

1 **Metabolic responses to desalination brine discharges in field-**
2 **transplanted *Posidonia oceanica*: advances for the development of**
3 **specific early warning biomarkers**

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21 **Abstract**

22 Water desalination has become an important process to cope with water scarcity in the
23 Mediterranean basin; however, the endemic seagrass *Posidonia oceanica* may be
24 susceptible to high-salinity brines derived from this industry. To understand how brine
25 affects metabolic processes in *P. oceanica*, transplantation experiments were performed
26 in two sites exposed to a brine dilution plume derived from a desalination plant in
27 Alicante (Spain). *P. oceanica* individuals were transplanted in three locations, i.e., a
28 control site (~37 psu), an intermediate influence site (IB, ~39.5 psu), and a high-
29 influence site (HB, ~42 psu), and were monitored for 6 days. The metabolic endpoints

30 of reactive oxygen species (i.e., H₂O₂, lipid peroxidation, and ascorbate cycle) and the
31 regulation of genes involved in antioxidant and osmoregulation responses [*please*
32 *complete sentence*]. The concentration of H₂O₂ and thiobarbituric acid reactive
33 substances (TBARS) increased, while that of ascorbate (ASC) decreased in HB,
34 indicating excessive ROS production, lipid peroxidation, and antioxidant consumption.
35 Genes related to osmoregulation (*SOS1*, *SOS3*, *AKT2/3*) and antioxidant response (*GR*,
36 *APX*, *FeSOD*, *MnSOD*, and *STRK1*) were upregulated in brine-exposed plants,
37 especially at the early stages of the experiment. This novel approach has provided a
38 battery of biomarkers that may serve as early warning tools for rapid action mitigation
39 to avoid the negative effects of salinity on *P. oceanica* at the population and community
40 levels. This approach can be also globally applied to relevant macrophytes in
41 environmental monitoring programs to address other stressors and their isolated or
42 combined contribution to marine pollution.

43 Keywords: Seagrass; Desalination; Oxidative stress; Gene expression; biomonitoring

44 **Introduction**

45 Coastal areas (i.e., ~100 km from the shoreline) are inhabited by 40% of world's
46 population, with a higher human presence in the tropical and temperate regions
47 (Barragán & de Andrés, 2015). As a result, numerous human activities taking place in
48 these areas can harm the marine environment, especially the shallow coastal ecosystems
49 (e.g., coastal development, sewage loads, and plastic pollution) (Crain et al., 2009).
50 Moreover, temperate areas are among the most vulnerable to water scarcity in the
51 context of global warming, as a result of changes in precipitation rates, groundwater
52 salinization, and increased demand of freshwater (Huang et al., 2021; Kummu et al.,
53 2016; van Vliet et al., 2021). The development and implementation of desalination
54 technologies, especially seawater reverse osmosis (SWRO) plants, seems to be a
55 promising solution to address water scarcity in these regions of the world. However, the
56 environmental impact associated with the discharge of brines produced by the
57 desalination process into coastal waters is currently causing the greatest concern and is
58 attracting increasing attention. Brines are the residue of the SWRO process and consist
59 mostly of concentrated seawater, which, without pre-dilution, can double the natural
60 salinity levels of the discharges (Fernández-Torquemada et al., 2009). These brines may
61 also contain trace concentrations of nutrients, metals as well as chemical compounds

62 used in the desalination process (e.g., antifouling, antifoaming agents, and biocides).
63 However, recent findings have suggested that most biological impacts associated with
64 brines are mainly caused by increased salinity (Blanco-Murillo et al., 2023b). Brine
65 production has increased globally from 11.6 million m³/day in 2000 to 95 million
66 m³/day in 2018 (Jones et al., 2019), especially in mid-latitude populated regions, such as
67 the Mediterranean basin (Darre & Toor, 2018; Jones et al., 2019; Palomar & Losada,
68 2010). Therefore, the development of the desalination industry and its expected global
69 growth in the future require a deeper understanding of the associated impacts on marine
70 ecosystems and the improvement of the current protocols used for environmental
71 monitoring.

72 Among the vulnerable marine ecosystems affected by brine discharges, seagrass
73 meadows are one of the most studied (Fernández-Torquemada et al., 2019; Sandoval-
74 Gil et al., 2023; Xevgenos et al., 2021). This is because seagrasses play an essential
75 ecological role as habitat-forming species, provide numerous ecosystem services, and
76 are particularly vulnerable to environmental change (de los Santos et al., 2020;
77 Unsworth et al., 2014). In fact, salinity is one of the most relevant factors determining
78 the distribution, ecology, and development of seagrasses (Sandoval-Gil et al., 2023).
79 Most studies investigating the effect of increased salinity on seagrasses have been
80 limited to mesocosm experiments using artificial salts (Blanco-Murillo et al., 2023;
81 Cambridge et al., 2017; Marín-Guirao et al., 2013), and only a few field studies have
82 been conducted in seagrass meadows close to the brine discharge area prior to its
83 regression (Sola et al., 2020; Capó et al., 2020; Gacia et al., 2007; Portillo et al., 2014;
84 Ruiz et al., 2009). Moreover, the field studies have mainly focused on population
85 metrics (e.g., percentage cover, shoot density), shoot morphometry (e.g., growth, foliar
86 surface, necrosis marks), or physiology (e.g., nutrient concentration, carbohydrate
87 content), while information is lacking about the effects of brine-associated hypersalinity
88 at the sub-cellular and metabolic levels (biomarkers) (Roca et al., 2016; Sandoval-Gil et
89 al., 2023; Tsioli et al., 2022). In this regard, the use of experimental transplants may
90 allow the most reliable simulation of natural conditions while modifying the intensity of
91 the studied stressor (Garrote-Moreno, Fernández-Torquemada, et al., 2014; Muñoz et
92 al., 2023; Rodríguez-Rojas et al., 2020). Moreover, it has been demonstrated that the
93 combination of a well-designed field transplantation with the analysis of sub-cellular
94 and metabolic responses is the most effective strategy serving as an early warning tool.

95 Specifically, these responses can be linked to physiological and ecological effects
96 caused by adverse phenomena at the individual or population levels (Ankley et al.,
97 2010) and can be also used to attribute the consequences of a response to specific
98 stressors when several are present at the same time (Muñoz et al., 2023; Rodríguez-
99 Rojas et al., 2020; Sáez et al., 2015). Most of these experiments have been conducted
100 using macroalgae; therefore, it is necessary to address the potential usefulness of
101 biomarkers in transplanted seagrasses as environmental biotechnology tools, especially
102 in the context of desalination discharges.

