

# Advances in Functional Genomics in Investigating Salinity Tolerance in Plants



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## 1 Introduction

Soil salinity has diverse effects on the morphological, physiological, and biochemical characteristics of plants, which results in reduction in yield (Chinnusamy et al. 2005). Salt stress modifies the dimension of morphological parameters that includes root length, leaf area, plant heights, root and branch length, stem diameter, and number of branches and nodes (Yu et al. 2015). Salinity induces morphological and anatomical changes that results in reduction in the dry weight of leaves and roots, root length, root volume, average root diameter, chlorophyll and net photosynthesis, and stomatal conductance (Zhang et al. 2014a; Yan et al. 2015). Photosynthesis is the most important process that is influenced by salt stress by decrease in CO<sub>2</sub> availability, which is induced by diffusion limitations through the stomata and the

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mesophyll (Chaves et al. 2009). Various responses of chlorophyll content have been found in plants (Sudhir and Murthy 2004). Salt stress enhances the accumulation of NaCl in chloroplasts of plants that triggers reduction during photosynthetic electron transport activities in photosynthesis (Sudhir and Murthy 2004). Salt stress inhibits photosynthesis because of water scarcity and lowered carbon substrate (Chaves et al. 2009).

Salinity reduces the growth of plant by three major inhibitory effects namely (1) osmotic effect, (2) ion toxicity, and (3) nutritional imbalance (Ali et al. 2004). Salinity influences seed germination through osmotic effects in beans and wheat (Almansouri et al. 2001; Kaymakanova 2009). In addition, salinity decreases soil water potential due to osmotic stress, it induces ion imbalance in cells due to lower concentrations of  $K^+$ ,  $Ca^{2+}$ , and  $NO_3^-$ , and it also causes ion ( $Na^+$  and/or  $Cl^-$ ) toxicity (Tavakkoli et al. 2011). High concentrations of soil  $Cl^-$  is more toxic in reducing growth and yield as compared to  $Na^+$  (Tavakkoli et al. 2010).

Salinity stress causes oxidative stress that further triggers production of toxic reactive oxygen species (ROS). Salinity influences the activity of antioxidant enzymes such as superoxide dismutase (SOD), peroxidase (POD), ascorbate peroxidase (APX), glutathione reductase (GR), guaiacol peroxidase (GPX), dehydroascorbate reductase (DHAR), monodehydroascorbate reductase (MDAR), glutathione *S*-transferase (GST), and catalase (CAT). Non-enzymatic antioxidants include phenolics, flavonoids, and tocopherols, which are in active state and scavenge high ROS levels (Abdelgawad et al. 2016). Accumulation of proline in salt-stressed plants decreases osmotic potential in vacuoles in order to maintain chlorophyll level, protein, membrane and subcellular structure, and cell turgor (Cicek and Cakirlar 2002). It plays vital role in scavenging ROS products in salt tolerance (Gharsallah et al. 2016). Glycine betaine (GB) is another osmotic adjustment agent that decreases the ROS concentration and lipid peroxidation in higher plants (Banu et al. 2009). Polyamines also modulate ion channels and activate antioxidant enzymes for osmotic adjustment (Zapata et al. 2017).

Salinity alters the levels of plant hormones such as abscisic acid (ABA), cytokinins, ethylene, and jasmonates that further play a key role in alleviating NaCl-induced salt stress on plant growth and development (Parida and Das 2005). Salinity influences stomatal conductance at the initial stage; afterward the ABA is produced (Munns and Tester 2008). ABA generally increases  $H^+$ -pumping under salinity condition in rice (Pons et al. 2013). Cytokinins are antagonists of ABA and have opposite effects in several developmental processes, mainly stomatal opening (Kaya et al. 2009). Ethylene is known as a stress-hormone; ethylene signaling modulates salt response at different levels, including membrane receptors, components in cytoplasm, and nuclear transcription factors (TFs) in the pathway (Cao et al. 2008). The drought stress can be induced by salinity and it influences on redox regulation in plant cells (Uddin et al. 2016). The redox system is important for keeping the cellular homeostasis in environmental stresses (Trachootham et al. 2008). In addition, the late embryogenesis abundant (LEA) proteins are produced by plants to protect themselves from the damage caused by environmental stresses (especially the salt stress) (Bhardwaj et al. 2013).

