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The glutathione-dependent alarm triggers signalling responses involved in plant acclimation to cadmium

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## 1 THE **GLUTATHIONE-DEPENDENT ALARM TRIGGERS SIGNALLING** 2 RESPONSES INVOLVED IN PLANT ACCLIMATION TO CADMIUM Verena Iven<sup>†,1</sup>, Isabeau Vanbuel<sup>†,1</sup>, Sophie Hendrix<sup>1</sup>, Ann Cuypers<sup>\*,1</sup> 3 4 Environmental Biology, Centre for Environmental Sciences, Hasselt University, 5 6 Diepenbeek, Belgium 7 †Equal contribution 8 \* Correspondence: ann.cuypers@uhasselt.be 9 10 11 verena.iven@uhasselt.be 12 isabeau.vanbuel@uhasselt.be 13 sophie.hendrix@uhasselt.be 14 ann.cuypers@uhasselt.be 15 16 17 Date of submission: 01/02/2023 18 Number of tables: 3 19 Number of figures: 2

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**Running title:** Glutathione in cadmium stress responses

### Highlight

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- 24 This review focuses on the role of glutathione in the trade-off between antioxidative defence
- 25 and metal chelation, subsequent signal transduction and acclimation in plant responses to
- 26 cadmium stress.

#### Abstract

- 28 Cadmium (Cd) uptake from polluted soils inhibits plant growth and disturbs physiological
- 29 processes, at least partly due to disturbances in the cellular redox environment. Although the
- 30 sulfur-containing antioxidant glutathione is important in maintaining redox homeostasis, its
- 31 role as an antioxidant can be overruled by its involvement in Cd chelation as a phytochelatin
- 32 precursor. Following Cd exposure, plants rapidly invest in phytochelatin production, thereby
- 33 disturbing the redox environment by transiently depleting glutathione concentrations.
- 34 Consequently, a network of signalling responses is initiated, in which the phytohormone
- 35 ethylene is an important player involved in the recovery of glutathione levels. Furthermore,
- 36 these responses are intricately connected to organellar stress signalling and autophagy and
- 37 contribute to cell fate determination. In general, this may pave the way for acclimation (e.g.
- 38 restoration of glutathione levels and organellar homeostasis) and plant tolerance in case of
- 39 mild stress conditions. This review addresses connections between these players and discusses
- 40 the possible involvement of the gasotransmitter hydrogen sulfide in plant acclimation to Cd
- 41 exposure.

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## Keywords

- 43 Autophagy, cadmium, endoplasmic reticulum stress, ethylene, glutathione, hydrogen sulfide,
- 44 mitochondrial retrograde regulation, phytochelatin, reactive oxygen species, sulfur

## 1 Glutathione is pivotal in cadmium responses

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Cadmium (Cd) is a metal naturally present in soils in low concentrations, although it accumulates above background levels in many areas worldwide. While this accumulation can be reached by natural phenomena, the primary sources of environmental Cd contamination are human activities, including smelting and mining activities, the use of phosphate fertilisers and sewage irrigation in agriculture (Haider et al., 2021; Zulfiqar et al., 2022). Non-essential metals, such as Cd, can even be phytotoxic at low doses (Lin and Aarts, 2012). As Cd is nonbiodegradable and has a high bioavailability in the soil, it is taken up by plants and introduced into the food chain, thereby endangering human and environmental health (Clemens et al., 2013). Cadmium is mainly present in the soil as a divalent cation and can be taken up by transporters designed for essential divalent metals, such as iron (Fe), zinc (Zn) and manganese (Mn) (Zhu et al., 2021; El Rasafi et al., 2022). Once absorbed by plant roots, Cd enters the apoplastic and symplastic pathways to the xylem and phloem, eventually reaching stems, leaves, fruits and seeds (Sterckeman and Thomine, 2020; Zhu et al., 2021). Subsequently, it can disturb physiological processes, for example by affecting electron transport in mitochondria and chloroplasts and inhibit plant growth and development (Haider et al., 2021; Zulfiqar et al., 2022). Such effects often result from a disrupted cellular homeostasis that can be caused by the indirect Cd-induced increase in reactive oxygen species (ROS) (El Rasafi et al., 2022). This occurs shortly after Cd exposure by a depletion in glutathione (GSH) levels in the roots, which results from a fast induction of phytochelatin (PC) biosynthesis (Figure 1) (Jozefczak et al., 2014; Deckers et al., 2020). Glutathione is an antioxidant tripeptide consisting of glutamine, cysteine and glycine, and is synthesised in two steps catalysed by glutamatecysteine ligase (GSH1) in plastids and GSH synthetase (GSH2) in plastids and the cytosol. Glutathione has multiple roles in maintaining the redox balance. For example, it can reduce

