

REVIEW

Hydrogen peroxide in regulation of plant metabolism: Signalling and its effect under abiotic stress

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Abstract

In plants, hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) acts as a signalling molecule that facilitates various biochemical and physiological processes. H₂O₂ is a versatile molecule, involved in several cellular processes both under stress and stress-free conditions. In regulating plant metabolism under stress conditions, exogenous application of H₂O₂ also plays a pivotal role which is manifested in improved growth, photosynthetic capacity, and antioxidant protection. Abiotic stress is an inevitable environmental factor that extensively affects and reduces growth, quality, yield, and productivity of plants. Several signalling pathways involved in H₂O₂-mediated stress and defense responses have been extensively studied and there is ample scope of additional research that could further clarify the mechanism and modulating factors which regulate these pathways. An attempt has been made to dissect the role of H₂O₂ under low temperature stress and how it affects plant growth and development, photosynthetic capacity, regulation of antioxidant system, and signalling.

Additional key words: antioxidants; hydrogen peroxide; low temperature; photosynthesis; reactive oxygen species; signalling.

Introduction

Hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) plays diverse roles in plants and acts as a signalling molecule. In the past two decades, evidence has been accumulating to address involvement of H₂O₂ in stress responses in plants; but how it interacts with phytohormones and the ways how signals are involved in biological processes remain fragmentary and still to be unravelled in detail. H₂O₂ mediates complex biological functions in plants because of its properties of free radical, small size, and high diffusibility (Leshem *et al.* 1998). In last ten years, various researchers tried to study the role of H₂O₂ as a signalling molecule. Because of its low reactivity compared to other types of reactive oxygen species (ROS), it has relatively long-life span and small size of H₂O₂ molecules is very helpful to cross biological

membranes, facilitating signalling functions (Noctor *et al.* 2014). ROS may interact selectively with a target molecule that perceives the increase of ROS concentration and translates this information into signals that direct the plant responses to stress. ROS would be ideally more suited to act as such signaling molecules. There are several mechanisms for ROS production, some of which are rapid and controllable, and there are numerous mechanisms for rapid removal of ROS (Apel and Hirt 2004). The antioxidant systems, including detoxifying enzymes, play a pivotal role in regulating the H₂O₂ concentration (Noctor and Foyer 1998). Thus, antioxidant enzymes are emerging as key regulators of the multitude of pathways that respond to H₂O₂. In fact, both the production and scavenging

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Abbreviations: APX – ascorbate peroxidase; C_i – internal CO₂ concentration; CAT – catalase; DHAR – dehydroascorbate reductase; g_s – stomatal conductance; GPX – glutathione peroxidase; GR – glutathione reductase; MDHAR – monodehydroascorbate reductase; MAPK – mitogen-activated protein kinase; NPK1 – *Nicotiana* protein kinase 1; Φ_{PSII} – photochemical efficiency of PSII; POX – peroxidase; P_N – net photosynthetic rate; q_P – photochemical quenching coefficient; ROS – reactive oxygen species; SOD – superoxide dismutase; SPAD – soil and plant analysis development.

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of H₂O₂ in plant cells seems to be an integrated network that are responsible for triggering biological responses. However, H₂O₂ plays a versatile role in plants at low concentration; it acts as a signalling molecule and is also involved in the mitigation of numerous abiotic and biotic stresses (He *et al.* 2009, Mittler *et al.* 2011, Dietz *et al.* 2016). At higher concentrations, it induces the onset of cell death (Gechev and Hille 2005, Karuppanapandian *et al.* 2011, Bhattacharjee 2012). It plays an important role in plant cell wall reinforcement (cross-linking of cell wall structural proteins, lignification), production of phytoalexin, and resistance augmentation against diverse stresses (Gill and Tuteja 2010, Ahmad 2014). H₂O₂ is a key regulator in a broad range of physiological and biological processes such as germination and seedling growth (Wahid *et al.* 2008), photosynthesis (Noctor and Foyer 1998, Fariduddin *et al.* 2014, Khan *et al.* 2015, Hasan *et al.* 2016), stomatal movement, cell growth, and

development (Deng *et al.* 2012), antioxidant systems (Khan *et al.* 2015, 2016, Hasan *et al.* 2016), and senescence (Peng *et al.* 2005). Therefore, it has been reported that the endogenous content of H₂O₂ depends on its production rates and utilization by antioxidant systems (Hung *et al.* 2005, Terzi *et al.* 2014). It has been described that H₂O₂ plays pivotal roles in modulating defense response of plants to diverse environmental stresses, such as salt stress (Li *et al.* 2011, Ashfaq *et al.* 2014), oxidative stress (Morita *et al.* 1999, Iseri *et al.* 2013), nickel stress (Khan *et al.* 2016), copper stress (Guzel and Terzi 2013, Fariduddin *et al.* 2014), heat stress (Wang *et al.* 2014), and chilling stress (Yu *et al.* 2003, Wang *et al.* 2010). In addition to this, exogenous application of H₂O₂ could be an effective approach for enhancing stress tolerance and improving productivity of crop plants under various abiotic stresses.