## 2 Functional Genomics Approaches for Salt Tolerance

A number of genes were found to be involved in salt tolerance across diverse plant genera. Through functional genomics, transcriptomics, and proteomics approaches the functional significance of some of the major genes have been discovered, which plays a pivotal role in salt tolerance of plants. A number of transgenic approaches have been adopted to over-express genes that are involved in salt-tolerant mechanisms and in addition to that down-regulation of some important genes in transgenic plants also demonstrated salt tolerance. This part of the chapter mostly describes several transgenic methods developed either through over-expression strategies (for enhancing osmoprotectant accumulation, over-expression of TFs, antioxidants and genes involved in ion transport, and heterologous expression of some important proteins involved in salt stress mechanisms) or, using gene-silencing approach for enhanced salt tolerance.

### 2.1 Over-Expression Strategies for Salt Tolerance in Plants

Over-expression of several genes involved in production of compatible solutes was found to exhibit improved salt tolerance. Those compatible solutes are small, electrically uncharged molecules playing important roles in plant protection as well as membrane and protein stabilization under abiotic stress conditions without hampering normal growth and development (Yancey 1994). Several researches conducted to overcome salt stress using compatible solutes or osmoprotectants and that can be categorized into three groups like over-accumulation of amino acid (e.g., proline), over-production of polyols or sugars (e.g., mannitol, sorbitol, trehalose, etc.), and over-accumulation of quaternary amines (e.g., GB and polyamines).

Several researches were conducted on over-expression of candidate genes for elevated proline accumulation and subsequently improved salt tolerance. A gene, *P5CS* ( $\Delta^1$ -Pyrroline-5-Carboxylate Synthetase) was found to code a bifunctional enzyme that is responsible for proline synthesis in plants. Over-expression of *P5CS* gene from moth bean (*Vigna aconitifolia*) in transgenic tobacco (*Nicotiana tabacum*) revealed improved salt tolerance possibly due to hyper-accumulation of proline in transgenic plants (Kishor et al. 1995) whereas; over-expression of a mutant *P5CS* (*P5CSF129A*) gene from *V. aconitifolia* in tobacco also documented increased tolerance to salt stress (Hong et al. 2000). Later on, *P5CS* gene was heterologously expressed in different crops like rice, wheat, carrot, etc. by various researchers (Zhu et al. 1998; Sawahel and Hassan 2002; Han and Hwang 2003). Another group isolated *P5CS* gene from *Arabidopsis thaliana* and subsequently over-expressed in potato (*Solanum tuberosum*) and the resultant transgenic potato showed improved tolerance to salinity stress without hampering the tuber yield (Hmida-Sayari et al. 2005). Further study identified two *P5CS* orthologs (*OsP5CS1* and *OsP5CS2*) from rice and co-expression of those two genes in tobacco depicted

enhanced abiotic stress (including salt stress) tolerance due to over-accumulation of proline in transgenic plants (Zhang et al. 2014b).

A number of researches were conducted to over-accumulate various polyols or sugars in transgenic plants through metabolic engineering. Initially, a mannitol-1-phosphate dehydrogenase (*mtlD*) gene from *Escherichia coli* was transgenically expressed in tobacco and it resulted over accumulation of mannitol and subsequently demonstrated salt tolerance up to 250 mol m<sup>-3</sup> NaCl (Tarczynski et al. 1993). Further researches transgenically expressed *mtlD* gene in other crops (Chinnusamy et al. 2005). Likewise, another gene sorbitol-6-phosphate dehydrogenase (*StpdI*) was used by Gao et al. (2001) to accumulate sorbitol in transgenic plant that conferred salt tolerance. Majee et al. (2004) isolated L-myo-inositol-1-phosphate synthase (*MIPS*) gene from halophytic wild rice (*Porteresia coarctata*) and subsequently that gene was heterologously expressed in transgenic tobacco plants. Transgenic tobacco demonstrated tolerance up to 200–300 mM NaCl stress. Trehalose is a non-reducing sugar molecule, which was found to possess osmoprotectant property. Preliminary studies were conducted to isolate trehalose-6-phosphate synthase (*otsA*) and trehalose-6-phosphate phosphatase (*otsB*) genes from *E. coli* and over-expression of those genes in rice as a fusion gene (Garg et al. 2002). Resultant transgenic rice plants showed enhanced trehalose accumulation and thus improved salt tolerance. Subsequently, Ge et al. (2008) isolated trehalose-6-phosphate phosphatase (*OsTPPI*) gene from rice and over-expressed in rice background. The transgenic plants conferred salt as well as abiotic stress tolerance. Thereafter, another rice gene named trehalose-6-phosphate synthase (*OsTPSI*) was over-expressed in rice and the resultant plants showed over-accumulation of proline as well as trehalose and subsequently tolerance to salt stress (Li et al. 2011). Thus, over-expression of several polyol/sugar accumulating genes was found to show improved salt tolerance in transgenic plants.