70 hydrogen peroxide (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>) directly or via participation in the ascorbate (AsA)-GSH cycle 71 (Jozefczak et al., 2012; Hasanuzzaman et al., 2019). Additionally, GSH is the precursor of 72 PCs and is thereby involved in chelating Cd molecules as a consequence of the high affinity 73 of Cd towards thiol groups. Phytochelatins are metal-chelating molecules with a (γ-Glu-74 Cys)<sub>n</sub>-Gly (n=2-11) structure synthesised from GSH by phytochelatin synthase (PCS) upon 75 post-translational activation by Cd or other metals (Cobbett, 2000; Jozefczak et al., 2012; 76 Sharma et al., 2016). Once formed within the cytosol, PC-Cd complexes are transported into 77 the vacuole (via two ATP-BINDING CASSETTE (ABCC) transporters, AtABCC1 and 78 AtABCC2, in Arabidopsis thaliana) (Park et al., 2012; Sharma et al., 2016). Previous 79 research suggested that the initial GSH depletion, as a consequence of Cd-induced PC 80 production in roots, functions as a redox-dependent alarm triggering different downstream 81 responses (Figure 1) (Deckers et al., 2020). 82 In addition to altering the redox environment, Cd exposure disrupts the homeostasis of 83 phytohormones such as jasmonic acid, salicylic acid, auxin and ethylene. These 84 phytohormones are involved in plant responses to Cd stress (De Smet et al., 2015; El Rasafi et 85 al., 2022) and are also intertwined (Saini et al., 2021). Nevertheless, this review will focus on 86 ethylene, given its profound changes and signalling role during Cd exposure and its close 87 connection to GSH metabolism, as it is synthesised from the sulfur-containing amino acid 88 methionine (Keunen et al., 2016). Altered ethylene levels and their interplay with the Cd-89 induced increases in ROS levels may ultimately result in retrograde organellar signalling and 90 autophagy, which can be involved in stress acclimation (Figure 1) (Depage et al., 2021). The 91 following parts of this review focus on the downstream signalling processes induced by the 92 GSH-dependent alarm and their contribution to plant signalling and acclimation upon Cd 93 stress, for instance to restore GSH levels, during which hydrogen sulfide (H2S) potentially 94 plays a fine-tuning role (Figure 1).

# 2 The role of the cadmium-induced glutathione-dependent alarm in mounting an ethylene response

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While crucial during development (Keunen et al., 2016), ethylene is also an important player in the intricate stress response network that allows acclimation or cell death depending on the stress severity that is perceived by the organism (Depage et al., 2021). Furthermore, this phytohormone is connected to the antioxidant GSH at multiple levels. For instance, both depend on cysteine for their biosynthesis, although ethylene itself is not a sulfur-containing compound (Keunen et al., 2016). Moreover, in the AsA-GSH cycle, GSH is involved in the reduction of dehydroascorbate to AsA (Zechmann, 2014), which also serves as a co-substrate for the enzyme catalysing the final step of ethylene biosynthesis (Pattyn et al., 2021). Furthermore, Deckers et al. (2020) proposed that a transient GSH-dependent change in the redox environment in roots serves as an alarm to elicit ethylene biosynthesis and signalling that contribute to the plant response to Cd (Figure 2). In this context, it was demonstrated that it is the early Cd-induced decrease in root GSH concentrations, rather than an altered GSH redox state, that influences the redox environment, as indicated by an increased H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>/GSH ratio in A. thaliana roots during acute and mild Cd stress (Deckers et al., 2020). Cadmiuminduced ROS were proposed to be sensed by oxidative signal-inducible 1 (OXI1) (Schellingen et al., 2015b), a protein kinase that is transcriptionally induced and activated by H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> in A. thaliana (Rentel et al., 2004) and is also rapidly and transiently upregulated in A. thaliana roots following Cd exposure (Deckers et al., 2020). Its contribution to the activation of mitogen-activated protein kinases (MPK) 3 and 6 (Rentel et al., 2004) may link Cd-induced ROS to increased ethylene biosynthesis (Schellingen et al., 2015b), as these kinases increase 1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylic acid (ACC) synthase 2 (ACS2) and ACS6 at the transcript (via the transcription factor WRKY DNA-binding protein 33, WRKY33) and protein levels (Figure 2) (Li et al., 2012). These ACS enzymes catalyse the conversion of S-

