

Role of NO-Mediated H₂O₂ Signaling under Abiotic Stress (Heavy Metal)-Induced Oxidative Stress in Plants: An Overview

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ABSTRACT

Environmental stress, like heavy metal, constitutes the most significant factor leading to a substantial and unpredictable decrease in crop yield in agriculture. Hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) and nitrogen oxide (NO) are produced as primary signals in a stress signal cascade. H₂O₂ accumulation can lead to either enhanced expression of antioxidant enzymes or increased expression of other defense proteins. Alternatively, it can initiate programmed cell death, particularly when NO is also produced, depending on the intensity of the oxidative signal or oxidative load exerted by heavy metal toxicity in tissues. In this review, we examine the regulatory role of H₂O₂ and NO signaling in oxidative stress induced by heavy metals in plants, exemplified by a number of research studies and show how this signaling in response to heavy metals may provide some clues to improving crop productivity.

Keywords: antioxidant, signaling molecules

Abbreviations: APX, Ascorbate peroxidase; CAT, Catalase; ET, ethylene; GPX, Glutathione peroxidase; H₂O₂, hydrogen peroxide; HM, heavy metal; L-NAME, NG-nitro-L-arginine methyl-ester; LPX, lipid peroxidation; MAPK, mitogen-activated protein kinase; MDA, malondialdehyde; NO, nitrogen oxide; NR, Nitrate reductase; PCD, programmed cell death; ROS, reactive oxygen species; SNP, sodium nitroprusside

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INTRODUCTION: HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF H₂O₂ AND NO

Plants frequently suffer stressful interactions with their environment. These include biotic stresses such as pathogens and pests, and abiotic stresses such as temperature, drought or chemical pollution (e.g. enhancement of heavy metal (HM) concentration in soil). During the 1990's to the present, important discoveries have been made regarding the biochemical mechanisms by which plant cells signal to their neighbours that they are suffering from a stress. Enhanced generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) by abiotic stresses such as HMs is common in plants and is referred to as oxidative stress because of their potential to damage cells (Prasad *et al.* 1994). Many stresses limit CO₂ assimilation more than electron transport capacity leading to modulation of the latter by photosynthetic control. This

favours the increased oxidation of photosystem I (PS-I) and an increased reduction of PS-II (Makeno *et al.* 2002). In these circumstances, electron flow to oxygen increases the yield of superoxide radical (O₂⁻) in the Mehler reaction (oxygen produced in PS-II during photolysis of water is further reduced in PS-I) (Upham *et al.* 1990). Among them, the production of a signaling molecule such as hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) or nitrogen oxide (NO) has gained increasing attention although the precise mechanisms of these interactions and their significance in stress signaling are not completely understood.

Injury to plants exposed to stress is related to oxidative damage at the cellular level (Foyer and Noctor 2003). Under normal metabolic processes, the low amount of ROS are metabolic by-products of plant cells (Hung *et al.* 2005), although the release of radicals into the cytosol can be enhanced under certain stress conditions (del Río *et al.* 1996),

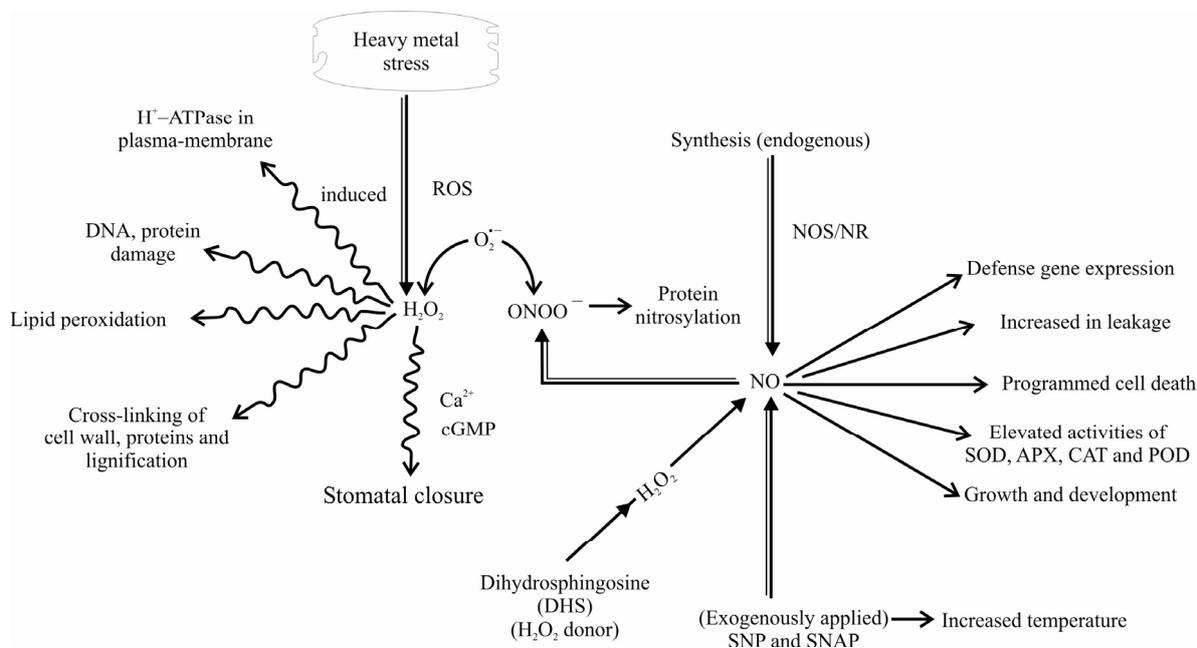


Fig. 1 A schematic representation of NO-H₂O₂ signaling and responses induced by their synergistic interaction. APX, Ascorbate peroxidase; CAT, Catalase; cGMP, cyclic guanosine-monophosphate; H₂O₂, hydrogen peroxide; NR, Nitrate reductase; ROS, reactive oxygen species; SNP, sodium nitroprusside; SOD, superoxide dismutase.

producing oxidative stress in the cells. O₂⁻ is immediately converted to O₂ and H₂O₂ (O₂⁻ + O₂⁻ + 2H⁺ → O₂ + H₂O₂). Therefore, the production of these radicals results in an increase of H₂O₂ in the cell (del Río *et al.* 1996), although the precise intracellular concentrations of H₂O₂ that are likely to be toxic will vary (rate of H₂O₂ synthesis in a cell) with the rate of H₂O₂ production and are normally balanced by very efficient antioxidant systems (Noctor and Foyer 1998). For example, the aqueous leaf extract of *Lagerstroemia speciosa* has the potential to inhibit lipid peroxidation and effectively neutralize ROS such as H₂O₂- and NO-based free radicals (Saumya and Basha 2011). The plant cell wall expresses monoamine oxidases (MAOs) that catalyze oxidation of secreted amines and produce H₂O₂ used by cell wall peroxidases for lignification of cell wall or for plant defense. Similarly, Verma and Sharma (2010) proposed that H₂O₂ generated within cell walls of seeds serves as a signaling molecule guiding germination events, including protein reserve mobilization. Gas spaces (aerenchyma) form as an adaptation to submergence to facilitate gas exchange and their formation is mediated by H₂O₂ (Steffens *et al.* 2011).

H₂O₂ and NO both function as stress signaling molecules in plants (Neill *et al.* 1999; Dat *et al.* 2000; Mazid *et al.* 2011a, 2011b), mediating a range of defensive mechanisms in plants under stressful conditions (Wendehenne *et al.* 2004; Delledonne 2005). The concept of H₂O₂ as a signal molecule is realistic because this molecule is relatively stable and diffusible (Foyer *et al.* 1997). The effects of the exogenous application of H₂O₂ are constant with such a signaling role in abiotic stresses, although the number of studies is still small. The basis of long-lived effects of H₂O₂ on growth and tolerance against abiotic stresses is not well known. However, one possibility is the influence of ROS on DNA methylation (Creda and Weitzman 1997). Despite this, H₂O₂ has a short lifespan (16 h) and is able to cross biological membranes and rapidly diffuse from cell to cell or can be transported long distances from its sites of origin (chloroplasts, mitochondria and peroxisomes) to the site of action in plants. Thus, H₂O₂ has all of the characteristic features of an intercellular signaling molecule and, for this reason, has received more attention (Alvarez *et al.* 1998; Neill *et al.* 2002a, 2002b). H₂O₂ is produced in response to various stimuli and mediates cross-talk between signaling pathways and is an attractive signaling molecule contributing to the phenomenon of cross-tolerance (Bowler and

Fluhr 2000; Cheng and Song 2006). Similarly, NO is an important signaling molecule in plants and can induce a decrease in ROS accumulation to an extent varying with the degree of abiotic stress tolerance in plants (Yang *et al.* 2006; Tian *et al.* 2007; Wu *et al.* 2010). Also, NO is a widespread intra- and intercellular messenger with a broad spectrum of regulatory functions in many physiological processes (del Río *et al.* 2004; Grun *et al.* 2006). In plants, NO is involved in ethylene (ET) emission (Lesham and Haramaty 1996), in response to drought (Lesham 1996), growth and cell proliferation (Ribeiro *et al.* 1999), metabolism and senescence (Corpas *et al.* 2004), programmed cell death (PCD) (Clark *et al.* 2000) and stomatal closure (García-Mata and Lamattina 2002) (Fig. 1).