The third category of osmoprotectant is quaternary amines and most of researches were conducted to over-accumulate GB compound belonging to this group. Upon exposure to abiotic stresses, GB content is increased in certain plants and that could be used as an osmoprotectant (Khan et al. 2015). Hence, several approaches have been taken to over-accumulate GB content in economically important crops. Initially, two group of scientists heterologously expressed choline oxidase (*codA*) gene, which is responsible for GB synthesis, from *Arthrobacter globiformis* into *Synechococcus* sp. PCC 7942 (Deshnium et al. 1995; Nomura et al. 1995) that was unable to produce GB in natural conditions, but transgenically expressed *codA* gene accumulated GB in that species and subsequently the resultant strain became more salt tolerant. In addition to over-expression in cyanobacteria, several scientists over-expressed *codA* gene in tobacco, *Arabidopsis*, rice and other plants (Hayashi et al. 1997; Jing et al. 2013; Chinnusamy et al. 2005). Another choline oxidase gene (*COX*) was isolated from *Arthrobacter pasceus* and used for the generation of salt-tolerant transgenic plants (Sakamoto and Murata 2001; Su et al. 2006). Further researches were conducted to over-accumulate GB in transgenic tobacco plants by over-expressing Betaine-aldehyde dehydrogenase (*BADH*) gene from spinach (*Spinacia oleracea*) and the generated transgenic plants acquired enhanced salt tolerance compared to the untransformed control plants (Yang et al. 2008).

## 2.2 *Transcription Factors*

Genetic engineering through over-expression of different TFs was found to have significant salt tolerance in different plant species. Over-expression of a dehydration-responsive element-binding (DREB) protein from *A. thaliana* named *AtDREB1A*, in transgenic tobacco, showed enhanced salt tolerance under controlled condition (Cong et al. 2008) whereas; over-expression of a *Glycine max* DREB gene (*GmDREB1*) in transgenic wheat depicted enhanced salt tolerance compared to wild-type plants under natural field condition (Jiang et al. 2014). Along with DREB, NAC TFs were found to be involved in salt tolerance in different plants. Over-expression of different NAC TFs namely SNAC2, ONAC045, and ONAC022 in transgenic rice documented improved salt tolerance (Hu et al. 2008; Zheng et al. 2009; Hong et al. 2016). *Caragana intermedia* is an extremely salt as well as drought-tolerant desert leguminous shrub. Over-expression of two NAC TFs (CiNAC3 and CiNAC4) from *C. intermedia* into *A. thaliana* caused elevated salt tolerance compared to wild-type plants (Han et al. 2015). Another group of TF (MYB) was also found to be associated with salt stress in different plant species (Roy 2016). An approach taken to functionally characterize OsMYB2, a R2R3 type MYB TF from rice, depicted that over-expression of OsMYB2 improved salt tolerance in transgenic rice plant (Yang et al. 2012). Another study revealed that over-expression of OsMYB48-1 in rice lead to enhanced tolerance to salt as well as drought-stress under simulated condition (Xiong et al. 2014). Although over-expression of a number of TFs documented their importance in salt tolerance, how those TFs regulate the downstream salt stress signaling cascade is still unclear.

## 2.3 *Antioxidants and Detoxification Genes*

Antioxidants plays crucial role to cope up the plants from the excessive generated ROS during salt stress as well as other stresses. Plants possess several enzymatic antioxidants like SOD, catalase, and peroxidase along with some non-enzymatic antioxidants including phenol, ascorbic acid, thiol compounds which play crucial role in detoxifying ROS. Over-expression of a cDNA encoding both GST and glutathione peroxidase activity in transgenic tobacco showed faster growth compared to the control tobacco plants under salt-stressed condition (Roxas et al. 1997). MDAR enzyme plays major role for synthesis of ascorbate, an important antioxidant available in plant. Over-expression of *AtMDAR1* gene from *A. thaliana* into tobacco plants (Eltayeb et al. 2007) caused enhanced tolerance of the transgenic tobacco plants to salt stress. In another experiment a catalase gene (*katE*) from *E. coli* was over-expressed in tobacco and upon exposure to salt stress, transgenic plants showed significantly lesser photoinhibition compared to the wild-type plants (Al-Taweel et al. 2007). Very recently a gene named as *Delila* (*Del*), was isolated from snapdragon (*Antirrhinum majus*) and characterized through heterologous expression in

tobacco (Naing et al. 2017). Over-expression of *Del* gene in transgenic tobacco revealed enhanced anthocyanin accumulation as well as elevated antioxidant activity and additionally the transgenic tobacco plants showed improved salt tolerance. Thus, it can be concluded that over-production of several antioxidant enzymes or their combinatory effects might have positive involvement in salt tolerance.

