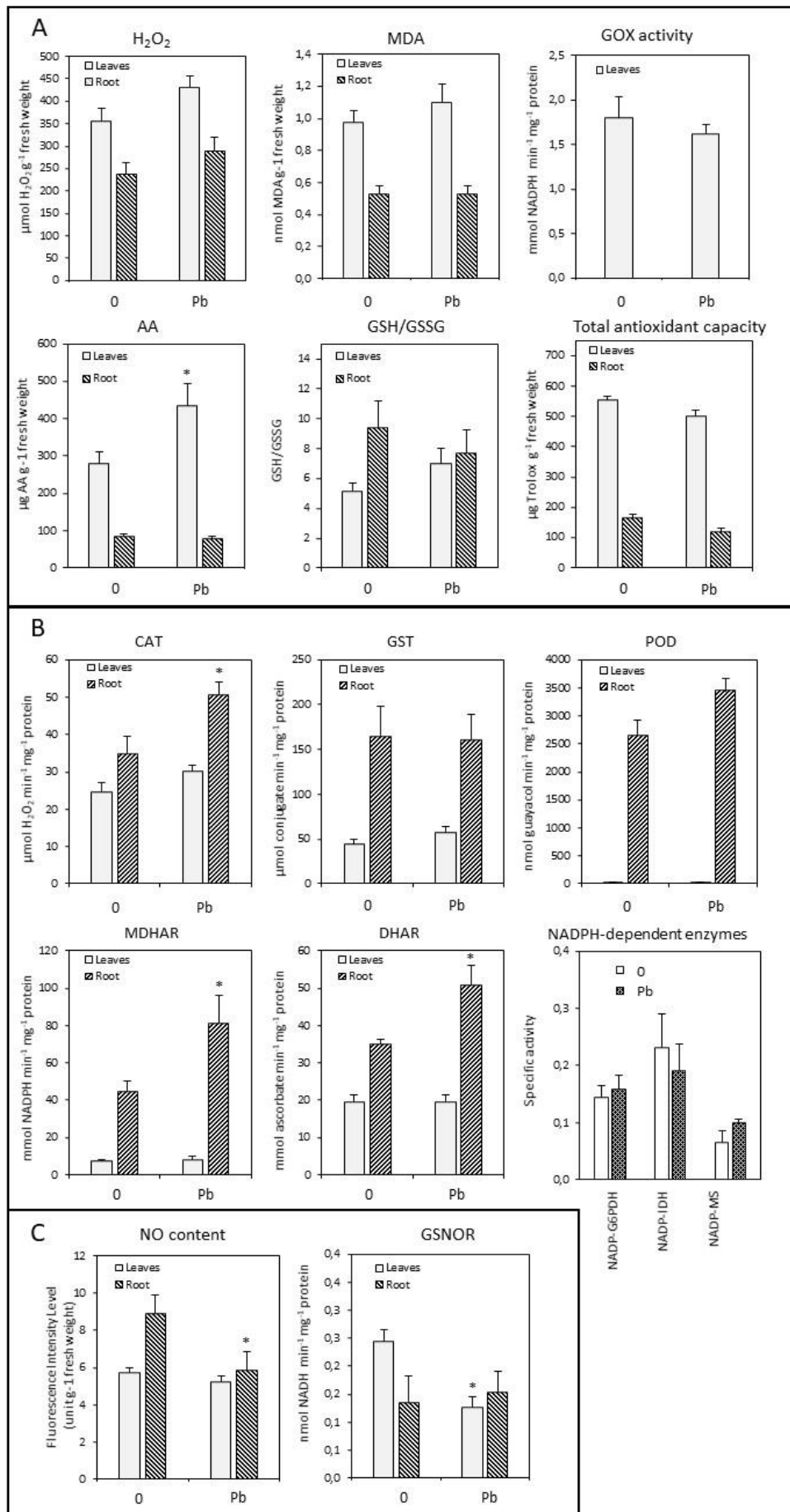
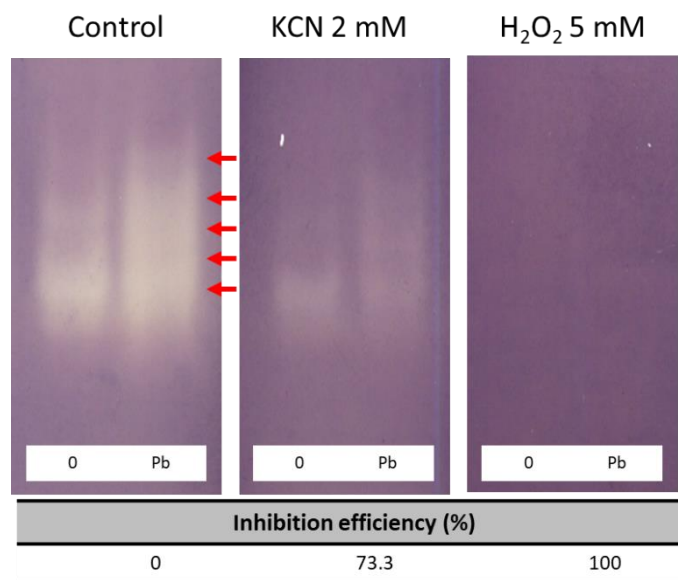
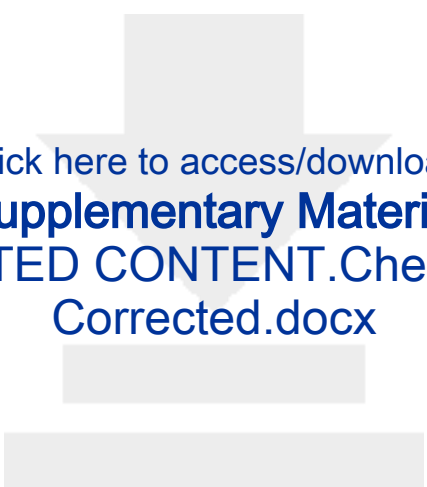


Figure 5. Effects of Pb (125 μ M) on SOD activity analysed by native-PAGE. Inhibitory efficiency of KCN 2 mM and H₂O₂ 5 mM is shown. (Single column)





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