

1 Article

2 Arsenate Phytoremediation-linked Genes in Egyptian 3 Rice Cultivars as Soil Pollution DNA Geno-Sensor

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19 **Abstract:** Rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) is the most important crop all over the world. It is considered the main
20 food of 50% of the world population especially in Egypt. However, rice not only accumulates some of
21 heavy metals such as cadmium but also accumulate arsenate (As). Arsenic contamination in water and
22 food resulted in many implications for millions of people leading cancer. For that reason, three local rice
23 cultivars; Sakha 102, 103 and 104 were propagated on modified Murashige and Skoog Basal Medium
24 (MS medium) containing elevated concentrations of arsenate (0.1, 1 and 10 mg/l). The three varieties
25 showed different resistant attitudes against arsenate. Extracted messenger RNA (mRNA) from treated
26 and untreated Sakha 104 plantlets was scanned using differential display to demonstrate the
27 differentially expressed genes in response to arsenate contamination. About 100 different RNAs with
28 molecular sizes ranged between 1500 bp - 50 bp were obtained. Seven up-regulated and several down
29 regulated genes were observed. The seven up regulated genes were sequenced and the sequence
30 analysis described four genes are; disease resistance protein RPM1, Epstein-Barr virus EBNA-1-like,
31 Cwff family protein and outer membrane lipoprotein OmlA while the other three genes were
32 hypothetical proteins. The four up regulated genes showed different percentage of similarity with other
33 well identified genes that play role in arsenate phytoremediation such as; arsenate reductase, oxidase
34 and aminoacylase 1. These genes were specifically induced in respond to the presense of arsinate in rice
35 soil and they share in pathway to phytoremidate arsenate by the rice. In future work these genes can be
36 used as geno-sensors for rice grains and soil contamination with As (V).

37 **Key words:** Soil arsenic pollution, Differential Display, Genes resistance and Rice Crop.

38

39 1. Introduction

40 Rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) is among the most important cereals widely grown worldwide. Rice is by far
41 the largest food dietary source of As beside drinking water with elevated As content [1]. It is estimated
42 that 1–24% of the tolerable intake of inorganic As is solely due to the consumption of As-containing rice

43 [2]. It reaches plants grains such as rice and wheat as well as some vegetables and fruits via irrigation
44 with As-contaminated water [3]. The predominant species of As in rice was arsenite (As III) followed by
45 arsenate (As V) with dimethylarsinic acid (DMA) [4].

46 Arsenic has been reported as one of the water and soil pollutants worldwide including Egypt where
47 high arsenic concentrations were detected in the underground water at El-Sharqia governorate [5].
48 Shakoor et al. [6] recorded As concentrations ranged between 1.5–201 µg/l in the groundwater rural areas
49 of Punjab in Pakistan [6] where 53% of groundwater samples (n=62) showed As values higher than WHO
50 safe limit (10 µg/l), it was 50 µg/L in Vietnam [7, 8]. In USA (Hanford) arsenate was determined in the
51 surface soils and ranged from 30 to 270 mg/kg dry wt in the collected samples [9]. Total arsenic
52 concentrations in the soils ranged from 1.6 to 17.1 mg/ kg in chinese soils [10]. Arsenic availability
53 generally increases under flooding conditions, whereas the increase in the redox potential of flooded soils
54 generally reduces As availability to plants [11,12].

55 Arsenic (As) is a bio-available and highly abundant metalloid in the earth's crust (2 mg/kg) in soil
56 [13]. Mining and smelting activities, application of As-based herbicides and insecticides, sheep dips,
57 wood preservatives, dyestuffs and irrigation with As-contaminated ground water/wastewater are the
58 main anthropogenic sources of As soil contamination [14-17]. Rinklebe et al. [19] reported that both of
59 wetland and water-logged soils are a good image for specific ecosystem facilities including; plant habitat
60 and biodiversity, storage of organic carbon and hydrological buffering. The same importance was
61 demonstrated by sediments in aquatic environment at. Trace element such as arsenate (As), Boron, Zn,
62 etc has anthropogenic origin and their distribution and concentration affected by the environmental
63 conditions (18). There is little evidence to suggest that arsenic (As), cadmium (Cd), lead (Pb) and mercury
64 (Hg) play a nutritive role in higher plants and animals (18). Moreover, Giller et al. [20] revealed that a
65 presence of trace element in human or animal serum is not inductor on their uptake from soils or plants
66 but they could be determined.