## 2.4 Genetic Engineering for Ion Transporters

Several transporter proteins were found to possess pivotal role in maintaining osmotic regulation as well as ion homeostasis and recombinant expression of those proteins that depicted improved salt tolerance (Blumwald 2000). Over-expression of a  $\text{Na}^+/\text{H}^+$  antiporters (*AtNHX1*) in *Arabidopsis* conferred enhanced salt tolerance (up to 200 mM NaCl) as compared to the control plant (Apse et al. 1999). Further studies revealed that over-expression of a vacuolar  $\text{Na}^+/\text{H}^+$  antiporter in transgenic tomato could successfully produce fruit even at 200 mM NaCl (Zhang and Blumwald 2001). Roy et al. (2014) nicely reviewed several transgenic researches dealing with transporters or proton pumps especially involved in salt tolerance. Likewise, high affinity potassium transporters (*HKT*) were also found to play significant role in salt tolerance (Hauser and Horie 2010). Another study documented that over-expression of a barley transporter (*HvHKT2; 1*) in barley could reinforce the salt-accumulating mechanism in the transgenic plant (Mian et al. 2011). Salt overlay sensitive gene (*SOS1*) was found to be responsible for producing a membrane protein homologous to  $\text{Na}^+/\text{H}^+$  transporter (Wu et al. 1996). Over-expression of *AtSOS1* from *Arabidopsis* in transgenic tobacco revealed significant salt tolerance in transgenic plants compared to the untransformed ones (Yue et al. 2012). In a different experiment, another SOS gene (*PtSOS2*) from poplar (*Populus trichocarpa*) was over-expressed in poplar tree and it was found that compared to the untransformed one, in the transgenic tree  $\text{Na}^+/\text{H}^+$  exchange ratio as well as  $\text{Na}^+$  efflux in the plasma membrane were significantly increased along with better ROS scavenging mechanism under salt stress condition (Yang et al. 2015). In this way the functional genomics study of several transporter proteins clearly demonstrated their involvement in salt tolerance.

## 2.5 Over-Expression of Proteins Having Physiological Significance (*LEA*, *PR*, *Germin*)

LEA proteins were mostly found to be expressed in the seed tissues of the plant and those are expressed at the late stages of the embryo development (Roberts et al. 1993). Over-expression of a barley LEA protein (*HVA1*) in transgenic rice depicted enhanced salt tolerance in transgenic plants (Xu et al. 1996). Later on another LEA protein from wheat (*DHN-5*) was heterologously expressed in *Arabidopsis* and the generated transgenic plants showed enhanced  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{K}^+$  accumulation as well as

salt tolerance (Brini et al. 2007). Along with the proteins directly involved in salt tolerance or salt stress signaling, how LEA proteins are involved in controlling salt stress in plants has been nicely presented by Bhardwaj et al. (2013).

In addition to that along with LEA proteins, several pathogenesis related (PR) proteins were found to be associated with salt stress. Over-expression of a PR protein (PR-5) from *Arabidopsis* to *S. tuberosum* documented salt tolerance in transgenic plants (Evers et al. 1999). Similarly, heterologous expression of another PR protein (RSOsPR10) in bentgrass showed improved salt tolerance in transgenic plant (Takeuchi et al. 2016). Germin and germin-like proteins (GLPs) are somewhat similar to PR proteins and those proteins are involved in biotic as well as abiotic stress tolerance (Barman and Banerjee 2015). Over-expression of a germin gene possessing oxalate oxidase activity in *S. tuberosum* was found to show enhanced tolerance to salt stress (Turhan 2005).

