

## Stomatal closure in sweet potato leaves induced by sulfur dioxide involves H<sub>2</sub>S and NO signaling pathways

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### Abstract

Sulfur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>) is a well-known and widespread air pollutant but it also acts as signaling molecule in various processes in animals. However, there is limited information on the role of SO<sub>2</sub> in plants except of its toxicity. Here we studied the role of SO<sub>2</sub> on stomatal movements in sweet potato (*Ipomoea batatas*) leaves. SO<sub>2</sub>, generated by Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>3</sub>/NaHSO<sub>3</sub> solutions, was applied on epidermal strips. We found that the SO<sub>2</sub> donor induced stomatal closure in a dose-dependent manner. Rapid increases in endogenous hydrogen sulfide and nitric oxide content levels were observed in leaves after the treatment with the SO<sub>2</sub> donor. The SO<sub>2</sub>-induced stomatal closure was reversed by the H<sub>2</sub>S scavenger hypotaurine and the NO-specific scavenger cPTIO. Our results indicate that the SO<sub>2</sub>-induced stomatal closure was likely mediated by the H<sub>2</sub>S and NO signaling pathways.

*Additional key words:* abscisic acid, gaseous signals, sulfur metabolism.

### Introduction

Sulfur dioxide, a waste gas and pollutant, is emitted by natural sources, such as microbial and volcanic activities, and by combustion of sulfur-containing fossil fuels. SO<sub>2</sub> enters plants *via* their stomata to form sulfite (SO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup>), and the plant damage is often correlated with the degree of stomatal opening (Rennenberg and Herschbach 1996, Van der Kooij *et al.* 1997). The detrimental effects of SO<sub>2</sub> on plants have been studied extensively in the past few decades, and it has been shown that exposure of plants to high concentrations of SO<sub>2</sub> leads to reduced rate of photosynthesis, chlorosis (chlorophyll destruction), necrosis, and yield reduction, whereas SO<sub>2</sub> at low concentration could be absorbed and used as beneficial gas (Rennenberg 1984, Van der Kooij *et al.* 1997, Noji *et al.* 2001, Legge and Krupa 2002).

Recent reports have shown that SO<sub>2</sub> is produced endogenously (Meng *et al.* 2007, Li *et al.* 2010, Lu *et al.* 2012) and considering the functional similarity of the gasotransmitters NO, H<sub>2</sub>S, and SO<sub>2</sub> in animals (Hosoki *et al.* 1997, Li *et al.* 2010, Lu *et al.* 2012, Wang 2012), we

speculate that SO<sub>2</sub> might also function as signaling molecule in plants rather than only as harmful gas. NO has been well established as mediator in many processes in plants, such as growth, pathogen defense, programmed cell death, and stress responses (Delledonne 2005). Further, NO has been proposed to act as signaling molecule in the abscisic acid induced stomatal closure (García-Mata and Lamattina 2002, Neill *et al.* 2002).

H<sub>2</sub>S was found to be gaseous signal molecule both in animals and in plants (Wang 2002, 2012). In plants, H<sub>2</sub>S is evolved during metabolism of cysteine, sulfites, and sulfates (Rennenberg 1983, 1984, Rausch and Wachter 2005). Accumulating evidence suggests that H<sub>2</sub>S acts as signaling molecule involved in root formation, abiotic defence, and senescence (Zhang *et al.* 2008, 2009, 2011, García-Mata and Lamattina 2010, Lisjak *et al.* 2010, Jin *et al.* 2011, Hu *et al.* 2012, Shan *et al.* 2014). In guard cells, also H<sub>2</sub>S can regulate stomatal movements (García-Mata and Lamattina 2010, Lisjak *et al.* 2010, Jin *et al.* 2011, Lisjak *et al.* 2013).

Submitted 17 October 2013, last revision 19 March 2014, accepted 23 April 2014.

*Abbreviations:* cPTIO - 2-(4-carboxyphenyl)-4,4,5,5-tetramethylimidazoline-1-oxyl-3-oxide; HT - hypotaurine; SNP - sodium nitroprusside.