67 Some plant species exhibit phenotypic variation in response to arsenic species giving idea about
68 arsenic toxicity and the way with which plants have evolved arsenic resistances [21]. Arsenate tolerance
69 is achieved by the suppression of high affinity arsenate/phosphate co-transport. models of plant tolerance
70 to As V have been recently found and reported in tomato and rice [22]. Several studies were performed to
71 examine the arsenate tolerance genes in plants but these genes have not been mapped [23]. Dasgupta et al.
72 [23] screened 20 diverse genotypes of rice against their resistance to arsenate contamination and they
73 found that Dawn cultivar is highly susceptible to arsenic contamination of soil. However, studies
74 reported that arsenate reductase gene (ACR2) may not control the arsenate reduction in the plants grown
75 in arsenate contaminated soils [24,25]. Instead, two genes of arsenate reductase; AsV reduction and AsV
76 tolerance were identified in Arabidopsis [26]. Additionally, plants suddenly reduce AsV to AsIII in the
77 roots followed by efflux out into external medium [27-30]. Consequently, Induction of AsIII efflux by
78 plant roots considered as a good to decrease As accumulation in plants. Until now, the pathway control
79 membrane transporters for AsIII efflux in plant roots have not been characterized. Thus, we aimed in this
80 study, to examine the differentially expressed genes (up and/or down regulated) in the treated plant
81 seedlings with three different concentration of arsenate. Among these genes we can identify one which
82 could be selectable DNA marker for the arsenate susceptible cultivars instead of the resistance ones. By
83 this way, we can avoid the rice grains contains high amount of arsenate and prevent its serious effects on
84 human health.

85 2. Materials and Methods

86 Soil Sampling and Preparation

87 Two representative soil samples were collected (0–20 cm) from an area prepared for rice cultivation
88 at El-Sharkeya Governorate, Egypt. Soil samples were air dried and sieved to ≈ 2 mm. Soil pH was
89 determined in a suspension of 1:2.5 (w:v) of soil: water using glass electrode. Soil was ground to ≈ 0.45
90 mm, extracted with 0.01 mol/kg CaCl₂ to determine total elemental As concentrations [31] using ICP-MS
91 (Prodigy Spec., Leeman Labs, USA). The irrigation water was also analysed for the As concentration.

92 **Determination of Soil Anions and Cations**

93 The K⁺ and Na⁺ available in the soil samples were extracted with 1N ammonium acetate adjusted to
94 pH 7.0 and determined using flame photometer model PFP.7 Jenway [32]. Calcium and magnesium were
95 determined by titrating the saturated extract with EDTA (ethylenediamine tetra-acetate disodium salt)
96 (versenate) by using buffers and EBT indicator (Eriochrome black-T) to end point when solution turned
97 into bluish green or greenish blue. Chloride was estimated using 0.01N AgNO₃ [33,34]. Nitrate,
98 phosphate and sulphate were determined in the soil samples by colorimetric method described by Ben
99 Mussa [35] using Spectronic 21D UV/VIS Spectrophotometer. Absorbance of the extracted nitrate was
100 measured at 410 nm while 880 nm was used to measure phosphate after the addition of ascorbic acid
101 (colour reagent). Sulfates were determined using BaCl₂ crystals method and absorbance was measured at
102 420 nm. Standard calibration curves for NO₃, PO₄ and SO₄ were prepared as recommended by Ben
103 Mussa [35]. Soil total C and N were measured by a combustion method using carbon, nitrogen and
104 sulphur LECO analyzer (LECO CNS 2000).

105 **Plant Materials**

106 Three local rice cultivars; Sakha 102-104 were used in the present study (they are widely cultivated
107 in Delta region). They were kindly provided by Dr. Ameen El-Sayed, department of Agronomy, faculty
108 of Agriculture, Alexandria University.

109 **Rice Micropropagation and Treatments**

110 Based on the data obtained from the soil profile, rice grains were dehusked; surface sterilized with
111 ethanol 70% for 3 min, followed by immersion in NaClO 50% (v/v) for 45 min and then washed three
112 times with sterile distilled water [36]. Sterilized grains were cultured on Murashige and Skoog (MS)
113 germination medium [37]. After 7 days, the seedlings were sectioned below the first node and the upper
114 part of the coleoptile, and an explant 2 cm long was obtained. Explants were cultured on MS medium [38]
115 supplemented with either 5 mg/L 6-benzylamino purine (BAP) or 0.2 mg/L 2, 4-dichlorophenoxyacetic
116 acid [1]. The pH of the medium was adjusted to 5.8 using either HCl or KOH prior to the addition of
117 0.75% Sigma agar (A-1296) and autoclaved at 1.46 kg/cm² for 20 min [36]. Three treatments of sodium
118 arsenate (0.1, 1, and 10 mg/L) added to the MS germination medium were investigated compared with
119 control one (0.0 AS). Eight glass Jars, each containing 5 grains were used for each treatment. Cultures in
120 the glass Jars were incubated in a growth room at 35°C under a 14 h photoperiod regime and provided by
121 cool white fluorescent lamps. Data and samples were collected one week after culturing.