## 2.6 Gene Silencing Approaches for Salt Tolerance in Plants

Although over-expression strategies were found to establish several salt-tolerant transgenic lines, there are instances where gene-silencing approaches have also been utilized for metabolic engineering to achieve salt tolerance in plants. Proline dehydrogenase is an enzyme that is responsible for catalyzing proline, an important osmoprotectant. Gene-silencing of proline dehydrogenase gene (*AtProDH*) through antisense RNA technology in *Arabidopsis* conferred constitutive accumulation of proline and improved tolerance to NaCl stress (600 mM NaCl) compared to untransformed as well as vector control plants (Nanjo et al. 1999). Unlike germin of wheat, a rice GPL was found to be negatively involved in salt tolerance. A recent study documented that RNAi-mediated gene-silencing of rice GPL 1 (*OsGLP1*) in rice showed enhanced salt tolerance in transgenic rice at early stages of growth and development as well as in rice calli (Banerjee et al. 2017).

It is clear that since long time several transgenic approaches have been taken either to over-express or down-regulate different target genes to confer salt tolerance. Further research is needed to get robust stress tolerant lines in farmers' field for the future because salt stress is an ever-increasing abiotic stress across the world.

## 3 Expression Studies Under Salt Stress (Some Case Studies)

The effects of salinity on gene expression have been evaluated in a variety of plants, profiling the global genes help us to understand this complex mechanism. Up-regulation of the *SOS1*, *SOS2*, *SOS3*, *HKT1*, *AKT1*, *NHX1*, *P5CS1*, *HSP90.7*, *HSP81.2*, *HSP71.1*, *HSPC025*, *OTS1*, *SGF29*, and *SAL1* genes cause tolerance in alfalfa genotypes (Sandhu et al. 2017). The Salt Overly Sensitive (SOS) signaling pathway mediates cellular signaling under salt stress, to maintain ion homeostasis

(Ji et al. 2013). It includes SOS3, SOS2, and SOS1. SOS3 is a  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  sensor belonging to calcineurin B-like (CBL) protein family, SOS2 act as a serine–threonine protein kinase, belonging to the sucrose non-fermenting 1-related kinase 3 (SnRK3) family and SOS1 is characterized as a plasma membrane  $\text{Na}^+/\text{H}^+$  antiporter (Sathee et al. 2015). *LEA* genes are a large gene family in plants that are mainly expressed in seeds of rice during salt stress (Gao and Lan 2016). The first category of salt-responsive genes is attributed to plant hormone and calcium signaling pathways and the second category are TFs. TFs including basic leucine zipper (bZIP), WRKY, APETALA2/ETHYLENE RESPONSE FACTOR (AP2/ERF), MYB, basic helix–loop–helix (bHLH), and NAC families will be active in response to salinity (Deinlein et al. 2014). The third category is linked to ion metabolism and transfer (Wang et al. 2018). Energy production and ion homeostasis associated proteins are produced under salt stress (Wang et al. 2009). Ion transporters, protective proteins involved in photosynthesis (D2 protein) and protective compounds (lignin) are activated during salinity (Kosová et al. 2013).

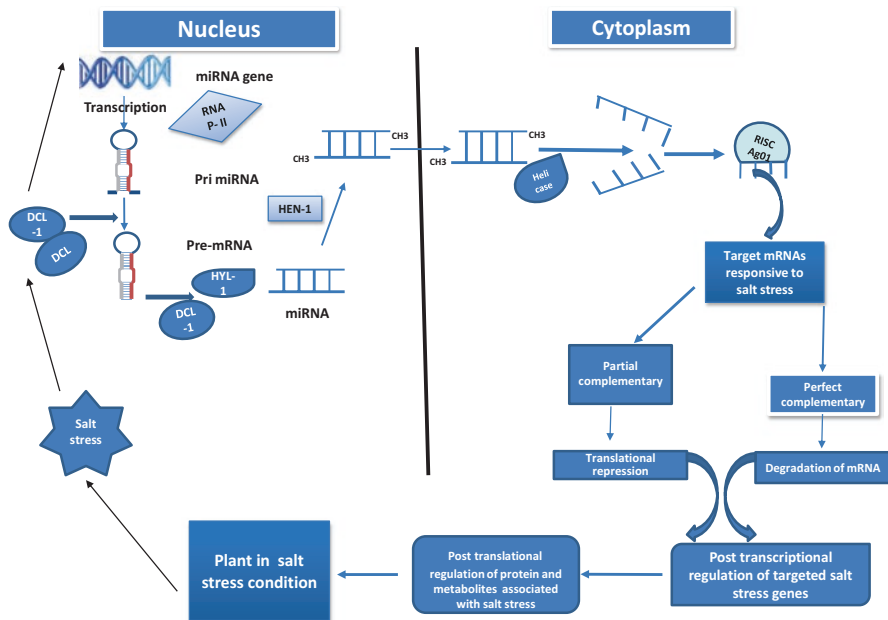
#### 4 miRNA-Mediated Salt-Stress Regulation