In particular, H₂O₂ that is produced by cytosolic membrane-bound NADPH oxidases has been implicated as a signal in a wide range of biotic and abiotic stress responses. In addition, exposure to low levels of one stress can induce tolerance towards subsequently higher levels of exposure to the same stress, termed acclimation tolerance (Bhattacharjee 2005). Therefore, H₂O₂ is considered as a fundamental fact of life in an anaerobic environment (Moller 2001). In addition, H₂O₂ is an evolutionarily ancient signaling molecule that not only played a key role in inducing the evolution of oxygenic photosynthesis, but also modulates many physiological events, such as stomatal movement, hypersensitive responses, and PCD (Cheng and Song 2006).

NO also plays a vital role in diverse physiological processes in plants such as the induction of seed germination, reduction of seed dormancy (Bethke *et al.* 2007; Zheng *et al.* 2009), regulation of plant metabolism and senescence (Leshem *et al.* 1998; Guo and Crawford 2005) induction of PCD (Pedroso and Durzan 2000), regulation of stomatal movement (Bright *et al.* 2006), regulation of photosynthesis (Takahashi and Yamasaki 2002), and floral regulation (He *et al.* 2004). A high level of NO has the capacity to damage membranes and to fragment DNA (Yamasaki 2000; Romero-Puertas *et al.* 2004), and to reduce photosynthesis in oats (*Avena sativa*) and alfalfa (*Medicago sativa*) (Hill and Bennet 1970), as well as regulating the multiple plant responses towards a variety of abiotic stresses (Crawford and Guo 2005; Delledonne 2005; Neill *et al.* 2008; Zheng *et al.* 2009). NO is involved in various physiological processes and prolongs the storage life of fruit. However, little attention has been paid to the effects of NO on the storage metabolism in fruit during

storage. Sun *et al.* (2011) showed that the decrease of firmness and accumulation of sugar and acid: sugar ratio in peach (*Prunus persica*) fruit during storage is significantly inhibited by treatment with NO (10 $\mu\text{mol/L}$). Treatment with NO could promote fructose and glucose metabolism during the first few days of storage and increase the content of sucrose and the activities of sorbitol dehydrogenase, sorbitol oxidase and sucrose phosphate synthase in fruit during storage. NO signaling is based on interactions with plant hormones like auxin, jasmonic acid and others. NO inhibits plants from oxidative damage by regulating general mechanisms for cellular redox homeostasis and also promoting the transformation of O₂ to H₂O₂ and O⁻ and also by enhancing H₂O₂-scavenging enzyme activities. It is well known that the antioxidant enzymes such as superoxide dismutase (SOD), catalase (CAT) and peroxidase (POD) play a significant role in scavenging ROS. The activities of both SOD and POD are significantly increased by exogenous NO (Shi *et al.* 2007; Zheng *et al.* 2009), although the NO molecule itself possesses antioxidant properties (Karpus *et al.* 1991) and reacts with ROS, hemes, thiols and proteins to produce biochemical signals that directly and indirectly regulate enzymatic activities. Also, beneficial reactions counteract oxidative and nitrosative stresses, while damaging reactions due to high levels of NO (>10⁻³ mol.L⁻¹) cause oxidative and nitrosative damage and cell death (Mastrocola *et al.* 2005). The most crucial role of NO in plant growth and development, starting from germination to flowering, ripening of fruits, senescence and abiotic stresses has been extensively reviewed (Arasimowicz and Floryszak-Wieczorek 2007; Wendehenne *et al.* 2004; Siddiqui *et al.* 2011). However, the molecular proof of plant responses to abiotic stresses mediated by NO is still scarce.

H₂O₂ AND NO: SOURCES AND SIGNALING IN PLANT SYSTEMS

However, H₂O₂ and NO both have proved to be important bioactive signaling molecules with multiple physiological functions in plants. It seems likely that NO can be synthesized during a stress response at the same time as H₂O₂ and may be that cellular effects reflect the responses to both H₂O₂ and NO. Furthermore, the properties of NO makes it is a very good agent to act as a signaling messenger in response of environmental stresses like HM action. The exogenous supply of NO protects plants from damage by eliminating the O₂⁻ and lipid radical, activating the activities of antioxidant enzymes, especially SOD (Shi *et al.* 2007). However, in many studies, there has been increasing evidence that NO acts in chain-breaking antioxidant-arresting lipid peroxidation reactions and activates gene expression of antioxidant enzymes (Ramamurthi and Lewis 1997). NO can also trigger the defense system of plants in response to abiotic stresses. For instance, it has been reported to exert some protective effects on drought stress, heat stress, HM stress and UV radiation stress (Tian *et al.* 2007; Yang *et al.* 2006; Baranek *et al.* 2010; Wu *et al.* 2010; Mazid *et al.* 2011a, 2011b).

Autoxidation of redox active metals such as Fe²⁺ or Cu⁺ result in O₂⁻ formation and subsequently in H₂O₂ and OH⁻ production via Fenton-type reactions. Cellular injury by this type of mechanism is well-documented for iron (Halliwell and Gutteridge 1986) copper (Li and Trush 1993b) as well as other metals (Shi *et al.* 1993). To assess whether the observed decreases in antioxidative defences would be sufficient to explain H₂O₂ accumulation, quantitative estimates of antioxidative capacity are necessary. In fact, accumulation of H₂O₂ has been observed in Cd-exposed roots (Schützendübel *et al.* 2001) and in Cd-exposed tobacco suspension cultures (Piqueras *et al.* 1999). It was suggested that Cd triggered an oxidative burst because it detected H₂O₂ in the culture medium (Piqueras *et al.* 1999). Schützendübel and Polle (2002) suggested that a significant intracellular H₂O₂ accumulation could be explained after Cd exposure because of the Cd-induced depletion of GSH and inhibition

of antioxidative enzymes. In pine roots, H₂O₂ was detected at an early stage (6 h after the addition of Cd) when the roots still appeared visibly fully viable and no lipid peroxidation was found (Schützendübel *et al.* 2001). Moreover, H₂O₂ disappeared within some hours but thereafter the differentiation of protoxylem elements became apparent in unusual places of the previous elongation zone of root tips (Schützendübel *et al.* 2001). Therefore, it may be suggested that heavy metals induced a transient loss in antioxidative capacity, perhaps accompanied by a stimulation of oxidant-producing enzymes, which results in intrinsic molecules that trigger secondary defences.

Redox signals can then be transmitted via H₂O₂ locally in the apoplast or via long distance through the vascular system where this oxidant has a longer life time than in antioxidant-rich compartments or tissues (Foyer 2005). Other evidence also points to an important role for the generation of H₂O₂ during photosynthesis in chloroplasts and through photorespiration in PCD (Mateo *et al.* 2004). During acclimation, H₂O₂ levels could be a signal that induces antioxidant enzymes, such as CAT, that subsequently protect the plant from excess H₂O₂ production at chilling temperature (Inzé and Montagu 1995). The H₂O₂ produced from other oxidative bursts functions as a local trigger of PCD of challenged cells and causes the rapid cross-linking of cell wall proteins (Bradly *et al.* 1992; Prasad *et al.* 1994). Furthermore, H₂O₂ appears to act as a signal molecule, inducing transcription of defence genes, such as GST and GPX in surrounding cells (Bradly *et al.* 1992).

On the other hand, NO plays a crucial role in regulating plant growth and development, including germination, flowering, fruit ripening and organ senescence (Arasimowicz and Floryszak-wieczorek 2007). In plant mitochondria, electron transfer along the respiration chain is coupled to the formation of ATP (Maxwell *et al.* 1999; Affourtit *et al.* 2001), and the redundant electron leads to the formation of ROS if the ATP synthesis were to be blocked (Petrucci *et al.* 2008).

Mittova *et al.* (2003) reported that salt stress increased the content of H₂O₂ and MDA in tomato mitochondria, and was probably due to a salt-induced increase in the rate of O₂⁻ production (Moller 2001). In addition, Zheng *et al.* (2009) observed that exogenous NO treatment significantly decreased MDA and H₂O₂ contents and the O₂⁻ production rate in wheat seed mitochondria during germination under salt stress. Moreover, earlier studies demonstrated that exogenous NO protects leaves against oxidative damage in reed (*Phragmites australis*. L) under heat (Song *et al.* 2006) and in wheat under drought (Tian and Lei 2006), ascribed mainly to the increased activities of SOD, CAT and POD. In accordance with their findings, Zheng *et al.* (2009) observed that the activities of SOD and CAT in the seed mitochondria were significantly increased by exogenous NO treatment in winter wheat, which might have contributed to alleviating oxidative stress in the mitochondria of germinating wheat seed and thereby improving germination under salt stress.