Role of hydrogen peroxide in plant growth and development

H₂O₂ is involved in many growth and developmental processes of plants, including root gravitropism and root system development (Ma *et al.* 2014, Hernandez-Barrera *et al.* 2015), stomatal movement, cell growth and development (Deng *et al.* 2012), formation of adventitious roots (Dunand *et al.* 2007), cell wall development (Carol and Dolan 2006), stomatal aperture regulation (Ge *et al.* 2015), and programmed cell death (Van Breusegem and Dat 2006, Cheng *et al.* 2015, Vavilala *et al.* 2015). Generally, H₂O₂ was used as a stimulant for inducing germination. Soaking seeds in H₂O₂ improved their germination in many plants, including barley, spinach, camphor, almond, and *Zinnia elegans*, *Panicum virgatum*, *Andropogon gerardii*, and *Sorghastrum nutans* (Chen and Lin 1994, Fontaine *et al.* 1994, Ogawa and Iwabuchi 2001, Sarath *et al.* 2007, Zeinalabedini *et al.* 2009, Barba-Espin *et al.* 2011). It has been shown that presown seed primed with H₂O₂ improved seed quality, resulting in better germination performance and greater vigour, while moderately abolishing aging effects on seeds (Wojtyla *et al.* 2016). Recently, Hasan *et al.* (2016) reported that foliar application of H₂O₂ increased growth parameters in *Vigna unguiculata*. Low concentration of H₂O₂ positively affected the adventitious root growth of marigold and sweet potato seedlings (Deng *et al.* 2012, Liao *et al.* 2012). Several plant hormones have been documented to interact with H₂O₂ during germination and early plant growth (Barba-Espin *et al.* 2010). The encouraging effect of H₂O₂

on seed germination could be due to scavenging of H₂O₂ which resulted in higher production of O₂ required for mitochondrial respiration and metabolic activities in spinach (Katzman *et al.* 2001). Another explanation is that H₂O₂ is helpful in cracking hard seeds, permitting them to interact with water (Chen and Lin 1994). On the other hand, the pericarp and seed coat often contain phenolic compounds and alkaloids, which inhibit seed germination (Tao and Buta 1986, Bhattacharyya *et al.* 1999); these can be oxidized by H₂O₂ (Ogawa and Iwabuchi 2001). It has been suggested that NADPH oxidases are involved in the production of ROS during seed germination (Liu *et al.* 2007) and in breaking its dormancy (Oracz *et al.* 2009). Likewise, hydroxyl radical (OH[•])-mediated cell wall loosening during seed germination and seedling growth have been reported (Müller *et al.* 2009). Moreover, treatment with H₂O₂ during early stage of plants also generated positive effect on germination that, without H₂O₂ treatment, was delayed by temperature stress (Çavusoglu and Kabar 2010). Treatment of seeds with H₂O₂ overcame the delay in germination induced by salt and temperature stress. The proteomic analysis indicated that H₂O₂ induced the expression of proteins related to plant signalling and development (Barba-Espin *et al.* 2010). Therefore, the redox state could be modulated by H₂O₂ corroborated with the expression of proteins involved in signalling and development during the early stage of seedling growth.

Physiological roles of hydrogen peroxide

Hydrogen peroxide and photosynthesis

Photosynthesis is the main source of carbon assimilation in plants. Increasing either photosynthetic efficiency or total plant photosynthetic capacity (delaying leaf senescence) results in the enhanced production of photo-assimilates (van Camp 2005). It has been established that

H₂O₂ affects the net photosynthetic rate and the related attributes in plants (Fariduddin *et al.* 2014, Khan *et al.* 2015, Hasan *et al.* 2016). Khandaker *et al.* (2012) also noted that exogenous application of H₂O₂ increased photosynthetic rates and dry matter content of the leaves in wax apple under field conditions. There is a number of

reports available where the effects of H₂O₂ on photosynthesis have been examined but diversity exists among these observations (Table 1).