103 *Posidonia oceanica* is the most abundant and ecologically relevant seagrass species in
104 the Mediterranean Sea (Sandoval-Gil et al., 2023). This seagrass is a stenohaline
105 organism with a narrow optimal salinity range of 37–38.5 practical salinity units (psu)
106 for a normal physiological development (Fernández-Torquemada et al., 2005; Sánchez
107 Lizaso et al 2008; Ruiz et al., 2009), although certain populations were shown to be able
108 to thrive at higher salinity levels (up to 51.5 psu) (Azcarate-García et al., 2023;
109 Mancuso et al., 2023; Marín-Guirao et al., 2017; Nguyen et al., 2023). Increases in
110 salinity have been shown to alter ion composition in *P. oceanica* and cause
111 physiological stress beyond certain threshold levels (e.g., photochemical depletion and
112 growth reduction, among others) (Garrote-Moreno et al., 2015; Sandoval-Gil et al.,
113 2012). However, the sub-cellular mechanisms adopted by this seagrass to cope with
114 osmotic stress are poorly understood. A study by Blanco-Murillo et al. (2023a) on
115 *Zostera chilensis* based on mesocosm experiments revealed that, under hypersaline
116 exposure (+3 and +6 psu), this species displayed a higher production of reactive oxygen
117 species (ROS) and antioxidants as well as a higher expression of genes related to ROS
118 metabolism (ROM) and osmotic regulation. More recently, similar responses have been
119 detected in *P. oceanica* exposed to real desalination brine (+6 psu) (Blanco-Murillo et
120 al., 2023b). The results of the above studies highlight the potential of testing these
121 responses as environmental biotechnology tools for the early detection and mitigation of
122 environmental distress, serving also as biomarkers to evaluate the specific effects of
123 desalination brine on seagrasses.

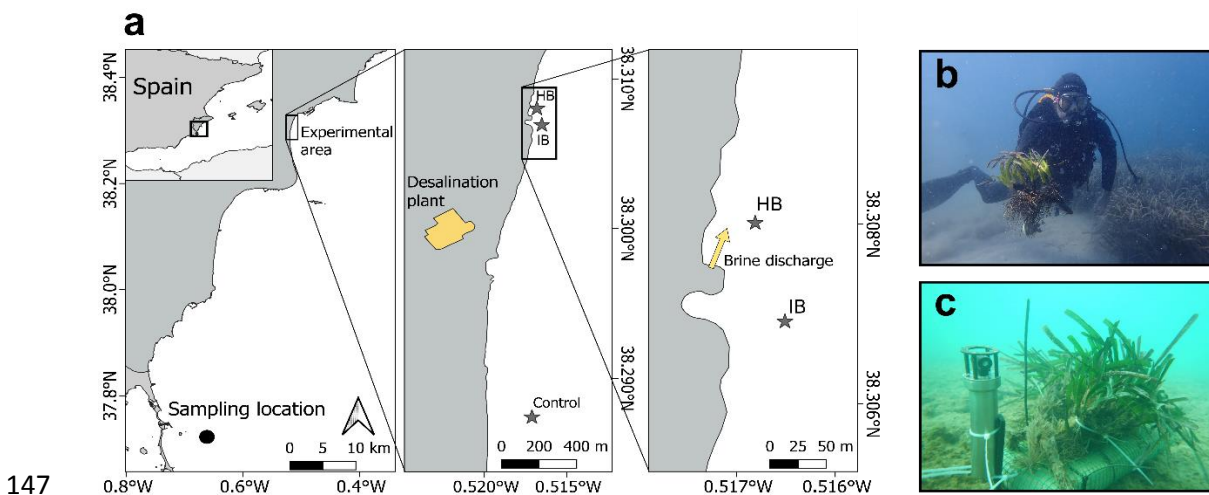
124 The aim of this study was to determine the responses of *P. oceanica* to intermediate and
125 high exposure to a real brine discharge and assess its metabolic and cellular tolerance
126 mechanisms and thresholds. To this end, *P. oceanica* was transplanted along a salinity
127 gradient in the area of influence of brine discharges released from a SWRO desalination

128 plant, and the response of the transplants was studied for up to 6 days. Transplantation
129 experiments allow to recreate a natural environment under specific known conditions;
130 for example, in this case a *P. oceanica* meadow suddenly exposed to a brine discharge.
131 Specifically, we i) evaluated ROS production, oxidative damage, antioxidant content,
132 and osmotic biochemical and molecular responses in plants at different salinity
133 thresholds following exposure to the brine dilution plume, and ii) determined the
134 suitability of these descriptors as biomarkers to monitor the extent of desalination brine
135 discharges and predict their potential impacts.