In healthy plants, nitrite is rapidly converted to ammonium by nitrite reductase (NiR) in the chloroplast. Translocation of nitrite from the cytosol into the chloroplast requires a ΔpH across the envelope (chloroplast/stromal membrane) and the activity of the photosynthetic active transport mechanism at the thylakoid membranes. Therefore, nitrite accumulation followed by NO production could be detected when the redox potential generated by the chloroplast is altered. There are reports that show high NO emissions from plants when in the dark (Yamasaki and Sakihama 2000) or when treated with photosynthetic electron transport inhibitors (Huber *et al.* 1996; Yamasaki and Sakihama 2000). In this sense, two facts must be considered when discussing the apparent contradiction between a high diurnal NR activity and a nocturnal stomatal closure. High and transient NO production was detected in sunflower, tobacco and spinach leaves when the light was switch off

(Rockel *et al.* 2002) and when epidermal *Vicia faba* strips (Neill *et al.* 2002a, 2002b) were placed in the dark, stomatal closure could be partially prevented by treating them with a specific NO scavenger (2-phenyl-4,4,5,5-tetramethylimidazole-1-oxyl-3-oxide (PTIO) (Garcia Mata and Lamattina 2001). These results also support the idea that NO has an role during nocturnal induction of stomatal closure, in addition to NO-mediated stomatal closure in ABA treated epidermal strips.

Potential sources of H₂O₂ production in the cell include NADPH oxidase, cell wall peroxidases, amine oxidases, Oxalate oxidase, flavin-containing oxidases, Type III oxidases and misfires (photorespiration and Mehler reaction) in the electron transport chains of chloroplasts and mitochondria (Mehler reaction) (Halliwell and Gutteridge 1999; Bolwell *et al.* 2002). Broadly, these events are enhanced by both biotic and abiotic stresses (Alscher *et al.* 1997; Bolwell 1999), although they occur as an integral part of many facets of plant development.

Energy imbalances

ROS metabolism necessarily links with all aspects of plant life. The effect of oxidative stress on photosynthesis is a major threat at any time but especially when the capacity for electron transport chain (ETS) exceeds the capacity for recycling NADPH and ATP. This is reduced by the presence of the xanthophyll cycle (Demming-Adams *et al.* 1999), but its effectiveness is not satisfactory. In this case, the water-water cycle and the Mehler-ascorbate peroxidase cycle prevent this damaging effect. Both of these cycles are important in field conditions (Logan *et al.* 1998a). The generation of toxic O₂ species is increased under abiotic stress conditions. Ascorbate is present in the chloroplast, cytosol, vacuole and apoplastic space of leaf cells at high concentrations (Foyer *et al.* 1991; Polle *et al.* 1990). Oxidation of ascorbate occurs in two sequential steps, first by producing mono-dehydroascorbate, and if not rapidly re-reduced to ascorbate, the mono-dehydroascorbate disproportionate to ascorbate and dehydroascorbate. The regulation of ascorbate within the chloroplast provides a putative mechanism for the regulation of electron transport (Neubauer and Schreiber 1989). Ascorbate is not only a potent antioxidant, but is implicated in the pH-mediated modulation of PS-II activity and its down-regulation associated with zeaxanthin formation (Neubauer and Yamamoto 1992). This is a potent mechanism for preventing damage that occurs by generation of ROS under the influence of abiotic stress. Moreover, this cycle helps to generate the low lumen pH values removed for the formation of zeaxanthin (Hager 1969; Pfundel and Dilley 1993), involved in the mechanism of thermal energy dissipation in the field (Demming-Adams 1992). In addition, in the chloroplast, SOD and ascorbate peroxidase exist in both soluble and thylakoid-bound forms. Superoxide generated at the membrane surface can thus be trapped and converted immediately to H₂O₂ to be scavenged by the membrane-bound ascorbate peroxidase (Neubauer and Schreiber 1989; Nakano and Asada 1980; Anderson *et al.* 1983). Moreover, isolated intact chloroplasts rapidly metabolize exogenously added H₂O₂ (Nakano and Asada 1980; Anderson *et al.* 1983; Neubauer and Schreiber 1989), indicating that *in situ* the chloroplasts may eliminate H₂O₂ generated both internally and externally.

In plant systems, abiotic stress results from the presence of elevated levels of oxidizing agents that are able to abstract electrons from essential organic molecules and disturb cellular functions. The most commonly encountered oxidising molecules in the cell are ROS that derive from the abundantly available and rather inert dioxygen (O₂) (Elstner 1999). Direct transfer of one electron to O₂ produces the O₂^{•-} that subsequently acts as an oxidant in single electron transfer reactions to form of H₂O₂, OH⁻ and finally H₂O. Due to its exceedingly high reacting ability, OH⁻ will react within diffusion distance with any organic molecule and is unlikely to serve as a signaling molecule whereas such a

function is assumed for O₂^{•-}, H₂O₂, O₂ as well as reactive nitrogen species such as peroxynitrite (ONOO⁻) (Neill *et al.* 2003). In this cycle, because SOD dismutates O₂^{•-} to H₂O₂, little doubt exists that the overproduction of a H₂O₂-scavenging enzyme alongside SOD will have a cooperatively protective effect on oxidative stress-induced damage. Further work is required to test which combination of SOD and H₂O₂-scavenging enzymes provides the best protection.

Moreover, intracellular ROS is scavenged in both a highly efficient and adaptable H₂O₂-related stress or its prevention, resulting from activity in the chloroplasts, mitochondria or other organelles, reflecting the integration of all cellular activities. In mitochondria, alternative oxidase (AOX) provides an additional way of reducing ROS production which is too often overlooked in stress response studies (Wagner 1995; Popov *et al.* 1997). AOX is induced by a number of stresses (Farrar and Rayan 1987; Xie and Chen 1999; Popov *et al.* 2001; Robson and Vanlerberghe 2002; Fiorani *et al.* 2005; Hanquing *et al.* 2010). Antisense suppression of AOX also leads to significantly higher ROS production while AOX over-expression has the opposite effect (Parsons *et al.* 1999). The decrease of ROS accumulation could alleviate oxidative damage and enhance the adaptive capacity for plants.

Substrate oxidase

Glycolate oxidase of peroxidase (1.1.3.1) and urate oxidase (1.7.3.3) in glyoxysomes, are flavin-containing enzymes directly producing H₂O₂ (del Río *et al.* 1992; Hanna *et al.* 2009). In addition, another H₂O₂ producing sulphite oxidase has also been identified in peroxisome (Hansch *et al.* 2006). Other flavin containing oxidases important in specific compartments or tissues include a variety of monoamine (MAO) and polyamine (PAO) oxidases and germin-like proteins. Production of polyamines under water or low temperature stress has also been correlated with protection against oxidative stress (Nayyar and Chandler 2004). Similarly, diamine oxidases (DAO) using putrescine and cadaverine or spermidine in the apoplast as their substrates, are also important in H₂O₂ production for identification, as well as being induced in response to HM stress and in wounding and in cells destined for PCD (Langebartels *et al.* 2002). However, amine oxidase is also constitutively present in the apoplast (Liu *et al.* 1995) and different enzymes (e.g. polyamine oxidases) show different patterns of constitutive and abiotic stress (e.g. HMs) induced expression (Asthir *et al.* 2004). In *Mesembryanthemum crystallinum*, HM shock activated both diamine oxidase and guaiacol peroxidase, as did exogenous cadaverine (Shevyakova *et al.* 2006).

Peroxidases (Type III)

They are more frequently secreted into the apoplast and involved in phenolic metabolism using H₂O₂ as a substrate. They are largely intracellular (in contrast to type I and II, type I has rich diversity) and are involved in control of the cellular H₂O₂ level (Veitch 2004). In addition, they can generate H₂O₂ with oxidation of NADH (Sukalovic *et al.* 2005; Cheeseman 2007; Bonifacio *et al.* 2011). They are also important in the responses of plants to abiotic stress. The complexity of plant responses and H₂O₂ metabolism is especially clear with respect to apoplastic concentration of HMs intimately associated with this in a signaling cascade (Davies *et al.* 2006). In bean (*phaseolus vulgaris*) for example, Malusa *et al.* (2002) reported that induction of oxidative stress, lipid-per oxidation and an increase in phenolic production reflecting a redirection of carbon metabolism (Cakmak 1994).

NADPH oxidases

All plant NADPH oxidases are membrane proteins that oxidize NADPH at the cytosolic surface of the plasma membrane, and reduce O₂ to O₂^{•-} at the outer surface (Sagi

and Fluhr 2006; Wong *et al.* 2007; Miller *et al.* 2009; Marino *et al.* 2012). They were first identified spontaneously from cauliflower (*Brassica oleracea*) (Askerlund *et al.* 1987), and the activity was attributed to a membrane-bound peroxidase. However, some enzymes with these characteristics were found to lack flavin cofactor, suggesting that they were mechanistically different from the mammalian enzymes (Murphy *et al.* 2000). Plant homologs to neutrophyl NADPH oxidase make up a gene family identified as respiratory burst oxidase homologs (RHOB) of which there are 10 members in *Arabidopsis*. All have significant similarity to one subunit of the neutrophyl enzyme (Keller *et al.* 1998), but plant transcripts are larger and have a hydrophilic N-terminal domain with binding sites suggesting Ca and proteins stimulation of O₂⁻ production. The activity of RHOB proteins as integrators agents between ROS production are plant responses to stress is suggested by evidence linking them to Ca-dependent signaling associated with such diverse activities as root hair growth (Carol and Dolan 2006), ABA-induced Ca-channel activation in guard cells (Desikan *et al.* 2006) and activation of a MAPK cascade (Mittler *et al.* 2004; Zhang *et al.* 2006). In some cases, NADPH oxidase has been implicated in response to abiotic stresses like HM stress.