adenosylmethionine (SAM) to ACC, which is subsequently converted to ethylene by ACC oxidase (ACO) (Keunen et al., 2016; Pattyn et al., 2021). Additionally, it has been demonstrated that ACS2 and ACS6 are important contributors to Cd-induced ethylene emission (Schellingen et al., 2014). Consistent with the proposed MAPK-ACS pathway, a Cd-mediated induction of MPK3 and/or MPK6 activity was reported and appears to be reciprocally linked to ROS (Liu et al., 2010; Jin et al., 2013). Furthermore, both an upregulation of MPK3 and MPK6 and an increase in ACC levels were observed in A. thaliana roots after only a few hours of Cd exposure. These observations hint at a fast enhancement of ACS protein stability in roots (Deckers et al., 2020). Moreover, the connection between GSH and ethylene is further supported by the observation that simultaneous administration of GSH and Cd at the root level of Zea mays seedlings limited the Cd-induced emission of ethylene (Li et al., 2017), while GSH-deficient cadmium-sensitive 2 (cad2) A. thaliana plants showed increased root ACC levels (Deckers et al., 2021) and higher ethylene emission (Verena Iven, unpublished results) compared to wild-type (WT) plants after Cd exposure. Subsequently, a further increase in ACC levels as well as ACS2 and ACS6 transcripts after prolonged Cd exposure was hypothesised to indicate a slow transcriptional stimulation of the MAPK-ACS pathway. Notably, it is also at these later stages of the mild stress response that the upregulation of several oxidative stress marker genes and increases in H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> levels were reported in A. thaliana leaves and roots (Deckers et al., 2020). This change in the redox environment may be partly elicited by ethylene (Figure 2), as ethylene biosynthesis acs2-1 acs6-1 (Schellingen et al., 2015a) and ethylene signalling ethylene-insensitive 2-1 (ein2-1) mutant A. thaliana plants generally showed a weaker Cd-mediated induction of several transcripts encoding superoxide (O2\*)-generating respiratory burst oxidase homologues (RBOHs, i.e. NADPH oxidases) and oxidative stress markers in comparison to WT plants (Schellingen et al., 2015b). Such findings in the model organism A. thaliana are in line with

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those in the crop plant Solanum lycopersicum, where H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> levels induced by long-term Cd treatment were lower in leaves of an ethylene-insensitive cultivar, despite their higher Cd concentration (Alves et al., 2017). Furthermore, lower NADPH oxidase and higher superoxide dismutase (SOD) activities as well as lower O2 levels were respectively observed in roots and root tips of A. thaliana seedlings simultaneously treated with Cd and ACC rather than with Cd alone. The authors hence proposed that ethylene regulates  $O_2^{\bullet-}$  levels in the root tip to adjust root architecture during Cd stress (Abozeid et al., 2017). Accordingly, root hair length, ROS, and the induction of the ethylene reporter construct EIN3 binding site (EBS): GUS shared a similar pattern across various Cd concentrations in A. thaliana seedlings, being stimulated by Cd up to a certain concentration (Bahmani et al., 2022). Taken together, these results suggest that Cd-induced ethylene production, triggered by a GSH-dependent alarm, alters plant stress responses by, for example, influencing the redox environment. Such ethylene-mediated redox changes may subsequently be amplified by further stimulation of ethylene production through the MAPK-ACS pathway, of which the most profound transcriptional induction during Cd stress in leaves indeed generally coincided with H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> increases (Deckers et al., 2020) and was largely EIN2-dependent (Schellingen et al., 2015b). It should be noted, however, that this MAPK pathway responds to ROS that likely originate from additional sources besides the aforementioned NADPH oxidases, including organelles (Liu and He, 2017; Jalmi *et al.*, 2018). According to these obtained results and proposed models, the rapid Cd-induced GSH depletion contributes to early ethylene production and signalling that, in turn, closes the loop by influencing the redox environment and stimulating its own production. As this puts forward an initialising role for PC production in stimulating Cd-induced ethylene production, it might seem contradictory that roots of PC-deficient cad1-3 A. thaliana also showed stronger ACS2, ACS6 and ethylene response factor 1 (ERF1) inductions, ACS activity and

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ACC concentrations compared to WT plants following short-term Cd exposure (Chen *et al.*, 2020). This is in accordance with the enhanced ethylene emission found in this mutant compared to WT plants following Cd exposure (Verena Iven, unpublished results). While this mutant might more strongly rely on GSH for Cd chelation, inducing the perception of GSH depletion, it was proposed by Chen *et al.* (2020) that the stimulation of ethylene biosynthesis results from strong Cd toxicity elicited by a lack of PCs. Indeed, preliminary data show that these mutants suffer from a higher extent of oxidative stress following Cd exposure (Verena Iven, unpublished results), which may cause a severe burst of ethylene rather than a controlled increase as a result of a GSH-dependent alarm. This hypothesis further highlights the delicate balance between controlled signalling and damage depending on stress intensity.

## 3 Restoring glutathione levels during acclimation relies on the cadmiuminduced glutathione-dependent alarm and subsequent ethylene signalling

Cadmium exposure in plants stimulates sulfur assimilation (Mendoza-Cózatl *et al.*, 2005; Khan *et al.*, 2016a). The increased expression of sulfate transporter 1;2 (*SULTR1*;2) in Cd-stressed *A. thaliana* was proposed to rely on the depletion of cysteine, the GSH precursor γ-glutamylcysteine (γ-EC) and GSH as well as the shift to a more oxidising environment (Jobe *et al.*, 2012). This suggests that the previously discussed GSH-dependent alarm, as well as subsequent changes in the redox environment, may contribute to Cd-induced sulfur assimilation. Accordingly, prolonged Cd exposure is generally associated with enhanced GSH biosynthesis (Table 1, Figure 1). Nevertheless, caution is advised when comparing the results of studies using different experimental set-ups (e.g. different exposure conditions), as this can affect GSH levels (Koffler *et al.*, 2014).