*Acknowledgments:* This work was supported by the Natural Science Foundation of China (31271803, 31301820, 31300133), the National sweet potato industrial technology system CARS-11-B-02, the Scientific Research Foundation for the Returned Overseas Chinese Scholars (SRF for ROCS) of Ministry of Education, the Natural Science Foundations of Anhui Province (11040606M85), and the Anhui Provincial Education Department (2012AJZR0028). The first two authors contributed equally to this paper.

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$\text{SO}_2$  causes stomatal closure in seedlings of *Betula papyrifera*, *B. pendula*, *B. lutea*, and *B. populifolia* (Biggs and Davis 1980, Norby and Kozlowski 1982, Rao and Anderson 1983). Considering the roles of ABA,  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ , and

NO in mediating stomatal movement, we investigated whether  $\text{SO}_2$  acts as signaling molecule in stomatal closure and its interaction with  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  and NO in this process.

## Materials and methods

Sweet potato (*Ipomoea batatas* L., cv. Xushu 18) was supplied by the Anhui Academy of Agricultural Sciences, Anhui Province, China. Seedlings were cultured at day/night temperatures of  $28/18 \pm 1$  °C and a relative humidity of 85 %, a 12-h photoperiod, and an irradiance of  $40 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ .  $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_3/\text{NaHSO}_3$  (0 to  $3.75/1.25 \text{ mM}$ ),  $0.5 \text{ mM}$  NaHS, and  $0.1 \text{ mM}$  sodium nitroprusside (SNP) were used as  $\text{SO}_2$ ,  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ , and NO donors, respectively. Further,  $0.2 \text{ mM}$  2-(4-carboxy-phenyl)-4,4,5,5-tetramethylimidazoline-1-oxyl-3-oxide potassium salt (cPTIO) was used as specific NO scavenger, and  $0.2 \text{ mM}$  hypotaurine (HT) as  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  scavenger (Ortega *et al.* 2008). All chemicals were purchased from *Sigma* (St. Louis, USA) unless specifically stated.

Stomatal aperture experiments were performed on epidermal strips taken from fully developed leaves of 30-d-old seedlings. Strips were cut with a scalpel and pre-incubated in an "opening" buffer ( $10 \text{ mM}$  K-MES,  $10 \text{ mM}$  KCl, pH 6.1) at  $25$  °C for 2 h to promote stomatal opening. After pre-incubation, the strips were immersed in the same buffer (control) or treated with different concentrations of the  $\text{SO}_2$  donor solutions for 2 h. For cPTIO experiments, epidermal strips were treated with the opening buffer with or without NaHS, SNP, or  $\text{SO}_2$  in the presence or absence of  $0.2 \text{ mM}$  cPTIO for 2 h. For HT experiments, epidermal strips were immersed in the opening buffer with or without NaHS,  $\text{SO}_2$ , or ABA in the presence or absence of  $0.2 \text{ mM}$  HT. Stomata were photographed using a *Zeiss Observer D1* microscope, and the *Zeiss* distance measuring tool software (*Carl Zeiss MicroImaging*, Oberkochen, Germany) was used to analyze stomatal pore apertures. Stomatal pore width was monitored (90 apertures) randomly in three different epidermal strips from each treatment. The stomates were considered open with a pore width  $> 4.5 \mu\text{m}$ , or closed with a pore aperture  $< 4.5 \mu\text{m}$ .

For determinations of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  and NO content, epidermal

