scientific reports



OPEN Effects of extraction methods for a new source of biostimulant from Sargassum horneri on the growth of economically important red algae, *Neopyropiα* yezoensis

Sol Han^{®1,2}, Ji-Sook Park^{®1,2}, Schery Umanzor^{®3}, Charles Yarish^{®4} & Jang K. Kim^{®1,2}

Sargassum horneri is a major bloom forming species in Korea and China. It is important to find a way to utilize the huge biomass of Sargassum horneri in the region. Seaweed-derived biostimulants are primarily derived from brown algae and are known to improve terrestrial crop growth and tolerance to abiotic stresses. Neopyropia yezoensis is the most important seaweed cultured species in Korea, and research is required to increase heat resistance as a solution against climate change. In this study, various extraction methods were used to obtain Sargassum horneri extract, and it was applied to Neopyropia yezoensis to evaluate the effect on physiological activity. Metabolites of Sargassum horneri were extracted by using four different methods: boiling (SBE), soaking (SSE), autoclaving (SAE) and ethanol (SEE). The SBE, SSE and SAE derived extracts showed increased tolerance to high-temperature stress that had inhibited the growth of Neopyropia yezoensis, and show improved growth compared to the control group. The SBE and SSE extraction methods improved the content of phycobiliprotein, but also the SBE increased superoxide dismutase (SOD) activity. Based on the results of this study, the boiling extraction method appears to be the most suitable method for the extraction of plants stimulants from Sargassum horneri.

Seaweeds have been extensively cultivated in Asian countries including China, Indonesia, Korea, and Japan¹. The seaweed aquaculture industry is growing rapidly in Americas and Europe, with cultivation gaining interest boosted by applications for food, feed, cosmeceuticals, nutraceuticals and most recently for biofuels²⁻⁴. Korea is the third largest producer of seaweed in the world after China and Indonesia¹. Neopyropia spp. (primarily N. yezoensis) (Rhodophyta) are the major aquaculture species, followed by Undaria pinnatifida and Saccharina japonica (Phaeophyceae), with over 500,000 tons of production with an economic value of \$ 600 million in Korea⁵.

The rapid population expansion worldwide, together by challenges posed by extreme weather conditions have created increased challenges in food production and food security. Seaweed aquaculture has been suggested as an important source in the global food security equation⁶. However, as with agriculture, the seaweed aquaculture industry is threatened by the climate change, particularly global warming⁷⁻⁹. Among many environmental stressors, the rise in sea surface temperature is a major stressor, reducing production and quality of seaweeds. For example, the growth rate, phycoerythrin, and nitrogen removal capacity of Neopyropia leucosticta and Porphyra linearis decreases as temperature increases from 10 to 20 °C⁹. Neopyropia tenera grows slower and deteriorates as temperature increases from 12 to 25 °C. Chlorophyll a and phycocyanin of N. tenera gradually decreases when the species is cultured at 25 °C for prolonged periods of time¹⁰. High temperature also causes oxidative damage by triggering intracellular reactive oxygen species (ROS) in algae¹¹⁻¹⁴.

¹Department of Marine Science, Incheon National University, Incheon 22012, Korea. ²Research Institute of Basic Sciences, Incheon National University, Incheon 22012, Korea. ³College of Fisheries and Ocean Sciences, University of Alaska Fairbanks, Juneau, AK 99801, USA. ⁴Department of Ecology and Evolutionary Biology, University of Connecticut, Stamford, CT 06901-2315, USA. [™]email: jang.kim@inu.ac.kr

Several attempts have been conducted to develop mutant cultivars of *Neopyropia* spp. that have enhanced thermal resiliency and tolerance but have not been successful. However, improvement in thermal tolerance by seaweed derived biostimulants for red algae is in the early stages of development, however these biostimulants have already been demonstrated to enhance thermal tolerance in *Ecklonia* sp. and *Saccharina* spp. (Phaeophyceae)^{10,15-17}. For instance, Umanzor et al.¹⁶ exposed *Saccharina latissima* and *S. angustissima* to *Ascophyllum* (Phaeophyceae) (Acadian) Marine plant extract powder (AMPEP, Acadian Seaplants, LLC.), a commercially available extract. They reported that AMPEP treated sporophytes exhibited higher survival and growth at suboptimal temperature (18 °C). The blades even became 3 times thicker in comparison to the plants without treatment. Another commercial extract, Kelpak^{*} from the brown alga, *Ecklonia maxima* also enhanced the survival of the same species at the same temperature¹⁷. The red alga, *Kappaphycus alvarezii* exposed to AMPEP was also improved biotic and abiotic stress tolerance, resulting in higher productivity and quality¹⁸. The application of seaweed derived biostimulants onto cultures of *Neopyropia* spp. while in the nursery may be an alternative to developing cultures with higher thermal tolerance that merits further exploration.

Recent and more frequent, algal blooms of Sargassum horneri (Phaeophyceae), also called 'golden tides', are responsible for negative impacts on maritime industries (aquaculture) and tourism in China and Korea¹⁹. What to do with all the excess biomass of this species is major problem in the region. S. horneri has not been studied as a source of biostimulants, but other Sargassum species have been suggested as a potential source for biostimulants applicable to farming^{19,20}. Namely, lentils (*Lens esculenta*) exposed to Sargassum vulgare extract (5%), showed an improvement in growth²¹. Sargassum angustifolium extract improved shoot length and dry weight of rapeseed (Brassica napus) and also enhanced photosynthetic pigment content, free radical scavenging and superoxide dismutase (SOD) activity under desiccation stress²². These enhancements varied depending on the extraction method even if the same species was used²³⁻²⁷. When Solanum lycopersicum (tomato) was treated with extracts of Ascophyllum nodosum, the concentrations of trace elements (Fe, Mn, Cu and Zn) and the expression levels of growth-related hormones were significantly different. The alkaline extract of Ascophyllum nodosum significantly increased the dry weight of the roots. The acidic extract of Ascophyllum nodosum increased antioxidant enzyme activity such as CAT and SOD in roots²⁷. The present study examined possible differences associated with four distinct extraction methods to obtain Sargassum horneri biostimulants, which were applied to the economically important red alga, Neopyropia yezoensis. Assessments were conducted by measuring the specific growth rate, antioxidant enzyme activities and total protein content of N. yezoensis treated with these extracts for 10 days.