In contrast to roots showing an initial GSH depletion, leaf GSH levels increased in *A. thaliana* upon mild Cd stress (Jozefczak *et al.*, 2014). As the upregulation of *ERF1* in leaves of Cd-

exposed A. thaliana preceded the elevation of ACC concentrations in this organ, it was proposed that ACC or ethylene originating from roots following the GSH-dependent alarm during mild Cd exposure activates ethylene signalling in leaves to allow timely induction of GSH biosynthesis (Deckers et al., 2020). This hypothesis is in accordance with the observation that scions of a WT S. lycopersicum cultivar contained less sulfur when they were grafted to Cd-exposed rootstocks of an ethylene-insensitive cultivar rather than a WT cultivar and further exposed to Cd for 30 days (Alves et al., 2017). In addition, increases in GSH levels or GSH metabolism-related gene expression after Cd exposure were lower or absent in root tips of Lycium chinense treated with the ACC biosynthesis inhibitor 2aminoethoxyvinylglycine (Guan et al., 2015a) and in leaves of A. thaliana ethylene response 1-1 (etr1-1), ein2-1 and ein3-1 ethylene signalling mutants (Schellingen et al., 2015b). Furthermore, it was shown that long-term Cd-induced sulfur assimilation and elevation of cysteine and GSH levels in Brassica juncea leaves further increased when plants were additionally treated with ethylene-releasing ethephon (Khan et al., 2016b). Taken together, these results suggest that Cd-induced ethylene production positively affects GSH production (Figure 2).

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## 4 Cadmium-induced organellar responses triggered by the glutathionedependent alarm and subsequent signalling

Glutathione is present in different subcellular compartments (Zechmann, 2014), where it can be influenced by Cd stress (Kolb *et al.*, 2010; Koffler *et al.*, 2014). In *A. thaliana* mesophyll cells, Cd exposure was found to affect GSH localised in chloroplasts (Koffler *et al.*, 2014), which are also the sites where the first step of GSH biosynthesis predominantly occurs (Zechmann, 2014) and where *de novo* methionine production from cysteine for ethylene biosynthesis takes place (Bittner *et al.*, 2022). Furthermore, chloroplasts are known to be affected by Cd at the level of their photosystems (Parmar *et al.*, 2013). In response to

environmental stressors, these organelles can employ various retrograde signalling arms that are activated, among others, via redox signals (Cejudo et al., 2021; Jan et al., 2022). One such example can be the redox regulation of the Calvin-Benson cycle, which is responsible for the production of triose phosphate (Cejudo et al., 2021). This metabolite was reported to activate MPK6 and subsequently induce transcription of ethylene signalling genes following chloroplast-to-cytosol transport via the triose phosphate/phosphate translocator (TPT) in A. thaliana as a response to high light stress (Vogel et al., 2014). Accordingly, Cd exposure was shown to alter the chloroplast redox environment (Table 2) and decrease triose phosphate utilisation in hybrid *Pennisetum* leaves (Song et al., 2019). Moreover, it was found to upregulate the expression of TPT, which was further enhanced by additional ethephon treatment, in leaves of Catharanthus roseus (Chen et al., 2017). While Chen et al. (2017) propose that this last observation is linked to the transport of increased catharanthine levels, a potential connection between triose phosphate-dependent retrograde signalling and Cd stress seems plausible and deserves further attention. To the best of our knowledge, it remains elusive whether and how the chloroplast retrograde pathways function during Cd stress. However, it is important to note that chloroplasts play an important role in the Cd response as they are inevitably involved in restoring GSH levels during acclimation. Furthermore, Cd also causes mitochondrial stress. For instance, clustering has been observed between transcriptional responses to the mitochondrial complex III inhibitor antimycin A and Cd (Yu et al., 2001) and mitochondrial homeostasis pathways were recently reported to represent an important part of the Cd stress response (Liu et al., 2023). In addition, Cd has previously been shown to alter the mitochondrial redox environment (Table 2) (Keunen et al., 2011). To continue electron flow from the tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle in mitochondria without excessive ROS production by electron leakage from the electron transport chain (ETC), plants redirect electrons through an alternative pathway relying on alternative oxidase