strips were firstly incubated in the opening buffer for 2 h and then incubated in  $2.5 \text{ mM}$   $\text{SO}_2$  solutions for up to 8 h. The  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  content was determined according to formation of methylene blue from dimethyl-*p*-phenylenediamine in  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  using the method described by Sekiya *et al.* (1982) with some modifications. Samples ( $0.5 \text{ g}$ ) of epidermal strips were ground in  $5 \text{ cm}^3$  of a  $50 \text{ mM}$  phosphate buffer (pH 6.8) containing  $0.1 \text{ mM}$  EDTA and  $0.2 \text{ mM}$  ascorbic acid. The homogenate was mixed in a test tube containing  $100 \text{ mM}$  phosphate buffer saline (PBS; pH 7.4),  $10 \text{ mM}$  L-cysteine, and  $2 \text{ mM}$  pyridoxalphosphate at room temperature, and  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  was absorbed in a zinc acetate trap located in the bottom of the test tube. After 30 min of reaction,  $0.3 \text{ cm}^3$  of  $5 \text{ mM}$  dimethyl-*p*-phenylene diamine dissolved in  $3.5 \text{ mM}$   $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  was added to the trap. Then  $0.3 \text{ cm}^3$  of  $50 \text{ mM}$  ferric ammonium sulfate in  $100 \text{ mM}$   $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  was injected in the trap. The amount of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  in the zinc acetate traps was determined colorimetrically at  $667 \text{ nm}$  after incubating the mixture for 15 min at room temperature. Blanks were prepared by the same procedures without the zinc acetate solution, and a known concentration of  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  was used to create a calibration curve.

NO was measured according to the method of Murphy and Noack (1994). Epidermal strips were ground in  $100 \text{ mM}$  phosphate buffer saline (PBS; pH 7.4) and incubated with 100 units of catalase and 100 units of superoxide dismutase for 5 min to remove endogenous ROS before addition of oxyhaemoglobin ( $10 \text{ mM}$ ). After a 3-min incubation, NO was quantified by spectrophotometric measurement which reflected the conversion of oxyhaemoglobin to methaemoglobin.

Significance of differences were tested by one-way ANOVA, and each experiment was repeated three times. Fisher's least significant differences were calculated following the *t*-test.

## Results

To test whether  $\text{SO}_2$  plays a role in stomatal movement, epidermal strips of seedling leaves of sweet potato (*Ipomoea batatas*) were treated with different concentrations of  $\text{SO}_2$  ranging from 0 to  $5 \text{ mmol dm}^{-3}$ . Stomata closed with increasing  $\text{SO}_2$  concentrations; the  $5 \text{ mM}$   $\text{SO}_2$  treatment for 2 h induced a profound stomatal closure compared to the control (Fig. 1A,B).

To assess whether endogenous NO and  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  are involved in  $\text{SO}_2$ /sulfite-induced stomatal closure, the endogenous content of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  and NO were measured in

sweet potato leaves immersed in an  $\text{SO}_2$  donor solution or in water (control). In both the control and  $\text{SO}_2$  treatments, the content of endogenous  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  increased in the first 1 h, but the increase was substantially larger and faster in the  $\text{SO}_2$ -donor treatment. The content of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  in the  $\text{SO}_2$  treated strips increased to a maximum at 1 h, followed by a gradual decrease until 8 h. In contrast, the  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  content in the control remained stable up to 4 h and then decreased gradually. At 1 h of the  $\text{SO}_2$  treatment, the  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  content of the  $\text{SO}_2$  treated leaves was twice of that of the controls

(Fig. 1C).

Similar patterns were observed in the endogenous NO content which increased transiently at 0.5 h in both the treatments, but more rapidly in the  $\text{SO}_2$  treatment. The NO content in the  $\text{SO}_2$  treatment peaked at 2 h followed by a decline until 8 h. In the controls, the NO content increased gradually upto 1 h and then declined. The  $\text{SO}_2$  treatment induced a higher content of endogenous NO than the control one during the whole treatment time (Fig. 1D). In all, our result suggests that  $\text{SO}_2$ /sulfite acted as signal to induce the release of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  and NO.

Since the  $\text{SO}_2$  donor induced production of NO in sweet potato leaves, we investigated whether NO signaling is necessary for  $\text{SO}_2$ -induced stomatal closure using the NO scavenger cPTIO. Accordingly, we tested the effects of cPTIO on stomatal closure induced by the  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  donor NaHS, the NO donor SNP, and the  $\text{SO}_2$  donor  $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_3/\text{NaHSO}_3$ . SNP, NaHS, and  $\text{SO}_2$  induced a

significant stomatal closure in sweet potato leaves (Fig. 2A,B). Stomatal closure induced by the NO donor SNP was fully blocked by cPTIO confirming the effectiveness of cPTIO as NO scavenger. Application of cPTIO dramatically counteracted the stomatal closure effects of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  donor and  $\text{SO}_2$  donor indicating that NO is prerequisite in  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  and  $\text{SO}_2$ -mediated stomatal closure and acts downstream of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  and  $\text{SO}_2$  (Fig. 2A,B).