122 **Differential Display-PCR**

123 RNA extraction; Sakha 104 cultivar was selected based on its high As-resistance. Total RNAs of the
124 three treatments (0.1, 1, and 10 mg/L) were extracted using RNA easy kit according to manufacturer's
125 instructions (QIAGEN). The RNA was dissolved in DEPC-treated water, quantified
126 spectrophotometrically and analyzed using 1.2% agarose gel. Genetic pools were performed from the
127 extracted RNAs of all the survival plants from each treatment [39].

128 **cDNA synthes;** Reverse transcription reactions were performed using oligo (dT) primer
 129 (5'TTTTTTTTTTTTTTTT'3). Each 25 µl reaction mixture containing 2.5 µl of 5x buffer with 2 MgCl₂, 2.5 µl
 130 of 2.5 m mol/l dNTPs, 1 µl of 10 p mol/l primer, 2.5 µl RNA and 0.2 µl reverse transcriptase enzyme. PCR
 131 amplification was performed in a thermal cycler (Eppendorf) programmed at 95 °C for 5 min, 42 °C for 1
 132 h, 72 °C for 10 min and a stored at 4°C [39].

133 Differential Display reaction

134 Differential reaction was performed using three different arbitrary primers (Table 1) according to
 135 [40]. Two µl of synthesized cDNA were added to 23 µl of Taq DNA polymerase reaction mixture
 136 containing 10 m mol/l Tris HCl (pH 8.3), 25 m mol/l KCl, 4 m mol/l MgCl₂, 2 µl from the primer and 1 unit
 137 of Taq polymerase (AmpliTaq, Perkin- Elmer) and cycled first in a 9700 thermal cycler (Perkin-Elmer)
 138 programmed at 94 °C for 5 min, 56 °C for 5 min, and 72 °C for 5 min, followed by 40 cycles at 94 °C for 1
 139 min, 56 °C for 1 min, and 72 °C for 2 min. Reaction was then incubated at 72 °C for 10 min for final
 140 extension. Two µl of loading dye was added prior to loading of 10 µl per gel pocket. Electrophoresis was
 141 performed at 80 Volt with 0.5 x TBE buffer in 1.5% agarose gel. Gel was stained in 0.5 µg/ml (w/ v)
 142 Ethidium bromide solution and destained in deionized water. Finally, gel was visualized and
 143 photographed using gel documentation system.

144 **Table 1:** Oligonucleotide sequence of the primers used in this study.

Primer	Sequence
CH R	5-TGCCTTTGATTCAGTCATC-3
DFR f	5-CAAAAAGCCCGAATACGATG-3
F3H F	5-AGAGAGGGGAAATATGTAGG-3

145 Cloning, Sequencing and Sequence Analysis of Up-regulated DNA Genes

146 To sequencing a PCR product amplified by arbitrary primers (contains more than one gene in the
 147 same molecular weight), the selected PCR bands were excised from the gel and the DNA was purified
 148 using a QIA quick gel extraction kit (Qiagen Inc., Germany). Purified DNAs were ligated into the pGEM-
 149 T vector (Promega Co., USA) to sequence only one copy of the target DNA. The ligation reaction was
 150 transformed into E.coli competent cells and the recombinant plasmids were selected and the plasmid
 151 DNA was directly sequenced using automated sequencer (Macrogen Company, Korea), with vector
 152 universal primer (Sambrook et al. 1998). DNA homology searches were carried out with the NCBI data
 153 bases, using the BLAST network service [40].

154 Sequence Accession Number and Phylogeny Construction

155 Blast search for the obtained sequence was performed with the published homologous genes on
 156 database of National Centre for Biotechnology Information (NCBI). The obtained DNA nucleotide
 157 sequences were submitted into EST gene Bank under the accession numbers HO054970, HO054971,
 158 HO054972 and HO054973. Phylogenetic analysis was carried out using MEGA4 program
 159 (<http://www.megasoftware.net>) [40].

