

Transgenic Approaches for Abiotic Stress Tolerance in Crop Plants

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ABSTRACT

Modern agriculture practice using genetically engineered crops is emerging as an effective tool to combat the negative impact of abiotic stresses on crop production. Abiotic stresses such as salt, drought, temperature, cold, flooding, heavy metals, etc. remain the greatest constraint to crop production. Estimations revealed that abiotic stresses alone responsible for crop failure and crop productivity loss between 50-70%. Global climate change further aggravating the frequency of abiotic stresses which is a serious challenge to feed the rapidly increasing world population. Plants respond to unfavorable environmental conditions in their habitat by developmental, physiological and biochemical ways to tolerate and/or sustain life. The main goal of modern agricultural research is to improve the potential of crop plants to survive under abiotic stresses for a long time. In this context, transgenic approaches are one of the potential ways for the genetic improvement of crop plants. Furthermore, functional genomics approaches revealed various mechanisms for crop improvement and abiotic stress tolerance. Genetic engineering of major crops such as rice, wheat, maize, soybean, pulses etc with genes from other sources is an extremely powerful tool for molecular plant breeding. Research has already come up with many transgenic crop plants with enhanced abiotic stress tolerance. The present article summarizes recent breakthroughs on the aforesaid aspects highlighting mainly transgenic plants overexpressing various genes for abiotic stress tolerance and improved crop productivity.

Keywords: abiotic stress, antioxidants, genetic engineering, genomics, transcription factors, transgenic plants

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INTRODUCTION

The world's population is increasing at an alarming rate to reach about 9 billion by the end of 2050 (<http://www.un.org/esa/population/unpop.htm>) but a proportional increase in agricultural productivity is hampered by various environmental factors in the changing climate, which is leading to food crisis. The food crisis is not a transient phenomenon and by 2050 there will be another 2.5 billion people on the planet, therefore, it is a great challenge to feed them (<http://environmentalresearchweb.org/cws/article/opinion/48593>). Economic agricultural productivity losses due to the occurrence of a combination of abiotic stresses and climate change on crop plants are huge. Overall, reduction in crop productivity caused by abiotic stresses causes losses worth hundreds of millions of dollars each year (Mahajan and Tuteja 2005). According to an estimation, it is reported that global warming decreased the yield of major crops like maize, wheat and barley by ~ 40 million metric tons per year between 1981 and 2002 (<http://environmentalresearchweb.org/cws/article/news/27343>).

Global effects on desertification, soil salinity, atmospheric CO₂ enrichment and effects of other pollutants are predicted to cause dramatic changes in the climatic conditions of arable lands in this century. Being sessile in nature, plants cannot run away but often encounter and are bound to grow under various adverse environmental conditions, such as salinity, drought, chilling, heat, flooding, heavy metal or extreme light, which adversely affect the plant growth and productivity worldwide (Mahajan and Tuteja 2005; Tuteja 2007; Tuteja *et al.* 2011, 2012a, 2012b). The stress management through avoidance is not applicable in case of plants hence they have developed various systems within to counter those stresses. Plants have developed capacities to sense changes/stress around them and recruit various signalling molecules to transduce these signals locally or systemically to prepare themselves to manage it. Plants can afford only mild abiotic stresses putting in place molecular mechanisms that ensure survival and reproduction. Plants have evolved the ability to reprogram the expression of their genome in response to environmental changes. It has been estimated that the relative decreases in potential maximum yields

associated with abiotic stress factors account for more than 70% (Bray *et al.* 2000). Therefore, it is clear that there is an urgent need to produce abiotic stress tolerant crops. Among abiotic stresses, salinity, drought and cold are of wide occurrence and have significant impact on crop productivity; therefore, tolerance to these stresses is a critical condition for yield stability. Plants respond to various stresses through multifaceted molecular signalling pathways. Where, the significant changes at the molecular, cellular, physiological and biochemical levels enable plants to respond to and/or adapt/survive under stressful conditions (Mishra *et al.* 2006; Tuteja and Mahajan 2008; Tuteja and Sopory 2008a, 2008b; Tuteja *et al.* 2011, 2012a, 2012b).

In general, the stress signal is first perceived by the receptors present on the membrane of the plant cells. Following this, the signal information is transduced downstream resulting in the activation of various stress responsive genes. The products of these stress genes ultimately lead to stress tolerance response or plant adaptation and help the plant to survive and surpass unfavourable conditions (Tuteja and Sopory 2008a, 2012b; Tuteja *et al.* 2011, 2012a, 2012b). The various stress responsive genes can be broadly categorized as early and late induced genes. Early genes are induced within minutes of stress signal perception, which include various transcription factors. Late genes include the major stress responsive genes such as RD (responsive to dehydration)/KIN (cold induced)/COR (cold responsive), which encodes and modulate the proteins needed for synthesis, for example LEA-like proteins, antioxidants, membrane stabilizing proteins and osmolytes (Tuteja and Sopory 2008a, 2008b). Understanding of molecular signalling pathways and identification of key molecules and their specific roles may provide a treasure trove of opportunity for molecular breeding approaches to increase the efficiency of crop plants under stressful conditions without yield penalty. Therefore, efforts should be taken to reduce hunger and promote growth and development of crop plants for sustainable agriculture.

In this article, we discuss some of the genetic engineering approaches significant for crop improvement and abiotic stress tolerance. In addition, various genes potentially important for the development of abiotic stress tolerant crop plants are also highlighted.

TRANSGENIC APPROACHES FOR ABIOTIC STRESS TOLERANCE IN CROP PLANTS

Transgenic approaches are one of the many tools available for modern plant improvement programs. After the green revolution, now it's the turn of gene revolution, which is basically the use of gene discovery and functional genomics strategies to reveal multitudinous mechanisms and gene families; hence to confer improved productivity and adaptation to abiotic stresses. These gene families can further be manipulated into novel combinations, expressed ectopically, or transferred to species in which they do not naturally occur or vary. The post genomics era, enhancement of high-throughput facilities which includes, computational biology, metabolomics, and phenomics, has enabled continuously improving capabilities to explore functional plant biology and to develop stress tolerant crops. This makes it possible to address hitherto unexplored aspects of fundamental and applied crop research at high levels of throughput, though not without challenges (Bhatnagar-Mathur *et al.* 2008; Jewell *et al.* 2010).