Method and materials

Collection of seaweeds. The *Neopyropia yezoensis* strain (NY-HN-ST1) was originally collected from a commercial farm at Haenam, Korea (34° 57'N, 126° 60'E) in December 2020. This strain was vegetatively propagated at the Marine Ecology and Green Aquaculture Laboratory, Incheon National University using a BF-400PGC plant growth chamber (Biofree, Bucheon, Korea) at optimal growth conditions before used^{28,29}. Growing conditions included von Stosch enriched medium (VSE), 10 °C, 90±10 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) provided by cool white, fluorescent bulbs, 12:12 L:D, and 30 psu of salinity.

Preparation of biostimulants. Sargassum horneri was collected at Jumunjin, Gangwon, Korea (37° 90'N, 128° 83'E) in June 2020. The fresh biomass was thoroughly washed with tap water to remove epiphytes, sand, and debris. Clean biomass was then dried and ground finely into powder. The first was prepared by autoclaving (SAE) according to Zahra et al.³⁰ with some modifications. In short, 3 g of powder was added to 300 mL of distilled water, stirred, and autoclaved at 121 °C for 15 min. The extract was cooled at room temperature and centrifuged at 2220g for 10 min. The supernatant was obtained as a liquid extract. The second extract, hereafter ethanol extract (SEE), was prepared according to Motshakeri et al.³¹ with slight modification. 250 g of powder was added to 2.5 L of distilled water and shaken occasionally at room temperature for 72 h, and then filtered with Whatman no. 1 filter paper with 11 µm pore size and concentrated with a rotary vacuum evaporator (R-210, Buchi, Switzerland) at 40 °C. As a result, dried powder was obtained, which was used in experiments. Soaking and boiling extracts were prepared according to Godlewska et al.²³ with some modification. Both extracts were prepared by adding 3 g of powder to 300 mL of distilled water. To obtain a third extract, i.e., soaking extract (SSE), 3 g of powder was soaked in 300 mL of distilled water for two days at room temperature. Lastly, a fourth extract, called boiling extract (SBE), was obtained by boiling 3 g of powder with 300 mL of distilled water for 30 min in a water bath and cooled at room temperature. Both extracts were centrifuged at 3134g for 25 min. The supernatant was filtered with Whatman no.1 filter paper with 11 µm pore size and the final liquid extract was then obtained.

Experimental design. Neopyropia yezoensis collected in field was cultured in 2 L glass cylinder at a stocking density of 1 g L⁻¹. For SBE, SEE, SSE, and SAE treatments, samples were exposed to 10% of each extract for 10 days at 10 °C, $90 \pm 10 \mu$ mol m⁻² s⁻¹ photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) provided by cool white, fluorescent bulbs and 12:12 L:D. The control included only sterilized seawater and VSE medium without extract. The culture medium was renewed every 5 days to avoid nutrient limitation. The salinity was kept constant at 30 psu. After the exposure to extracts, *N. yezoensis* samples were washed in sterilized seawater to remove residues. The washed *N. yezoensis* was cultivated at two different temperatures, 10 or 20 °C, in a 500 mL Erlenmeyer flask with a stocking density of 1 g L⁻¹ using VSE medium with 0.25% (w/v) germanium dioxide²⁹. The samples were cultivated for 15 days, and the medium was changed every 5 days. On the same day, fresh weight of thalli was measured to calculate specific growth rate. The superoxide dismutase (SOD), catalase (CAT), ascorbate peroxidase (APX), glutathione reductase (GR), reactive oxygen species (ROS), hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂), lipid peroxidation (LPO), total phenol, total protein, and pigment (Chlorophyll *a*, phycobiliprotein) were analyzed at the end of the experiment. Specific growth rates (SGR) were calculated using the following equation,

$$SGR (\%/d) = \frac{ln W_{end} - ln W_{initial}}{T_{end} - T_{initial}} \times 100$$

where W_{end} and $W_{initial}$ represent the weights of the thalli on days T_{end} and $T_{initial}$.

Analysis of antioxidant enzyme activity. Fresh thalli (approximately 100 mg) were ground in 1 mL potassium phosphate buffer (50 mM, pH 7.0) containing 0.25% Triton X-100 and 1% polyvinylpyrrolidone on ice using motor driven tissue grinder. The homogenate was centrifuged at 12,000g for 10 min at 4 °C. The supernatant was used to measure the activity of SOD, CAT, GR, APX, total protein and ROS. Enzyme activities were measured in triplicate.

The protein content was determined based on Bradford³². Briefly, 25 μ L enzyme extract was added with 75 μ L of distilled water and 2.5 mL of Bradford's reagent (0.025 g Coomassie Blue dye, 12.5 mL of 95% (v:v) ethanol and 25 mL H₃PO₄ diluted to 250 mL with distilled water). Reagents were vortexed for proper mixing and allowed for 5 min prior to taking absorbance at 595 nm. Total protein content was measured using bovine serum albumin (BSA) as standard and expressed as mg/g.

Superoxide dismutase (SOD; E.C. 1.15.1.1) activity was measured according to Misra and Fridovich³³. Briefly, 20 μ L enzyme extract was added to 150 μ L carbonate buffer (pH 10.2). The production of adrenochrome due to autoxidation of epinephrine was measured at 480 nm over 3 min against a blank and activity was expressed as U/mg protein.

Catalase (CAT; E.C. 1.11.1.6) activity was measured according to Dhindsa et al.³⁴. Briefly, 100 μ L enzyme extract was added to 750 μ L potassium phosphate buffer (50 mM, pH 7.0), 500 μ L distilled water and 150 μ L H₂O₂ (0.1 M). Absorbance was read at 240 nm at 0 and 2 min. Activity was estimated using the molar extinction coefficient of H₂O₂ (0.043 mM⁻¹ com⁻¹) and expressed as U/mg protein.