The reason for the H₂O₂-mediated increase in photosynthetic efficiency could be due to the fact that H₂O₂ treatments increased the maximum carboxylation rate of Rubisco (V_{cmax}) and initial Rubisco activity, but had no effects on the total activity of Rubisco. This indicates that H₂O₂ mainly regulates the activation state of Rubisco, possibly through the action of Rubisco enzyme (Jiang *et al.*

al. 2012). H₂O₂ treatments also significantly increased the photochemical efficiency of PSII (Φ_{PSII}). Φ_{PSII} is determined by photochemical quenching coefficient (q_p) and maximum quantum yield of PS II (F_v/F_m). The inductions of Φ_{PSII} by H₂O₂ were mainly attributed to q_p but not related to F_v/F_m (Jiang *et al.* 2012). It was reported that q_p is controlled by the demand for ATP and NADPH in the Calvin cycle (Nogues and Baker 2000). The increased activity of the Calvin cycle induced by H₂O₂, therefore, could have contributed to the higher value of q_p .

Table 1. Effect of H₂O₂ on various photosynthetic traits in different plants.

Mode of H ₂ O ₂ application	Plant species	Response	Reference
Exogenous	<i>Brassica juncea</i>	Increased net photosynthesis (P_N), g_s , and C_i	Khan <i>et al.</i> 2016
Foliar spray	<i>Vigna unguiculata</i>	Improved P_N and quantum yield of PSII	Hasan <i>et al.</i> 2016
Foliar spray	<i>Vigna radiata</i>	Improved photosynthesis and related attributes (P_N , C_i , and g_s values)	Fariduddin <i>et al.</i> 2014
Pretreated seedlings	<i>Oryza sativa</i>	Improved quantum yield of PSII	Uchida <i>et al.</i> 2002
Exogenous	<i>Oryza sativa</i>	Regulated P_N and higher activities of phosphoenolpyruvate carboxylase	Ren <i>et al.</i> 2014
Exogenous	<i>Syzygium samarangense</i>	Increased P_N	Khandaker <i>et al.</i> 2012
Exogenous	<i>Tagetes erecta</i>	Increased photochemical quenching coefficient (q_p), leading to transfer of more excited light-energy to PSII reaction centre	Liao <i>et al.</i> 2012
Foliar spray	<i>Cucumis sativus</i>	Enhanced the photochemical efficiency of PSII (Φ_{PSII}) and q_p	Jiang <i>et al.</i> 2012
Pretreatment of seed	<i>Triticum aestivum</i>	Increased P_N	He <i>et al.</i> 2009
Pretreatment of seeds	<i>Triticum aestivum</i>	Photosynthetic pigments and P_N increased	Ashfaq <i>et al.</i> 2014
Foliar spray	<i>Glycine max</i>	Increased the P_N , E , and g_s	Ishibashi <i>et al.</i> 2011
Seed soaking	<i>Vigna radiata</i>	Enhanced P_N , E , and g_s	Khan <i>et al.</i> 2015
Foliar spray	<i>Zea mays</i>	Improved the P_N , E , and g_s , and C_i	Gondim <i>et al.</i> 2013
Exogenous	<i>Vigna radiata</i>	Induced generation of NO in the guard cells and other cell	Lum <i>et al.</i> 2002

Hydrogen peroxide, oxidative stress and antioxidant system

Reactive oxygen species (ROS) are continuously generated during various metabolic processes in mitochondria, chloroplast, peroxisomes, and cytoplasm which disturb normal metabolism through damage of lipids, proteins, and nucleic acids when produced in excess (Hernandez *et al.* 2001, Ahmad *et al.* 2010, Anjum *et al.* 2015). Plants throughout their life are prone to oxidative damage induced by environmental factors due to their sessile nature (Hippeli and Elstner 1996). In addition to this, various abiotic stress factors can also lead to overproduction and accumulation of ROS (H₂O₂, superoxide anion, and hydroxyl radicals; Becana *et al.* 1998, Noctor and Foyer 1998, Gill and Tuteja 2010, Das and Roychoudhury 2014), generating oxidative stress (Das and Roychoudhury 2014, Mostofa *et al.* 2014, Nahar *et al.* 2014). One of the mechanisms actively employed by plants to overcome oxidative stress is activation of antioxidants. Plants have evolved various enzymatic and non-enzymatic antioxidant systems that are involved in protecting plants