It is well documented that among abiotic stresses extreme temperatures (freezing, cold, heat), water availability (drought, flooding), and ion toxicity (salinity, heavy metals) are the major causes, which adversely affect the plant growth and productivity worldwide (Mahajan and Tuteja 2005; Tuteja 2007; Tuteja *et al.* 2011, 2012a, 2012b). Nevertheless, it is also predicted that the aforesaid environmental stresses will become more intense and frequent with climate change. To sense these environmental signals, higher plants have evolved a complex signaling network.

Stress signal transduction pathways starts with signal perception by receptors. Following this, the signals activate the generation of second messengers such as calcium and this secondary signaling molecules, which can modulate the intracellular Ca^{2+} level by receptor mediated Ca^{2+} release or it can bypass Ca^{2+} in early signaling steps and initiate a protein phosphorylation cascade (protein phosphatase, MAPK, CDPK, SOS3/PKS, etc.), which activates specific stress-responsive genes for cellular protection through transcription control (MYC/MTB, CBF/DREB) (Mishra *et al.* 2006; Tuteja and Mahajan 2008; Tuteja and Sopory 2008a, 2008b; Tuteja *et al.* 2011). Stress injury may occur through denaturation of cellular proteins/enzymes or through the production of ROS, Na^+ toxicity and disruption of membrane integrity. In response to injury, plants trigger a detoxification process, which may include changes in the expression of LEA/dehydrin type gene, synthesis of molecular chaperones, proteinases, enzymes for scavenging ROS and other detoxification proteins. This process functions in the control and repair of stress induced damage and results in stress tolerance (**Fig. 1**). The complete understanding the molecular mechanism for abiotic stress tolerance is still a major challenge in biology. Overall, the stress response could be a coordinated action of many genes, which may cross-talk with each other. The stress-induced gene products are also involved in the generation of regulatory molecules like ABA, salicylic acid and ethylene, which can initiate the second round of signaling events. Recently, ABA has been mostly implicated to play a crucial role biotic stress tolerance process (Bhatnagar-Mathur *et al.* 2008). In the following sections, some of the aforesaid transgenic approaches including transcription factors (TFs), transporters, osmolytes, and genes discovered in plants in context with their role in reactive oxygen species (ROS)-perception, impacts and/or detoxification, and antioxidant defense system components modulation will be critically discussed.

TRANSCRIPTION FACTORS

The perception of environmental stresses (including salinity, drought and cold) and the downstream signalling cascades to activate adaptive stress responses are key steps to acquire stress resistance (**Fig. 1**; Seki *et al.* 2003; Yamaguchi-Shinozaki and Shinozaki 2006; Ishida *et al.* 2012). In the signal transduction network that leads from the perception of stress signals to the expression of stress-responsive genes, transcription factors (TFs) play an essential role.

TFs are proteins that act together with other transcriptional regulators, including chromatin remodeling/modifying proteins, to employ or obstruct RNA polymerases to the DNA template; and it is estimated that plant genomes assign approximately 7% of their coding sequence to TFs, which proves the complexity of transcriptional regulation (Udvardi *et al.* 2007). Moreover, TFs were shown to interact with *cis*-elements in the promoter regions of several stress-related genes and in this way, up-regulate the expression of many downstream genes resulting in imparting abiotic stress tolerance (Agarwal and Jha 2010). Because TFs, as opposed to most structural genes, tend to control multiple pathways steps, they have emerged as powerful tools for the manipulation of complex metabolic pathways in plants (Hussain *et al.* 2011). In fact, the transcriptional control is typically exerted through the action of TFs that are specifically involved in particular signal responses. It has been found that TF genes constitute a significant proportion of stress-inducible genes, suggesting that gene transcriptional regulation of stress responses is a crucial mechanism for stress adaptation (Seki *et al.* 2003; Ishida *et al.* 2012). Different families of TFs such as ERF/AP2, HSF, bZIP, MYB, MYC, NFY, NAC, WRKY, Cys2His2, MADS-box and zinc-finger have been shown to regulate the expression of stress-responsive genes (Yamaguchi-Shinozaki and Shinozaki 2006; Hirayama and Shinozaki 2010). Based on the presence of their DNA-binding domains the TFs can be classified into >50 different families, which mainly

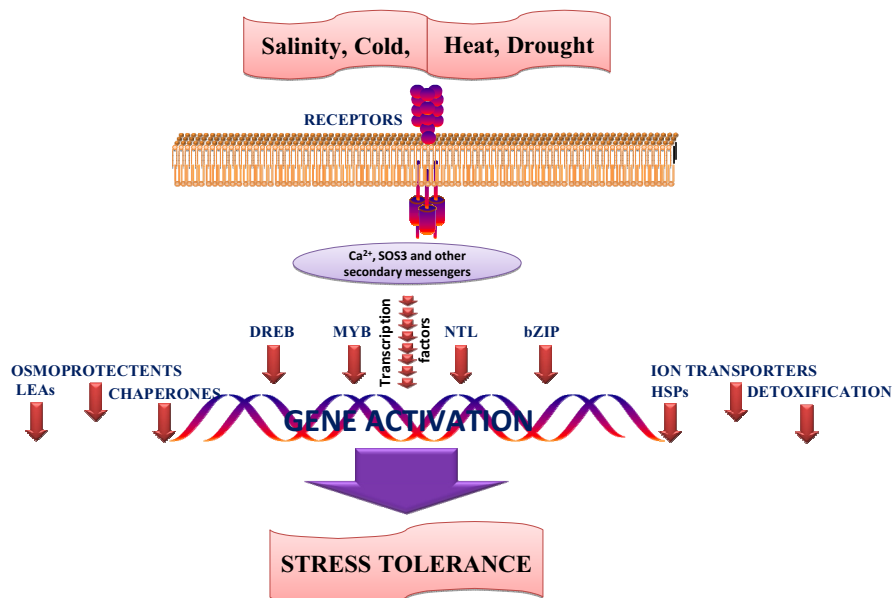


Fig. 1 Generic pathway under salinity, drought cold and heat stress. Stress signal transduction pathways starts with signal perception by receptors. After this the signals activate the signaling mechanism, which helps to generate secondary signaling molecules, and activates specific stress-responsive genes for cellular protection through transcription control. In response to injury, plants trigger a detoxification process, which may include change in the expression of LEA/dehydrin type gene, synthesis of molecular chaperones, proteinases, enzymes for scavenging ROS and other detoxification proteins. This process functions in the control and repair of stress induced damage and results in stress tolerance.