Further, we investigated whether  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  is involved in  $\text{SO}_2$ -induced stomatal closure. The effect of NaHS on stomatal closure was blocked by the  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  scavenger (HT) indicating the effective role of HT on  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  scavenging.  $\text{SO}_2$  induced stomatal closure was also counteracted by HT suggesting that  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  is involved in  $\text{SO}_2$ -induced stomatal closure. Furthermore, ABA-dependent stomatal closure was partially blocked by HT (Fig. 2C,D). Taken together, these results suggest that  $\text{SO}_2$ /sulfite acted upstream of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  in stomatal closure in sweet potato leaves.

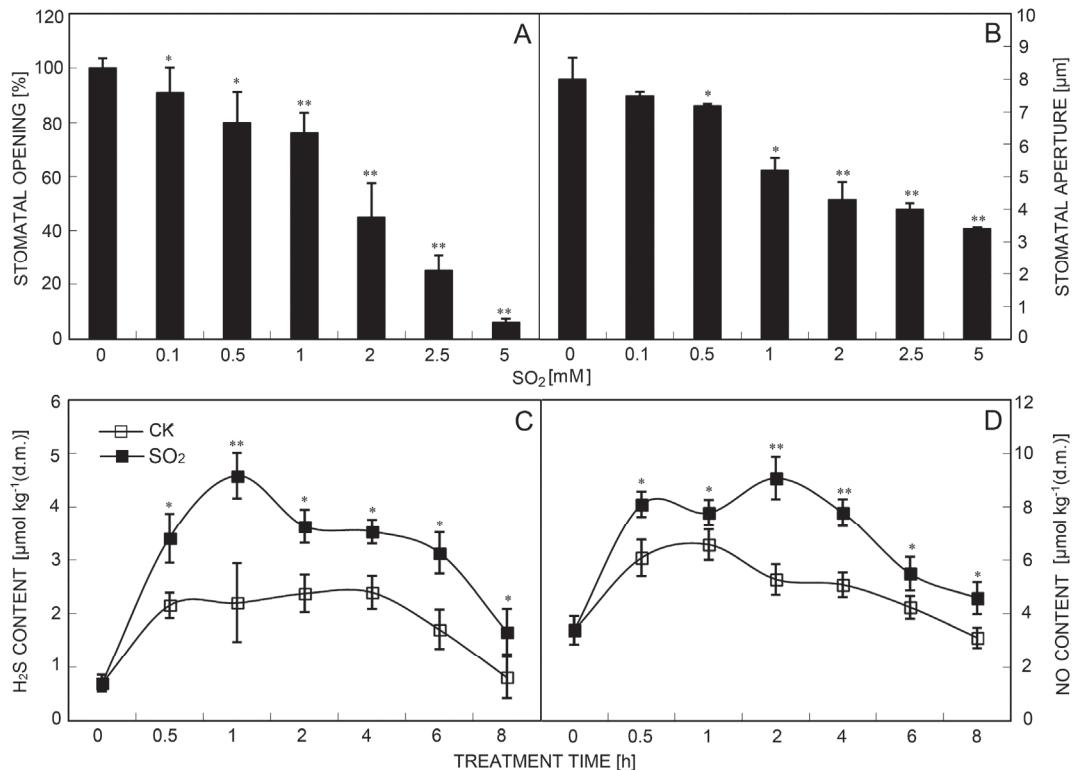


Fig. 1. Effects of  $\text{SO}_2$  donor ( $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_3/\text{NaHSO}_3$ ; 3:1) on stomatal movement in epidermal strips of sweet potato leaves. Stomatal opening percentage (A) and stomatal aperture size (B) were measured. Leaves were treated with water (CK) or 2.5 mM  $\text{SO}_2$  and sampled for  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  (C) and NO (D) content determinations at 0, 0.5, 1, 2, 4, 6, and 8 h. Means  $\pm$  SD,  $n = 90$  for A and B,  $n = 3$  for C and D, \* and \*\* - significant differences between CK and  $\text{SO}_2$  treatments at  $P < 0.05$  and  $P < 0.01$ , respectively.