Glutathione reductase (GR; E.C. 1.8.1.7) activity was measured according to Ross and Alstyne³⁵. Briefly, 15 μ L enzyme extract was added with 600 μ L Tris–HCl buffer (100 mM, pH 7.8) containing 100 μ M NADPH, 1 mM EDTA and 0.5 mM oxidized glutathione. Absorbance was measured at 340 nm for 3 min against blank. Enzyme activity was calculated using extinction coefficient of NADPH (6.2 mM/cm) and expressed as U/mg protein.

Ascorbate peroxidase (APX; E.C. 1.11.1.11) activity was measured according to Murshed et al.³⁶. Briefly, 10 μ L enzyme extract was added to 185 μ L reaction buffer (50 mM potassium phosphate buffer, 0.25 mM ascorbic acid). After shaking for 5 s to determine nonspecific ascorbate degradation, absorbance was measured at 290 nm at 25 °C for 3 min. Then, 5 μ L H₂O₂ (200 mM) was added, shaken for 5 s, and then measured at 290 nm at 25 °C for 5 min. Enzyme activity was calculated using extinction coefficient of 2.8 mM⁻¹ cm⁻¹ and expressed as U/mg protein.

Analysis of oxidative stress parameters. Fresh thalli (approximately 100 mg) were ground with 1 mL 10% (w:v) trichloroacetic acid (TCA) solution on ice using motor driven tissue grinder. The homogenate was centrifuged at 7000g for 10 min at 4 °C. The supernatant was used to determine the H_2O_2 and lipid peroxidation (LPO) levels. Oxidative stress parameters were measured in triplicate.

Reactive oxygen species (ROS) was measured according to Cathcart et al.³⁷. Briefly, 20 µL extract was added to 180 µL sample buffer and 200 µL dye solution (1 mM DCFDA, 0.01 N NaOH and 25 mM, pH 7.2 sodium phosphate buffer). Fluorescence absorbance (λ_{ex} = 485 nm and λ_{em} = 535 nm) was measured after 1 h incubation at 20 °C in dark condition. ROS level was expressed as U/mg protein.

 H_2O_2 was measured according to Sergiev et al.³⁸. Briefly, 50 µL supernatant was added to 150 µL potassium phosphate buffer (50 mM, pH 7.0) and 100 µL potassium iodide (1 M). Absorbance was measured at 390 nm against blank. H_2O_2 level was quantified using H_2O_2 standard curve and expressed as nmol/g fresh weight.

Lipid peroxidation (LPO) level was detected by measuring the malondialdehyde (MDA) content according to Heath and Packer³⁹. Briefly, 100 μ L supernatant was added to 2 mL thiobarbituric acid (TCA) and then placed in a water bath for 45 min at 95 °C. Finally, the mixture was centrifuged at 4000g for 10 min (if necessary) and absorbance was measured at 532 nm against blank. LPO level was expressed as μ mol MDA/mg protein using extinction coefficient of 156 mM⁻¹ cm⁻¹.

Analysis of total phenol content and pigment. Fresh thalli (approximately 20 mg) were homogenized with 2 mL ice-cold 95% (w:w) methanol using motor driven tissue grinder. The homogenate was incubated at room temperature in the dark for 48 h and centrifuged at 13,000g for 5 min. The supernatant was used to determine the total phenol content and chlorophyll *a*. All measurements were performed in triplicate.

Total phenol content was measured according to Ainsworth and Gillespie⁴⁰. Briefly, 100 μ L supernatant was added to 200 μ L of 10% (v:v) Folin–Ciocalteu reagent and then vortexed thoroughly. Approximately 800 μ L of Na₂CO₃ (700 mM) was added and incubated at room temperature for 2 h, and absorbance was measured at 765 nm. The phenol content was quantified using a garlic acid standard curve and expressed mg GAE/g fresh weight.

Chlorophyll *a* was estimated based on Lichtenthaler and Wellburn⁴¹. Briefly, supernatant was measured at 666 and 653 nm respectively and expressed as mg/g fresh weight. Phycobiliprotein (phycoerythrin, PE and phycocyanin, PC) were extracted using 2 mL sodium phosphate buffer (50 mM, pH 6.7) based on Lin and Stekoll⁴². After homogenizing using a motor driven tissue grinder, the sample was centrifuged at 14,000g for 30 min at 4 °C. The supernatant was measured at 568, 620 and 730 nm, respectively and expressed as mg/g fresh weight.





| | | | | | | | Temperature * Extract | | |
|-------------------------------|-------------|---------|---------|-------------------|--------|---------|-----------------------|--------|---------|
| | Temperature | | | Extraction method | | | method | | |
| Parameter | df | F | p | df | F | p | df | F | p |
| SGR | 1 | 248.974 | < 0.001 | 4 | 9.929 | < 0.001 | 4 | 7.622 | < 0.001 |
| Chlorophyll a | 1 | 153.391 | < 0.001 | 4 | 3.779 | < 0.05 | 4 | 5.325 | < 0.05 |
| Phycocyanin | 1 | 48.891 | < 0.001 | 4 | 7.961 | < 0.001 | 4 | 5.809 | < 0.05 |
| Phycoerythrin | 1 | 61.736 | < 0.001 | 4 | 13.796 | < 0.001 | 4 | 7.365 | < 0.001 |
| Phenol | 1 | 9.765 | < 0.05 | 4 | 2.150 | >0.05 | 4 | 0.641 | >0.05 |
| Protein | 1 | 8.436 | < 0.05 | 4 | 1.195 | >0.05 | 4 | 1.681 | >0.05 |
| SOD | 1 | 31.492 | < 0.001 | 4 | 19.434 | < 0.001 | 4 | 12.138 | < 0.001 |
| CAT | 1 | 49.865 | < 0.001 | 4 | 2.359 | >0.05 | 4 | 1.312 | >0.05 |
| GR | 1 | 176.683 | < 0.001 | 4 | 4.529 | < 0.05 | 4 | 3.902 | < 0.05 |
| APX | 1 | 53.845 | < 0.001 | 4 | 9.781 | < 0.001 | 4 | 2.179 | >0.05 |
| ROS | 1 | 6.859 | < 0.05 | 4 | 8.158 | < 0.001 | 4 | 3.886 | < 0.05 |
| H ₂ O ₂ | 1 | 9.358 | < 0.05 | 4 | 3.741 | < 0.05 | 4 | 3.565 | < 0.05 |
| LPO | 1 | 28.696 | < 0.001 | 4 | 0.706 | >0.05 | 4 | 2.06 | >0.05 |

Table 1. Assessments of growth, pigments, total phenol content, total protein content, antioxidants and oxidative stress parameters of *Neopyropia yezoensis* using two-way ANOVAs as a function of temperature (10 and 20 °C), extraction methods (SBE, SWE, SSE and SAE), and their interaction. Significant differences are bolded.