includes MYB, NAM/ATAF1,2/CUC2 (NAC), WRKY, APETALA2/ethylene-responsive element binding factor (AP2/ERF), basic leucine zipper (bZIP), basic helix-loop-helix (bHLH), homeodomain, and zinc finger transcription factors (Riechmann *et al.* 2000; Yamaguchi-Shinozaki and Shinozaki 2006). In the genome of the model plant, *Arabidopsis thaliana*, about 1500 TFs are described which are considered to be involved in stress responsive gene expression (Riechmann *et al.* 2000). Extensive reports are now available conforming important role of TFs in the development of abiotic stress tolerant transgenic crop plants (**Table 1**). The phytohormone ABA-dependent signaling systems have been illustrated as pathways that have been reported to mediate stress adaptation by induction of at least two separate regulons (a group of genes controlled by a certain TF): (a) the AREB/ABF (ABA-responsive element-binding protein/ABA-binding factor) regulon; and (b) the MYC (myelocytomatosis oncogene)/MYB (myeloblastosis oncogene) regulon (Saibo *et al.* 2009; Cutler *et al.* 2010). While the CBF/DREB regulon; and (2) the NAC (NAM, ATAF and CUC) and ZF-HD (zincfinger homeodomain) regulon represent the ABA-independent regulons (Nakashima *et al.* 2009; Saibo *et al.* 2009). The NAC [NAM (No Apical Meristem), ATAF1-2, and CUC2 (Cup-Shaped Cotyledon)] TF have been reported to be associated with abiotic stress (Reguera *et al.* 2012). NAC regulates both the ABA-dependent and independent genes. Salinity and drought stress conditions are mediated by ABA that induces expression of various genes. Dehydration-responsive element (DRE)/C-repeat (CRT) proteins have been identified to play important roles in drought, cold and salinity response (Yamaguchi-Shinozaki and Shinozaki 1994). In addition, The DRE-binding (DREB) and ethylene responsive element binding factors (ERF) subfamilies that belong to the large family of TFs APETALA2/ethylene-responsive (AP2/EREBP), mediate plant signal transduction pathways in response to environmental cues (Reguera *et al.* 2012). The presence of DRE/CRT and ABRE has been noted in many stress-responsive gene promoters, suggesting that ABRE also plays a role in stress-responsive transcription (Yamaguchi-Shinozaki and Shinozaki 2006). ABRE binding proteins/ABRE binding factors have also been identified in *Arabidopsis*, and both are bZIP-type TFs (Choi *et al.* 2000; Uno *et al.* 2000). MYB, NAC, and other families have also been suggested to play important roles in the stress response

especially drought in various crop plants. The ABA-independent stress-responsive genes are regulated by DREB proteins, which bind to DRE *cis*-elements and has also been reported that DREB1/CBF proteins (DREB1A-C/CBF1-3) is induced by cold stress (Liu *et al.* 1998; Nakashima *et al.* 2000). A number of downstream genes get activated by overexpression of DREB transcription factors leading to enhanced abiotic stress tolerance (**Table 1**). Overexpression of SNAC1 (STRESS-RESPONSIVE NAC 1) in *Oryza sativa* reported to protect against drought and salinity stress (Hu *et al.* 2006, 2008; Jeong *et al.* 2010; Takasaki *et al.* 2010). Moreover, the overexpression of NAC genes including OsNAC5, OsNAC6 and OsNAC10 was shown to improved environmental stress tolerance in transgenic *O. sativa* (Hu *et al.* 2008; Jeong *et al.* 2010; Takasaki *et al.* 2010). Yokotani *et al.* (2009) reported that OsNAC063 from rice showed enhanced tolerance to salt and osmotic stress in *A. thaliana*. DREB1/CBF overexpression in *Arabidopsis*, triggers the upregulation of not only various stress-responsive genes including LEA protein and cold-inducible KIN protein genes but also a C₂H₂ zinc finger transcription factor gene. This gene, termed STZ, is one of the direct target genes of DREB1/CBF (Maruyama *et al.* 2004; Sakamoto *et al.* 2004). Because the overexpression of STZ, which functions as a transcriptional repressor, also enhances the tolerance to drought stress (Sakamoto *et al.* 2004), the transcriptional cascade including DREB/CBF and STZ appears to play a key role in the cold stress response in *A. thaliana*. CAMTA3 (Calmodulin Binding Transcription Activator) has been shown to be a positive regulator of the DREB1C/ CBF2 gene (Doherty *et al.* 2009). The heat-inducible expression of HSP genes is regulated by heat shock transcription factors (HSFs). R2R3-MYB transcription factors play wide functional roles, and involved in imparting stress tolerance against various abiotic stresses in transgenic plants (**Table 1**). Dai *et al.* (2007) reported that MYB3R-2I from *O. sativa* found to enhance salinity, dehydration and freezing stress tolerance and decreased sensitivity to ABA in transgenic *Arabidopsis*. The overexpression of GmMYB76, GmMYB92, or GmMYB177 in *Arabidopsis* resulted in significantly higher seed germination under salinity (Liao *et al.* 2008). Overexpression of apple Myb 10 resulted in osmotic stress tolerance (Gao *et al.* 2010). A heat stress-induced HSF, AtHsfA2, has also been shown to activate HSP expression and then enhance