against oxidative stress (Pastori and Foyer 2002, Foyer and Noctor 2005). Catalase (CAT), ascorbate peroxidase (APX), dehydroascorbate reductase (DHAR), monodehydroascorbate reductase (MDHAR), superoxide dismutase (SOD), glutathione peroxidase (GPX), glutathione reductase (GR) are the key antioxidant enzymes that constitute major defence system against ROS (Payton *et al.* 2001, Fan and Huang 2012, Jahan and Anis 2014). SOD form the first line of defence against ROS, dismutating superoxide to H₂O₂, while APX, GPX, and CAT subsequently detoxify H₂O₂. The detoxification of H₂O₂ through APX involves a series of events occurring during ascorbate-glutathione cycle (AsA-GSH cycle). Among the non-enzymatic antioxidants GSH and ascorbate play a key role in biological system which include regulation of gene performance (Wingate *et al.* 1988, May *et al.* 1998, Krika *et al.* 2012, Kapoor *et al.* 2015), working as a precursor in the synthesis of phytochelatin and an important component of AsA-GSH cycle. Stress-tolerant plants have higher activities of antioxidant enzymes, including CAT, POX, SOD, and GR (Pinhero *et al.* 1997, Zhang *et al.* 1995).

Studies with transgenic plants that overexpress antioxidant enzymes also substantiate the importance of the antioxidant system for stress tolerance (Holmberg and Bülow 1998). Pretreatment with H_2O_2 has been shown to protect maize seedling from chilling injury by induction of peroxidases and mitochondrial catalase (Prasad *et al.* 1994a, Prasad *et al.* 1994b). H_2O_2 is also implicated as a part of a systemic signal that sets up an acclimatory response to high-light stress in *Arabidopsis* (Karpinski *et al.* 1999). Various studies have also emphasised the role of glutathione and ascorbate in plants signalling (Baier *et al.* 2000, Horling *et al.* 2003, Foyer and Noctor 2003). A correlation between H_2O_2 and antioxidant capacity have been reported in several plant species, such as *Brassica juncea* (Verma *et al.* 2013, Khan *et al.* 2016) *Vigna radiata* (Fariduddin *et al.* 2014, Khan *et al.* 2015), soybean (Ishibashi *et al.* 2011), *Vigna unguiculata* (Hasan *et al.* 2016), tomato (Zhou *et al.* 2012, Iseri *et al.* 2013), cucumber (Xia *et al.* 2009), and maize (Gondim *et al.* 2013). Sofo *et al.* (2015) discussed the role of H_2O_2 in plants experiencing water deficit and salinity and how CAT and APX activities are regulated at a gene level under these conditions. Moreover, transgenic plants overexpressing ROS-scavenging enzymes, such as SOD (Alscher *et al.* 2002), APX (Wang *et al.* 1999), GR (Foyer *et al.* 1995), and GPX (Roxas *et al.* 1997, 2000) showed enhanced tolerance to osmotic, temperature, and photoinhibition. The accumulation of proline is also reported to play a significant role in decreasing the photodamage of thylakoid membranes by scavenging the superoxide radicals (Ashraf and Foolad 2007, Banu *et al.* 2009). α -tocopherols, lipid-soluble antioxidants are considered as scavengers of ROS and lipid radicals in plants (Hollander-Czytko *et al.* 2005). Tocopherols are reflected as a major antioxidant in biomembranes, where they are involved as both antioxidant and non-antioxidant functions. They are considered general antioxidants for protecting membrane stability, including quenching or scavenging ROS as singlet oxygen. Out of four isomers of tocopherols (α -, β -, γ -, δ -) found in plants, α -tocopherol has the maximum antioxidative activity due to the occurrence of three methyl groups in its molecular structure (Kamal-Eldin and Appelqvist 1996). Carotenoids are pigments that are common in plants and microorganisms. These lipid-soluble antioxidants play important roles in plant metabolism and oxidative-stress tolerance. Carotenoids also provide protection *via* quenching of toxic ROS (Gill and Tuteja 2010, Kubis *et al.* 2014). Glycine betaine (GB) acts as a key osmoprotectant having significant potential to alleviate harmful effect produced by a variety of abiotic stresses in many organisms including algae, fungi, cyanobacteria, animals, and some higher plants (Türkan and Demiral 2009). In response to numerous environmental stresses, mainly drought and salinity, GB is stored in chloroplasts of some plant species and likewise, reported in diverse kind of microbes (Ranganayakulu *et al.* 2013).