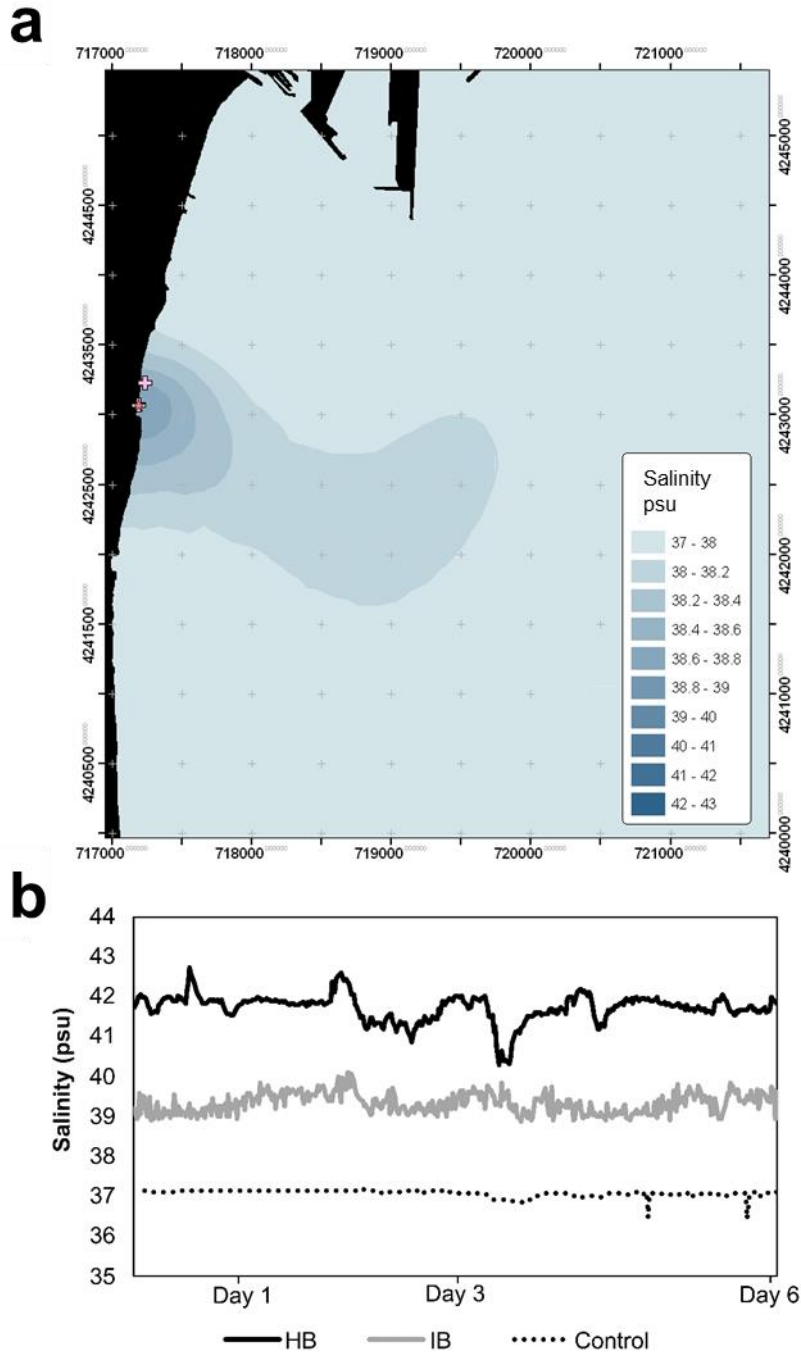
136 **Materials and Methods**

137 *1. Study location and experimental design*

138 The experimental sites were selected at the same depth (3 m) after performing salinity
139 measurements using a conductivity-temperature-depth meter (CTD; RBR Concerto,
140 RBR, Canada). Three different locations were chosen based on historical data
141 (Fernández-Torquemada et al., 2005) and continuous measurements made using a
142 conductivity and temperature meter (CT; ALEC Infinity, Alec Electronics, Japan)
143 during the transplantation experiments. The first was a control location with regular
144 salinity levels (~37 psu), while the other two were sites characterized by intermediate
145 brine exposure (IB; ~39.5 psu) and high brine exposure (HB; ~42 psu) (Figs. 1a and
146 2b). The experiments were conducted between November 20 and 27, 2021.



148 **Figure 1:** Maps showing the donor meadow (sampling location) and the experimental area (a). The arrow
149 indicates the brine discharge point, and IB and HB represent the intermediate and high brine exposure
150 sites, respectively. On the right-hand side are included images of a SCUBA diver sampling *P. oceanica*
151 ramets (b) and a sample of a transplantation unit in the field (c).



152

153 **Figure 2:** Salinity of the brine discharge plume measured using a CTD instrument at a desalination plant
 154 in Alicante (a). Salinity data recorded in the experimental sites using a conductivity and temperature (CT)
 155 meter during the experimental period (b).

156 Plants were collected from a healthy meadow (Isla Grossa, Murcia), a Specially
 157 Protected Area of Mediterranean Importance, and transported in darkness and under
 158 constant aeration to the experimental area (Alicante) within 4 h (Fig. 1a). Two *P.*
 159 *oceanica* ramets consisting of one plagiotropic and 15–25 orthotropic shoots were
 160 attached to a concrete anchor fitted with a transplantation unit (TU). All transplants

161 were closely placed in the control location for a 7-day acclimation period and
162 subsequently transported by divers to the HB and IB experimental sites, which were
163 located 71 m and 103 m from the discharge area, respectively (Fig. 2a). Three TUs were
164 installed by SCUBA divers at each site (Fig. 1c). The desalination plant of Alicante
165 releases discharge waters directly to the shore through an open channel. The brine flow
166 oscillates between 800 and 1400 l/s and is partially diluted at a ratio of 1.5–5 parts of
167 seawater to each part of brine. A detailed description of the discharge and plume
168 characteristics is included in Fernández-Torquemada et al. (2009).

169 Leaf samples were collected 1, 3, and 6 days after the start of the transplantation
170 experiments. The first two mature leaves of a single shoot from both individuals in each
171 TU were sampled each day. The first 5 cm as well as the leaf apex were removed before
172 storing the sample to avoid response variability due to leaf age (Ruocco et al., 2019).
173 The tissue destined for biochemical analyses was rapidly frozen in liquid nitrogen and
174 subsequently transported to the laboratory and stored at -80°C , while the samples to be
175 subjected to relative gene expression analysis were stored in RNeasy (Invitrogen™),
176 kept at 4°C for 24 h and then stored at -20°C , according to the manufacturer's
177 instructions.

178 2. *Hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) determination*

179 The H_2O_2 content in *P. oceanica* leaf tissues was determined using a modified version
180 of the protocol described in Sáez et al. (2015). The samples were ground using liquid
181 nitrogen before analysis, and 20 mg was added to 100 μL of 10% trichloroacetic acid
182 (TCA), 150 μL of 10 mM potassium phosphate buffer (pH 7.0), 50 μL of FAPRB lysis
183 buffer from the FavorPrep™ Plant Total RNA Mini Kit (FAVORGEN), and 500 μL of
184 1 M potassium iodide. The samples were then vortexed for 15 min using glass beads (3
185 mm) and centrifuged for 15 min at $12,000 \times g$ and 4°C . Their absorbance was measured
186 at 392 nm using a spectrophotometer SpectroStar Nano (BMG LABTECH). Standard
187 curves were obtained using commercial H_2O_2 (Sigma Aldrich Merck, St Louis, MO,
188 USA).

189 3. *Determination of thiobarbituric acid reactive species (TBARS)*

190 ROS production can lead to lipid peroxidation in the cellular membrane.
191 Polyunsaturated fatty acids are oxidized by hydroxyl radicals ($\cdot\text{OH}$) leading to the
192 production of malondialdehyde (MDA), which can be determined by reaction with

193 thiobarbituric acid (TBA). A total of 20 mg of ground biomass using liquid nitrogen
194 was added to 500 μ L of 10 % trichloroacetic acid (TCA) and vortexed for 15 min using
195 glass beads (3 mm). The mixture was then centrifuged at 17800 \times g for 15 min at 4°C.
196 Subsequently, 200 μ L of supernatant was removed and added to 200 μ L of 0.5 % TBA,
197 and the solution was incubated for 30 min at 90°C. Absorbance was measured by taking
198 of 200 μ L to a microplate reader (SpectroStar Nano, BMG LABTECH) at 532 nm.
199 Commercial MDA (Sigma Aldrich Merck, St Louis, MO, USA) was used to obtain
200 standard curves.

201 4. Ascorbate (ASC) and dehydroascorbate (DHA) contents

202 As an indicator of the antioxidant capacity of *P. oceanica*, the ASC and DHA forms of
203 total ASC (reduced and oxidized, respectively) were determined following the protocol
204 by Benzie and Strain (1999) with some modifications. First, to measure ASC, 10 mg of
205 ground biomass using liquid nitrogen was added with 300 μ L of 0.1 M HCl and 300 μ L
206 of FAPRB lysis buffer from the FavorPrep™ Plant Total RNA Mini Kit
207 (FAVORGEN). Samples were then vortexed for 10 min and centrifuged at 21000 \times g for
208 10 min at 4°C. Subsequently, 10 μ L of the supernatant was removed and added to 290
209 μ L of FRAP buffer [300 mM sodium acetate buffer at pH 3.6, 20 mM FeCl₃, and 10
210 mM 2,4,6-tripyridyl-s-triazine (TPTZ)]. This solution reacted with ASC forming a
211 colorimetric complex that was measured spectrophotometrically at 593 nm (BMG
212 LABTECH). Second, total ASC was obtained by reducing 250 μ L of supernatant with
213 2.5 μ L of 100 mM dithiothreitol (DTT) and incubating the solution for 1 h at room
214 temperature. After incubation, 2.5 μ L (w/v) of N-ethylmaleimide was added to stop the
215 DTT-mediated reaction. Then, 10 μ L of extract was again added to 290 μ L of FRAP
216 buffer and measured at 593 nm. DHA content was determined by calculating the
217 difference between total ASC and ASC. L-ASC (Sigma Aldrich Merck, St Louis, MO,
218 USA) was used to obtain standard curves.