Table 1 Transgenic plants overexpressing various enzymes (oxidative stress, antioxidants, osmolytes, transporters, transcription factors) for abiotic stress tolerance in crop plants. Gene sources are abbreviated as *Ag*, *A. globiformis*; *Ah*, *Atriplex hortensis*; *Al*, *Aeluropus litoralis*; *Am*, *Avicennia marina*; *At*, *Arabidopsis thaliana*; *Bj*, *Brassica juncea*; *Bn*, *Brassica napus*; *Ec*, *E. coli*; *Eg*, *E. gunnii*; *Gm*, *Glycine max*; *Hv*, *Hordeum vulgare*; *Ib*, *Ipomoea batatas*; *Lb*, *Limonium bicolor*; *Mp*, *Malus pumila*; *Nt*, *Nicotiana tabacum*; *P*, *Populus*; *Pf*, *Pyrococcus furiosus*; *Pg*, *Pennisetum glaucum*; *Ps*, *Pisum sativum*; *Pv*, *Pteris vittata*; *S*, *Synechocystis PCC 6803*; *Sb*, *Salicornia brachiata*; *So*, *Spinacia oleracea*; *Ss*, *Suaeda salsa*; *Ta*, *Tamarix androssowii*; *Ta*, *Triticum aestivum*; *Th*, *Tamarix hispida*; *Va*, *Vigna aconitifolia*

Source/Gene	Transgenic	Response	Reference
<i>At2-Cys Prx (2-cysteine peroxidoxin)</i>	<i>Solanum tuberosum</i> L. cv. Atlantic	Oxidative stress tolerance	Kim <i>et al.</i> 2011
<i>BjOX53 (Oxidative stress 3)</i>	<i>Schizosaccharomyces pombe</i>	Enhanced tolerance to a range of metals and oxidizing chemicals	Blanvillain <i>et al.</i> 2009
<i>PvGrx5 (Glutaredoxin)</i>	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>	High temperature stress and reduces oxidative damage to proteins	Sundaram and Rathinasabapathi 2010
<i>PsMCM6 (Mini chromosome maintenance protein)</i>	<i>Nicotiana tabacum</i>	Enhanced salt stress tolerance without yield penalty	Dang <i>et al.</i> 2011
<i>TaALMT1 (Aluminum-activated malate transporter)</i>	<i>Hordeum vulgare</i> cv. Golden Promise	Increase grain production on an acid soil	Delhaize <i>et al.</i> 2009
<i>SsNHX1 (vacuolar Na⁺/H⁺ antiporter)</i>	<i>Medicago sativa</i>	Salt tolerance	Li <i>et al.</i> 2010
<i>ThSOS1-RNAi/Thellungiella halophilla (Salt overly sensitive)</i>	<i>Thellungiella halophilla</i>	Salt tolerance	Oh <i>et al.</i> 2009
<i>AtAtp1 (H⁻-PPases)</i>	<i>Medicago sativa</i>	Salt tolerance	Bao <i>et al.</i> 2009
<i>AtCLCc (Chloride channel)</i>	<i>A. thaliana</i>	Salt tolerance	Jossier <i>et al.</i> 2010
<i>AtNHX3 (Na⁺/H⁺ antiporter)</i>	<i>A. thaliana</i>	Tolerance to low potassium	Liu <i>et al.</i> 2010
<i>AtCBL5 (CalciurinB-like protein)</i>	<i>A. thaliana</i>	Dehydration and salinity stress tolerance	Cheong <i>et al.</i> 2010
<i>MAPKKK/DSM1 (MAPK kinase kinase)</i>	<i>Oryza sativa</i>	Dehydration stress tolerance	Ning <i>et al.</i> 2010
<i>CaCIPK6 (CBL interacting protein kinases)</i>	<i>N. tabacum</i>	Salinity stress tolerance	Tripathi <i>et al.</i> 2009
<i>ALSAP (A20/ANI zinc-finger)</i>	<i>N. tabacum</i>	Improved drought and salt stress tolerance	Ben Saad <i>et al.</i> 2010
<i>OsAP37 (Transcription Factor)</i>	<i>O. sativa</i>	Salt, low temperature and drought tolerance	Oh <i>et al.</i> 2009
<i>ATAZ11 (Azelaic acid induced 1)</i>	<i>A. thaliana</i> and <i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i>	Freezing stress tolerance	Xu <i>et al.</i> 2011
<i>LbDREB (Drought Responsive Element Binding Protein)</i>	<i>N. tabacum</i>	Copper stress tolerance	Ban <i>et al.</i> 2011
<i>HvDREB2</i>	<i>O. sativa</i>	Improved tolerance under water limitation	Bihani <i>et al.</i> 2011
<i>PgDREB2A</i>	<i>N. tabacum</i>	Salt and dehydration tolerance	Agarwal <i>et al.</i> 2010
<i>SbDREB2A</i>	<i>Escherichia coli</i> (BL21DE3)	Salt and dehydration tolerance	Gupta <i>et al.</i> 2010
<i>OsDREB2B</i>	<i>A. thaliana</i>	Dehydration and heat stress tolerance	Matsukura <i>et al.</i> 2010
<i>GmERF3</i>	<i>N. tabacum</i>	Salt and dehydration stress tolerance	Zhang <i>et al.</i> 2009
<i>CBF/DREB1 and COR15</i>	<i>Brassica oleracea</i> var. botrytis	Enhanced proline production and frost resistance	Hadi <i>et al.</i> 2011
<i>TaDREB2 and TaDREB3</i>	<i>Triticum aestivum</i> L. cv. Bobwhite and <i>H. vulgare</i> L. cv. Golden Promise	Significant improvement in frost tolerance	Morran <i>et al.</i> 2011
<i>MpMyb10 (Myeloblastoma)</i>	<i>A. thaliana</i>	Osmotic stress	Gao <i>et al.</i> 2010
<i>OsSNAC2 (No apical meristem)</i>	<i>O. sativa</i> Zhonghua 11	Salt and cold stress tolerance	Hu <i>et al.</i> 2008
<i>AtNLT8(NAC)</i>	<i>A. thaliana</i>	GA mediated salt signaling	Kim <i>et al.</i> 2008
<i>OsONAC063</i>	<i>A. thaliana</i>	Salt and osmotic stress tolerance	Yokotani <i>et al.</i> 2009
<i>EguCBF1a/b (C-repeat binding factor genes)</i>	<i>Eucalyptus</i>	Low temperature stress tolerance	Navarro <i>et al.</i> 2011
<i>ATHB6 (Transcription Factor)</i>	<i>Lycopersicon esculentum</i>	Drought tolerance	Mishra <i>et al.</i> 2011
<i>ThbZIP (Basic leucine zipper proteins)</i>	<i>N. tabacum</i>	Salt stress tolerance by enhancing ROS scavenging system	Wang <i>et al.</i> 2010
<i>BF1-3 (C-repeat binding factors)</i>	<i>A. thaliana</i>	Frost tolerance	Sharabi-Schwager <i>et al.</i> 2010
<i>DDF1 (Dwarf and delayed flowering 1)</i>	<i>A. thaliana</i>	Cold, drought, and heat stress tolerance	Kang <i>et al.</i> 2011
<i>LeSOD (Superoxide dismutase)</i>	Pepper	Drought tolerance	Chatzidimitriadou <i>et al.</i> 2009
<i>AmCu/Zn SOD</i>	<i>O. sativa</i> Pusa Basmati-1	MV, salinity and drought stress tolerance	Prashanth <i>et al.</i> 2008
<i>NtMn SOD + APX</i>	<i>Festuca arundinacea</i> Schreb. cv. Kentucky-31	MV, H ₂ O ₂ , Cu, Cd and As tolerance due to increased SOD and APX activity	Lee <i>et al.</i> 2007
<i>BjCAT3 (Catalase)</i>	<i>N. tabacum</i>	Cd stress tolerance	Guan <i>et al.</i> 2009
<i>Cytsod + cytapx</i>	<i>N. tabacum</i> 'Xanthi	Less oxidative stress and drought tolerance	Faize <i>et al.</i> 2011
<i>PpAPX (Ascorbateperoxidase)</i>	<i>N. tabacum</i>	Drought resistance and salt tolerance	Li <i>et al.</i> 2009
<i>BntAPX</i>	<i>Brassica napus</i>	Salt and drought stress tolerance	Wang <i>et al.</i> 2011
<i>EcGR (Glutathione reductase)</i>	<i>T. aestivum</i> cv. Oasis protoplast	Salt stress tolerance with higher GSH content	Melchiorre <i>et al.</i> 2009
<i>AmMDAR</i>	<i>N. tabacum</i>	Salt tolerance	Kavitha <i>et al.</i> 2010
<i>AtDHAR (Dehydroascorbate reductase)</i>	<i>N. tabacum</i>	Drought and salt tolerance with higher DHAR activity	Eltayeb <i>et al.</i> 2007
<i>SsGST (Glutathione-S-transferase)</i>	<i>Arabidopsis</i>	Salt tolerance	Qi <i>et al.</i> 2010
<i>SGPX-2</i>	<i>A. thaliana</i>	Tolerance to H ₂ O ₂ , Fe ions, MV, chilling, high salinity or drought stresses	Gaber <i>et al.</i> 2006
<i>TaP5CR (Δ¹-pyrroline-5-carboxylate reductase)</i>	<i>A. thaliana</i>	Salt tolerance	Ma <i>et al.</i> 2008