160 3. Results

161 Physical and Chemical Characterization of Soil

162 Some physicochemical properties of two representative soil samples collected from El-Sharkeya
 163 Governorate, Egypt are illustrated in Tables 2-3. In that area, agricultural drainage water is As-
 164 contaminated and reused for soil irrigation. The slightly alkaline soils (X= 7.95 pH) showed high salt
 165 concentrations (Mean CEC= 153 mmolc/kg) dominated by Na⁺, Cl⁻, Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, SO₄²⁻, K⁺ and finally
 166 PO₄³⁻ with means of 1.2, 0.56, 0.44, 0.24, 0.21, 0.12 and 0.001 molc/kg, respectively (Table 2). These high

167 salts concentration have strong effects not only on the microbial biodiversity, but also on the sensitive
 168 and semi-sensitive plant crops. In addition, they also disturb the relations between plant roots and
 169 microbial communities. Results revealed low organic matter content ($X=1.9\%$) as well as total N ($X=0.2$
 170 %) indicating low fertility (Table 3). The average total As content in soil was recorded 0.27 mg/kg.

171 **Table 2** Soluble Cations and Anions in the 1:10 Aqueous Extract of the Horizon (A) of the selected soils.

Soil No.	Na ⁺	K ⁺	Mg ²⁺	Ca ²⁺	Cl ⁻	NO ₃ ⁻	PO ₄ ³⁻	SO ₄ ²⁻	Σ cations	Σ anions
	molc/kg									
1	1.10	0.11	0.25	0.42	0.60	0.02	0.001	0.23	1.88	0.85
2	1.30	0.13	0.24	0.47	0.53	0.02	0.001	0.19	2.21	0.74

172 Readings are averages of 3 replicates

173 **Table 3** Soil Properties and Arsenic content of the two collected soil samples (Aggregate Fraction ≈ 1
 174 mm).

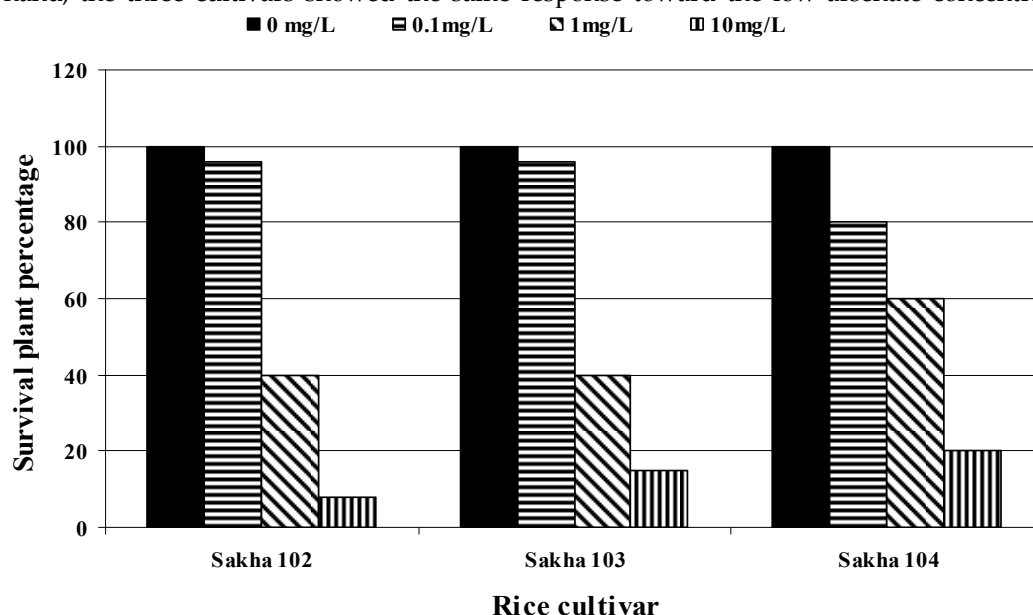
Soil No.	pH	Organic C	Total N	CEC	Total As Content
		g/kg			
1	8.0	20	1.5	120	0.24
2	7.9	18	0.9	186	0.30

175 Readings are averages of 3 replicates

176 Survival and Resistance of Rice Cultivars

177 Based on the soil analysis of the two collected samples, the jars MS experiment was designed and the
 178 number of survived rice plants cultured on MS medium supplemented with different concentration of
 179 sodium arsenate showed that Sakha 104 was the highest resistant cultivar with the two high arsenate
 180 concentration (1 and 10 mg/L), followed by Sakha 103 and Sakha 102 respectively (Fig. 1). This may be
 181 attributed to the genome of Sakha 104 which is able to express arsenate resistant genes more efficiently
 182 than the other two examined cultivars especially with the high concentrations of arsenate. On the other