219 5. RNA extraction and qPCR

220 A set of nine genes of interest related to antioxidant defense and osmoregulatory
221 mechanisms were examined in terms of their response in *P. oceanica* under different
222 brine exposures (Tab. 1). It should be noted that these selected genes had been already
223 successfully tested in terms of their response to brine-mediated increased salinities in *P.*
224 *oceanica* in recent mesocosm experiments (Blanco-Murillo et al., 2023b). Leaf samples

225 were selected as defined by Blanco-Murillo et al. (2023b), taking the first mature leaf of
 226 each individual and cutting out a 4-cm fragment after removing the first 5 cm and leaf
 227 apex. Samples were stored in RNeasy lysis buffer at 4°C for 24 h and were then frozen at -20°C.
 228 A total of 50 mg of leaf biomass was powdered using liquid nitrogen, and RNA was
 229 extracted using the Aurum™ Total RNA mini kit (BIORAD) following the
 230 manufacturer's instructions. RNA purity and integrity were assessed using a
 231 spectrophotometer (SpectroStar Nano) at a 260/280 ratio and 1.2% agarose bleach
 232 electrophoresis, respectively.

233 The Quant-iT RiboGreen RNA assay kit (Invitrogen, Waltham, MA, USA) was used to
 234 determine RNA concentration by fluorescence in a QFX fluorometer (DeNovix,
 235 Wilmington, DE, USA). Samples were then standardized using 350 ng of RNA before
 236 synthesizing cDNA using a cDNA Reverse Transcription Kit (Applied Biosystems,
 237 Thermo Fischer Scientific) with a final sample volume of 20 µL. The PCR (qPCR)
 238 solution was prepared by adding 2 µL of cDNA to 0.5 µL of each primer (forward and
 239 reverse), 10 µL of Green PCR Mix SYBR (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA,
 240 USA), and 7 µL of nuclease-free water. The reaction was performed on a qPCR
 241 Magnetic Induction Cycler (MIC; Bio Molecular Systems, Queensland, Australia) under
 242 the following conditions: initial denaturation at 95°C for 5 min, annealing consisting of
 243 40 cycles of 95°C for 10 s, 55°C for 10 s, 72°C for 40 s, and final extension at 72°C for
 244 10 min. The quantification cycle (Cq) values of each gene were subsequently used to
 245 determine relative gene expression based on the $2^{-\Delta\Delta C_t}$ method (Livak & Schmittgen,
 246 2001):

247
$$\text{Fold expression change (FC)} = 2^{(|(-\Delta C_q \text{ treatment}) - (-\Delta C_q \text{ control})|)}$$

248 To measure FC, 18S rRNA was chosen as a housekeeping gene, as indicated in Serra et
 249 al. (2012) and confirmed in Blanco-Murillo et al. (2023b).

250 Table 1: List of the *P. oceanica* genes of interest analyzed via qPCR.

Gene	Coding protein	Sequence 5'-3'
<i>STRK1</i>	Salt tolerance receptor-like cytoplasmic kinase 1	CGCCGCGCTCCAACCAAGGA
		CGACGTGGAGCCGCTCGCTT
<i>CAT</i>	Catalase	CTCCGGCCGTCTCGGCCTTG
		GTGCTCCGTGGCGGCACTCT
<i>Mn SOD</i>	Mn Superoxide dismutase	CGGCTCGAGCGCGCCGTAAT

		GAAGCTCCCACGCCCCGCACA
<i>Fe SOD</i>	Fe Superoxide dismutase	TGGTATCCCAGAGTTTGGCGGCTCA
		TGGAGTGGCACCCCTCGCCTCA
<i>APX</i>	L-ascorbate peroxidase	CGCCTCGCGTGGCATTGAGC
		TCAGGCCCGCCGGTGATCTC
<i>GR</i>	Glutathione reductase	AGGAAGCCCAGAAAGTGTTGCCT
		TCCCAGCCACCAATAGCTCAAGT
<i>SOS1</i>	Salt overlay sensitive 1 Sodium/hydrogen exchanger 7	TGGGTTCTGGCATCCGTCTTTGGG
		GGGCAACGACAGCAACAGGATCGG
<i>SOS3</i>	Salt overlay sensitive 3	TGTTTCTGGTTCTTGATGCTGCTCTGC
		TCTTCCTTGTGAATGAGCCCGTCGT
<i>AKT2/3</i>	Potassium channel AKT2/3	ACCTCGTCAGCGAAGCCCTCGAA
		CCGCGGATGAGGCCCATGACC
<i>18S</i>	Ribosomal RNA 18S	GAGAAGGAAGCTGCTGAAATG
		GAACAGCACAATCAGCCTGAG

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252 6. Statistical analyses

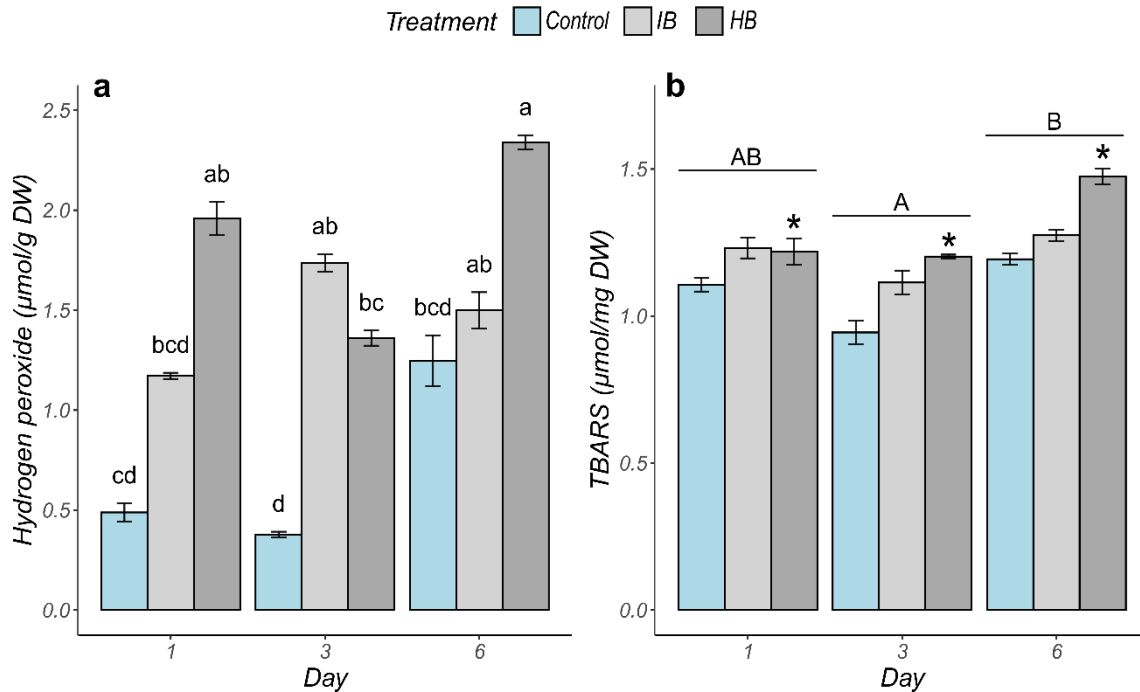
253 A two-way ANOVA was performed with treatment (three levels: control, HB, and IB)
 254 and time (three levels: 1, 3, and 6 days) as fixed factors to determine differences in the
 255 responses of all measured parameters. Data normality and homoscedasticity were tested
 256 using the Kolmogorov–Smirnov and Bartlett tests, respectively (Underwood, 1997).
 257 The post-hoc Tukey-HSD test was conducted to determine the statistical significance of
 258 differences between means.