Table 1 (Cont.)

Source/Gene	Transgenic	Response	Reference
<i>SoBADH-1</i> (<i>Betaine aldehyde dehydrogenase</i>)	<i>N. tabacum</i>	Salt tolerance	Yang <i>et al.</i> 2008
<i>betA</i> (<i>Choline dehydrogenase</i>)	<i>Gossypium hirsutum</i> L.	Improved salt tolerance and seed cotton yield	Zhang <i>et al.</i> 2011
<i>AhCMO</i> (<i>Choline monoxygenase</i>)	<i>G. hirsutum</i> L.	Salt tolerance	Zhang <i>et al.</i> 2009
<i>AgcodA</i> (<i>Choline oxidase</i>)	<i>L. esculentum</i>	Drought and salt stress tolerance	Goel <i>et al.</i> 2011
<i>AgcodA</i>	<i>Brassica chinensis</i>	Enhanced tolerance to extreme temperature and high salinity	Wang <i>et al.</i> 2010
<i>AtADC2</i> (<i>Arginine decarboxylase</i>)	<i>A. thaliana</i>	Drought tolerance	Alcazar <i>et al.</i> 2010

acquired thermotolerance in *A. thaliana* (Chang *et al.* 2007). Improved water use-efficiency but decreased transpiration have been achieved in *O. sativa* through overexpressing HARDY (HRD), encoding a AP2/ERE-like TF (Karaba *et al.* 2007).