Statistical analysis. Two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's test (p < 0.05) was performed to examine the effect of temperature, extract, and their interaction. Normality (Sapiro–Wilk test), variable independence (Durbin–Watson test), and homogeneity of variance (Levene's test) were checked for each factor and level. The data did not require transformation. Data are presented as mean ± standard deviation. All statistical analyses were performed using Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) program version 25 (SPSS Inc., Chicago Illinois, USA).

Results and discussion

Effects of biostimulant and temperature on growth. Growth rates at 10 °C were higher than those at 20 °C (Fig. 1). *Neopyropia yezoensis* showed similar growth rates at 10 °C regardless of the extraction methods. At 20 °C, however, SBE and SAE had the highest growth rates, followed by SSE, SEE and control (Fig. 1, p < 0.004). The growth rate was significantly affected by the interaction of extraction method and temperature (Table 1, p < 0.001). These results confirm that 20 °C have negative effects on the growth of *N. yezoensis* compared to 10 °C. Yamamoto et al.⁴³ also found that the growth of *Neopyropia yezoensis* was lower at 20 °C than at 10 °C. Results shown here provide clear evidence that *S. horneri* extracts have a positive effect on thermal tolerance in *N. yezoensis*. Similar to our findings, studies on land plants have shown similar enhancements in tolerance to physical stress provided by extracts from other species within *Sargassum*. For example, an *Sargassum vulgare* extract increased the germination and growth of *Durum triticum*, and the seed of tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum*) under saline stress^{44,45}. Also, pretreatment with *Sargassum latifolium* extract (1.5%) mitigated a damage from drought stress in *Triticum aestivum*⁴⁶.





Our study also showed that the extraction methods play a key role on the enhancements that could be provided. SBE and SAE were the most efficient method to improve the thermal tolerance in Neopyropia yezoensis. In terms of production of N. yezoensis, the daily production in the control and SBE at 10 °C was 0.108 and 0.118 g L⁻¹, respectively. The daily production values at 20 °C were reduced to 0.015 and 0.043 g L⁻¹, respectively. In other words, SBE developed in this study can increase the production of N. yezoensis by 185%, compared to the control at 20 °C. The boiling method (SBE) has been considered a good method of extraction in other studies²³. Godlewska et al.²³ compared extractions using Polysiphonia (Rhodophyta), Ulva and Cladophora (Chlorophyta) by boiling and soaking methods. Ten percent boiling extract showed the highest growth results for garden cress (Lepidium sativum). The extract (50%) produced by boiling Ulva lactuca (formerly Ulva fasciata), Sargassum ilicifolium (Phaeophyceae) and Gracilaria corticata (Rhodophyta) in distilled water had a positive effect on fresh weight and total nitrogen when treated with Trigonella foenum-graecum than the extract (50%) produced by soaking⁴⁷. The boiling extract contains important inorganic nutrients (N, P, S and B) than the soaking extract and is reported to contain higher polyphenols²⁴. In addition, the boiling and autoclaving extracts of brown algae, Sargassum sp. contain higher polyphenols compared to green and red algae⁴⁸. Polyphenols are known to be effective antioxidants⁴⁹. Organic compounds such as organic acid, methionine, polyamines, polyphenol and mannitol contained in brown algae chelate available nutrients, increasing nutrient absorption and allowing effective nutrient use49,50.



Figure 3. Superoxide dismutase (SOD; **a**), catalase (CAT; **b**), glutathione reductase (GR; **c**), ascorbate peroxidase (APX; **d**) of *Neopyropia yezoensis* at different temperatures (10 and 20 °C) and four different extraction methods using *Sargassum horneri* as source of extract. Different letter on the bar indicates significant differences (p < 0.05). Error bars mean ± SD of triplicate. Control (without extract), *S. horneri* boiling extract (SBE), *S. horneri* ethanol extract (SEE), *S. horneri* soaking extract (SSE) and *S. horneri* autoclaving extract (SAE).

Effects of biostimulant and temperature on pigments. Chlorophyll *a* assays showed similar results for SBE, SEE, SSE, and the controls at 10 °C, with the only significant difference detected in SAE (Fig. 2a). Chlorophyll *a* contents were significantly lower at 20 °C than at 10 °C and no positive effects of *Sargassum* extracts were observed (Fig. 2a, p > 0.05). According to the results of present study, the content of chlorophyll *a* appears to decrease at high temperatures. Similar to these results, it was reported that the high temperature of 32–36 °C significantly reduced the photosynthetic pigment in the red alga, *Kappaphycus alvarezii*⁵¹. Phycocyanin and phycoerythrin contents were significantly higher at SBE and SSE at 10 °C than all other conditions (p < 0.001) and no enhancement in thermal tolerance by the extracts were observed (Fig. 2b,c, p > 0.05). Chlorophyll *a* and phycobiliprotein were significantly affected by the interaction of temperature and the extract (Table 1, p < 0.05). According to a previous study, the concentration of phycobiliprotein in *Crassiphycus caudatus* (formerly *Gracilaria caudata*) (Rhodophyta) treated with 5 g L⁻¹ of AMPEP was stimulated. The application of seaweed derived biostimulants may increase the concentration of phycobiliprotein in red alga⁵².