Role of hydrogen peroxide in tolerance to abiotic stresses

H_2O_2 is generated due to exposure of various stresses, and many researchers have suggested that H_2O_2 plays a key role in acclimatization and cross-tolerance (Neill *et al.* 2002). Therefore, endogenous H_2O_2 production has been shown to increase as a result of the chilling stress in maize seedlings, where exogenous application of H_2O_2 increased tolerance to chilling stress (Prasad *et al.* 1994a). The application of H_2O_2 at low concentrations improved plant tolerance to heat stress (Gao *et al.* 2010), chilling (Gong *et al.* 2001), salt stress (Azevedo Neto *et al.* 2005, Li *et al.* 2011), aluminium-induced oxidative stress (Xu *et al.* 2010), and heavy metal stress (Lin *et al.* 2004, Hu *et al.* 2009, Fariduddin *et al.* 2014, Khan *et al.* 2016). Hossain *et al.* (2015) suggested that pretreatment of seeds or seedlings with H_2O_2 , or combined application of H_2O_2 and abiotic stress, protected the plants under abiotic stresses by renewal of redox-homeostasis and alleviation of oxidative loss to membranes, proteins, and lipids and by modulating stress-signalling pathways. It has been also confirmed that the pretreatment with H_2O_2 in nutrient solution induces acclimation to salt stress in rice and maize seedlings, respectively (Uchida *et al.* 2002, Azevedo Neto *et al.* 2005). There is a number of reports where the effects of H_2O_2 on various abiotic stresses have been examined but diversity exists among these observations (Table 2).

Signalling of hydrogen peroxide

H_2O_2 functions as a signalling molecule including both intracellular as well as intercellular signals in numerous processes. This is of particular interest because intercellular signal molecule needs to be transported across at least one membrane. H_2O_2 can be naturally generated in a variety of normal cell types, either constitutively or in response to various stimuli (Burdon *et al.* 1995). Numerous stress conditions induce production of ROS such as O_2^- and H_2O_2 in plant tissues (Desikan *et al.* 2003). ROS are highly reactive molecules and can oxidize all types of cellular components which leads to increase in lipid peroxidation, denaturation, and breakage of DNA strands, protein modification, and even cell death (Sharma *et al.* 2012, Anjum *et al.* 2015). Therefore, it is important to eliminate ROS to avoid low temperature or other stress-induced injuries in plants. These include heat, low temperature, ultra-violet (UV) light, pathogens, elicitors, and ozone stresses. Elevated contents of H_2O_2 have been observed during chilling stress in winter in wheat leaf where chilling temperature of 4°C triggered a three-fold rise in H_2O_2 concentration within 1 min (Okuda *et al.* 1991). Similarly, H_2O_2 contents also raise up during chilling of non-acclimated maize seedlings (Gondim *et al.* 2010). Moreover, H_2O_2 plays an important role in transduction of defense signals in plants and could induce gene expression and protein synthesis (Apostol *et al.* 1989, Burdon *et al.* 1995) in favour of tolerance mechanism.

Table 2. Effect of H₂O₂ on plants under various abiotic stresses.