TRANSPORTERS

Plants suffer from dehydration or osmotic stress under salinity, drought, and also under low-temperature conditions, which causes reduced availability of water for cellular function and maintenance of cellular turgor pressure. Salinity imposes severe deleterious effects on crop productivity in most plant species, mainly through osmotic stress and ion (Na^+)-specific toxicity (Blumwald 2000; Blumwald *et al.* 2000; Munns and Tester 2008; Tuteja *et al.* 2011). The accumulation of Na^+ in the cytosol causes serious damage *via* inhibition of essential cellular processes, including protein synthesis and vital enzyme reactions (Flowers and Lauchli 1983; Murguia *et al.* 1995). It has been revealed from the recent studies that some classes of Na^+ transporters play crucial roles in Na^+ homeostasis during salinity stress (Horie *et al.* 2010; Hauser and Horie 2010; Uozumi and Schroeder 2010; Yamaguchi *et al.* 2012). Transporters vary in their structure and size from small organic molecules and peptides to multisubunit complexes. Membrane transport proteins are divided into three categories: pump, channel, and secondary transporters. The *Arabidopsis* plasma membrane Na^+/H^+ antiporter SOS1 (salt overly sensitive 1), the Na^+ transporter AtHKT1;1, and the tonoplast Na^+/H^+ antiporter AtNHX1 have drawn particular interest due to their capacity to transport Na^+ , and their molecular functions and physiological roles have been extensively studied (Rai *et al.* 2012). The AtNHX1 gene was identified by sequence homology to the *Nhx1* gene in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. The AtNHX1 transporter functions in Na^+ sequestration into the vacuole during salinity stress to maintain a high K^+/Na^+ ratio in the cytosol (Apse *et al.* 1999; Gaxiola *et al.* 2001). Transgenic *Arabidopsis* and *Lycopersicon esculentum* plants overexpressing AtNHX1 were reported to accumulate abundant quantities of the transporter in their tonoplast; hence, exhibited substantially enhanced salt tolerance (Apse *et al.* 1999; Quintero *et al.* 2000; Zhang and Blumwald 2001). Salt Overly Sensitive 1 (SOS1) encodes a membrane protein that is homologous to plasma membrane Na^+/H^+ antiporters from bacteria and fungi (Shi *et al.* 2002). Mutant analyses of *sos1* plants have led to a working model of the SOS1 transporter under salinity stress, where SOS1 prevents Na^+ level in xylem sap by unloading/loading of Na^+ into xylem vessels decided by the strength of salinity stress, and influenced Na^+ transport from roots to shoots (Shi *et al.* 2002). SOS1 also functions in direct Na^+ extrusion to outer environment from the root tip where meristematic cells do not have large vacuoles for Na^+ sequestration (Shi *et al.* 2002). Plants possess a large number of genes encoding K^+ transporters, including high-affinity transporters and ion channels (Maser *et al.* 2002). K^+ constitutes the most important macronutrients taken up by plants, and serve essential roles as osmoticum and charge carriers. The mechanisms of K^+ uptake and its sensitivity to salt stress in the model plant species is largely known today. HKT (High-affinity K^+ transporter) is a group of well-studied plant Na^+

transporters identified in several species (Platten *et al.* 2006). HKT transporters are involved in root Na^+ uptake in wheat (Laurie *et al.* 2002), rice (Garcia-deblás *et al.* 2003) and barley (Haro *et al.* 2005). HKT1 (a wheat K^+ transporter) was shown to mediate K^+/Na^+ symport when expressed in *Xenopus oocytes* (Schachtman and Schroeder 1994; Rubio *et al.* 1995; Gassmann *et al.* 1996), and the *Arabidopsis* and rice homologues are now known to sustain substantial sodium currents (Uozumi *et al.* 2000; Horie *et al.* 2001). Moreover, mutant analysis in *Arabidopsis* recently indicated significant contribution of AtHKT1 for Na^+ influx *in planta* (Rus *et al.* 2001). *Arabidopsis* AKT1 and KAT1 (inward-rectifying K^+ channels) have been functionally characterized (Bauer *et al.* 2000; Buschmann *et al.* 2000). The exhibition of topological homology of plant K^+ channels of the AKT/KAT family to animal (outward-rectifying) Shaker-type K^+ channels has been reported (Zimmermann and Sentenac 1999). Moreover, plant inward-rectifying K^+ channels were shown to exhibit high selectivity for K^+ over other monovalent cations, and to specifically mediate K^+ uptake and transport in plant cells (Schachtman *et al.* 1992). The K^+ channels of the AKT/KAT subfamily are differently expressed in root and leaf tissues. In this context, *Arabidopsis* KAT1 and its potato homologue KST1 were successfully expressed in guard cells (Nakamura *et al.* 1995; Müller-Röber *et al.* 1995). Cao *et al.* (1995) and Lagarde *et al.* (1996) reported that *Arabidopsis* AKT1 can primarily be expressed in root tissue and localized to epidermis, cortex, and endodermis by promoter activity analysis; whereas in tomato, Hartje *et al.* (2000) reported the localization of LKT1 to root hairs. Additionally, salinity stress-tolerant and -sensitive *O. sativa* were reported to differentially regulate AKT1-type K^+ channel transcripts (Golldack *et al.* 2003). *A. thaliana* AKT1 (*Arabidopsis* K^+ Transporter 1) was reported to be channel mediated that is regulated by voltage (a process known as gating in which the channels open and close), and in this case to favour channel opening at negative voltages that promote net K^+ influx. AKT1 and its relatives are members of the Kv-like (Shaker-like) family of channel proteins that form functional units as tetrameric assemblies around a central pore (Dubey *et al.* 2008; Jeanguenin *et al.* 2008). Nevertheless, MATE (Multidrug And Toxic compound Extrusion Transporters or Multidrug And Toxin Efflux) - a family of small organic molecule transporters and consisting of 400-700 amino acids with 9-12 transmembrane domains, functions actively in the detoxification of xenobiotics, transport of a wide range of metabolites such as cations, organic acids and secondary metabolites and also in heavy metal translocation and hyperaccumulation in plants (Yazaki 2005; Yazaki *et al.* 2008; Gill *et al.* 2012). There are reports of 56 MATE transporter genes in *A. thaliana* plant genome (Li *et al.* 2002; Yazaki *et al.* 2008). AtDTX1 (*A. thaliana* detoxification 1) is a member of the MATE family and serves as a carrier for a range of toxic compounds and is also capable of the detoxification of Cd^{2+} (Li *et al.* 2002). Whereas, FRD3 (ferric reductase defective 3) - a gene encoding a member of MATE family, has been reported to be localized at root pericycle plasma membranes; and functions in Fe homeostasis in *Arabidopsis* (Rogers and Gueriot 2002; Durrett *et al.* 2007), and also for translocation of other metals, such as Zn (Krämer *et al.* 2007). Additionally, MATE family gene was reported to

protect sorghum against Al stress (Magalhães *et al.* 2007). Genetic engineering studies reported that overexpression of transporter genes in plants results in stress tolerance to various abiotic stresses (Table 1).