Effects of biostimulant and temperature on biochemical responses. To evaluate oxidative stress, enzymatic (SOD, CAT, GR, and APX) and non-enzymatic (total phenol) antioxidant activity were measured. At 10 °C, SOD activity was highest in SBE, and all other extracts were similar to control. At 20 °C, the SOD in SSE was similar to the control and all other extraction methods showed lower SOD than the control (Fig. 3a). Temperature stress induces oxidative stress. SOD is the first enzyme affecting the decryption pathway for ROS⁵³. Enhancement of SOD activity of Neopyropia yezoensis by SBE in Sargassum horneri extract was observed (Fig. 3a). Treatment with biostimulants derived from brown seaweeds appears to be able to increase SOD activity in land crops. For example, Ascophyllum nodosum extract stimulated SOD activity under drought stress of the plant, Paspalum vaginatum⁵⁴. Another Ascophyllum nodosum based product, Tasco-Forage, also increased the SOD activity in Kentucky bluegrass (Poa pratensis)⁵⁵. As shown in previous work, the SOD activity of Ulva australis and Neopyropia yezoensis decreases over time when these species are subject to salinity stress⁵⁶. Neopyropia yezoensis in the present study also decreased the SOD activity when high temperature treatments. SBE, however, increased their SOD activity at the optimal temperature of 10 °C. It has been reported through several studies that treatment with biostimulant increases the activity of SOD in the absence of stress^{54,57}. SOD is a metalloprotein and includes three isoforms determined by metal-center cofactors: Cu/Zn SOD, Mn SOD and Fe SOD^{12,58}. In previous studies, it was reported that different extraction methods contained different trace elements^{23,27}. As previously mentioned, SBE is rich in organic compounds (i.e., polyphenol, organic acid) for chelating, with can increase the uptake of trace metals for SOD synthesis (Supplementary Information).

Furthermore, CAT is directly involved in photosynthetic reactions⁵⁹. It is a temperature-sensitive enzyme, and its activity decreases with increasing temperature⁶⁰. The present study also showed a significant effect of temperature in the CAT activity (Fig. 3b, p < 0.001). However, the extraction method did not have a significant effect and no interaction between temperature and the extraction method was detected (Fig. 3b and Table 1, p > 0.05).

GR is an enzyme in the Ascorbate–Glutathione (AsA-GSH) cycle and functions as a necessary function in the defense system against ROS by maintaining the reduced state of glutathione. A decrease in GR activity was recorded with increasing temperature in *Synechocystis* PCC-6803⁶¹. GR activity was significantly lower at 20 °C



Figure 4. Hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2 ; **a**), lipid peroxidation (LPO; **b**) and reactive oxygen species (ROS; **c**) of *Neopyropia yezoensis* at different temperatures (10 and 20 °C) and four different extraction methods using *Sargassum horneri*. Different letter on the bar indicates significant differences (p < 0.05). Error bars mean \pm SD of triplicate. Control (without extract), *S. horneri* boiling extract (SBE), *S. horneri* ethanol extract (SEE), *S. horneri* soaking extract (SSE), and *S. horneri* autoclaving extract (SAE).



Figure 5. Total protein of *Neopyropia yezoensis* at different temperatures (10 and 20 °C) and four different extraction methods using *Sargassum horneri* as extract source. Different letter on the bar indicates significant differences (p < 0.05). Error bars mean ± SD of triplicate. Control (without extract), *S. horneri* boiling extract (SBE), *S. horneri* ethanol extract (SEE), *S. horneri* soaking extract (SSE) and *S. horneri* autoclaving extract (SAE).

compared to 10 °C and regardless of the extract (Fig. 3c, p < 0.045). A decrease in GR activity with increasing temperature was observed in the mung bean, *Vigna radiata*⁶². According to Schmidt and Kunert⁶³, GR in *Phaseolus vulgaris* (kidney beans) increased vitamin C and glutathione as a primary reaction after increased lipid peroxidation, followed by increased activity. A higher increase in lipid peroxidation at 10 °C than at 20 °C in *Neopyropia yezoensis* in our study may support the increased activity of GR at the temperature of 10 °C.



Figure 6. Total phenol of *Neopyropia yezoensis* at different temperatures (10 and 20 °C) and four different extraction methods using *Sargassum horneri* as the source of extract. Different letter on the bar indicates significant differences (p < 0.05). Error bars mean ± SD of triplicate. Control (without extract), *S. horneri* boiling extract (SBE), *S. horneri* ethanol extract (SEE), *S. horneri* soaking extract (SSE) and *S. horneri* autoclaving extract (SAE).

On the other hand, APX activity showed an opposite trend to GR activity (Fig. 3d). The APX activity was higher at 20 °C compared to 10 °C. All *Sargassum* extracts showed some enhancement of APX activity in comparison to the control at both temperatures (p < 0.036). A higher plant, *Arabidopsis thaliana* also showed some increase of APX activity when experienced temperature stress (e.g., 22 °C)⁶⁴. Other plants, including *Carrizo citrange* and *Cleopatra mandarin* showed higher sensitivity to heat stress than to drought stress in terms of APX activity⁶⁵. APX is an important component of the AsA-GSH cycle and catalyzes the conversion of H_2O_2 to H_2O^{53} . The reduction of H_2O_2 at 20 °C in the present study may be due to the higher activity of APX (Figs. 3d and 4a). APX has also been reported to help reduce the rate of lipid peroxidation in *Arabidopsis thaliana*⁶⁶. Experiments conducted on *Carapa guianensis* indicate that the APX and CAT activity attenuated stress-induced lipid peroxidation through a positive regulation⁶⁷. These results explain the lower LPO at 20 °C in the present study (Fig. 4b).

The ROS values obtained here, did not show significantly differences as a function of temperature (Fig. 4c, p > 0.05), suggesting that antioxidant enzymes relieved oxidative stress effectively and regulated the ROS balance. A balanced ROS also serves as an important signal modulator in stress conditions rather than a lethal role^{68–70}. Total protein content and total phenol content were affected only by temperature, and there was no significant effect by the extraction method or the interaction between temperature and extract (Figs. 5 and 6, Table 1, p > 0.05).