H₂O₂ and NO signaling

In addition, the peroxisome is a small cell organelle, is an important source of ROS as well as antioxidants and NO, and is thus an important regulator of the cellular redox state. Induction of peroxisome biogenesis genes by various abiotic stresses like HM action and mechanical injury (which also generates H₂O₂) and exogenous H₂O₂ (Lopez-Huertas *et al.* 2000), places H₂O₂ as a key signal molecule mediating various cellular responses to abiotic stresses. Plants pre-treated with low concentrations of H₂O₂ have shown significantly greater tolerance to abiotic stress than untreated controls (Gechev *et al.* 2002). This acquisition of abiotic stress tolerance usually occurs concomitantly with enhanced antioxidative status, as reflected by higher activities and/or protein levels of CAT. In yeast, a glutathione peroxidase, GPX3, can function as a receptor for H₂O₂ and a transducer of redox signals, to activate gene expression (Delaunay *et al.* 2002). In addition, the fact that oxidative stress is a common facet of many cellular stress responses means that elucidating those intracellular signaling processes mediating H₂O₂ signaling is of potential significance to any programme aimed at improving crop tolerance of abiotic stresses like HM stress, etc.

Moreover, it may be that cellular responses to H₂O₂ differ according to its site of synthesis or perception, for example whether the H₂O₂ is synthesized in plastids or at the plasma membrane. Now, it is apparent that H₂O₂ acts as a signal to induce a range of molecular, biochemical and physiological responses with in cells and plants. H₂O₂ can induce the expression of genes potentially involved in its synthesis such as NADPH oxidase (Desikan *et al.* 1998), and also of those encoding proteins involved in its degradation, implying a complex mechanism for cellular regulation of oxidative status. H₂O₂ induced the expression of genes encoding APX in germinating rice embryos (Morita *et al.* 1999) and in *Arabidopsis* leaves (Karpinski *et al.* 1999).

There are several enzymatic systems that have been shown to produce NO, mainly NR (Rockel *et al.* 2002) and L-Arg-dependent nitric oxide synthase (NOS) (Corpas *et al.* 2004). However, the gene for plant NOS has not been identified yet (Zemojtel *et al.* 2006; Neill *et al.* 2008). Confocal laser scanning microscopy (CLSM) has been widely used to study fluorescent probe distribution in fixed and living plant tissues (Sandalio *et al.* 2008). To imagine H₂O₂ and NO accumulation in leaves from pea plants treated with Cd, specific fluorescent probes were used. Cross-sections of control and Cd-treated leaves incubated with DCF-DA (2',7'-dichlorofluorescein diacetate) showed a very bright green fluorescent due to peroxides, mainly to H₂O₂, in

xylem vessels from vascular tissues and epidermis. However, in Cd-treated leaves, the fluorescence increased considerably in palisade mesophyll cells and to a lesser extent, in sclerenchyma cells. The analysis of H₂O₂ by cytochemistry with CeCl₃ and electron microscopy showed that in xylem vessels from control plants, the H₂O₂-dependent precipitates were derived DAF-2DA (2,7-dichloro-fluorescein diacetate) green fluorescence was found in xylem vessels, sclerenchyma and epidermal cells of control plants; however, in contrast with H₂O₂ generation, Cd treatment produced a significant reduction of NO-dependent fluorescence observed in control leaves. As a putative control Cd-treated pea plants were incubated with 10 μM SNP (NO donor), and the NO-dependent fluorescence was observed by CLSM. The constitutive L-Arg-dependent NOS activity previously described in pea plants is dependent on Ca and CaM (Corpas *et al.* 2004). The reduction of constitutive NO production by Cd was reversed by supplying Ca levels of NO to those observed in control leaves.

Understanding the role of H₂O₂ in plant growth or stress responses requires models that accommodate the large number of ways in which it can be formed and degraded at any given time, and that ROS produced by one source may be the drivers or substrates for a second (Allan and Fluhr 1997). RuBisCO (ribulose-bi-phosphate carboxylase oxygenase, a photosynthetic enzyme) incorporating CO₂ into organic substrates in plants also has an ancient oxygenase function, which plays a key role in regulating peroxide balance in cells (Perry *et al.* 2010). The genetically controlled production of H₂O₂ (e.g. by NADPH oxidases) is apparently used by plants to release an intracellular signal that, often together with NO, controls a variety of processes (Neil *et al.* 2002; Guo *et al.* 2003). Results of Verma *et al.* (2011) highlight the powerful selective de-lignifying capability of the H₂O₂-activated ammonium molybdate system energized by microwave radiation. Ammonium molybdate pre-treatment effects are due to transformation to a peroxo-metal complex on reacting with H₂O₂.

Moreover, H₂O₂ might induce a general stress response, but it does not have the required specificity to selectively regulate nuclear genes required for dealing with localized stress, e.g. in chloroplasts or mitochondria of rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) and wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) (Moller and Sweetlove 2010). During normal metabolism in a plant cell, H₂O₂ is generated in chloroplast, mitochondria and peroxisome and is kept in homeostasis by complicated and effective scavenging systems that have developed over the course of evolution (Zhao and Blumwald 1998). H₂O₂ participate in implication of ROS-mediated control of the K⁺ channel resulting in mineral nutrient partitioning within the plants by identifying a critical target Cys (168) to be essential for sensitivity of H₂O₂ (Garcia-Mata *et al.* 2010). Also, increasing evidence now indicates that H₂O₂ acts as a local and systemic signal that directly regulates expression of numerous genes. Some of these are involved in plant pathogen defense responses, while others are invoked during adaptation of plants to abiotic stress (Desikan *et al.* 2001; Wang *et al.* 2006). Babosha and Komarova (2010) investigated on a background of modelled oxidative outbreak caused by the stress from exogenous H₂O₂. Exogenous zeatin inhibited growth in different treatments with H₂O₂ bringing about both acceleration and inhibition of root and hypocotyl growth. The involvement of H₂O₂ and NO in stress responses is of particular interest, it really must be considered in the context of and even as a special case of H₂O₂ involvement in normal growth and metabolism.

ROLE OF CA²⁺, ABA IN H₂O₂ AND NO SIGNALING AGAINST HEAVY METAL STRESS

Our knowledge about the scope of stress-induced signaling in plants leading to modification of gene expression has increased in recent years. A number of signaling molecules have been demonstrated to be involved in the stress signaling pathway. A myriad array of evidences suggests that

Table 1 Production of H₂O₂ induced by heavy metal stress in plants.

Heavy metal	Reference
Cd	Cho and Seo 2005
Cd	Schutzendubel <i>et al.</i> 2001; Chao <i>et al.</i> 2008; Liu <i>et al.</i> 2011
Cu	Drazkiewicz <i>et al.</i> 2004
Cd, Cu	Maksymice and Krupa 2006b
Hg	Cho and Park 2000; Shiyab <i>et al.</i> 2009
Mn	Demirerska-Kepova <i>et al.</i> 2004

located NADPH oxidase (PM-NADPH) (Lamb and Dixon 1997; Yang and Pooviah 2002). Later, the [Ca²⁺_{cyt}] elevation activates the calcium sensor, calmodulin and subsequently passes the signal to a down-stream target, CAT. This finally down-regulates H₂O₂ levels by stimulating the plant CAT activity. Together, these results provide evidence indicating that Ca²⁺ has dual functions in regulating H₂O₂ homeostasis, which in turn, influences redox signaling in response to environmental stress signal in plants (**Fig. 2; Table 1**).

Moreover, H₂O₂ modulates the expression of various genes, including those encoding antioxidant enzymes and modulators of H₂O₂ production (Neill *et al.* 2002a, 2002b). The H₂O₂-induced transcripts encoded proteins (genes) with functions such as metabolism, energy, proteins destination and transport, cellular organization and biogenesis, cell rescue or defence and transcription (Desikan *et al.* 2001a). Among these genes, the genes encoding potential transcription factors should be emphasized due to their capacity for activating the expression of downstream target genes. In *Arabidopsis*, a transcription factors CBF1 (C-repeat binding factor) binding to C-repeat and dehydration-responsive element (CRT/DRE), was first identified by Stockinger *et al.* (1997). CBF1 belongs to the APETALAA2/EREBP family of transcription factors. According to results of Hung *et al.* (2005), CBF seems to be able to indirectly regulate the cytosolic redox status by activating downstream genes encoding antioxidant enzymes for example, CAT. Nevertheless, there are still is no evidence connecting the H₂O₂ signal with CBF accumulation or activation. The strongest evidence showing H₂O₂ it activates transcription factors is provided by the study on yeast transcription factors YAP1 (Coleman *et al.* 1999). However, till date, the direct influence of H₂O₂ on transcription factor activity is far from clarity.