## Discussion

In this report, we demonstrate that the  $\text{SO}_2$  donor ( $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_3/\text{NaHSO}_3$ ) induced stomatal closure in sweet potato epidermal strips in a dose dependent manner (Fig. 1A,B).  $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_3/\text{NaHSO}_3$  has been widely used as  $\text{SO}_2$  donor in animals (Sun *et al.* 2010) and it has also been

widely used in plants to mimic the effects of  $\text{SO}_2$  as air pollutant (Shapiro 1977).  $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_3/\text{NaHSO}_3$  dissolves in water, then dissociates to  $\text{Na}^+$ ,  $\text{SO}_3^{2-}$ , and  $\text{HSO}_3^-$  in solution,  $\text{SO}_3^{2-}$  and  $\text{HSO}_3^-$  are protonated producing  $\text{SO}_2$ . Except for  $\text{Na}^+$ , all chemicals released by  $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_3/\text{NaHSO}_3$  are

derivatives of  $\text{SO}_2$ , and since  $\text{Na}^+$  was not found to play any important role in stomatal movement in sweet potato, this justifies the use of  $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_3/\text{NaHSO}_3$  as  $\text{SO}_2$  donor in our experiments.

$\text{SO}_2$  was always regarded as toxic gas in polluted atmosphere and was found to induce stomatal closure in plants (Biggs and Davis 1980, Norby and Kozlowski 1982, Sekiya *et al.* 1982, Rao and Anderson 1983). Recent studies in mammalian systems have shown that  $\text{SO}_2$  might be a novel endogenous gaseous signaling molecule involved in the regulation of cardiovascular functions and

vasorelaxation, as do  $\text{NO}$ ,  $\text{CO}$ , or  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  (Meng *et al.* 2007, Li *et al.* 2010, Lu *et al.* 2012). However, there is less evidence showing that  $\text{SO}_2$  plays a vital role as gasotransmitter in plants. By analogy to other endogenous gaseous molecules, such as  $\text{NO}$  and  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ , and their roles in plants and animals, it is likely that  $\text{SO}_2$  fulfills some role in plant growth and development regulation. This is confirmed in the present study where we found that  $\text{SO}_2$  induced stomatal closure with the increased  $\text{SO}_2$  donor concentration and  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  and  $\text{NO}$  were involved in this process (Figs. 1, 2).