Abiotic stress generated by mineral salts is one of the major natural limiting factors affecting crop growth and thus productivity. Salinity stress is a complex phenomena owing the plant species subjected to three types of stress conditions—water stress generated by the osmoticum, mineral toxicity due to the presence of salt and disturbances in the mineral nutrition of the plant. In order to cope up with the detrimental effects of salt stress, plants have developed various elaborate mechanisms to exclude excess salt from their cells or to tolerate salt within the cells (Munns and Tester 2008). Management practices like reclamation of salt, use of salt-tolerant genotypes, method and time of planting can be tailored to mitigate the problem to a considerable extent. In recent years, research works have been initiated to untangle the physiology and molecular mechanism behind the stress tolerance and also to identify the stress responsive proteins and their respective genetic network. Plant resistance to salt stress is controlled by various stress responsive gene complexes (Zhu 2003; De Costa et al. 2007). Precise expression of the genes and their accurate regulation, which is attained by multiple mechanisms at different levels such as transcriptional, post-transcriptional, and post-translational regulations (Mirlohi and He 2016) facilitate plant species to alleviate the problem of salt stress. In the post-transcriptional regulation recent trends are focusing on the role of small non-coding RNAs (sRNAs) categorically microRNAs (miRNAs) in the salinity and other abiotic stress tolerance. Post-transcriptional regulation of genes through small RNAs is known as RNA interference or RNA silencing. MicroRNAs (miRNAs) are short (21–24 nt) RNA molecules that control gene expression at the post-transcriptional level by cleavage of mRNA targets or by inhibition of their translation (Llave et al. 2002; Palatnik et al. 2003; Li et al. 2013). All the plant miRNA genes (MIRs) are originated from the RNA polymerase II (RNAPII) followed by splicing and



tailoring of the long primary RNA transcripts for production of mature and functional miRNA. The processing to pre-miRNA(s) occurs in the nucleus by Dicer Like-1 (DCL1), which then makes a cut of pre-miRNA(s) to liberate the miRNA together with its reverse complement, forming the miRNA-miRNA\* (or miRNA5p-miRNA3p) duplex (Dolata et al. 2016). The site of this biogenesis process is the cell nucleus involving various protein complexes of RNase III type endoribonuclease family. Like other RNA polymerase II transcripts, the 5' end of the miRNA primary precursor, is also protected by a specific cap structure that is recognized and bound by the nuclear cap-binding protein complex (CBC) consisting of two subunits: CBP20 and CBP80 (Hugouvieux et al. 2001; Kmiecik et al. 2002; Daszkowska-Golec et al. 2013). Similarly, the 3' end contains a poly (A) tail after undergoing processing through polyadenylation machinery. After completion of processing the duplex, the miRNA unwound by a helicase in the cytoplasm to release the mature miRNA. Recent genetic and biochemical studies unravel the role of miRNA in the post-transcriptional down-regulation of gene expression through annealing to reverse complementary sequences owing to breakage or translational suppression of the target mRNAs (Fig. 1).

Moreover, these miRNAs encourage DNA methylation thus facilitating gene expression at transcription level. Recent studies reported that during stress, the miRNA could alter the expression of different stress responsive genes thus playing a vital role in plant resistance mechanism. The identification of plant miRNA families (miR156, miR159, miR164, miR171, etc.) began in the year 2000 (Llave et al. 2002;



**Fig. 1** Schematic illustration of post-transcriptional regulation of miRNA-mediated salt-stress-regulated genes (Source: Mangrauthia et al. 2013; modified by Authors)