Previous studies showed that ABA-induced NO production is dependent on H₂O₂ generation in *Arabidopsis* guard cells (Bright *et al.* 2006) and in maize (*Zea mays* L.) mesophyll cells (Zhang *et al.* 2007). However, how H₂O₂ regulates NO production in ABA signaling is not clear. It has been shown that ABA-induced H₂O₂ can induce increase in the concentration of Ca²⁺ and the expression of CaM1 and the content of CaM in leaves of maize plants (Hu *et al.* 2007), and that Ca²⁺ is required for H₂O₂-induced NO production in guard cells of mung bean (Lum *et al.* 2002). The Ca²⁺-dependent NO production was also observed in tobacco (*Nicotiana tabacum* L.) cells challenged by the elicitor cryptogein (Lamotte *et al.* 2004) and in the endopoly-galacturonase1 (BcPG1) elicited grapevine (*Vitis vinifera* L.) cells (Vandelle *et al.* 2006). In addition, the results of Sang (2008) provide evidence that both Ca²⁺ and CaM are involved in ABA and H₂O₂ induced NO production in leaves of maize plants and also their data showed that ABA and H₂O₂ induced increase in the generation of NO was substantially blocked by pre-treatments with the Ca²⁺ chelator EGTA, the Ca²⁺ channel blockers LaCl₃ and verapamil and the CaM antagonists TFP and W7. However, pre-treatment with W5, an inactive structural analogue of W7 had very little effect on the ABA and H₂O₂ induced NO production in mesophyll cells of maize leaves. Moreover, exogenous Ca²⁺ also induced an increase in the production of NO and the increase is presented by pre-treatments with the CaM antagonists TFP and W7 (**Fig. 2**).

In plants, pharmacological, biochemical, physiological

and immunological evidence indicates the presence of NOS-like activity similar to a certain extent to mammalian NOS (Corpas *et al.* 2004; Liu *et al.* 2007), although no plant NOS similar to the mammalian one has been characterized (Crawford *et al.* 2006; Neill 2007). It has been shown that NOS is localized in the cytoplasm, chloroplasts, mitochondria peroxisomes and nucleus in plant cells (Liu *et al.* 2007). The occurrence of NOS activity in pea leaf peroxisome was demonstrated by biochemical methods and electron paramagnetic resonance (ESP) spectroscopy (Corpas *et al.* 2004). In previous studies, however, it was reported that NR was the main source of NO production in response to ABA and H₂O₂ in *Arabidopsis* guard cells (Bright *et al.* 2006). The results described above suggest that there are different sources of NO in response to ABA and H₂O₂ in guard cells and mesophyll cells. However, NR does not exclude NR as a source and could also participate in the ABA and H₂O₂ induced NO production in the mesophyll cells of maize leaves. Therefore, it is clear from all results taken together that Ca²⁺-CaM factors both upstream and downstream of NO production in ABA and H₂O₂ signaling. Recent studies suggests that ABA-induced H₂O₂ production mediates NO generation, which in turn, activates a MAPK and results in the up-regulated expression and activities of antioxidant enzymes in ABA signaling in leaves of maize plants (Zhang *et al.* 2007).

In addition, studies have shown that NADPH oxidase, H₂O₂, NO, Ca²⁺-calmodulin (CaM) and MAPK are required for ABA-induced up-regulation in the activities of antioxidant enzymes such as SOD, CAT, APX and GR in leaves of maize plants (Zhang *et al.* 2007). It has been shown that ABA-induced H₂O₂ production mediates NO generation, which, in turn, activates MAPK and results in the up regulation in the expression and the activities of antioxidant enzymes in ABA signaling (Zhang *et al.* 2007). Ca-CaM has been also shown to be necessary for ABA-induced antioxidant defense and function both upstream and downstream of H₂O₂ production in leaves of maize plants (Hu *et al.* 2007). However, whether Ca²⁺-CaM is involved in NO induced antioxidant defense in plants and if so what the relationship between Ca²⁺-CaM and NO in the H₂O₂ signaling is remains to be determined (**Table 2**).

Moreover, Sang *et al.* (2008) results suggests that Ca²⁺-CaM functions both upstream and downstream of NO production, which is mainly from NOS in ABA and H₂O₂ induced antioxidant defense in leaves of maize plants. An increasing body of evidence indicates that NO which was first identified as a unique diffusible molecular messenger in animals, plays important roles in various physiological processes in plants including defences responses and PCD, hormones responses, abiotic stress, root and xylem differentiation and development, germination, iron homeostasis and flowering (Neill *et al.* 2003; Crawford 2006). There are several potential sources of NO including NOs-like enzyme, NR and non-enzymatic sources (Crawford 2006). In case of animals, NO is formed exclusively by the enzyme NOS (nitric oxide synthase), catalyses the conversion of L-arginine in to L-citrulline and NO in the presence of molecular oxygen (Crawford 2006). Although no plant NOS similar to the mammalian one has been identified (Crawford *et al.* 2006; Neill 2007), several lines of evidence have demonstrated the presence of NOS-like activity in pea leaf peroxisomes has been biochemically characterized which is strictly dependent on L-arginine, NADPH, tetrahydrobiopterin (BH₄) and CaM and requires Ca²⁺ (Corpas *et al.* 2004). Similarly, several studies showed that pre-treatment with NG-nitro-L-Arg methyl ester (L-NAME), a well known competitive inhibitor of mammalian NOS, produced ABA-induced increases in the production of NO in pea guard cells (Neill *et al.* 2002a, 2002b) and maize mesophyll cells (Zhang *et al.* 2007), suggesting that NOS is involved in ABA and H₂O₂ signaling. However, more evidence is required for the involvement of NOS in H₂O₂-induced antioxidant defense against HMs in plants (**Fig. 1**).

Furthermore, results of Sang *et al.* (2008) showed that

Table 2 Stress-related genes modulated by NO.

Plant system	Treatment	Gene expression	Reference
<i>Nicotiana tabaccum</i> cell suspension cultures	Cryptogein	Cryptogein-induced and NO-dependent expression of ACC synthase and SHSP	Lamotte <i>et al.</i> 2004
NO and other kinds of oxidative stress, <i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i> -Col-O-plants: AFLP analysis	SNP infiltrated in leaves	2500 cDNA	Polverari <i>et al.</i> 2003
<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i> Col-O-plants microarray analysis	SNP applied via the roots	2400 genes	Parani 2004
Glycine max cell suspension cultures	SNP	Pr-1; Pal; CHS	DellDonne <i>et al.</i> 1998
<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i> Col-O-plants: WT mutants overexpression at APx	SNP	HP only in the absence of SA	Murgia <i>et al.</i> 2004b
<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>	SNP	HY5 and MYB1	Tossi <i>et al.</i> 2011
<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>	SNP	Atnoa1/rif1	Ahlfors <i>et al.</i> 2009
<i>Kosteletzkya virginica</i>	SNP	Catalase and peroxidase	Guo <i>et al.</i> 2009

SNP, sodium nitropruside; NO, nitric oxide; APx, ascorbate peroxidase; SHSP, small heat shock protein; ACC, 1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylate; cDNA, complementary deoxyribonucleic acid

Ca⁺²-CaM is required for ABA-H₂O₂ induced increase in the production of NO and the activity of NOS in leaves of maize plants, and the increase the production of NO are mainly from NOS and their data also suggest that there are a cross-talk exists between Ca⁺²-CaM and NO in H₂O₂ signaling and HM stress as well as CaM is necessary for the generation of NO and the activity of NOS induced by exogenous Ca⁺² in leaves of maize plants. Also, studies showed that both ABA and H₂O₂ induce NO generation in maize mesophyll cells (Zhang *et al.* 2007). To investigate whether Ca⁺²-CaM is involved in H₂O₂ induced growth of NO, the Ca⁺²-chelator, ethylene glycol-bis (2-amino ethyl ether)-N,N,N',N'-tetra acetic acid (EGTA), the Ca⁺² channel blockers LaCl₃ and verapamil, and the CaM antagonists TFP and W7 were used. Pre-treatment with these inhibitors significantly reduced the increase in the production of NO induced by ABA or H₂O₂ in mesophyll cells of maize leaves but these pre-treatment's alone did not affect the production of NO in the untreated leaves.

ABIOTIC STRESS: H₂O₂ AND ANTIOXIDANT SYSTEM

Plants constantly monitor their surroundings and make appropriate metabolic, structural and physiological adjustments to accommodate environmental changes. Within frame work of genetic background, plant productivity is dependent on this constant adjustment of gene expression in response to environmental cues. The genome-environment interaction is an essential focus for the elucidation of the nature of the phenotypic variation leading to successful stress tolerance responses (Pastori and Foyer 2002). Moreover, this interaction is also a key determinant to plant tissue composition related to crop quality factors, as well as plant anatomy, morphology and development. Plant integrates a diverse range of environmental and metabolic signals via a network of interacting signal transduction pathways that together regulate gene expression during stress (Tuteja and Sopory 2008). Plants make use of an interacting network of common pathway and components to optimize the stress tolerance responses called cross tolerance. A common signaling system involving hormones, oxidant and antioxidants has evolved to provide adequate defense and protection against hazardous amounts like HMs (Maksymiec 2007).