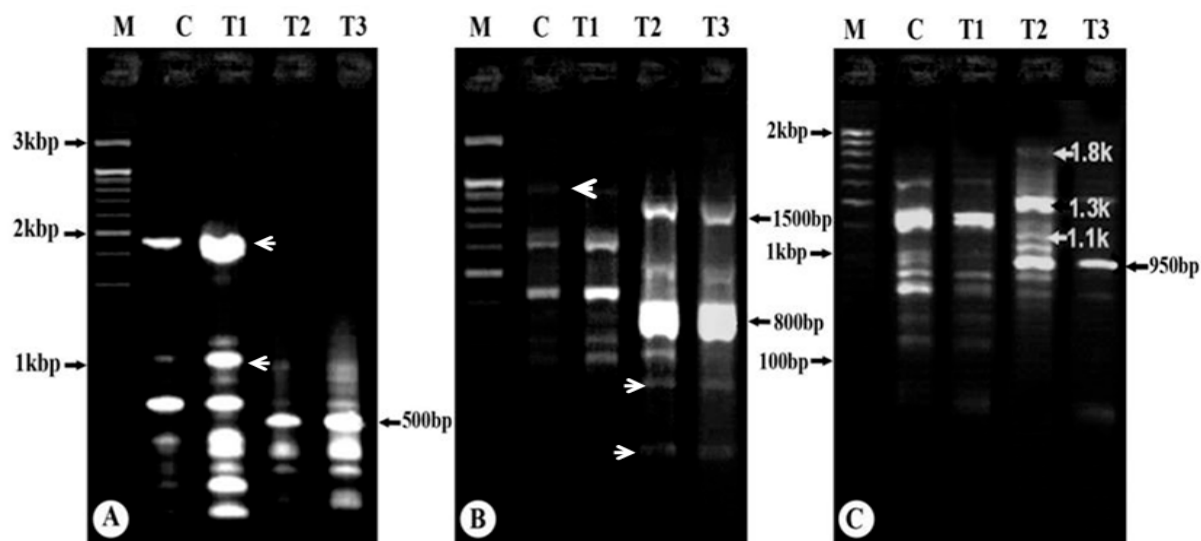
183 hand, the three cultivars showed the same response toward the low arsenate concentration (0.1mg/L).



184
185 Figure.1 Number of survival Rice Plant Cultivars cultivated on MS medium and treated with different
186 concentrations of Sodium Arsenate.

187 Molecular Characterization of Sakha 104 Rice Cultivar

188 The highest As resistance expressed by Sakha 102 (for the high concentration of As) rice cultivar was
189 confirmed by the number of genes differentially displayed when treated with elevated concentrations of
190 sodium arsenate (Fig. 2). Results revealed the presence of different band patterns with the three arbitrary
191 primers used. About 100 bands were obtained with different molecular sizes ranged from 100 bp to 1.8
192 kbp. All the obtained bands were polymorphic except one monomorphic band that was shown with the
193 F3H F primer at molecular weight ~800 bp. Seven up-regulated bands (indicated by the arrows) were cut,
194 cloned and sequenced. The sequence analysis revealed the isolated genes are; disease resistance protein
195 RPM1, Epstein-Barr virus nuclear antigen 1 (EBNA1)-like, CwfJ family protein and outer membrane
196 lipoprotein OmlA. The other three genes were hypothetical protein with more than 80% identity. The
197 DNA band pattern explained how many genes were up-regulated (induced) when the plant was
198 cultivated on medium contains arsenate. In addition, there are some down regulated genes (shut down)
199 which suppressed in the treated plants but still active in the non-treated ones. Therefore it is concluded
200 that, arsenate is able to induce specific genes and in the same time shut down others in the resistant
201 cultivars.