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(AOX) (Keunen et al., 2011). The induction of AOX1a is part of a mitochondrial retrograde regulation (MRR) response. Together with other mitochondrial dysfunction stimulon (MDS) genes (e.g. OXII), it can be regulated by the NAC (no apical meristem/Arabidopsis transcription activation factor/cup-shaped cotyledon) transcription factor ANAC017 following its cleavage from the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) upon mitochondrial stress (Figure 2) (De Clercq et al., 2013; Ng et al., 2013). It should be noted that ANAC017 was found to also play a role in the retrograde response of chloroplasts upon methyl viologen treatment, indicating that retrograde signalling by ANAC017 can be triggered by both organelles (Van Aken et al., 2016). In addition, the potential involvement of MPK6 and/or phytohormones, including ethylene, in mitochondrial stress signalling has become evident (Wang and Auwerx, 2017; Kacprzak et al., 2020) and a model was put forward where ANAC017 serves as an upstream mediator of ethylene biosynthesis (He et al., 2022). Notably, Cd-induced stress responses share several characteristics with mitochondrial stress signalling. As such, a mitochondrial stress signal stimulating MAPK was observed in Cd-exposed *Oryza sativa*, where inhibition of mitochondrial permeability transition pore opening lowered Cd-induced MPK activity (Yeh et al., 2007). Moreover, Cd-induced AOX1a (Keunen et al., 2015) and OXII (Schellingen et al., 2015b) upregulation in A. thaliana leaves was generally less pronounced in acs2-1 acs6-1 and/or ein2-1 mutants compared to WT plants. These results suggest that Cd stress leads to MRR, which may be (partially) mediated by ethylene that depends on the GSHdependent alarm (Figure 2). Apart from the abovementioned organelles, the ER is also an important target of Cd toxicity. Furthermore, it has interesting redox-related properties as it needs to maintain an oxidising environment for oxidative protein folding, which also produces H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. Interestingly, the ER does not contain glutathione reductase (GR), making the fate of GSSG in this compartment unclear (Meyer et al., 2021; Cao et al., 2022). As such, the ER is an interesting organelle to

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focus on during GSH-depleting Cd stress. Increased expression of ER stress markers was found in A. thaliana seedlings (Xi et al., 2016) and a Nicotiana tabacum cell line (Xu et al., 2013) shortly after Cd exposure, suggesting that Cd induces ER stress in plants (Figure 2). This occurs as a reaction to the accumulation of unfolded proteins in the ER, which can be triggered by various stressors and activates the unfolded protein response (UPR). The UPR consists of multiple arms of which the inositol requiring enzyme 1 (IRE1)-dependent splicing of basic leucine zipper 60 (bZIP60) mRNA and the proteolytic cleavage of bZIP17 and bZIP28 are the best-characterised in plants. Consequent processing of these bZIPs allows their translocation to the nucleus, where they induce target gene expression to restore proteostasis (Afrin et al., 2020; Cao et al., 2022; Simoni et al., 2022). Although the exact mechanism of UPR induction by Cd requires further characterisation, a role for SAL1 has been uncovered, as a sall A, thaliana mutant showed less or no upregulation of ER stress response markers compared to WT plants during Cd exposure (Xi et al., 2016). For the generation of sulfatemolecules during secondary sulfur metabolism, SAL1 degrades 3'containing phosphoadenosine 5'-phosphate (PAP), a by-product resulting from sulfate group donation to target compounds, in chloroplasts and mitochondria (Chan et al., 2019). The activity of this enzyme is repressed by oxidation, allowing PAP accumulation to serve as a chloroplast retrograde signal during oxidative stress (Van Aken and Pogson, 2017; Chan et al., 2019). Consequently, this pathway induces a set of target genes that partly overlaps with that of ANAC017 (Van Aken and Pogson, 2017). This additionally suggests that organellar retrograde signalling is involved in regulating the Cd-induced UPR, which is also in line with the observations that mitochondrial or chloroplast ETC inhibitors influence the expression of several ER stress markers (Ozgur et al., 2015; Fuchs et al., 2022) and that bZIP60 is a target of ANAC017 (He et al., 2022). Furthermore, evidence points towards a reciprocal interaction between ROS and ER stress (Depaepe et al., 2021; Cao et al., 2022) and ethylene is also

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involved in several ER stress outcomes (Depaepe *et al.*, 2021) and may be linked to UPR induction (Malerba *et al.*, 2010; Czékus *et al.*, 2022). Such connections would hence be an interesting topic for further study of Cd-induced stress responses.