259 Results

260 1. ROS production and oxidative damage

261 H₂O₂ levels in *P. oceanica* leaf tissues revealed a significant interaction between
 262 treatment and time factors. The HB group showed significantly higher values compared
 263 to the control in all sampling days, while the values for the IB group were significantly
 264 higher than those in the control plants only at day 3 (Fig. 3a). Overall, the H₂O₂ values
 265 were higher on day 6 than on days 1 and 3, especially in the HB group. TBARS analysis
 266 revealed significantly higher lipid peroxidation levels in the HB treatment compared to

267 the control and IB. As for the effect of time, all treatments showed significantly higher
 268 H₂O₂ levels on day 6 compared with day 3, but not with day 1 (Fig. 3b).

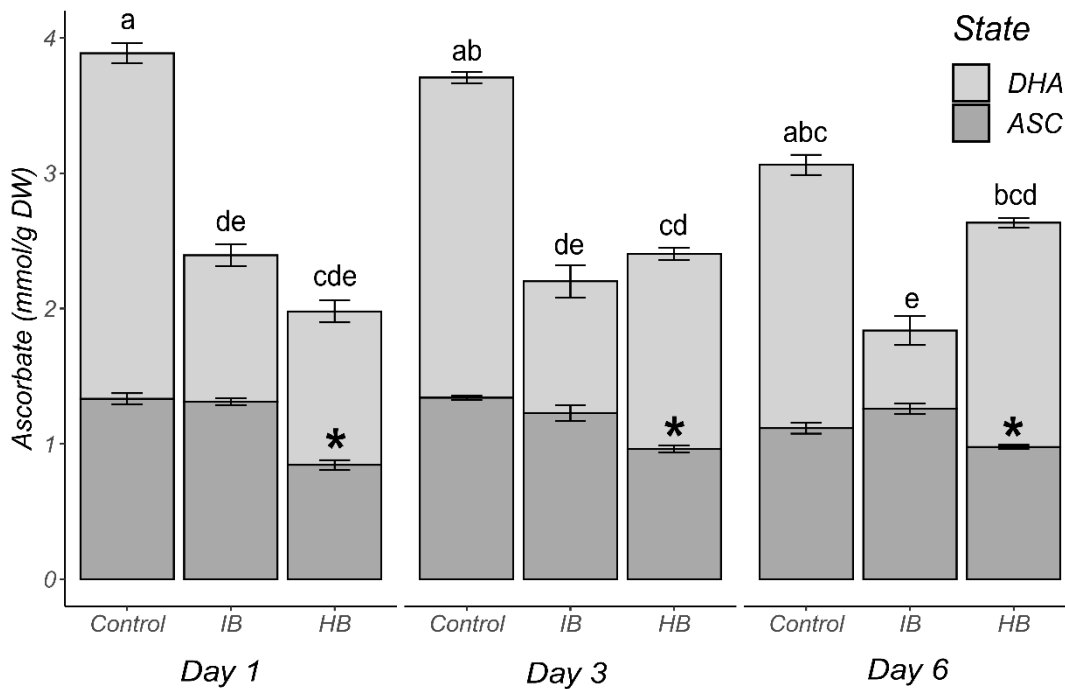


269
 270 **Figure 3:** Hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) (a) and TBARS (b) contents in *P. oceanica* leaf samples from the
 271 three experimental treatments: Control (~37 psu), IB (~39 psu), and HB (~42 psu). Barplots represent the
 272 mean of each variable, and error bars show the standard error. Uppercase letters represent significant
 273 differences at the 95% confidence interval ($p < .05$) between days 1, 3, and 6. Lowercase letters represent
 274 significant differences between groups when the interaction factor was significant. Asterisks (*) indicate
 275 significant differences between treatments.

276 2. Antioxidant levels

277 Despite the significant differences detected, total ASC (ASC + DHA) was lower in both
 278 brine exposure treatments (IB and HB) compared to the control; however, at day 6, the
 279 values in HB were not significantly different from those in the control. Moreover, the
 280 total ASC values in the control and IB treatments displayed a decreasing trend with
 281 time, while the opposite pattern was observed for HB (Fig. 4). ASC levels presented
 282 significant differences for the treatment factor, but with a decreasing trend only in plants
 283 under HB, and relatively constant values between days (Fig. 4). DHA levels were
 284 significantly higher in the control than in brine-exposed plants (HB and IB) on days 1
 285 and 3, while on day 6, they were lower in IB plants than in the control and HB plants. In

286 general, DHA levels were higher than ASC levels in the control compared to the pattern
 287 observed in the brine-exposed plants throughout the experimental period (Fig. 4).



288

289 **Figure 4:** ASC and DHA levels in *P. oceanica* leaves in the three experimental treatments: Control (~37
 290 psu), IB (~39 psu), and HB (~42 psu). Barplots represent the mean of each variable, and error bars show
 291 the standard error. Lowercase letters represent significant differences ($p < .05$) between groups when
 292 factor interaction was significant. Asterisks (*) indicate significant differences between treatments.