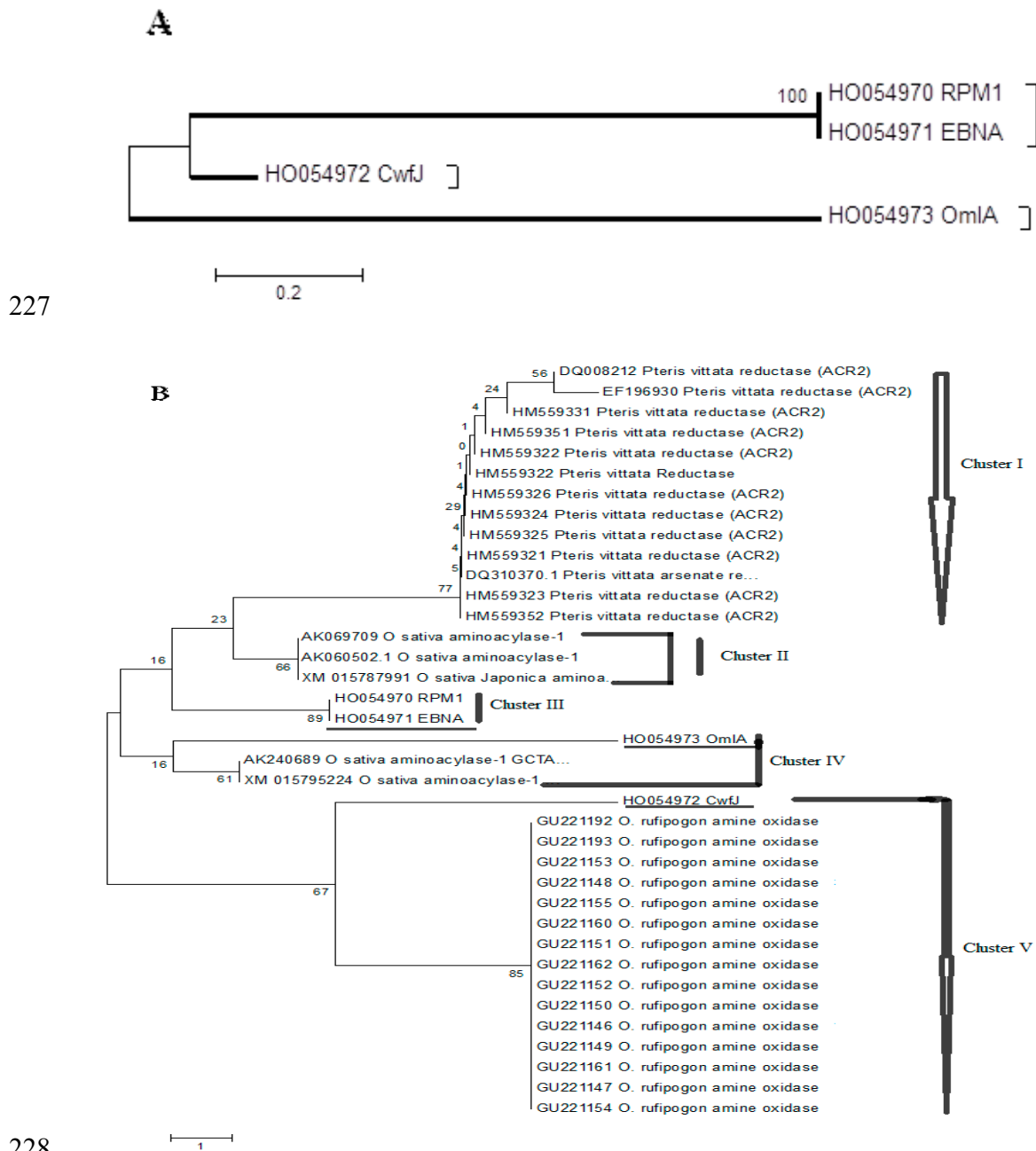


202

203 Figure 2 Differential display band patterns obtained by tested three arbitrary primers on RNS of Sakha
 204 104 rice plants treated with elevated concentrations of sodium arsenate. The three arbitrary primers; CH
 205 R (A), DFR f (B) and F3H F (C). lanes; M: ladder DNA Marker 3kbp, C: control (0 mg/L) and T:Treated;
 206 T1: 0.1 mg/L, T2: 1 mg/L and T3: 10 mg/L of sodium arsenate. The arrows indicated to sample of the up-
 207 down regulated genes.

208 Phylogenetic analysis revealed that there is homology between the four induced genes in treated rice
 209 plant with arsenate. The four genes were divided into two main groups; group one contains 3 PRM1,
 210 EBNA and CWFJ but the second group contains the fourth one (OmIA gene). The homology between
 211 PRM1 and EBNA is 100%, while the homology between both of PRM1& EBNA and CWFJ less than
 212 80%. (Fig. 3A).

213 To prove the close relation between the isolated genes and the other published genes which playing
 214 an important role in arsenate reduction [23], arsenate oxidation [2] and accumulation using
 215 aminocyclase-1 genes were compared with the four genes isolated in this study. Results presented in
 216 figure (3B) revealed that both the genes (PRM1, EBNA) showed similarity with the two genes (reductase
 217 ARC2 and aminoacylase 1) and all formed three clusters in one group. On the other hand, OmIA gene
 218 grouped with two aminoacylase 1 genes isolated from rice. Whereas, CWFJ gene grouped with the
 219 amine oxidase genes and similarity between them was 67%. The sequence alignments support the present
 220 results and prove that the isolated four genes from the treated rice playing an important role in arsenate;
 221 reduction, oxidation and/or accumulation in the plant tissues. Under in vitro (Murashige and Skoog (MS)
 222 agar medium) conditions supplemented with different concentrations of arsenic, the plant biomass was
 223 able to tolerate and accumulate 300 mg/l. They attributed such ability to arsenate reductase, oxidase
 224 and/or aminoacylase 1 genes that the plant might contain. These findings confirm the arsenate induced
 225 many specific genes that effect of rice tolerant to arsenate pollution and the potentiality of their use as
 226 arsenic pollution marker in rice grains as well as cultivated soil.