OSMOLYTES

Abiotic stress factors are menace for agricultural productivity. To cope with these stresses, plants have developed adaptive strategies by expressing specific genes and synthesizing compatible solutes like proline, glycine betaine, trehalose and sugars (Djilianov *et al.* 2005). Glycine betaine (N,N,N-trimethylglycine-betaine; GB) and proline are two major osmoprotectant osmolytes, which are synthesized by many plants (but not all) in response to abiotic stress factors (Vinocur and Altman 2005). Many important agronomical crops, such as rice, potato, tomato and tobacco cannot synthesize GB. Therefore, such plants overexpressing GB synthesizing genes can result in the production of enough amount of GB, which lead plants to tolerate stresses including salinity stress. The overexpression of the genes encoding betaine aldehyde decarboxylase from halophyte *Suaedaliao tungensis* improved the salinity tolerance in tobacco plants. The choline dehydrogenase gene (*codA*) from *Arthrobacter globiformis* helped salinity tolerance in rice (Vinocur and Altman 2005). The overexpression of the genes encoding betaine aldehyde decarboxylase from halophyte *S. tungensis* improved the salinity tolerance in tobacco plants. The choline dehydrogenase gene (*codA*) from *A. globiformis* helped salinity tolerance in rice (Vinocur and Altman 2005). The overexpression of N-methyl transferase gene in cyanobacteria and *Arabidopsis* resulted in accumulation of GB in higher levels and improved salinity tolerance (Waditee *et al.* 2005). Overexpression of *betA* from *E. coli* in *Triticum aestivum* resulted in better salt tolerance and accumulated higher level of GB (He *et al.* 2010).

It is well documented that following salt, drought and metal stress there is a dramatic accumulation of proline. Free proline has been proposed to act as an osmoprotectant, a protein stabilizer, a metal chelator, an inhibitor of lipid peroxidation, OH[·] and ¹O₂ scavenger (Ashraf and Foolad 2007; Trovato *et al.* 2008). The overexpression of the genes of its biosynthetic pathway showed better tolerance to plants under various environmental stresses (Table 1). The function of proline is thought to be an osmotic regulator under water stress, and its transportation into cells is mediated by a proline transporter. Proline is not only an important molecule in redox signaling, but also an effective quencher of ROS formed under salt, metal and dehydration stress conditions in all plants, including algae (Alia and Pardha Saradhi 1991). Su and Wu (2004) reported that both constitutive expression and stress-inducible expression of the *P5CS*cDNA in transgenic *O. sativa* have led to the accumulation of *P5CS* mRNA and proline, which resulted in higher salt and water deficiency stress tolerance. *T. aestivum* plants overexpression of *Vigna aconitifolia* Δ¹-pyrroline-5-carboxylate synthetase (*P5CS*) cDNA under the control of a stress-induced promoter complex-AIPC resulted in enhanced proline accumulation under water deficit. The tolerance to water deficit in transgenic plants was mainly due to protection mechanisms against oxidative stress and not caused by osmotic adjustment. Overexpression of *P5CS* gene in transgenic tobacco resulted in increased production of proline and salinity/drought tolerance. Ueda *et al.* (2008) have reported that altered expression of barley proline transporter (*HvProT*) causes different growth responses in *Arabidopsis*, as it leads to the reduction in biomass production and decreased proline accumulation in leaves. Impaired growth of *HvProT* transformed plants was restored by exogenously adding proline, which suggested that growth reduction was caused by a deficiency of endogenous proline. The overexpression of GB and proline biosynthetic pathway genes enhances the abiotic stress tolerance in transgenic plants (Table 1).

OXIDATIVE STRESS AND ANTIOXIDANT DEFENSE SYSTEM

Abiotic stresses cause oxidative stress by the generation and/or accumulation of reactive oxygen species (ROS), which basically includes superoxide anion (O₂^{·-}), hydroxyl radicals (OH[·]) and hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) (Gill and Tuteja 2010; Anjum *et al.* 2012; Gill *et al.* 2012) (Fig. 2). ROS react with organic molecules and causes membrane lipid peroxidation, protein oxidation, enzyme inhibition and DNA, RNA damage, etc. (Gill and Tuteja 2010; Gill *et al.* 2012). Plants possess very efficient enzymatic (superoxide dismutase, SOD; catalase, CAT; ascorbate peroxidase, APX; glutathione reductase, GR; monodehydroascorbatereductase, MDHAR; dehydroascorbatereductase, DHAR; glutathione peroxidase, GPX; guaicolperoxidase, GOPX and glutathione-S-transferase, GST) and non-enzymatic (ascorbic acid, ASH; glutathione, GSH; phenolic compounds, alkaloids, non-protein amino acids and α-tocopherols) antioxidant defense systems, which work in concert to control the cascades of uncontrolled oxidation and protect plant cells from oxidative damage by scavenging of ROS (Gill and Tuteja 2010; Anjum *et al.* 2012; Gill *et al.* 2012). Therefore, the overexpression of ROS scavengers can increase the plant resistance to various stresses such as salinity, drought, heat, cold, etc. (Table 1).

Overexpression of a Mn-SOD in transgenic *Arabidopsis* plants also showed increased salt tolerance (Wang *et al.* 2004). Furthermore, they showed that Mn-SOD activity as well as the activities of Cu/Zn-SOD, Fe-SOD, CAT and POD (peroxidase) was significantly higher in transgenic *Arabidopsis* plants than control (Wang *et al.* 2004). Cu/Zn-SOD overexpressing transgenic tobacco plants showed multiple stress tolerance (Badawi *et al.* 2004). Overexpression of Mn-SOD in transformed *L. esculentum* plants also showed enhanced tolerance against salt stress (Wang *et al.* 2007). Further, the combined expression of Cu/Zn-SOD and APX in transgenic *Festuca arundinacea* plants led to increased tolerance to MV (methyl viologen), H₂O₂, Cu, Cd and As (Lee *et al.* 2007). Pyramiding of antioxidative enzyme Cu/ZnSOD, APX, and DHAR in tobacco chloroplasts showed salinity and oxidative stress tolerance compared to those plants expressing single or double gene (Lee *et al.* 2007). The overexpression of Cu/ZnSOD, APX, and DHAR resulted in ~1.6-2.1 times higher DHAR activity, higher ratios of reduced ascorbate to DHA, and oxidized glutathione (GSSG) to reduced glutathione (GSH) (Lee *et al.* 2007). Maize Cu/ZnSOD and/or CAT genes were targeted to the chloroplasts of *Brassica campestris* and it was noted that exposure of transgenic plants to 400 ppb SO₂ showed enhanced tolerance than wild type (Tseng *et al.* 2007). Transgenic *Arabidopsis* plants overexpressing OsAPXa or OsAPXb exhibited increased salt tolerance. It was found that the overproduction of OsAPXb enhanced and maintained APX activity to a much higher extent than OsAPXa in transgenic plants under different NaCl concentrations (Lu *et al.* 2007). Overexpression of a eukaryotic GR from *B. campestris* (BcGR) and *E. coli* GR (EcGR) was studied in *E. coli* in pET-28a. It was found that BcGR-overproducing *E. coli* showed better growth and survival rate than the control but far better growth was noted in *E. coli* strain transformed with the inducible EcGR in the presence of paraquat, SA and Cd (Yoon *et al.* 2005). In an interesting study, transgenic *Nicotiana tabacum* plants with 30-70% less GR activity were used to find out the possible mechanism of GR against oxidative stress. Transgenic plants with less GR activity showed enhanced sensitivity to oxidative stress. It was suggested that GR plays an important role in the regeneration of GSH and thus protects against oxidative stress also by maintaining the ASH pool (Ding *et al.* 2009). It has also been noted that the overexpression of DHAR in tobacco protected the plants against ozone toxicity (Chen and Gallie 2005). Overexpression of DHAR increased salt tolerance in *A. thaliana* (Ushimaru *et al.* 2006) and drought and ozone stress tolerance in tobacco (Eltayeb *et al.* 2006).