Also, plants are autotrophic organisms powered by photosynthesis. It is therefore no surprise that redox signals from the light reactions of photosynthesis initiate profound changes in gene function. It is now widely accepted that redox signal exerts control on nearly every aspect of plant biology from chemistry to development, growth and eventual death (Foyer and Noctor 2003). It is most probable that redox signaling was the first type of sensory regulation that evolved in nature, since it prevented uncontrolled changes in energy production, utilization, and exchange. The system in the chloroplast that sense redox changes and control redox homeostasis has been intensively studied; these include post-translational modification of assimilatory reac-

tions, and control of gene transcription and translation. Moreover, redox controls and signals also ensure that the expression of plastid encoded photosynthetic proteins is precisely co-ordinated with that of nuclear encoded chloroplast components (Surpin *et al.* 2002). However, about two billion years ago, molecular oxygen became intimately involved with the essential energy exchange reactions on which life based (photosynthesis and respiration), allowing use of the very high electrochemical potential of the O₂/H₂O₂ redox couple. However, many processes in plants catalyses only partial reduction of oxygen, and so generate ROS as O₂⁻ and H₂O₂.

Abiotic stresses disrupt the cellular redox homeostasis which leads to the oxidative stress or generation of ROS (Asada 2006). It is now well established that virtually all abiotic stresses induce or involve oxidative stress to some degree and the ability of plants to control oxidant levels is highly correlated with stress tolerance. For this purpose, they are equipped with complex processes such as perception, transduction and transmission of stress stimuli (Turner *et al.* 2002; Kopyra and Gwozdz 2004). ROS play a vital role in intracellular redox signaling, activating antioxidant resistance mechanisms. Thus, it is a surviving response for plants to control the concentration of ROS. Moreover, a plethora of evidence indicates that ROS are involved in the DNA damage, cell death and signal transduction. ROS generated under HM stress especially OH⁻, ¹O₂, H₂O₂ react with sugars, purines and pyrimidines. However, no direct evidence is observed in study of He and Hader (2002) in respect to lipid peroxidation and DNA damage.

As already stated, O₂¹ is an extremely reactive molecule, which can cause extensive damage to proteins and membranes (Gill and Tuteja 2010). Similarly, H₂O₂ participates widely in plant metabolism it can be converted via Fenton-type reactions to the OH⁻. This extremely toxic radical can initiate LPX, cause protein degradation or modification, and mediate DNA damage. In addition to formation through processes intrinsic to photosynthesis, O₂⁻ and/or H₂O₂ are generated at significant rates by photorespiration, oxidative phosphorylation, fatty acid oxidation and also by many types of oxidative activity (Dutilleul *et al.* 2003). Despite the fact that the generation of O₂⁻ and H₂O₂ by the plant mitochondrial ETS is well known, the production of these ROS by leaf mitochondria had until recently, been considered to be of only secondary importance. However, several recent reports have suggested that, in plants as in animals, mitochondria are involved in the tolerance to oxidative stresses. O₂⁻ and H₂O₂ are produced as primary signals in the stress signal cascade (Mittler *et al.* 2004).

Moreover, they are also produced as second messengers during growth, tropic and movement responses as results of hormone action. Rapid components-specific differences in redox state can be of achieved either by modifying the rates of O₂⁻ and H₂O₂ production or by repression or activation of the antioxidants defence or both. For example, H₂O₂ accumulation in the apoplast, which is important in defence and growth responses, is controlled by regulation of the activity of enzymes that generate H₂O₂ potential NADPH

Table 3 Sources of heavy metal toxicity in soil (Lone *et al.* 2008; Yadav 2010; Karimi *et al.* 2011).

Heavy metal	Sources
Cd	Geogenic sources, metal smelting and refining, fossil fuel, sewage sludge and application of phosphate fertilizers
Ni	Land fill, forest fire, bubble bursting, gas exchange, weathering of soils and geological materials
Pb	Mining and smelting of metalliferous ores, burning of loaded gasoline and municipal sewage
Hg	Forest fire, coal and wood burning
Se	Coal burning, oil refining, combustion of fossil fuels, chemical synthesis (e.g. pigment formulation)
Cu	Smelting, refining and biosolids
Cr	Sludge, solid waste and tanneries
Zn	Electroplating industry, smelting and biosolids

oxidases (Cheeseman 2007). This allows very precise control of the generation of H₂O₂ either in localized microenvironments or in more global bursts. Much remains to be resolved concerning the components of the H₂O₂-induced signaling cascade and the mechanisms by which information on redox status is used to modify gene expression (Pastori and Foyer 2002). H₂O₂-responsive elements are present in the promoters of a number of plants genes. One of the most important developments in the next few years will be the elucidation of transcription factors that are involved in the H₂O₂ signaling cascade. This will important as a signal transcription factor can orchestrate the expression of many genes to improve tolerance against oxidative stress especially induced by HMs (Marceau 2004).

Moreover, mitogen-activated protein kinases (MAPKs) have been found to modulate protein phosphorylation as a result of H₂O₂ signaling. H₂O₂ activates MAPKs, which repress auxin-demonstrated the presence of intensive metabolites and hormone cross-talk between oxidative stress tolerance and plant growth responses. Overall, plants are much more tolerant to H₂O₂ than animals, and their antioxidant systems appear cellular redox state rather than to facilitate the complete elimination of H₂O₂ (Foyer and Noctor 2003). Together with a number of antioxidant enzymes, to hydrophilic low molecular weight antioxidant, ascorbate and GSH, determine the life time of the H₂O₂ in plant cells. Therefore, an appropriate intracellular balance between ROS generation and scavenging exists in all cells. This redox homeostasis requires the efficient co-ordination of reactions in different cell components and is governed by complex networks of proteins and antioxidant systems. These enzymes include SOD which catalyze the dismutation of O₂⁻ to H₂O₂ and O₂. Till date, three classes of SOD have been identified in plants on the basis of their metal cofactors content. FeSOD are found only in chloroplasts, MnSOD are found mainly in mitochondria, while Cu/ZnSOD is located in the chloroplast, cytosol, apoplast and peroxisomes (Dutilleul *et al.* 2003). The main enzymatic H₂O₂ scavenger of photosynthetic cells are CAT converted H₂O₂ to H₂O and O₂, and APX use ascorbate as the electron donor for H₂O₂ reaction. CAT isoforms are distinguished on the basis of organ specificity and responses to environmental stresses. Chloroplasts contain stromal thylakoid-bound, and luminal APX forms. APX reduced ascorbate as an electron donor. At the thylakoid membrane, the oxidized form of MDA is reduced back to ascorbate via reduced ferredoxin, generated as a result of peroxidase cycle, chloroplast contain a second reducing power while producing ATP called ascorbate-glutathione cycle (Asada 2006) (Fig. 2).

Furthermore, it is not only important H₂O₂-detoxifying system in the chloroplast but it also serves a similar function in the cytosol, peroxisome and mitochondria. There are a vast array of other antioxidant components that function in synchrony with the Mehler-peroxidase and ascorbate-glutathione cycles to maintain low levels of H₂O₂ and other oxidants in cells. Of particular note are the peroxiredoxins, GPXs and GST that fulfil essential roles in the elimination of lipids and other lipid derived oxidants in cellular membranes (Pelicano and Carney 2004). Together, the antioxidants form a formidable of O₂⁻ and H₂O₂ in order to minimize the probability of OH⁻ function and consequent ox-

idative stress. The amount and redox states of ascorbate and GSH determine cellular H₂O₂ concentrations and therefore influence the known roles of H₂O₂ in signal transduction changes in antioxidant redox state and concentration can be much more pronounced than changes in leaf H₂O₂ contents (Noctor *et al.* 2000).

HEAVY METAL STRESS: A CROSS TALK SIGNALING BETWEEN NO AND H₂O₂

The effects of HMs on plants resulted in growth inhibition, structural damage, and decline in physiological and biochemical activities as well as the function of plants (Mazid *et al.* 2010). Also, toxicity causes the blocking of functional groups of important molecules, e.g. enzymes, polynucleotides, transport systems for essential nutrients and ions, displacement and/or substitution of essential ions from cellular sites, denaturation and inactivation of enzymes, and disruption of cell and organelle membrane integrity. Moreover, elevated levels of HMs not only decrease soil microbial activity and crop production, but also threaten human health through the food chain (McLaughlin *et al.* 1999). Plants have a remarkable ability to take up HMs (Table 3).

HM toxicity is one of the major abiotic stresses leading to hazardous health effects in animals and plants. Because of their high reactivity they can directly influence growth, senescence and energy synthesizing processes (Maksymiec 2007). In addition, HMs toxicity is considered to induce the production of ROS and may result in significant damage to cellular constituents (Weckx and Clijsters 1997) but, however, phenomenon of ROS formation found to be least explored (Smirnov 1995). The ROS are strong oxidizing agents that cause oxidative damage to biomolecules such as lipids and proteins and eventually lead to cell death. Growth inhibition and senescence stimulation caused by HMs in excess are intriguing effects, more so, as the knowledge of their mechanisms can have a great significance in eco-physiology and medicine. Plants possess a range of potential cellular mechanisms that may be involved in the detoxification of HMs and thus tolerance to metal stress (Hall 2002). The effects of their toxic influence on plants is largely a strong and fast inhibition of growth processes of the above and underground parts, as well as decrease of activity of the photosynthetic apparatus (Molas 2002; Sobkowiak and Dekert 2003; Alaoui-Sosse *et al.* 2004; Lin *et al.* 2005).