229 Fig. 3: Phylogenetic trees constructed based on the obtained DNA nucleotide sequence of the four induced
 230 genes in response to arsenate accumulation and the published genes which play roles in arsenate
 231 accumulation inside plants. A; phylogenetic between the four isolated genes with each other. B;
 232 phylogenetic tree of the four genes in compared with the arsenate reductase, oxidase and aminoacylase
 233 genes which published in Gene Bank and play roles in arsenate oxidation and reduction in plants such as;
 234 *Pteris vittata* and different cultivars of Rice. The phylogeny was constructed using MEGA 4 program
 235 (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov>).
 236

237 4. Discussion

238 Physical and chemical analysis of soil in the study area revealed low fertility, high salt content and
239 hazardous levels of As which are direct results of the severe nearby industrial pollution and the use of
240 contaminated irrigation water. Arsenic contamination not only affecting soil biotic and abiotic elements,
241 but also rendering the soil unfit for agricultural practices or of low quality for mass production. The
242 expected results of As soil pollution become worse attributed to the fact that factors controlling
243 distribution and transfer of heavy metals within the soil and vegetation systems are not always well
244 defined [41]. Also because As speciation in the environment is complex, existing in both organic and
245 inorganic forms, with inter-conversion between species regulated by biotic and abiotic processes [21].

246 Elevation of arsenic levels in soils causes considerable concern with respect to plant uptake and
247 subsequent entry into wildlife and human food chains. Uptake of As by rice plants depends on the As
248 species and soil conditions as reported by Abadan [42]. It was stated that arsenate became a dominant
249 species in paddy soils under aerobic conditions, whereas under the submerged soil conditions the
250 predominant species was arsenite. Microbial methylation of As is a well-known process in paddy soil
251 systems, where inorganic species are converted into organic form [43]. Arsenate was found as the major
252 component with lower levels of arsenite, monomethylarsenic acid (MMAA), and dimethylarsenic acid
253 (DMAA). Although no experiment for arsenate uptake from polluted soils was carried out during the
254 present study, similar results as those of Abadan are expected especially with the fact that arsenate is the
255 dominant species in the tested Egyptian soil of El-Sharkeya Governorate [42]. It was shown that MMAA
256 and DMAA can be taken up by rice roots at a slow rate, as a result and due to the restricted translocation
257 of MMAA from roots to the areal parts of plant while DMAA could be a major component of total As in
258 rice grains [44].

259 Rice cultivars tested in the present study showed variable resistance to As with the variant Sakha 104
260 being more efficient to express arsenate resistant genes than the other tested cultivars. Moreover, the
261 defence system in the rice plant can be expanded to accumulate more concentration of arsenate if it is
262 amended to the cultivation medium as well as that already present in the contaminated soils. This
263 phenomenon in the arsenate- highly resistant rice cultivar represents a threat to human health, therefore
264 it is recommended to avoid cultivation of rice in the contaminated areas. Also, it is well known that
265 generally rice grains are much more efficient at accumulating As compared with other cereals [45] as a
266 result of soil flooding during rice cultivation that leads to a rapid mobilization of As, mainly as arsenite.
267 Xu reported that arsenic accumulation in rice grains was markedly increased (10-15- fold) under flooded
268 conditions compared to aerobically grown rice [46]. Therefore, growing rice aerobically can dramatically
269 decrease the As transfer from soil to grain due to the great reduction of As bioavailability.

270 The achieved results offer testable hypotheses for genes related to As tolerance (phytoremediation)
271 that might offer strategy for mitigating As accumulation in consumed rice. Results indicated combination
272 between the plant disease resistance genes with outer membrane lipoprotein, which affect the
273 physiological parameters for the cell to diminish the effect of the (As). These results are in agreement
274 with those obtained by Norton who demonstrated three-genes in rice contaminated with (As) and the
275 involvement of epistemic interaction between these genes [47]. They proved also physiological evidence
276 that genes related to phosphate transport are unlikely to be behind the genetic loci conferring tolerance
277 which confirmed the induction of the Om1A among genes discovered in the present study.