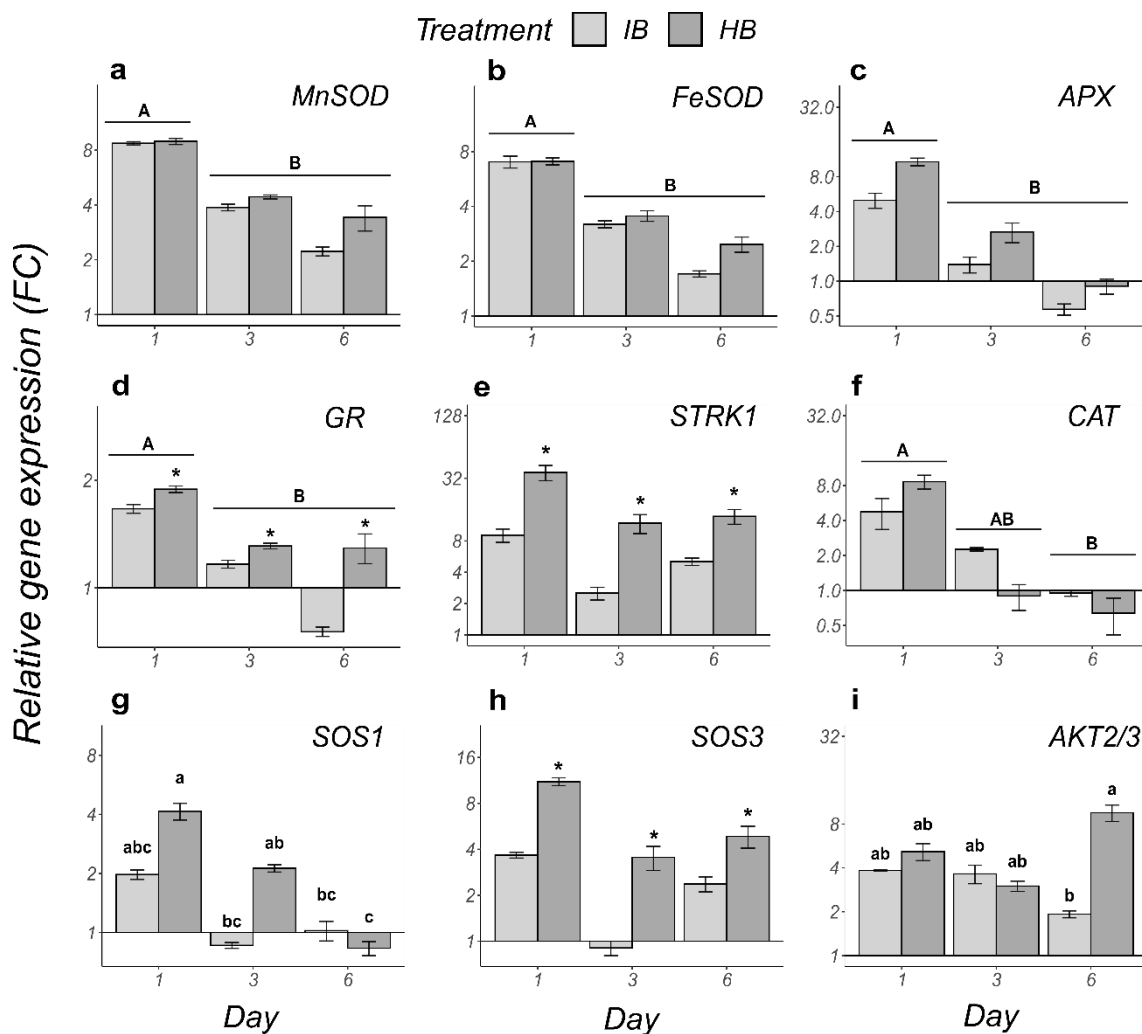
293

294 3. Expression of genes related to osmotic and oxidative stress regulation

295 In regard to genes involved in the oxidative stress response, a general expression
 296 structure was observed throughout the experimental period. The brine-exposed plants at
 297 IB and HB showed the highest levels of expression at day 1 after transplantation, which
 298 decreased significantly at days 3 and 6 (Fig. 5 a-f). Beyond general patterns,
 299 downregulation was observable at both brine-influenced sites for *APX* and *CAT* only at
 300 day 6 (Fig. 5c and f, respectively) and at IB for *GR*. Indeed, *GR* and *STRK1* were the
 301 only oxidative response genes to present a significantly higher expression in HB than IB
 302 at all experimental times (Fig. 5d and e).

303 In regard to the genes involved in osmotic regulation, in both brine-exposed sites, *SOS1*
 304 exhibited downregulation throughout the experimental period, with a slight recovery

305 observed on day 6 in IB. Although no statistical differences were detected, HB plants
 306 presented higher relative expression levels on days 1 and 3 (Fig. 5g). *SOS3* was more
 307 expressed in HB plants than in IB plants throughout the experimental period, although
 308 the gene expression trend declined until day 6 (Fig. 5h). Even though no patterns were
 309 observed at days 1 and 3, *AKT* was significantly more upregulated in HB plants than in
 310 IB plants at day 6 (Fig. 5i). *STRK1* showed a more significant upregulation in HB plants
 311 than in IB plants throughout the experimental period. A slight decrease in the
 312 expression of this gene was detected at day 3 and 6 compared to day 1, maintaining the
 313 pattern of upregulation in HB (Fig. 5d).



314

315 **Figure 5:** Relative levels of expression of genes related to osmotic regulation and oxidative stress in *P.*
 316 *oceanica* under two salinity exposures in the field, i.e., IB (~39 psu), and HB (~42 psu), compared to the
 317 control treatment. The expression of the following genes was measured: *MnSOD* (a); *FeSOD* (b), *APX*
 318 (c), *GR* (d), *STRK1* (e), *CAT* (f), *SOS1* (g), *SOS3*(h), and *AKT2/3* (i). Uppercase letters represent
 319 significant differences at the 95% confidence interval ($p < .05$) between days (1, 3, and 6). Lowercase

320 letters represent significant differences between groups when factor interaction was significant. Asterisks
321 (*) show significant differences between treatments.

322

323 **Discussion**

324 This study examined the cellular and molecular responses of *P. oceanica* growing in
325 two sites exposed to brine effluents derived from a seawater desalination plant. Leaf
326 tissues in the brine-influenced sites accumulated ROS, showed signs of oxidative
327 damage, and exhibited a reduction in some of their resources for cellular antioxidant
328 defense. These effects were proportional to the degree of influence of the brine
329 discharge and were therefore more pronounced in plants closer to the discharge point
330 and exposed to higher salinity levels (~42 psu vs ~39.5 psu). The activation of genes
331 related to osmoregulatory mechanisms was also directly correlated with brine exposure,
332 as these genes were activated in proportion to the salinity level experienced by the
333 plants. The transcription of oxidative stress genes was more evident after 1 day of
334 exposure, reflecting a rapid response to oxidative stress under hypersaline conditions.