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Another outcome of ER stress is autophagy, as recently reviewed (Simoni et al., 2022). During macroautophagy, a double-membranous vesicle (i.e. an autophagosome) surrounds cytoplasmic material and transports it to the vacuole for degradation and subsequent recycling of released nutrients. Although important for growth and developmental processes, it is also induced during stress responses to target damaged material (e.g. proteins and organelles) and generally enhances plant stress tolerance (Signorelli et al., 2019; Su et al., 2020). Autophagic bodies or their remnants have been observed in vacuoles of Cd-treated plants (Figure 4), such as Glycine max (Gzyl et al., 2017) and Triticum aestivum (Yue et al., 2018), as well as in an N. tabacum cell line (Kutik et al., 2014). Moreover, short-term treatment of A. thaliana with Cd led to increased transcript and protein levels of autophagy-related 8 (ATG8) (Calero-Muñoz et al., 2019). This ATG protein is involved in autophagosome formation and target isolation and can, due to its presence on autophagosomal membranes following lipidation (Su et al., 2020), serve as an autophagy marker (Klionsky et al., 2021). Although autophagosome formation is a complex process involving a network of other autophagy proteins and posttranslational modifications (Su et al., 2020), Calero-Muñoz et al. (2019) also observed an autophagosomal membrane containing ATG8 surrounding peroxisomes in leaves of Cdstressed A. thaliana, indicating that Cd exposure triggers selective autophagy of peroxisomes (i.e. pexophagy). While it was suggested that this process may occur due to peroxisomal membrane protein oxidation as a result of Cd-induced ROS, this requires further investigation (Calero-Muñoz et al., 2019). Nevertheless, a reciprocal connection between ROS and autophagy has frequently been observed and reviewed (Signorelli et al., 2019; Su et al., 2020). Hence, it is plausible that a link between redox alterations and autophagy also exists

during Cd-induced stress responses. Indeed, autophagy was shown to be involved in controlling peroxisome numbers and might hence influence Cd-induced peroxisomal ROS formation in A. thaliana leaves (Calero-Muñoz et al., 2019). Furthermore, a reciprocal connection exists between ethylene and autophagy (Su et al., 2020) and other components of the MAPK-ACS pathway (such as WRKY33 (Lai et al., 2011) and ACC (Zhu et al., 2018)) were found to positively modulate autophagy during stress or enhance ATG8-target interaction (in case of MPK3 (Brillada et al., 2021)). Additionally, other players may connect autophagy and the Cd stress response. Treatment of ER-stressed Chlamydomonas reinhardtii with GSH mitigated enhanced ATG8 accumulation. Here, GSH appears to play a specific role, as supplementation with the antioxidative metabolite AsA did not affect the ER stressinduced increased ATG8 abundance. Nevertheless, it remains to be determined whether this occurs through redox changes or via an alternative effect of GSH on the ER (Pérez-Martín et al., 2014) and how this translates to autophagy in plants. Moreover, autophagy induction during drought stress in leaves of ACC-pretreated S. lycopersicum was generally stronger in AOX1a-overexpressing lines and lower in AOX1a-RNA interference lines compared to WT plants. Overall, these effects were less pronounced when ROS levels in these mutants were altered, suggesting that AOX affects autophagy by keeping ROS levels within an appropriate range (Zhu et al., 2018). Accordingly, overexpression of AOX1a-regulating ANAC017 was reported to increase the expression of several ATG genes (Meng et al., 2019). While these results further highlight the delicate balance between (organellar) ROS signalling and autophagy, they again suggest that similar mechanisms may contribute to Cd-induced autophagy and deserve further attention, as ACC/ethylene, GSH and AOX1a are important players in Cd-induced stress responses (Figure 2). Although ROS, ethylene and the retrograde signalling processes may contribute to plant

acclimation to Cd stress, it should be acknowledged that acclimation to stressors depends on

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additional factors, such as the stress severity (Depage et al., 2021). For instance, AOX1a was found to contribute to limiting the upregulation of several oxidative stress marker genes and increasing GSH levels in leaves of A. thaliana following exposure to 5 but not 10 µM Cd, suggesting that more severe Cd stress overwhelms its protective function (Keunen et al., 2015). Likewise, the UPR is tied to multiple outcomes with the first goal being the repair of ER function, although this restorative function can switch to cell death following uncontrollable ER stress (Afrin et al., 2020; Simoni et al., 2022). Overexpression of the ER chaperone Binding immunoglobulin Protein (BiP) reduced Cd-induced cell death in an N. tabacum cell line (Xu et al., 2013) and G. max plants (Quadros et al., 2022), and LcBiP overexpression in Cd-exposed N. tabacum led to higher GSH levels in its leaves (Guan et al., 2015b). Furthermore, there are indications that the UPR, in response to the ER stressor tunicamycin, contributes to raising GSH levels in A. thaliana (Ozgur et al., 2014) and C. reinhardtii (Yamaoka et al., 2018). Such observations suggest that the UPR contributes to elevating GSH levels and to acclimation. Nevertheless, root growth of the bzip28 bzip60 A. thaliana double mutant was less inhibited by Cd treatment compared to that of WT plants (Xi et al., 2016), again indicating that the outcome of the Cd-induced UPR differs depending on the conditions. Furthermore, autophagy may tip the scale towards cell death if the balance between the extent of autophagy and the maintenance of osmotic homeostasis is disrupted (Signorelli et al., 2019). In this process, called mega-autophagy, cell death often occurs as a result of vacuolar hydrolase release into the cytoplasm (Signorelli et al., 2019; Su et al., 2020). Taken together, these results highlight the plasticity of organellar signalling during Cd exposure.