There are a regulated balance between ROS production and destruction is required if metabolic efficiency and function are to be maintained in both optimal and stress conditions (Foyer *et al.* 1994). Mostly contamination of the aquatic environment occurs as a result of human activities and affects organisms at the biochemical, cellular, population and community level. There are two aspects on the interaction of plants and HMs. On the one hand, HM shows negative effects on plants and on other hand, plants have their own resistance mechanisms against toxic effects and for detoxifying HM pollution. These are originally thought to function as osmotic buffers. However, apart from the osmotic adjustment, they also seem to play a key role in maintaining the natural state of macromolecules, probably by scavenging ROS (Xiong *et al.* 2002). The presence of elevated concentrations of HMs in the growth medium of the germinating seeds suppresses mobilization and translo-

cation of reserve materials from the reserve tissue to the growing regions and their subsequent utilization there (Mishra and Choudhuri 1997). There is good evidence that the alleviation of oxidative damage and increased resistance to environmental stresses is often correlated with an efficient antioxidant system (Inzé and Montagu 1995).

Moreover, HMs toxicity can elicit a variety of adoptive responses in plants. Cells are normally protected against free oxy-radicals by the operation of intricate antioxidant systems, comprising both enzymatic systems such as SOD, CAT and APXs and non-enzymatic systems, acting as free radical scavengers such as AA and GSH and phenolic compounds (Bowler *et al.* 1992; Foyer *et al.* 1994; Michalak 2006; Gill and Tuteja 2010). The oxidative damage to different cellular components by H₂O₂ could be minimized either by CAT and APX activities or by a reaction sequence known as ascorbate-glutathione cycle involving the redox pairs of ascorbate-dehydroascorbate and glutathione-glutathione disulfide (Foyer *et al.* 1994; Wang *et al.* 2009; Gill and Tuteja 2010). Enzymatic antioxidants such as selenium-dependent GPX, GST, GR and SOD, as well as the concentration of H₂O₂ and MDA, an indicator of LPX determined to identify which antioxidant enzymes participate in the efficient scavenging of ROS generated upon exposure to high doses of Cd²⁺ exposure (Zhang *et al.* 2011).

Maharana *et al.* (2010) stated that lipid peroxidase (LPX) and H₂O₂ are measured as oxidative stress markers while antioxidant defences are measured as CAT, Glutathione-S-transferase and ascorbic acid in order to understand their dissimilarity with respect to pollution levels. They also reported that variations of oxidative stress indices in response to accumulation of HMs within *Padina tetrastratica* commonly found in tropics could be used as molecular biomarkers in assessment and monitoring environmental quality of ecologically sensitive marine habitats. In case of several plants such as *Phytolacca americana* L. responsiveness to Cd stress is unknown but, however, 6-week-old seedlings of *P. americana* exposed to half strength Hoagland solution with 200 or 400 µmol/L CdCl₂ for 4 days, the content of H₂O₂ and MDA, and electrolyte leakage increased, while the photosynthetic rate decreased, indicated that the oxidative damage induced by Cd stress in *P. americana* is one of the metal toxicity mechanism. Moreover, the activities of SOD and POD increased rapidly with elevated Cd concentration and exposure time, CAT activity was stable in response to 200 µmol/L CdCl₂ stress, and increased only at 3 d later upon 400 µmol/L CdCl₂ treatment (Zhang *et al.* 2011). Thus, the enzymatic anti-oxidation capacity played important role in Cd tolerance of hyper accumulator plant. Therefore, much information is available on the effect of redox HMs on various antioxidant processes in plants (Mazhoudi *et al.* 1997; Schützendübel and Polle 2002; Michalak 2006; Shao *et al.* 2008). But, however, the effect of excess concentrations of some metals (e.g. Zn and Ni) on anti-oxidative processes are rare (Weckx and Clijsters 1997), but found to be useful to plant at lower concentration and affect drastically at elevated concentrations. In addition, the symptoms of Zn and Ni toxicity appeared as reduction in seedling growth (Ozdener and Aydin 2010). The growth of the main root is affected much and as a result, it exhibiting the function of fibrous roots.

Since, water pH is an important factor directly affecting the toxicity of metals in algae, for example unicellular *Chlorella* species. It is known that HM toxicity decreases with decreasing pH. Acidity or alkalinity of one medium can, in turn, moderate the toxicity of the HMs (Cu, Pb, Cd or Zn). Lower PH may increase the bio-availability of metal ions resulting in increased toxicity. Although the responses of several antioxidant enzymes, such as CAT, SOD and APX to environmental stress have been studied in some detail (Bowler *et al.* 1992; Allen 1995; Allen *et al.* 1997), little work has been done to show how the enzymes and genes responsible for GSH synthesis respond to metal induced oxidative stress. The ascorbate/glutathione cycle reduces H₂O₂ to water (Foyer and Halliwell 1976; Noctor

1998; Apel and Hirt 2004; Kachout *et al.* 2010). An Important field for further research would be the tolerance mechanisms of plants exhibiting metal hyper accumulation. The knowledge gained in such investigations could facilitate both selection and the breeding of HM tolerant plants. Therefore, there an additional research is necessary to provide further insight concerning the specific relationship between H₂O₂-NO signaling response and expression of antioxidant system under HM stress (Gill and Tuteja 2010).

Moreover, the adverse action of Cu accumulation in tissues of higher plants has been related to interference of Cu with several key physiological processes (Woolhouse 1983; Fernandes and Henriques 1999). However, plant cell membranes are generally considered as primary sites of Cu injury (de Vos *et al.* 1989; Kahle 1993; Srivastava *et al.* 2005; Nouairi *et al.* 2009). Membrane destabilization is frequently attributed to LPX, due to an enhanced production of toxic oxygen species. The Cu effects on plant growth observed under experimental conditions could be associated with the increase of LPX, measured as MDA production. Cu²⁺ ions themselves are able to initiate LPX in plants (Weckx and Clijsters 1996). This phenomenon can be also initiated by the Fe-containing enzyme-lipoxygenase (Thompson *et al.* 1987). This membrane-bound enzyme known to oxidize polyunsaturated fatty acids and to produce ROS, might mediate LPX in Cu-treated plants. Studies of Mazhoudi *et al.* (1997) stated that this increase in LPX is an indicator of increased oxidative damage caused by Cu in all plant parts. On other hand, the involvement of a particular group of enzyme is thought to play an important role in the cellular defense strategy against oxidative stress imposed by HMs (Van Assche and Clijsters 1990; Solanki *et al.* 2011).

In addition, there is a decrease of CAT activity in roots of Cu-treated plants (Mazhoudi *et al.* 1997; Dixit *et al.* 2001; Pourakbar *et al.* 2007; Wang *et al.* 2011). Probably, this might be due to direct effects of Cu-treated ROS on the enzyme proteins, as suggested by Luna *et al.* (1994). The HMs induced decrease in CAT activity can also be attributed to inhibition of protein synthesis; as an example, Ni at higher concentration inhibits the synthesis of CAT and other oxidase proteins during rice seed germination (Das *et al.* 1978). However, the inhibition of CAT activity recorded in roots could not be associated with the decrease of soluble protein content, since apparent protein synthesis in leaves severely impaired while CAT activity in these organs is not affected by excess Cu. Van-Assche *et al.* (1986) and Vangronsveld *et al.* (1993) reported that excessive uptake of toxic Cu induces a significant increase of GPX activity and strong qualitative Cu-specific changes in GPX isozyme pattern of bean (*Phaseolus lunatus*) roots.

Moreover, APX activity strongly diminished by Cu probably as a consequence of the inhibitory effect on the enzyme protein, since the soluble protein content was reduced by Cu. However, in contrast to results of Mazhoudi *et al.* (1997), increased CAT and APX activities protect bean leaves from Cu oxidative stress (Weckx and Clijsters 1996; Dixit *et al.* 2001; Gill and Tuteja 2010; Sevengor *et al.* 2011). However, stem GPX showed both quantitative and qualitative changes in Cu-treated plants. This markedly increased level of stem GPX could be considered as a response to great damage provoked by excess Cu. Peroxidases are known to be HM stressed enzymes (Karataglis *et al.* 1991). A key role of peroxidases has been postulated in stiffening of the cell wall (Sanchez *et al.* 1995; Ye *et al.* 2008). Peroxidases-catalysed lignifications decrease the cell wall plasticity and therefore reduce cell elongation which might represent a mechanical adaptation to stress conditions (Castillo 1986). Also, the findings of Mazhoudi *et al.* (1997) stated that toxicity cause oxidative damage in tomato seedlings which indicated by the accumulation of LPX products as well as only root and stem GPX levels, but not CAT and APX, increased in response to stress (Fig. 2).