Conclusion

This study confirms that *Sargassum* extracts, particularly of *S. horneri* can be a new source of biostimulants that enhance the thermal tolerance of *Neopyropia yezoensis*. This study also confirms that the extraction method to obtain biostimulants plays a key role for the effectiveness of the extract. Among the extraction methods, boiling (SBE) and soaking (SSE) of finely ground tissue are the most effective methods to provide growth and phycobiliproteins content enhancements in *N. yezoensis*. Regardless of the extraction method used, the expression levels of antioxidant enzymes and oxidative stress were dominated by temperature. A quantitative analysis of molecules/ chemical compounds from different extraction methods should be conducted to determine what molecules/ chemical compounds in the extracts stimulate the growth and temperature stress tolerance. It is also important to note that the chemical composition of *Sargassum horneri* may exist in different populations. However, given the positive results obtained here, it would be recommended that *Sargassum horneri* extracts be tested on other economically important seaweeds, such as *Undaria pinnatifida* and *Saccharina japonica*.

Received: 4 February 2022; Accepted: 6 July 2022 Published online: 13 July 2022

References

- Kim, J. K., Yarish, C., Hwang, E. K., Park, M. & Kim, Y. Seaweed aquaculture: Cultivation technologies, challenges and its ecosystem services. *Algae* 32, 1–13 (2017).
- 2. Park, J. S. *et al.* Evaluation of nutrient bioextraction by seaweed and shellfish aquaculture in Korea. *J. World Aquacult. Soc.* **52**, 1118–1134 (2021).
- Kim, J. K., Stekoll, M. & Yarish, C. Opportunities, challenges and future directions of open-water seaweed aquaculture in the United States. *Phycologia* 58, 446–461 (2019).
- 4. FAO. The State of World Fisheries and Aquaculture 2020 (2020).
- 5. FAO. Fisheries and aquaculture statistics. https://www.fao.org/fishery/statistics-query/en/capture/capture_quantity (2021).
- 6. Yarish, C. *et al.* Seaweed aquaculture for food security, income generation and environmental health in tropical developing countries. *Banq. Mond.* (2016).
- Tang, Q., Zhang, J. & Fang, J. Shellfish and seaweed mariculture increase atmospheric CO₂ absorption by coastal ecosystems. *Mar. Ecol. Prog. Ser.* 424, 97–104 (2011).
- Duarte, C. M., Wu, J., Xiao, X., Bruhn, A. & Krause-Jensen, D. Can seaweed farming play a role in climate change mitigation and adaptation?. Front. Mar. Sci. 4, 100 (2017).