278 It was reported that two genes (aminoacylase-1 and aquaporin NIP4) were induced when the rice
279 plant was treated with (As) and both of them showed higher levels of expression in Bala cultivar [22, 45,
280 48]. The aquaporin gene is of interest as the class of this gene has been implicated in the transport of As
281 (III) into roots [49]. Five genes have significant differences in gene expression under As (V) treatment in
282 the candidate gene region on chromosome 10. Induction of three different hypothetical proteins in the

283 treated rice cultivars especially those grown on medium contains high As concentrations (1 and 10 mg/l)
284 is supported by results obtained by [50]. In that study two genes showed higher levels of gene expression
285 in the rice cultivar (Bala) i.e. hypothetical protein and peptide transporter PTR2, and three have higher
286 levels of expression in the rice cultivar (Azucena) i.e. glutathione S-transferase, cellulase-containing
287 protein and protein CutA.

288 Boyes reported that RPM1 protein was localized using an epitope tag [50]. In contrast to previous
289 suggestions, RPM1 is a peripheral membrane protein that likely resides on the cytoplasmic face of the
290 plasma membrane. Furthermore, RPM1 is degraded coincident with the onset of the hypersensitive
291 response, suggesting a negative feedback loop controlling the extent of cell death and overall resistance
292 response at the site of infection. Moreover, Belkhadir [51] reported that most plant disease resistance
293 proteins contain a series of leucine-rich repeats (LRRs), a nucleotide-binding site (NBS), and a putative
294 amino-terminal signalling domain. They are termed NBS-LRR proteins and RPM1 is an NBS-LRR protein.
295 The LRRs of a wide variety of proteins from many organisms serve as protein interaction platforms, and
296 as regulatory modules of protein activation. Genetically, the LRRs of plant resistance proteins are
297 determinants of response specificity, and their action can lead to plant cell death in the form of the
298 familiar hypersensitive response. These genes may work in harmony with the outer membrane
299 lipoprotein A (OmlA). It was documented [52] that in the citrus canker pathogen, *Xanthomonas*
300 *axonopodis* pv. *citri* (*X. citri*), OmlA is co-regulated with the ferric uptake regulator and their expression
301 is enhanced when *X. citri* is grown on citrus leaves, suggesting that these proteins are involved in plant-
302 pathogen interaction. Therefore, the structure of OmlA does suggest that this protein may be implicated
303 in protein-protein interactions required during *X. citri* infection. It can be concluded that Om1A protein
304 may play an important role with membrane protein to resist the dangerous effect of (As) or at least
305 prevent its entrance inside the cell. Moreover, Cwfj may be precursor for both Om1A and the outer
306 membrane protein. But if the three genes failed to resist the (As) hassles, the LRRs then guide the cell into
307 the death phase.

308 Epstein-Barr virus EBNA1 binds to the terminal repeat sequences of the viral genome and can
309 activate DNA replication [53]. Till now there are no literature deals with the function of the Cwfj family
310 protein except some reports which considered it as one of the defence proteins. It was suggested that
311 these genes work in combination to resist the toxic effect of the arsenate and this agree with what
312 postulated by Raab [54]. The mechanism of how they tolerate high (As) burdens in their tissues is not
313 well understood, although tolerance is not due to enhanced phytochelatin production or metabolism of
314 inorganic As to organic species. The role of methylation as a detoxification mechanism in plants has not
315 been fully investigated, although it is clear that >10% of a plant's (As) burden can be dimethyl arsenate
316 DMA(V) depending on As exposure concentrations and on nutrition [46, 54]. In the present study it is
317 proved that at least three rice cultivars are able to accumulate high amounts of As. Results also confirmed
318 that the genetic DNA marker obtained in this study can be efficiently used as diagnostic kit for arsenate
319 contamination. The high percentage of homology of the four isolated genes from the treated rice cultivar
320 (104) and the other published genes which share in arsenate reduction, oxidation and accumulation
321 confirm they role in arsenate phytoremediation meanwhile the plant can survive and grow in
322 contaminated soils with arsenate. These genes and their role in arsenate phytoremediation were not
323 previously reported and this piece of work considered that is a new record in addition they can be used
324 as new DNA markers for arsenate pollution discovery.

325 5. Conclusion

326 Among the three investigated local rice cultivars (Sakha 102-104); Sakha 104 showed the highest
327 arsenate resistant over the other varieties (only with high conc. Of arsrate). Our finding is; the four genes
328 (disease resistance protein RPM1, Epstein-Barr virus EBNA-1-like, Cwfj family protein and outer

329 membrane lipoprotein OmlA) are associated with the arsenate resistance and/or accumulation in Rice.
330 Such genes can be used as DNA markers for examining As (V)-contaminated soil and rice grains (Chao et
331 al. 2014). Future work, new DNA markers for arsenate resistant genes should be arrayed, identified and
332 used as a tool for characterizing sensitivity/susceptibility of rice genotypes.

333 **Conflict of interest** :The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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