Plant species	Type of stress	Response	Reference
<i>Vigna radiata</i>	Copper	Alleviated the toxic effects of copper stress by improving the photosynthetic attributes and activity of antioxidant enzymes which was reflected in better growth of plants	Fariduddin <i>et al.</i> 2014
<i>Triticum aestivum</i>	Salt	Improved the salt tolerance of the seedlings	Wahid <i>et al.</i> 2007
<i>Citrus aurantium</i>	Salt	Alleviated salinity-induced protein carbonylation and altered the accumulation levels of S-nitrosylated proteins in leaf	Tanou <i>et al.</i> 2009
<i>Tagetes erecta</i>	Drought	Protected the ultrastructure of mesophyll cells, improved photosynthetic performance and alleviated the negative effects of drought	Liao <i>et al.</i> 2012
<i>Brassica juncea</i>	Nickel	Improved the toxic effects of nickel stress by improving photosynthetic related attributes and induced antioxidant enzymes (APX and GR) and higher GSH production	Khan <i>et al.</i> 2016
<i>Zea mays</i>	Water deficit	Induced antioxidant system and nutrient relation in maize plants	Ashraf <i>et al.</i> 2015
<i>Brassica juncea</i>	Drought	Encouraged defence response in mustard seedlings by activation of methylglyoxal detoxification pathways	Hossain and Fujita 2013
<i>Zea mays</i>	UV radiation	Synergistically effective in promoting ethylene synthesis in defense responses	Wang <i>et al.</i> 2006
<i>Oryza sativa</i>	Salt and heat stress	Induced activities of ROS-scavenging enzymes and also generated higher quantum yield for PSII	Uchida <i>et al.</i> 2002
<i>Lycopersicon esculentum</i>	Cold stress	Root application of H ₂ O ₂ decreased cold induced damage and improved cold response of tomato	Iseri <i>et al.</i> 2013
Tobacco	Oxidative stress	Leaves sprayed with H ₂ O ₂ provided protection against oxidative stress by inducing CAT, APX, and guaiacol peroxidases	Gechev <i>et al.</i> 2002
<i>Agrostis stolonifera</i>	Heat stress	Foliar application of H ₂ O ₂ induced tolerance to heat stress by reducing oxidative damage	Larkindale and Huang 2004
<i>Zoysia tenuifolia</i> and <i>Zoysia matrella</i>	Chilling stress	Improved the tolerance to chilling stress	Wang <i>et al.</i> 2010
<i>Zea mays</i>	Salt stress	Reduced the deleterious effects of salinity on seedling growth	Gondim <i>et al.</i> 2012
<i>Vigna radiata</i>	Chilling stress	Enhanced tolerance to chilling stress and also increased the glutathione content	Yu <i>et al.</i> 2003
<i>Vigna radiata</i>	Cold	Induced chilling tolerance comparable to cold acclimation	Hung <i>et al.</i> 2007
<i>Festuca arundinacea</i> and <i>Lolium perenne</i>	Heat	Increased the activities of POX, CAT, APX, GR, GPX, and glutathione pool	Wang <i>et al.</i> 2014
<i>Cucumis sativus</i>	Heat	Affected the heat-induced alteration of DNA methylation	Cao <i>et al.</i> 2013
<i>Lycopersicon esculentum</i>	Low temperature	Increased the growth characteristics, SPAD chlorophyll, activities of POX, PPO and fruits yield	Orabi <i>et al.</i> 2015
<i>Zea Mays</i>	Osmotic stress	Improved tolerance to osmotic stress by increasing some metabolites	Terzi <i>et al.</i> 2014
<i>Vigna radiata</i>	Chilling	Increased the glutathione content	Yu <i>et al.</i> 2003
<i>Triticum aestivum</i>	Aluminium	Aluminium-induced oxidative stress mitigation in wheat seedlings	Xu <i>et al.</i> 2011
<i>Triticum aestivum</i>	Salt	Decreased the deleterious effect of salt stress on growth of wheat	Li <i>et al.</i> 2011
<i>Phaseolus vulgaris</i>	Drought	Enhanced the root growth and fresh mass	Abass and Mohamed 2011
<i>Triticum aestivum</i>	Drought	Improved the photosynthetic rate and antioxidant system	He <i>et al.</i> 2009
<i>Glycine max</i>	Drought	Increased in the mRNA levels of d-myo-inositol 3-phosphate synthase 2 (GmMIPS2) and galactinol synthase (GolS)	Ishibashi <i>et al.</i> 2011

Calcium ions and hydrogen peroxide crosstalk

Ca²⁺ has been implicated as a secondary messenger and it is one of the major components in the cellular signalling (Sanders *et al.* 1999). The influx of Ca²⁺ through cation

channels occurs in the tonoplast, endoplasmic reticulum, and plasma membrane and generates cytosolic Ca²⁺ [Ca²⁺]_{cyt} concentration that initiates cellular responses to a diverse range of developmental cues and environmental

challenges (White 2000, Sanders *et al.* 2002). Various studies have revealed that transient variation in $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ plays an important role in signalling induced by various stresses (Monroy and Dhindsa 1995, Sanders *et al.* 1999). Cold shock induces transient increases in $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ content in tobacco and *Arabidopsis* (Knight *et al.* 1991, Knight *et al.* 1996, Polisensky and Braam 1996, Lewis *et al.* 1997). In the light of above mentioned studies, it could be believed that intracellular concentration of calcium was maintained through its influx which plays a key role in the cold shock response. Further, Pei *et al.* (2000) suggested that both Ca^{2+} and H_2O_2 are involved in a signalling cascade that leads to closure of stomata in *Arabidopsis*. H_2O_2 -activated Ca^{2+} channels, mediate the influx of Ca^{2+} in the protoplasts along with the simultaneous increase in $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ in intact guard cells. However, this could be autocatalytic, because H_2O_2 production in the oxidative burst requires a constant Ca^{2+} influx, which activates the plasma membrane-localized NADPH oxidase (Lamb and Dixon 1997, Xing *et al.* 1997, Grant *et al.* 2000, Yang and Poovaiah 2002). Moreover, the $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ stimulates the calmodulin (a calcium sensor) and consequently passes the signal to a downstream target, *i.e.* CAT which finally downregulates H_2O_2 contents by catalysing its breakdown. The combination of H_2O_2 and Ca^{2+} may play essential roles in plants under both stress and stress-free conditions. Various plants, even different parts of the same plant, may have diverse modulation mechanisms. Thus, interaction between H_2O_2 and Ca^{2+} signalling in plants is very complex. The detailed mechanism of interaction between H_2O_2 and Ca^{2+} needs to be unraveled in detail.