- Kim, J. K., Kraemer, G. P., Neefus, C. D., Chung, I. K. & Yarish, C. Effects of temperature and ammonium on growth, pigment production and nitrogen uptake by four species of *Porphyra* (Bangiales, Rhodophyta) native to the New England coast. *J. Appl. Phycol.* 19, 431–440 (2007).
- 10. Lee, H.-J. & Choi, J.-I. Enhancing temperature tolerance of *Pyropia tenera* (Bangiales) by inducing mutation. *Phycologia* 58, 496–503 (2019).
- 11. Lesser, M. P. Oxidative stress in marine environments: Biochemistry and physiological ecology. Annu. Rev. Physiol. 68, 253–278 (2006).
- 12. Mallick, N. & Mohn, F. H. Reactive oxygen species: Response of algal cells. J. Plant Physiol. 157, 183-193 (2000).
- Dummermuth, A., Karsten, U., Fisch, K., König, G. & Wiencke, C. Responses of marine macroalgae to hydrogen-peroxide stress. J. Exp. Mar. Biol. Ecol. 289, 103–121 (2003).
- Bischof, K. & Rautenberger, R. Seaweed responses to environmental stress: Reactive oxygen and antioxidative strategies. In Seaweed Biology: Ecological Studies Vol. 219 (eds Wiencke, C. & Bischof, K.) 109–132 (Springer, 2012).
- Ding, H., Zhang, B. & Yan, X. Isolation and characterization of a heat-resistant strain with high yield of *Pyropia yezoensis* Ueda (Bangiales, Rhodophyta). Aquac. Fish. 1, 24–33 (2016).
- Umanzor, S., Shin, S., Yarish, C., Augyte, S. & Kim, J. K. Exploratory evaluation of the effects of Kelpak^{*} seaweed extract on cultivated kelp Saccharina spp. exposed to sublethal and lethal temperatures. J. World Aquacult. Soc. 51, 960–969 (2020).
- 17. Umanzor, S. *et al.* Preliminary assessment on the effects of the commercial seaweed extract, AMPEP, on growth and thermal tolerance of the kelp *Saccharina* spp. from the Northwest Atlantic. *J. Appl. Phycol.* **31**, 3823–3829 (2019).
- Hurtado, A. Q. & Critchley, A. T. A review of multiple biostimulant and bioeffector benefits of AMPEP, an extract of the brown alga Ascophyllum nodosum, as applied to the enhanced cultivation and micropropagation of the commercially important red algal carrageenophyte Kappaphycus alvarezii and its selected cultivars. J. Appl. Phycol. 30, 2859–2873 (2018).
- Byeon, S. Y. et al. The origin and population genetic structure of the 'golden tide' seaweeds, Sargassum horneri, in Korean waters. Sci. Rep. 9, 1–13 (2019).
- 20. Byeon, S. Y. *et al.* Comparative analysis of sequence polymorphism in complete organelle genomes of the 'Golden Tide' seaweed *Sargassum horneri* between Korean and Chinese forms. *Sustainability* **12**, 7280 (2020).
- Mendoza-Morales, L. T., Mendoza-González, A. C., Mateo-Cid, L. E. & Rodríguez-Dorantes, A. Analysis of the effect as biostimulants of Sargassum vulgare and Ulva fasciata extracts on Lens esculenta growth. Mex. J. Biotechnol. 4, 15–28 (2019).
- Shahriari, A. G., Mohkami, A., Niazi, A., Parizipour, M. H. G. & Habibi-Pirkoohi, M. Application of brown algae (Sargassum angustifolium) extract for improvement of drought tolerance in Canola (Brassica napus L.). Iran. J. Biotechnol. 19, e2775 (2021).
- Godlewska, K., Michalak, I., Tuhy, Ł. & Chojnacka, K. Plant growth biostimulants based on different methods of seaweed extraction with water. *Biomed Res. Int.* 2016 (2016).
- Michalak, I., Tuhy, Ł & Chojnacka, K. Seaweed extract by microwave assisted extraction as plant growth biostimulant. Open Chem. 13, 1183 (2015).
- Tierney, M. S. et al. Influence of pressurised liquid extraction and solid–liquid extraction methods on the phenolic content and antioxidant activities of Irish macroalgae. Int. J. Food Sci. Technol. 48, 860–869 (2013).
- Prasedya, E. S. et al. Effect of solid and liquid extract of Sargassum crassifolium on growth and yield of rice plant. in AIP Conference Proceedings 2199, 070007 (AIP Publishing LLC, 2019).
- Carrasco-Gil, S., Hernandez-Apaolaza, L. & Lucena, J. J. Effect of several commercial seaweed extracts in the mitigation of iron chlorosis of tomato plants (Solanum lycopersicum L.). Plant Growth Regul. 86, 401–411 (2018).
- Le, B. et al. Effect of silicon in Pyropia yezoensis under temperature and irradiance stresses through antioxidant gene expression. J. Appl. Phycol. 31, 1297–1302 (2019).
- 29. Redmond, S., Green, L., Yarish, C., Kim, J. & Neefus, C. New England Seaweed Culture Handbook (Connecticut Sea Grant, 2014).
- 30. Zahra, R., Mehrnaz, M., Farzaneh, V. & Kohzad, S. Antioxidant activity of extract from a brown alga, *Sargassum boveanum. Afr. J. Biotechnol.* **6**, 24 (2007).
- 31. Motshakeri, M. et al. Effects of brown seaweed (Sargassum polycystum) extracts on kidney, liver, and pancreas of type 2 diabetic rat model. Evid. Based Complement Altern. Med. 2014 (2014).
- Bradford, M. M. A rapid and sensitive method for the quantitation of microgram quantities of protein utilizing the principle of protein-dye binding. Anal. Biochem. 72, 248–254 (1976).
- Misra, H. P. & Fridovich, I. The role of superoxide anion in the autoxidation of epinephrine and a simple assay for superoxide dismutase. J. Biol. Chem. 247, 3170–3175 (1972).
- Dhindsa, R. S., Plumb-Dhindsa, P. & Thorpe, T. A. Leaf senescence: Correlated with increased levels of membrane permeability and lipid peroxidation, and decreased levels of superoxide dismutase and catalase. J. Exp. Bot. 32, 93–101 (1981).
- Ross, C. & Alstyne, K. L. V. Intraspecific variation in stress-induced hydrogen peroxide scavenging by the ulvoid macroalga Ulva lactuca. J. Phycol. 43, 466–474 (2007).
- Murshed, R., Lopez-Lauri, F. & Sallanon, H. Microplate quantification of enzymes of the plant ascorbate–glutathione cycle. Anal. Biochem. 383, 320–322 (2008).
- Cathcart, R., Schwiers, E. & Ames, B. N. Detection of picomole levels of hydroperoxides using a fluorescent dichlorofluorescein assay. Anal. Biochem. 134, 111–116 (1983).
- Sergiev, I., Alexieva, V. & Karanov, E. Effect of spermine, atrazine and combination between them on some endogenous protective systems and stress markers in plants. *Compt. Rend. Acad. Bulg. Sci.* 51, 121–124 (1997).
- Heath, R. L. & Packer, L. Photoperoxidation in isolated chloroplasts: I. Kinetics and stoichiometry of fatty acid peroxidation. Arch. Biochem. Biophys. 125, 189–198 (1968).
- Ainsworth, E. A. & Gillespie, K. M. Estimation of total phenolic content and other oxidation substrates in plant tissues using Folin-Ciocalteu reagent. Nat. Protoc. 2, 875–877 (2007).
- 41. Lichtenthaler, H. K. & Wellburn, A. R. Determinations of total carotenoids and chlorophylls *a* and *b* of leaf extracts in different solvents. *Biochem. Soc. Trans.* 11, 591–592 (1983).
- 42. Lin, R. & Stekoll, M. S. Phycobilin content of the conchocelis phase of Alaskan *Porphyra* (Bangiales, Rhodophyta) species: Responses to environmental variables. *J. Phycol.* **47**, 208–214 (2011).
- 43. Yamamoto, M., Watanabe, Y. & Kinoshita, H. Effects of water temperature on the growth of red alga *Porphyra yezoensis* form *narawaensis* (nori) cultivated in an outdoor raceway tank. *Nippon Suisan Gakkaishi* 57, 2211–2217 (1991).
- 44. Latique, S., Elouaer, M. A., Chernane, H., Hannachi, C. & Elkaoua, M. Effect of seaweed liquid extract of *Sargassum vulgare* on growth of durum wheat seedlings (*Triticum durum* L) under salt stress. *Int. J. Innov. Appl. Stud.* 7, 1430 (2014).
- 45. Aymen, E. M., Salma, L., Halima, C., Cherif, H. & Mimoun, E. Effect of seaweed extract of *Sargassum vulgare* on germination behavior of two tomatoes cultivars (*Solanum lycopersicum* L) under salt stress. *Octa J. Environ. Res.* **2** (2014).
- Kasim, W. A., Hamada, E. A., El-Din, N. S. & Eskander, S. Influence of seaweed extracts on the growth, some metabolic activities and yield of wheat grown under drought stress. *Int. J. Agron. Agric. Res* 7, 173–189 (2015).
- 47. Pise, N. M. & Sabale, A. Effect of seaweed concentrates on the growth and biochemical constituents of *Trigonella foenum-graecum* L. J. Phytol. **2**, 50–56 (2010).
- Yangthong, M., Hutadilok-Towatana, N. & Phromkunthong, W. Antioxidant activities of four edible seaweeds from the southern coast of Thailand. *Plant Food Hum. Nutr.* 64, 218–223 (2009).