335 In seagrasses, H₂O₂ increments as a consequence of hypersalinity have been reported in
336 *Thalassia tesudinum* exposed to salinities of +15 psu above natural levels for 14 days
337 (Trevathan et al., 2011) and in *Zostera chilensis* exposed to salinities of +3 and +6 psu
338 above baseline salinities (Blanco-Murillo et al., 2023). However, the study by Blanco-
339 Murillo et al. (2023b) under mesocosm conditions showed that *P. oceanica* exposed to
340 salinities of up to +6 psu above the standard 37 psu due to brine discharge from a
341 desalination plant did not exhibit any increase in H₂O₂ levels. In contrast, in this
342 experimental study on field, the H₂O₂ levels in *P. oceanica* were higher than those in
343 the control even in sites with lower salinities (39 and 42 psu) compared to the 43 psu
344 used in Blanco-Murillo et al. (2023b). Hydrodynamics, herbivory (which was observed
345 during sample collection), and water turbidity could be main environmental factors
346 contributing to ROS production in *P. oceanica* transplants. Moreover, in Alicante bay,
347 several anthropogenic activities have historically co-occurred with the operation of the
348 desalination plant, causing the *P. oceanica* meadow to decline in the last decades
349 (Blanco-Murillo et al., 2022) and potentially increasing stress responses due to the
350 influence of other coastal activities (e.g., sewage discharges).

351 Once in the cytosol, H₂O₂ can be transformed into hydroxyl radicals (\cdot OH) via the
352 Fenton reaction (Bartosz, 1997). These reactive ROS can interact with plasmatic
353 membranes, and this interaction can be measured as TBARS levels, which represent a
354 proxy of lipid peroxidation (i.e., oxidative damage). In this study, lipid peroxidation was
355 higher in HB plants and increased at day 6, which indicated that the intensity and
356 duration of brine exposure were directly related to ROS production and oxidative
357 damage. Previous results from the mesocosm experiment by Blanco-Murillo et al.
358 (2023b) also showed higher lipid peroxidation under a brine exposure of +6 psu,
359 although it was stable throughout the 10-day experimental period. On the other hand,
360 Capó et al. (2020) showed that in a local population of *P. oceanica* under the influence
361 of brine discharges, TBARS levels increased by 54.5% and 108.3% at +1.5 and +2.8
362 psu above natural levels, respectively. Even though laboratory experiments used brine
363 exposures with salinities as high as +6 psu above natural levels (Blanco et al. 2023b),
364 lipid peroxidation has been observed to be greater in local *P. oceanica* populations
365 (Capó et al. 2020) and transplanted *P. oceanica* (i.e., this investigation) nearby
366 desalination discharges. In terms of observed effects, Capó et al. (2020) reported shorter
367 leaves in the site closest to the brine discharge, which was also observed in *P. oceanica*
368 by Gacía et al. (2007) and attributed to enhanced herbivory by the fish *Sarpa salpa* and
369 the sea urchin *Paracentrotus lividus*. In this study, although measurements were not
370 made, signs of herbivory and shorter leaves were observed in the *P. oceanica*
371 transplants at the HB site (Fig. S1). Moreover, it is important to consider that several
372 studies have reported higher diversity and/or abundances of fish nearby desalination
373 discharges, and the reasons for this phenomenon are still not fully understood (Kelaheer
374 et al., 2020; Sola et al., 2020). The mechanic constrains and tissue destruction caused by
375 herbivory may be an added pressure to other anthropogenic impacts that can manifest in
376 greater lipid peroxidation in local or transplanted *P. oceanica* growing near desalination
377 discharge areas.

378 To manage the oxidative damage caused by the exposure to harmful brine levels, *P.*
379 *oceanica* cells attempt to scavenge H₂O₂ via enzymatic and non-enzymatic antioxidant
380 mechanisms. In this study, HB plants showed reduced ASC levels, suggesting that this
381 antioxidant enzyme was consumed to cope with ROS production triggered by brine and
382 other factors. Blanco-Murillo et al. (2023b) had also detected a significant ASC
383 consumption in *P. oceanica* under mesocosm conditions, which further confirms the

384 important role of this antioxidant in the defense of this seagrass against ROS produced
385 under hypersaline and stressful conditions. The decrease of total ASC (ASC+DHA) in
386 the leaves of plants exposed to brine could be due to an impairment of both the
387 metabolic recycling and de novo synthesis of this antioxidant in *P. oceanica* cells. In
388 fact, ASC synthesis is highly dependent on the functioning of the electron transport
389 chain (Millar et al., 2003), which is very sensitive to ionic stress caused by increased
390 salinity. This dependence was observed in the lower electron transport rates in *Z.*
391 *chilensis* under +3 and +6 psu hypersaline conditions (Blanco-Murillo et al., 2023a).
392 Therefore, considering also the presence of other potential environmental pressures, the
393 ASC values detected were consistent with the effects exerted by brine in the study area.

394 The superoxide ion (O_2^-) is the first ROS formed in stressed plants (Bose et al., 2014),
395 and its conversion to H_2O_2 is catalyzed by FeSOD in the chloroplasts and MnSOD in
396 the mitochondria (Van Camp et al., 1995). Our results revealed that *MnSOD* and
397 *FeSOD* were markedly upregulated at the early stages of exposure to brine in IB and
398 HB plants, and their expression later decreased. This finding corresponded with the
399 results regarding the regulation of these genes obtained by Blanco-Murillo et al. (2023b)
400 in the mesocosm experiments at 43 psu. Interestingly, Capó et al. (2020) measured the
401 lowest SOD activity in local *P. oceanica* at the site with higher salinity within the brine-
402 influenced area; in contrast, non-enzymatic ROS scavenging mechanisms were the
403 strongest at the site with highest salinity. It is known that long-term exposure to
404 environmental pressures, including excessive salinity, can lead to epigenetic
405 modifications in seagrasses and, consequently, to the variation of gene expression
406 patterns (Shen et al., 2022). Indeed, the observed intra-specific differences between the
407 local *P. oceanica* population sampled by Capó et al. (2020), which had been affected by
408 desalination discharges since 1994, and our transplanted *P. oceanica*, which originated
409 from a non-impacted area, in terms of the response to excessive salinity appear to be
410 related to the development of epigenetic adaptations in the former. The decrease in the
411 expression of metal substrate SODs beyond day 1 was also observed in the mesocosm
412 experiments by Blanco-Murillo et al. (2023b) and can be attributed to a sufficient
413 enzyme stock being transcribed at the earliest stage of strong gene upregulation.