Hydrogen peroxide activation of MAPK cascade and regulation of gene expression

H_2O_2 has been considered as a secondary messenger for gene activation in mammalian cells as well as in plants. However, in plants an increased content of H_2O_2 encourages the expression of defence as well as resistance genes (Mittler *et al.* 2004). H_2O_2 is also involved in modulation of many activities of signalling components, such as protein phosphatases, protein kinases (González *et al.* 2012), and transcription factors (TFs) (Cheng and Song 2006). H_2O_2 also communicates with other signal molecules and pathway forming part of the signalling network that controls responses downstream of H_2O_2 (Neill *et al.* 2002). Several studies have revealed that H_2O_2 participates in the downstream genes regulation. For example, mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) cascades appear to be functional downstream of H_2O_2 . MAPK in plants form a large system implicated in a number of functions, such as relay of H_2O_2 signals (Zhang

et al. 2006, Xing *et al.* 2008). They activate *Nicotiana* protein kinase 1 (NPK1) in a MAPK cascade that transduces extracellular stimuli to gene expression for defence (Grant *et al.* 2000, Kovtun *et al.* 2000, Desikan *et al.* 2001). H_2O_2 rapidly activates MAPKs in shoots, even when applied to the roots (Capone *et al.* 2004). It has been reported that H_2O_2 controls seed dormancy and germination by triggering the induction of ABA catabolism genes (Liu *et al.* 2010). Zinc-finger transcription factor is generally involved in the regulation of ROS-related defence genes. It was revealed that the ZAT7 and ZAT12 zinc-finger proteins of *Arabidopsis* are strongly upregulated by oxidative stress in *apx* knockout mutants in response to H_2O_2 and methyl viologen (MV) treatment (Rizhsky 2004). ZAT10 plays a dual role both as repressor and inducer of ROS-responsive genes under salt, drought, and osmotic stresses (Sakamoto *et al.* 2004, Mittler 2006). ZAT6 positively regulates tolerance to chilling, drought, and salt stress, as well as resistance to bacterial infection, by modifying ROS contents and SA-related gene expression (Shi *et al.* 2014).

Based on above discussion, a suggested model of H_2O_2 signalling pathway has been outlined (Fig. 1). An H_2O_2 signal may be perceived by a cell surface receptor resulting in elevated $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$. The increased content of $[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$ may trigger a signalling protein, such as protein kinase or phosphatase, to activate a cascade thus mediating phosphorylation or dephosphorylation of a transcription factor. In addition to this, H_2O_2 may activate transcription by directly oxidising H_2O_2 -responsive transcription factors *via* oxidation of thiols of cysteine residues in protein. The modified (activated) transcription factor moves into the nucleus, interacts with its corresponding *cis*-acting element on the target promoter to regulate gene expression related to cold.

Hydrogen peroxide toxicity in plants

Despite the reported signalling role of H_2O_2 , its excessive concentrations in the plants may be harmful. Chen *et al.* (2009) confirmed that the higher concentrations of H_2O_2 caused oxidative stress; on the other hand, at low concentration it acts as a signalling molecule regulating cell growth and development, cell proliferation, cell stress response, and signal transduction (Fukao and Bailey-Serres 2004, Mittler *et al.* 2004). High concentrations of H_2O_2 can directly or indirectly oxidize ascorbic acid and glutathione pool and alter the overall redox state of the cells. Such high concentrations of H_2O_2 can also damage a number of biomolecules, such as lipids, proteins, and nucleic acids that are essential for the activity and integrity of the cells (Mittler 2002).