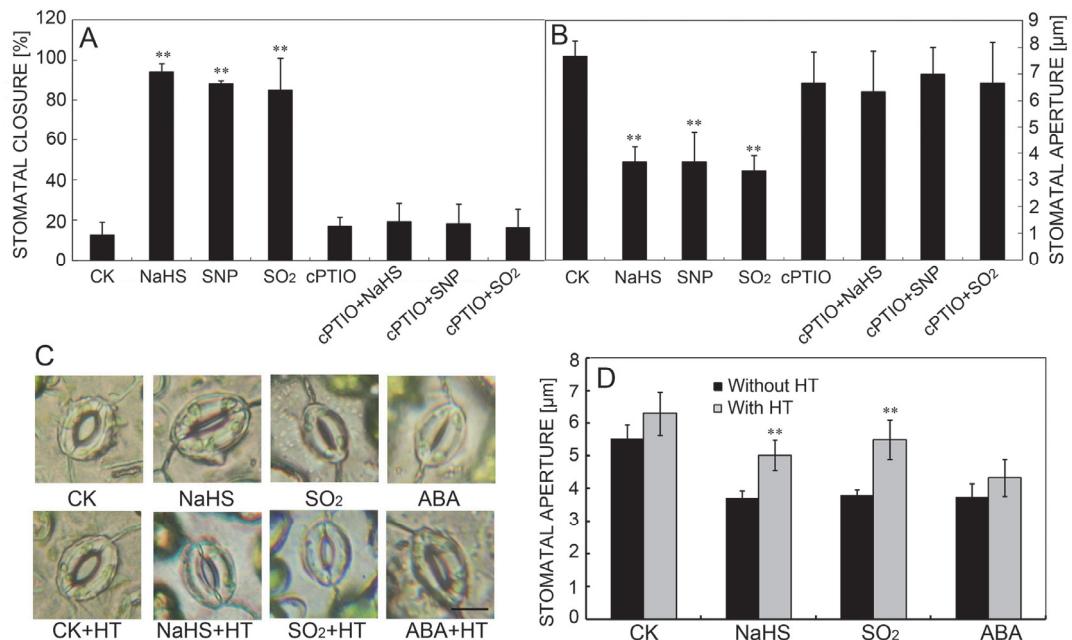


Fig. 2. Stomatal closure percentage (A) and stomatal aperture size (B) were determined in sweet potato leaves treated with an opening buffer (CK), NaHS, SNP, or 2.5 mM  $\text{SO}_2$  in the presence or absence of an NO scavenger cPTIO. Effects of an  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  specific scavenger hypotaurine (HT) on NaHS,  $\text{SO}_2$  donor, or ABA induced stomatal closure in epidermal strips are shown on images of stomata (C; bar = 15  $\mu\text{m}$ ) or on a column diagram (D). Means  $\pm$  SD,  $n = 90$ , \* and \*\* - significant differences between treatments at  $P < 0.05$  and  $P < 0.01$ , respectively.

Stomatal movements in response to changes in environmental or internal factors are very complicated processes involving a network of signaling molecules, such as ABA,  $\text{CO}$ , and  $\text{NO}$  (Araújo *et al.* 2011).  $\text{NO}$  is required for stomatal movement and acts downstream of the ABA signaling pathway (García-Mata and Lamattina 2001, 2002, Neill *et al.* 2002). Recent research has also reported the role of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  in stomatal movements (García-Mata and Lamattina 2002, Lisjak *et al.* 2010, Lisjak *et al.* 2013) which depends on environmental conditions and the leaf age. In our study, the  $\text{SO}_2$  donor treatment induced stomatal closure and a rapid  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  and  $\text{NO}$  accumulation in sweet potato leaves suggesting that  $\text{SO}_2$  might act as signaling molecule. As cPTIO, which scavenges  $\text{NO}$ , counteracted stomatal closure induced by  $\text{SO}_2$  and  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ , we suggest that  $\text{SO}_2$  and  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  were involved in NO-induced stomatal closure.

The production of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  by plants is now well established. Sulfate can be activated by ATP *via* ATP

sulfurylase to generate 5'-adenylylsulfate (APS) which is reduced by APS reductase to form sulfite (Rausch and Wachter 2005). Sulfite is reduced to  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  by sulfite reductase. In our study,  $\text{SO}_2$  induced stomatal closure was blocked by the  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  scavenger HT, also suggesting that  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  acted downstream of  $\text{SO}_2$  induced stomatal movement.

ABA regulation of stomatal movement has been studied extensively. In this work, we found that the  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  scavenger HT slightly reversed stomatal closure induced by ABA. This result agrees with a previous report on the role of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  in guard cell signaling (García-Mata and Lamattina 2002, 2010, Lisjak *et al.* 2010, 2013). The signaling role of  $\text{SO}_2$  was also indicated by the release of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  and  $\text{NO}$  after the application of  $\text{SO}_2$  donor in sweet potato leaves demonstrating again that  $\text{SO}_2$  acted upstream of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  and  $\text{NO}$ .

Taken together, these results suggest a signaling pathway from  $\text{SO}_2$ /sulfite, through  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  and  $\text{NO}$  to induce

stomatal closure. The involvement of  $\text{SO}_2$ /sulfite in the  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  and NO mediated signaling pathway of stomatal movement opens a more intricate field of research in the plant kingdom. However, the mechanism of  $\text{SO}_2$  action

and whether  $\text{SO}_2$  has additional roles in plant signaling are unknown, and further investigations are needed to elucidate the network of  $\text{SO}_2$ ,  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ , and NO in plant life.

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