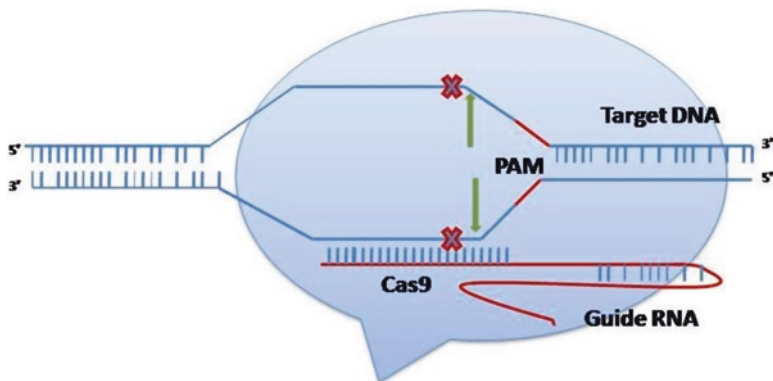
Reinhart et al. 2002). Due to difficulties in cloning of miRNA followed by sequencing and prediction using various bioinformatics prediction tools the identification was not satisfactory through classical approaches. The progress of miRNA investigation was accelerated by the development of the next generation sequencing techniques (also called deep sequencing) and complex computational algorithms (Lai et al. 2003; Rajagopalan et al. 2006; Fahlgren et al. 2007; Jagadeeswaran et al. 2010; Rosewick et al. 2013). The first abiotic stress-related miRNAs in plants was reported by Sunkar and Zhu (2004). Later beside the genes several differentially regulated miRNAs have been identified in different plant species like *Arabidopsis*, *Glycine max*, *Glycine soja*, *Gossypium hirsutum*, *Medicago truncatula*, *Nicotiana tabacum*, *Oryza sativa*, *Panicum virgatum*, *Phaseolus vulgaris*, *Populus euphratica*, *Saccharum officinarum*, *Physcomitrella patens*, *Sorghum bicolor*, *Triticum aestivum*, and *Zea mays* under salt-stressed condition. The behaviour of several miRNAs under salt stress is similar to that reported in other species, suggesting a common regulatory mechanism operating widely across species. At present, 8496 miRs from 73 plant species are listed (Kozomara and Griffiths-Jones 2014). It was found that in response to salt stress, miR156, miR158, miR159, miRNA160, miRNA164, miRNA165, miRNA166, miR167, miR168, miR169, miR171, miRNA172, miRNA1b, miRNA319, miR394, miR395, miR396, miR397, miR399 were regulated both in up- and down-regulatory pattern targeting squamosa promoter binding protein, cationic amino acid transporter, SPL TF, MYB TF, auxin response factor, DCL1, NAC family genes, SBP like TFs, APETALA2 like factor, Scarecrow like TF in different crop species like *A. thaliana* (Liu et al. 2008), *Zea mays* (Ding et al. 2009), *Vigna unguiculata* (Paul et al. 2011), *Saccharum* spp. (Bottino et al. 2013), and *Triticum aestivum* (Wang et al. 2014). However, the expression of miR160, miR393, miR4, miR402, miR417, miR482, miR1447, miR1507, and miR2118 were increased in response to salt stress in different crop species targeting F-box protein, protein kinase, APS-reductase, NBS-LRR resistance gene in *Arabidopsis* (Sunkar and Zhu 2004), *P. euphratica* (Qin et al. 2011) while the miR398 was down-regulated in *Arabidopsis*, thus establishing a role for miRNAs in the adaptive response to salt stress (Liu et al. 2008). A better understanding of miRNA-mediated gene regulation under salt stress will certainly help in elucidating the complex network of regulatory molecules, genes, proteins, and metabolites. Most miRNAs regulated the expression of multiple target genes belonging to the same gene family in plants. In response to salt stress, miR156 was found in up-regulated pattern in *A. thaliana* (Liu et al. 2008), *P. euphratica* (Qin et al. 2011), *Gossypium raimondii* (Xie et al. 2014), *P. virgatum* (Sun et al. 2012), and *V. unguiculata* (Paul et al. 2011) targeting squamosa promoter binding-like protein, cationic amino acid transporter, SPL binding protein, etc. However, down-regulation of the same group of miRNA was observed in *Zea mays* (Ding et al. 2009; Kong et al. 2010) regulating the target gene SPL-like TFs in relation to salt stress. The miRNA 158 was associated with salt stress in *A. thaliana* targeting the F-box family protein and pentatricopeptide repeat (PPR) containing protein (Liu et al. 2008). In case of miRNA159 down-regulation were observed in *A. thaliana* (Chen et al. 2012), *Nicotiana tabacum* (Frazier et al. 2011) targeting the MYB TF gene whereas up-regulation were observed in *P. virgatum*.