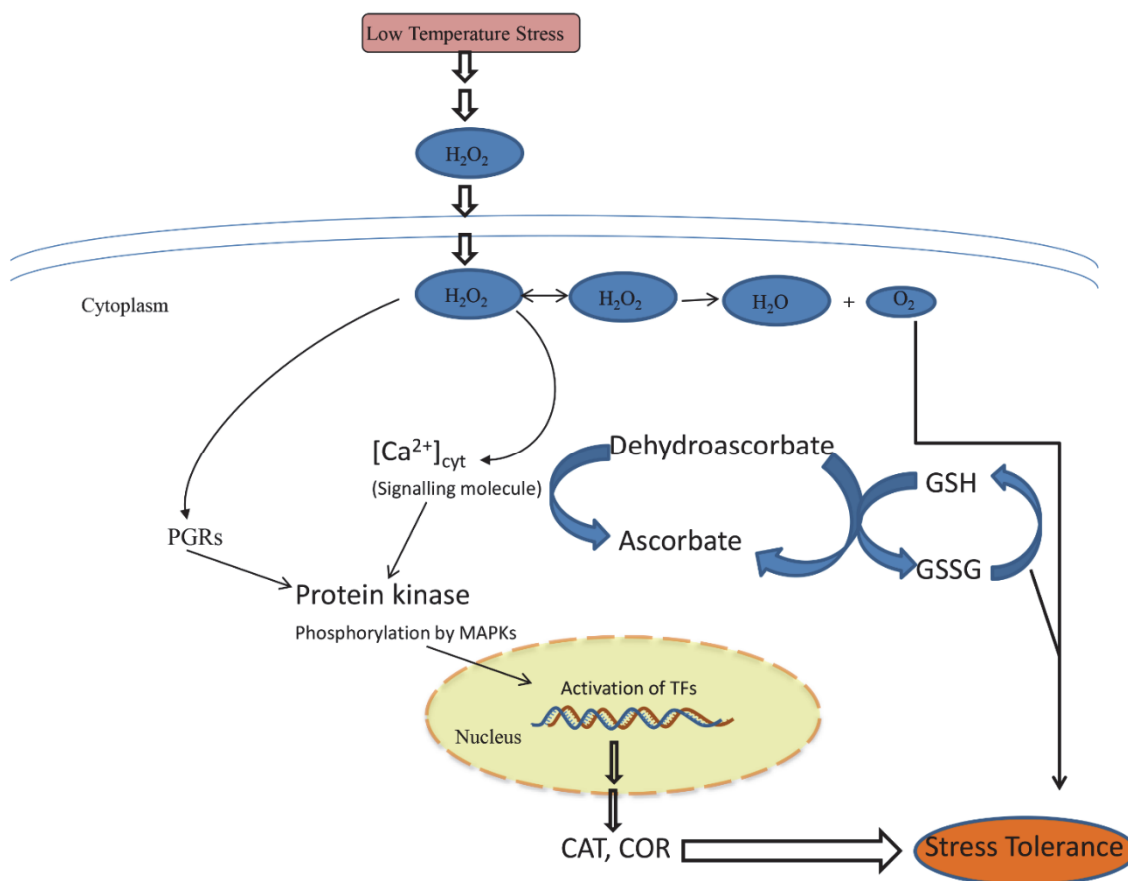


Fig. 1. A model of H_2O_2 signalling cascade for low temperature stress. H_2O_2 – hydrogen peroxide; PGRs – plant growth regulators; CAT – catalase; COR – cold regulated gene; GSH – glutathione; GSSG – glutathione disulphide; MAPKs – mitogen-activated protein kinases; TFs – transcription factors.

Conclusions: It has been established that H_2O_2 functions as the signalling molecule in plants depending on its concentration and crop species. It is imperative that a homeostasis should be maintained between generation and utilization of H_2O_2 inside the cells. Cells have evolved strategies to use ROS as biological signals that activate and control various stress responses at the level of gene. Therefore, it is established that H_2O_2 acts as a signalling molecules with tremendous impact on plant growth and development. Recent studies have shown that optimal H_2O_2 concentrations are important for proper plant growth, photosynthetic performance, and antioxidant activity and

also for acclimation to various environmental stresses. Therefore, many of the signalling pathways mediated by H_2O_2 during various abiotic stresses have extensively been studied and still there is ample scope of additional work that could unravel the pathway mediated by H_2O_2 to confer tolerance against the various stresses. Although a significant progress has been made in the last few years, which contributed to overall understanding related to H_2O_2 mediated physiology, but many components in its signalling network are yet to be unveiled. These findings are of not only fundamental, but also of practical importance.

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