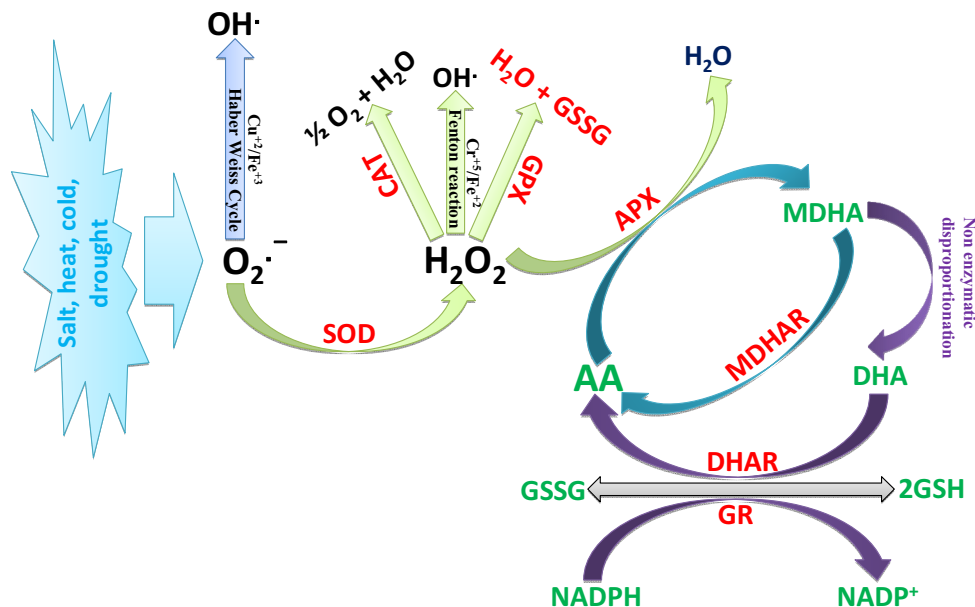


Fig. 2 Generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) by abiotic stresses and their scavenging mechanism by antioxidants. ROS: $O_2^{\cdot-}$, superoxide radicals; H_2O_2 , hydrogen peroxide; OH^{\cdot} , hydroxyl radical. Antioxidants: SOD, superoxide dismutase; CAT, catalase; APX, ascorbate peroxidase; GPX, DHAR, dehydroascorbatereductase; MDHAR, mono dehydroascorbatereductase; GR, glutathione reductase; AA, ascorbic acid; GSH, reduced glutathione; GSSG, oxidised glutathione.

GST Nt107 expressing transgenic cotton lines were used to investigate the tolerance potential under various stresses like chilling, salinity, and herbicides and it was noted that transgenic seedlings exhibited ten-fold and five-fold higher GST activity under control and salt stress conditions, respectively (Light *et al.* 2005). Transgenic tobacco plants overexpressing *Prosopis juliflora* GST survived better than control plants under 15% PEG stress (George *et al.* 2010). It was noted that GPX activity in transgenic cotton seedlings was 30-60% higher under normal conditions, but was not different than GPX activity in wild type seedlings under salt stress conditions (George *et al.* 2010). Overexpression of various antioxidant enzymes has been found to enhance abiotic stress tolerance in transgenic plants (Table 1).

CONCLUSIONS

Comprehensive efforts have been made to unravel plant abiotic tolerance mechanisms in model as well as crop plants but still our understanding of the underlying molecular basis of abiotic stress tolerance is not very well clear yet. As plants are sessile, stress is an unavoidable and integral part in the plant growth, development and evolution. Though it causes great deal of losses towards the yield in crop plants, the recent studies in this respect are providing leads to develop sustainable varieties. Functional genomics and high throughput analysis including microarray, transcriptomics, metabolomics, reverse genetics etc. supported by a high quality bioinformatics should answer some of these questions related to stress response. It has been revealed that transcription factors also play important role by activating/repressing target genes to help produce metabolites, enzymes, osmolytes, osmoprotectants and other chaperon molecules, which provide protection to cell components from the stress. Genetic engineering has opened up a new opportunity in crop improvement allowing the transfer of desirable gene(s) across species and genera for developing transgenic plants with novel traits, such as built-in protection, improved nutritional qualities, and so on. The major attempt to enhance plant tolerance is the manipulation of genes that are either directly involved in protection of cells against water loss or the genes that are involved in regulating signal transduction pathways in response to water stress. Much effort is still required to uncover detail of a gene induced by cold, salinity, and drought stress, and their interacting partners to understand the complexity of

the stress signal transduction pathways. Overall, a combination of a good genetic background with multiple transgenes/alleles mining and promising performance in field conditions will reveal the success of the development of abiotic stress-tolerant plants.

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