- 49. Battacharyya, D., Babgohari, M. Z., Rathor, P. & Prithiviraj, B. Seaweed extracts as biostimulants in horticulture. Sci. Hortic. 196, 39–48 (2015).
- Chatzissavvidis, C. & Therios, I. Role of algae in agriculture. In Seaweeds: Agricultural Uses, Biological and Antioxidant Agents (ed. Pomin, V. H.) 1–37 (Nova Science Publishers Inc, 2014).
- 51. Kumar, Y. N. *et al.* Impact of elevated temperature on the physiological and biochemical responses of *Kappaphycus alvarezii* (Rhodophyta). *PLoS One* **15**, e0239097 (2020).
- Souza, J. M., Castro, J. Z., Critchley, A. T. & Yokoya, N. S. Physiological responses of the red algae *Gracilaria caudata* (Gracilariales) and *Laurencia catarinensis* (Ceramiales) following treatment with a commercial extract of the brown alga *Ascophyllum nodosum* (AMPEP). J. Appl. Phycol. 31, 1883–1888 (2019).
- 53. Gill, S. S. *et al.* Superoxide dismutase—mentor of abiotic stress tolerance in crop plants. *Environ. Sci. Pollut. Res.* 22, 10375–10394 (2015).
- 54. O Elansary, H., Mahmoud, E. A., El-Ansary, D. O. & Mattar, M. A. Effects of water stress and modern biostimulants on growth and quality characteristics of mint. *Agronomy* 10, 6 (2020).
- 55. Allen, V. *et al.* Tasco: Influence of a brown seaweed on antioxidants in forages and livestock—A review. *J. Anim. Sci.* **79**, E21–E31 (2001).
- Samanta, P., Shin, S., Jang, S. & Kim, J. K. Comparative assessment of salinity tolerance based on physiological and biochemical performances in Ulva australis and Pyropia yezoensis. Algal Res. 42, 101590 (2019).
- Latef, A. A. H. A., Srivastava, A. K., Saber, H., Alwaleed, E. A. & Tran, L.-S.P. Sargassum muticum and Jania rubens regulate amino acid metabolism to improve growth and alleviate salinity in chickpea. Sci. Rep. 7, 1–12 (2017).
- 58. Rezayian, M., Niknam, V. & Ebrahimzadeh, H. Oxidative damage and antioxidative system in algae. *Toxicol. Rep.* 6, 1309–1313 (2019).
- 59. Eyster, H. C. Effect of temperature on catalase activity. Ohio J. Sci. 50, 273-277 (1950).
- Morgulis, S., Beber, M. & Rabkin, I. Studies on the effect of temperature on the catalase reaction. J. Biol. Chem. 68, 547–563 (1926).
 Rady, A. A., El-Sheekh, M. M. & Matkovics, B. Temperature shift-induced changes in the antioxidant enzyme system of Cyanobacterium Synechocystis PCC 6803. Int. J. Biochem. Cell Biol. 26, 433–435 (1994).
- Nahar, K., Hasanuzzaman, M., Alam, M. M. & Fujita, M. Exogenous glutathione confers high temperature stress tolerance in mung bean (*Vigna radiata* L.) by modulating antioxidant defense and methylglyoxal detoxification system. *Environ. Exp. Bot.* 112, 44–54 (2015).
- Schmidt, A. & Kunert, K. J. Lipid peroxidation in higher plants: The role of glutathione reductase. *Plant Physiol.* 82, 700–702 (1986).
 Lokhande, S. D., Ogawa, K. I., Tanaka, A. & Hara, T. Effect of temperature on ascorbate peroxidase activity and flowering of *Arabidopsis thaliana* ecotypes under different light conditions. *J. Plant Physiol.* 160, 57–64 (2003).
- Balfagón, D., Zandalinas, S. I., Baliño, P., Muriach, M. & Gómez-Cadenas, A. Involvement of ascorbate peroxidase and heat shock proteins on citrus tolerance to combined conditions of drought and high temperatures. *Plant Physiol. Biochem.* 127, 194–199 (2018).
- 66. Rodríguez-Martínez, R. E. *et al.* Element concentrations in pelagic *Sargassum* along the Mexican Caribbean coast in 2018–2019. *Peer J* 8, e8667 (2020).
- Cruz, F., Castro, G., Júnior, D. S., Festucci-Buselli, R. & Pinheiro, H. Exogenous glycine betaine modulates ascorbate peroxidase and catalase activities and prevent lipid peroxidation in mild water-stressed *Carapa guianensis* plants. *Photosynthetica* 51, 102–108 (2013).
- 68. Khedia, J. et al. Sargassum seaweed extract enhances Macrophomina phaseolina resistance in tomato by regulating phytohormones and antioxidative activity. J. Appl. Phycol. 32, 4373–4384 (2020).
- 69. Mittler, R. et al. ROS signaling: The new wave?. Trends Plant Sci. 16, 300-309 (2011).
- Lehmann, S., Serrano, M., L'Haridon, F., Tjamos, S. E. & Metraux, J.-P. Reactive oxygen species and plant resistance to fungal pathogens. *Phytochemistry* 112, 54–62 (2015).

Acknowledgements

This study was supported by the Basic Science Research Program through the National Research Foundation of Korea (NRF) funded by the Ministry of Education (NRF- 2017R1A6A1A06015181) and by the Ministry of Science and ICT (2019R1F1A1059663 and 2022R1A2C1011394).

Author contributions

S.H.: Conception, Design of the work, the acquisition, analysis, interpretation of data, Writing - Original draft. J.-S.P.: Conception, Design of the work, Writing - Review & Editing. S.U.: Conception, Writing - Review & Editing. C.Y.: Conception, Writing - Review & Editing. J.K.K.: Conception, Design of the work, the acquisition, analysis, interpretation of data, Writing - Review & Editing, Supervision. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Additional information

Supplementary Information The online version contains supplementary material available at https://doi.org/ 10.1038/s41598-022-16197-0.

Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to J.K.K.

Reprints and permissions information is available at www.nature.com/reprints.

Publisher's note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

Open Access This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/.

© The Author(s) 2022