NO also plays the vital role in enhancement of antioxidant enzymes activities and alleviates the toxicity of HMs

(Kopyra and Gwózdź 2003; Flora *et al.* 2008; Brahim and Mohamed 2011). Exogenous application of SNP (No donor) reduced Cu toxicity and NH₄⁺ accumulation in rice leaves. Moreover, studies of Wang *et al.* (2010) also suggest that application of the SNP efficiently alleviated the copper toxicity effect, as shown by increase in chlorophyll content and the biomass of fresh/dry leaves in *Lycopersicon esculentum*. SNP treatment also induced the transcription and increased activities of antioxidant enzymes, including CAT, APX, SOD and GPX led to reduction in H₂O₂ accumulation in the leaves. Furthermore, the exogenous NO treatment could induce the transcription of defense-related genes, such as *pal*, *pr-1*, *gst* and *chs*, when the plant suffer various stresses (Wu *et al.* 2010). However, little is known about the relationship between exogenous NO treatment and DNA metabolism. Several recent studies demonstrated that the exogenous NO could induce the polymorphism of genomic DNA methylation. Special inhibitors or scavengers of NO synthesis is diminished the ameliorating effect of NO on Cu toxicity (Wang *et al.* 2010). The protective effect of SNP on the toxicity and NH₄⁺ accumulation can be reversed by PTIO, a NO scavenger, suggesting that the protective effect of SNP is attributable to NO released. Zhang *et al.* (2008a) reported that pre-treatment with SNP increased the accumulation in Cu treated cells by about 1.5 fold, which this effect could be blocked by addition of cPTIO. Cu and NO are also able to stimulate Δ -pyroline-5-carboxylate synthetase (P5CS) activity.

Similarly, Zhang *et al.* (2010) reported that under the stress SNP promoted the activities of plant SOD and CAT significantly, increased the leaf and root Ca and Fe contents and the leaf chlorophyll content, net photosynthetic rate (Pn), transpiration rate (Tr), and stomatal conductance (Gs), and decreased the contents of H₂O₂ and MDA and the concentration of intercellular CO₂ (Ci). They also stated exogenous NO could promote the scavenging of ROS, keep the mineral nutrition in balance, and alleviate the damage of Cd stress to the leaf photosynthetic apparatus, making the tomato seedlings preserve their photosynthetic efficiency. These results indicate that Cu-responsive proline biosynthesis is closely related to NO generation in *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*, suggesting the regulatory function of NO in proline metabolism under HM stress. These results also suggest that reduction of Cu induced toxicity and NH₄⁺ accumulation by SNP is most likely mediated through its ability to scavenge ROS (Yu *et al.* 2005).

Kopyra and Gwozdź (2003) also found that SNP pre-treatment significantly reduced O₂⁻ induced specific fluorescence in *Lupinus luteus* roots under HMs treatment. The detoxification and antioxidative properties of NO also found in soyabean (*Glycine max*) cell cultures under Cd and Cu (Singh *et al.* 2008). Moreover, NO decreased the Al³⁺ toxicity in root elongation of *Hibiscus moscheutos* (Tian *et al.* 2006). These results suggested that exogenous NO could effectively induced tomato seedlings to adjust physiological and biochemical mechanisms against Cu toxicity, and maintain fundamentally metabolic capacity and normal growth under HM stress (Cui *et al.* 2009). Hu *et al.* (2007) also found that pre-treatment of NO improved wheat seeds germination and alleviated oxidative stress against Cu toxicity by enhancing the activity of SOD and CAT and by decreasing the lipoxygenase activity and MDA synthesis.

Since, NO has reported to have the ability to reduce Cu-induced toxicity in tomato through antioxidant enzyme activity and MTs (metallothionins) accumulation, and that MTs acts downstream of NO signaling (Wang *et al.* 2010). NO is responsive regulatory mechanisms most likely mediated through the modulation in the activities of antioxidant enzymes (CAT, POD and APX) involved in H₂O₂ detoxification and in the maintenance of cellular redox couples (GR), and contents of molecular antioxidants (Particularly non-protein thiol, ascorbate and its redox status) (Tewari *et al.* 2008). Also, NO protected the plants against Al³⁺ induced oxidative stress and increased root elongation is correlated with a decreased in Al³⁺ accumulation in root apexes (Wang

and Yang 2005). SNP-exposed plants of wheat showed enhanced activities of SOD, CAT, APX and protein content, whereas decreased H₂O₂ and MDA under Al stress (Zhang *et al.* 2008b).

Moreover, the production of H₂O₂ in rice leaves enhanced under Cd treatment, in the case Cd alone, H₂O₂ content induced significantly with increase in the concentration of Cd. Cd toxicity resulted in reduced length, biomass, protein content and activities of antioxidant enzymes (Sharma *et al.* 2010). Similarly, the Zn and Ni also induced oxidative stress in pigeon pea cultivars is evident from the increased lipid per oxidation in their roots and shoots and affected the dry matter accumulation in roots and shoots of the pigeon pea cultivars (Madhava and Sresty 2000). A similar pattern of response together with an elevation in the photosynthesis is observed in the plants of mustard exposed to Cd through nutrient medium. A recent study showed that SNP alleviated Cd-toxicity, atomic absorption spectrometry and fluorescence localization showed that treatment with SNP decreased Cd accumulation in both cell wall and soluble fraction of leaves; although SNP increased Cd accumulation in the rice roots obviously. SNP in nutrient solution had little effect on the transpiration rate of rice leaves, but this treatment increased pectin and hemicellulose content and decreased cellulose content significantly in the cell wall of rice roots. It seems that exogenous application of NO enhances Cd tolerance of rice by increasing pectin and hemicelluloses content in the cell wall of roots, increasing Cd accumulation in root cell wall and decreasing Cd accumulation in soluble fraction of leaves (Xiong *et al.* 2009).

As a consequence of a general stress response, cytotoxic H₂O₂ get accumulated in the cells (Levine *et al.* 1994), and can act as a secondary messenger (Dietz *et al.* 1999). High H₂O₂ and O₂⁻ had been reported earlier in the case of various other plants under Cr, Zn, Pb etc. (Dietz *et al.* 1999; Panda *et al.* 2003b; Choudhury and Panda 2004). The increase in SOD activity indicated higher H₂O₂ level seen by the increase in total H₂O₂ content in leaves, which tallies with those observed in the case of *Brassica juncea* and *Vigna radiata* under Zn and Al treatment (Prasad *et al.* 1999; Panda *et al.* 2003b). Moreover, H₂O₂ increase usually occurred after Cu, Cd (Drazkiewicz *et al.* 2004; Maksymiec and Krupa 2006b) and Hg (Cho and Park 2000) treatment of *Arabidopsis thaliana* and tomato plants, respectively. However, in barley plants, only Mn increased the H₂O₂ content after 5 days but not Cu (Demirevska-Kepova *et al.* 2004; Ember *et al.* 2009; Watanabe *et al.* 2012). This difference may indicate that H₂O₂ accumulation developed differently during a larger stress action. After a long time of Cd action, SOD activity decrease is observed (Sandalo *et al.* 2001). However, this effect is connected with attenuation of the enzymatic antioxidant system, and increased LPX may have not resulted in decrease the H₂O₂ level decrease. More recently, Lin *et al.* (2005) have shown that Cu can act through changes in H₂O₂-dependent peroxidase activity followed by cell wall stiffening due to the formation of cross-linking among the cell wall polymers. Also Cd (Non-reducing ions) enhances H₂O₂ accumulation (Romero-Puertás *et al.* 2004; Cho and Seo 2005; Maksymiec and Krupa 2006b; Domínguez *et al.* 2010) (**Fig. 2**).

Perhaps, a constitutively high antioxidant capacity or increase in the levels of one or more antioxidants could prevent the oxidative damage and improve resistance to oxidative stress. NADPH oxidase (a source of H₂O₂ production) is involved in plant growth (Liszskay *et al.* 2003) and plant response to Cu (Quartacci *et al.* 2001; Maksymiec and Krupa 2006b; Maksymiec 2007; Remans *et al.* 2010; Keunen *et al.* 2011). Increased accumulation of H₂O₂, usually connected with changes in the cellular redox status, alerts the plant cell against environmental stresses (Foyer and Noctor 2003; Rentel and Knight 2004) and may enhance the plants antioxidant response through calcium signaling in the expression of glutathione transeferase gene (Rentel and Knight 2004). In fact, accumulation of H₂O₂ has been observed in Cd-exposed roots (Schutzendubel *et al.* 2001) and

in Cd exposed *Nicotiana tabacum* suspension cultures (Piqueras *et al.* 1999). Taking all these observation together, a hypothetical framework may be suggested that H₂O₂, then, would act as a signaling molecule triggering secondary defense along with NO involvement under stressful conditions.

CONCLUSION AND FUTURE PROSPECTS

Presently, NO and H₂O₂ have emerged as central players in field of abiotic stress induced signaling in plant system. Since, it is also clear that both signaling molecules can mediate the transcription of number of stress responsive genes. However, some most interesting questions remain to be elucidated till date is as follows; (1) To identify probable mechanisms through which H₂O₂ and NO have direct/indirect effects on transcription factors. (2) The recognition of full range of biological functions for them H₂O₂ and NO remain to be catalogued. (3) Determining the ways in which they interacts. So far, it still under research whether H₂O₂ is situated at a common centre for the signaling pathways providing responses to various signals triggered by HM stress like production of NO.

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