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# 5 Is hydrogen sulfide involved in finetuning acclimation to cadmium stress?

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Hydrogen sulfide is a small gasotransmitter with a simple molecular structure, which can easily travel within and between cells. Although it is a signalling molecule, H<sub>2</sub>S can become phytotoxic at elevated intracellular concentrations due to restricted cell respiration as a result of the inhibition of mitochondrial respiratory complex IV (Aroca et al., 2021; Aroca and Gotor, 2022). Its production in plants mainly occurs via three processes. First, in the sulfate assimilation pathway, the enzymes sulfite reductase (SiR) in the chloroplast and Oacetylserine-(thiol)lyase (OAS-TL) in the cytosol, chloroplasts and mitochondria produce H<sub>2</sub>S (Aroca et al., 2018; Vojtovič et al., 2021). Secondly, β-cyanoalanine synthase C1 (CAS-C1) produces H<sub>2</sub>S along with β-cyanoalanine in the mitochondria (Aroca et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2021). Finally, cysteine degradation by cysteine desulfhydrases, the most prominent being Lcysteine desulfhydrase 1 (DES1), is responsible for the cytosolic production of H<sub>2</sub>S along with ammonia and pyruvate (Aroca et al., 2018). Recently, the involvement of 3mercaptopyruvate sulfurtransferases (MSTs) in H<sub>2</sub>S production was proposed (Moseler et al., 2021). Nonetheless, their exact roles in this process are just being elucidated in plants and hence require further investigation. Once H<sub>2</sub>S is produced within the cell, it can exert its effects by protein persulfidation. During this post-translational modification, the thiol groups of reactive cysteine residues within target proteins are converted to persulfide (-SSH) groups. Persulfide groups display a stronger nucleophilic character compared to the original thiol groups, rendering the modified cysteines more reactive. However, how H<sub>2</sub>S specifically modifies certain targets remains elusive, as the direct thiol-H<sub>2</sub>S reaction is thermodynamically unfavourable. Upon persulfidation, proteins display alterations in their enzymatic activities, structures and subcellular localization (Aroca et al., 2018; He et al., 2018). Using the tag-switch method, Aroca et al. (2017) identified that at least 5% of the entire proteome is persulfidated in *A. thaliana* leaves under physiological conditions. These persulfidated proteins are involved in a broad range of processes related to, among others, protein synthesis, post-translational modifications and degradation (Aroca *et al.*, 2017).

Upon Cd exposure, the expression of L-cysteine desulfhydrase (*LCD*) and *DES1* is increased in *A. thaliana* roots, resulting in higher H<sub>2</sub>S levels (Jia *et al.*, 2016). Additionally, mutants with decreased LCD or D-cysteine desulfhydrase (DCD) activity are more sensitive to Cd stress, whereas overexpressors are less sensitive (Qiao *et al.*, 2015; Zhang *et al.*, 2020). In order to assess the role of H<sub>2</sub>S during Cd exposure, exogenous application of the H<sub>2</sub>S donor sodium hydrosulfide (NaHS) is frequently used. Supplementing plants with NaHS increased their Cd tolerance as a result of a decreased Cd uptake, reduced Cd translocation from roots to shoots and/or enhanced Cd retention within cell walls, as demonstrated in multiple plant species (Table 3). Additionally, H<sub>2</sub>S can mitigate Cd-induced oxidative stress through its positive effects on antioxidant enzyme activities and GSH levels (Table 3), hereby demonstrating that it is additionally involved in regulating the redox environment and related signalling during Cd stress (Figure 2). In conclusion, H<sub>2</sub>S appears to contribute to restoring and maintaining GSH levels and restoring the redox environment following the initial Cd-induced GSH depletion resulting from PC synthesis.

Apart from influencing thiol levels, H<sub>2</sub>S may additionally influence Cd-induced ethylene production and signalling. For example, postharvest *S. lycopersicum* fruits displayed reduced *ACS* and *ACO* gene expression upon combined NaHS and ethephon application compared to treatment with ethephon alone (Hu *et al.*, 2019). Additionally, NaHS supplementation resulted in reduced ACS and ACO activities, a lower ACC content and eventually reduced ethylene production in postharvest *Prunus persica* fruits (Zhu *et al.*, 2019). This suggests that H<sub>2</sub>S inhibits ethylene biosynthesis at the transcript and protein levels. Effects of H<sub>2</sub>S on ethylene