414 The signaling protein STRK1 is sensitive to salinity increments and promotes CAT
415 synthesis to cope with excessive H_2O_2 concentrations (Yang & Guo, 2018; Zhou et al.,
416 2018). *STRK1* and *CAT* exhibited a higher relative expression in HB plants, which

417 demonstrated that they played a role in the salinity-dependent mechanism to cope with
418 H₂O₂ production as an osmotic pressure response. Therefore, H₂O₂ concentrations and
419 STRK1 phosphorylation activity appeared to trigger *CAT* transcription, especially on
420 day 1. Both genes exhibited a similar trend of upregulation throughout the
421 transplantation period, which was also observed in previous laboratory experiments
422 (Blanco-Murillo et al., 2023b), confirming their co-dependence. On the other hand,
423 H₂O₂ scavenging is also known to be performed by APX, which reduces H₂O₂ by
424 oxidizing ASC to DHA. ASC can then be restored through the oxidation of reduced
425 glutathione (GSH) to glutathione disulfide (GSSG); in turn, GSSG is reduced back to
426 GSH by glutathione reductase (GR) using NADPH as a substrate, which is all part of
427 the ASC-GSH (or Foyer–Halliwell–Asada) cycle (Foyer & Noctor, 2011). In the present
428 study, *APX* was more upregulated in plants under the HB treatment, which indicated a
429 salinity-correlated transcription. These results are also consistent with lower ASC levels
430 in HB plants, indicating an APX-mediated consumption to cope with H₂O₂ excess. *GR*
431 upregulation was shown to be associated with the activation of GSH regeneration under
432 brine exposure, which has been confirmed to occur in local *P. oceanica* growing near
433 desalination discharge areas (Capó et al., 2020). GSH can be then consumed to restore
434 ASC levels through the Halliwell–Asada cycle. It is important to mention that the
435 patterns of upregulation observed during the transplantation period were in line with
436 those observed in the previous mesocosm experiments (Blanco-Murillo et al., 2023b).
437 However, the levels of expression tended to decrease toward the end of the experiments
438 in the latter, supporting the hypothesis that other environmental pressures in addition to
439 the brine discharges induced the responses observed in this study.

440 In addition to ROM, ion balance is essential for the physiological and metabolic
441 functioning of plants cells. In particular, K⁺ uptake and Na⁺ exclusion are essential
442 mechanisms for seagrasses to cope with brine-derived osmotic pressure, as intracellular
443 Na⁺ excess can be highly toxic (Garrote-Moreno et al., 2014). To defend themselves
444 against toxicity, plant cells have developed signaling mechanisms to prevent osmotic
445 stress, among which the Salt Overlay System (SOS) enzymatic complexes have been
446 demonstrated to be essential. For instance, SOS3 is a Ca²⁺ binding protein that enhances
447 the transcription of *SOS1*, which in turn encodes for a Na⁺/H⁺ antiporter protein. This
448 protein mediates Na⁺ extrusion through the plasmatic membrane, implying the
449 extracellular intake of H⁺ (Hadi & Karimi, 2012; Yang & Guo, 2018). AKT2/3 is a

450 specific transport protein that increases K^+ capture, a process that is essential to
451 maintain plant metabolic functioning (Dennison et al., 2001). K^+ is used as cofactor by
452 enzymes associated with several biochemical pathways, and its substitution by Na^+ can
453 cause severe metabolic impairment (Steven, 1985). In this study, all genes related to
454 osmotic regulation, such as *SOS1*, *SOS3*, and *AKT2/3*, displayed a pattern of marked
455 upregulation at day 1, with greater expression in HB than in IB, followed by a trend of
456 moderate decrease at later sampling times. The exception was *AKT2/3*, which, although
457 being upregulated at day 1, exhibited the highest transcript levels at day 6 in HB plants.
458 Despite the trends in the regulation of these genes were similar to those observed in the
459 previous mesocosms experiments with *P. oceanica* under 43 psu for up to 10 days
460 (Blanco-Murillo et al., 2023b), the decrease in *SOS1*, *SOS3*, and *AKT2/3* regulation in
461 *P. oceanica* transplants after day 1 in our field experiments was less marked. Certainly,
462 overexpression was maintained for most of the time. Therefore, these results obtained
463 are in line with [please specify] and are representative of environmental salinity levels,
464 considering that the *P. oceanica* plants transplanted in this study were subjected to
465 average salinities of 39.5 psu in IB and 42 psu in HB.

466 Overall, the data obtained in this study point to the presence of a battery of biochemical
467 and molecular biomarkers that represent cellular stress, which can be extrapolated to
468 higher levels of biological organization (e.g., physiology, population). The present study
469 comprehensively described a set of reliable brine-monitoring biomarkers in *P. oceanica*,
470 and this strategy can be also applied to other habitat-forming organisms in different
471 temperate and tropical latitudes, such as corals (Marques et al., 2023), macroalgae
472 (Muñoz et al., 2023; Rodríguez-Rojas et al., 2020), and other seagrasses (Blanco-
473 Murillo et al., 2023a; Capó et al., 2020). Moreover, compared with previous mesocosm-
474 derived data, our results showed that using biomarkers related to osmotic and oxidative
475 stress can provide information on brine-specific responses and also identify other
476 potential combined effects when more stressors are present, respectively. While
477 osmoregulatory responses are more specific as a defense against brine discharges
478 (Blanco-Murillo et al. 2023a; Blanco-Murillo et al, 2023b), oxidative stress in
479 seagrasses can be triggered by different isolated and combined environmental stressors
480 other than brines, such as metal pollution, invasive species, or increasing temperatures
481 (Malea et al., 2019; Sureda et al., 2008; Tutar et al., 2017). Therefore, the biomarkers
482 identified in this study can be used to detect changes in osmotic pressure due to brines

483 and identify its specific contribution when multiple stressors are present. In addition,
484 they can provide early warning signs of stress to take action upon eventual further
485 physiological, population, and community affection. The results of this study can
486 contribute to future developments not only in environmental management at
487 desalination plants, but also in the broader fields of aquatic pollution and ecotoxicology.
488 Indeed, next generation sequencing technologies open new possibilities in terms of the
489 identification of biomarkers associated with other stress factors and the establishment of
490 preventive measures. Finally, the findings presented in this study may be applied in the
491 field of bioengineering, for example to develop biosensors. Such technological
492 advancement will allow us to fully ascertain [*please specify what*] and greatly improve
493 aquatic environmental surveys.

494 **Conclusions**

495 The *P. oceanica* plants transplanted near the desalination discharge areas showed signs
496 of oxidative stress and damage. This finding was confirmed by the consumption of
497 antioxidants and by the patterns of gene regulation of enzymes involved in the reactive
498 oxygen metabolism. However, the regulation of specific osmotic regulation genes (i.e.,
499 *SOS1*, *SOS3*, and *AKT2/3*) and the results obtained under controlled conditions in
500 previous investigations demonstrated that the stress experienced by *P. oceanica* was not
501 related only to brine discharges, but was apparently due to a greater extent to other co-
502 existing natural and/or anthropogenic environmental pressures.

503 These descriptors have been successfully tested as biomarkers to monitor the effects of
504 desalination discharges on *P. oceanica*. They should also be applied in the future as part
505 of environmental monitoring programs and incorporated to ad hoc legal frameworks
506 regarding the operation of desalination plants in the Mediterranean Sea.

507

508

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517 F. Blanco-Murillo: Conceptualization, Investigation, Formal analysis, Data curation,
518 Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing. L. Marín-Guirao: Investigation,
519 Data curation, Formal analysis, Writing - review & editing. F. Rodríguez-Rojas:
520 Investigation, Formal analysis, Data curation, Writing - review & editing. E. Carbonell-
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522 Sánchez-Lizaso: Conceptualization, Writing - re- view& editing. C.A. Sáez:
523 Conceptualization, Investigation, Writing - original draft, Writing - review & editing.

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