MiR160 targeted the auxin responsive factor in up-regulated fashion in case of *Vigna*, *Triticum*, and *Gossypium*. With the advancement of genomic techniques, a better understanding of the miRNA-mediated gene regulation targeting the expression of multiple regulatory genes and associated proteins under salt stress can be possible. This can provide a new arena to improve the resistance mechanism in plant under salt stress condition either through conventionally or through transgenic mechanism. It has been found that transgenic rice and *Arabidopsis* constitutively over-expressing osa-MIR396c-reduced salt and alkali stress tolerance compared to that of wild-type plants (Gao et al. 2010). Utilizing various computational and experimental approaches this untapped area can get new dimension regarding discovery of miRNA associated with regulating the expression of salt-stress-related genes. In future this will direct to find out new components regarding salt stress mechanism in plant.

## 5 Genome Editing for Salt Tolerance

Recently, the clustered regularly interspersed short palindromic repeats (CRISPR)/Cas9 technology has been proved as an efficient nuclease-based technology for genome editing which is the best alternative strategy for genetic engineering without having the conflict related with *Agrobacterium*-mediated or direct gene uptake strategies. This approach opens up new vista for editing each member of a gene family targeting multiple gene of interest without modifying the expression of other genes. The CRISPR are loci with variable short spacers interspersed by short repeats, later transcribed into non-coding RNAs (ncRNA). This ncRNA then forms a complex with the Cas and guides the complex to slice complementary target DNA. This system acting on very small desirable target sequence of 1–20 nt of the target gene need to be altered. The principle of this system is based on the function of an endonuclease, Cas9 protein, having two functional domains—RuvC-like domain and the HNH nuclease domain (Cong et al. 2013). This endonuclease enzyme is driven by a synthetic single guide RNA for recognition of its target sequences and ultimately produces double stranded breaks in the target sequences which consequently trigger DNA repairing mechanism and generate various site-specific genetic alterations through non-homologous end joining (NHEJ) or through homology-directed repair (HDR). These genetic alterations cause aberrations either through insertion or deletion and consequently generate frame-shift mutation thus regulating the expression of the functional domain of the target gene (Gratz et al. 2013; Zhou et al. 2014) (Fig. 2).

The CRISPR/Cas9-based genome editing system is easy to opt and cost-effective therefore having immense potential in future gene editing programme. Sometimes, instead of nuclease-based mechanism this system relies on the principle of nickase activity. In that case, the nuclease activity for one strand has been removed, leaving a nickase activity (Cong et al. 2013). Other recent developments include the use of a disarmed nuclease, lacking nuclease activity, which will competitively bind a



**Fig. 2** Schematic illustration of CRISPR/Cas9 technology a new vista for genome editing

defined site to block the access of other molecules such as TFs and down-regulate or turn off the expression of a gene (Gilbert et al. 2013). Similarly, a CRISPR/Cas9 complex can retain transcriptional activators. Further bacterial genera have comparable genes to Cas9, some of which are now being analyzed and developed (Schiml et al. 2014; Zetsche et al. 2015), and further advances are expected to arise from all the variations on this theme (Schaeffer and Nakata 2015). CRISPR/Cas9 is a new emerging concept and has been considered safe for genome editing focusing on biotic and abiotic stress tolerance and creating new metabolites. Recently this system has been utilized in rice for achieving salt stress tolerance following *Arabidopsis*. The  $\Delta$  1-pyrroline-5-carboxylate synthetase (P5CS) is the rate-limiting enzyme in proline (Pro) synthesis and is involved in drought and salt-stress-tolerance in plants. In rice, an OsP5CS gene was isolated from a stress-treated commercial rice variety and based on the DNA isolated sequence, four gRNA (guide RNA) constructs were designed for CRISPR-Cas9 editing of the OsP5CS (*Outermost Cell-specific Gene5*) isolated from the commercial rice variety in order to increase the proline accumulation in cells (Jiang et al. 2013). This study laid the foundation for the development of high yielding rice varieties resistant to drought and salinity using genome editing technology. In the near future, this genome editing technology can be proved as a valuable tool in discovering the functions of signaling pathway components. The number of examples is increasing rapidly, and transmission to the next generation has been shown in several cases.

## 6 Conclusion

A number of studies were conducted on over-expression of candidate genes responsible for subsequently improved tolerance against salinity. Apart from the over-expression approaches that created various salt-tolerant transgenic lines, there were successful gene-silencing methods, utilized for metabolic engineering to attain salt tolerance in plants. Yet, there are ample scopes on use of over-expression ion channel,

antiporter, etc. from stress tolerant plants to salt sensitive crop plants. Nevertheless, a thorough screening is needed to identify if any toxic compound is being produced in the transgenic plants. Functional genomics or biotechnology has a great potential to combat such an ever-increasing salt stress problem to save agriculture.

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