during vegetative growth were also addressed by exposing S. lycopersicum seedlings to NaHS. The results showed that NaHS decreased ethylene concentrations, probably as a consequence of increased SIACO1 and SIACO2 persulfidation and negative regulation of ACO activity (Jia et al., 2018). To the best of our knowledge, no information on the interactions between H<sub>2</sub>S and ethylene during Cd stress is available. However, a model was proposed by Sehar et al. (2022) in which heat stress induces oxidative stress, consequently increasing sulfur assimilation, which results in increased H<sub>2</sub>S and ethylene biosynthesis. The increased H<sub>2</sub>S and ethylene concentrations subsequently regulate antioxidants to scavenge heat-induced ROS and thereby induce tolerance. Additionally, H<sub>2</sub>S-induced ethylene inhibition and additional crosstalk was suggested to be essential in heat tolerance (Sehar et al., 2022). Furthermore, an interplay between H<sub>2</sub>S and ethylene was recently demonstrated to mitigate hexavalent chromium [Cr(VI)] stress in two Vigna species. Notably, the authors demonstrated that H<sub>2</sub>S acts downstream of ethylene as NaHS supplementation reduced the Cr(VI)-induced increase in O2 and H2O2 production resulting from inhibited ethylene biosynthesis, whereas ethylene supplementation could not improve effects of inhibited H<sub>s</sub>S biosynthesis (Husain et al., 2021). Consequently, it is possible that similar processes are involved in the response to Cd stress. We propose that during Cd exposure, H<sub>2</sub>S functions downstream of ethylene to limit ethylene biosynthesis, avoiding long-term persistence of increased ethylene levels which might not be beneficial during acclimation (Figure 1). Aside from its regulatory effects on GSH and ethylene metabolism, H<sub>2</sub>S affects other cellular responses that can be important during plant acclimation to Cd stress, such as mitochondrial homeostasis (Table 3) and autophagy. For instance, NaHS exposure induced the expression of AOX1a, AOX1b and AOX1c in non-stressed O. sativa cell suspension cultures (Xiao et al., 2010) and alleviated Cd-induced mitochondrial stress and cell death in Cucumis sativus root tips (Luo et al., 2021). Moreover, H<sub>2</sub>S was reviewed to affect autophagy through protein

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persulfidation (Aroca and Gotor, 2022). More specifically, it was shown that 17 *A. thaliana* proteins with a key role in autophagy can be persulfidated (Jurado-Flores *et al.*, 2021). Accordingly, in the *des1-1 A. thaliana* mutant, which has reduced endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S levels, autophagy induction appeared to be enhanced compared to WT plants under control conditions (Álvarez *et al.*, 2012). Consequently, it can be concluded that H<sub>2</sub>S negatively regulates autophagy (Álvarez *et al.*, 2012; Aroca and Gotor, 2022). Although this might seem contradictory to its potential protective function, we hypothesise that this regulation finetunes autophagy during Cd stress to timely restore autophagic activity to baseline conditions and prevent cell death as a consequence of uncontrolled autophagy.

## 6 Conclusion and perspectives

As sulfur is a pivotal component of the antioxidant GSH and metal-chelating PCs, it plays a crucial role during the Cd response. As such, an early Cd-induced change in the redox environment is initiated by PC-induced GSH depletion and leads to subsequent signalling events (e.g. related to the phytohormone ethylene). The altered redox environment and ethylene signalling appear interdependent and can also be associated with the induction of organellar stress signalling (e.g. MRR and UPR) and autophagy. Although Cd-induced stress responses have been extensively investigated, these processes are often addressed individually, focusing on one specific cellular compartment, on whole plants or a certain plant organ, as well as on a certain stage of exposure (e.g. the initial defence response or long-term acclimation). As such, their interconnections are often overlooked and require further investigation in multiple organelles and tissues and at different time points following Cd exposure. Furthermore, it is highly relevant to further unravel the role of H<sub>2</sub>S in Cd-induced increases in GSH and PC levels. Additionally, we hypothesise that this molecule also finetunes ethylene signalling, mitochondrial homeostasis and autophagy during acclimation in Cd-exposed plants. Identification of persulfidated proteins in Cd-exposed plants will

significantly advance our understanding of the involvement of H<sub>2</sub>S in plant responses to Cd stress.

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471 **Author contributions** 472 All authors contributed to the conceptualization of the review. VI and IV wrote the original manuscript. AC and SH revised the outline and the final manuscript. 473 474 **Declaration of interests** 475 476 The authors have no conflicts to declare 477 **Funding** 478 This research was funded by Special Research Fund UHasselt (BOF) through a 479 PhD grant fellowship for Verena Iven (BOF18DOC02) and Isabeau Vanbuel 480 (BOF20DOC08). Additional funding came from the FWO project (G0C7518N) 481 and iBOF project (IBOF/23/070) to Ann Cuypers and Sophie Hendrix. 482 483

Table 1 Selected studies demonstrating a general increase in glutathione (GSH) biosynthesis upon prolonged exposure of various plant species to cadmium (Cd).

Plant	[Cd]	Exposure duration	Parameter	Reference
Arabidopsis thaliana	5 μM CdSO <sub>4</sub>	1 - 8 d	transcripts GSH biosynthesis genes GSH levels	Hendrix et al. (2020)
Brassica juncea	50 μM CdCl <sub>2</sub>	30 d	GSH levels	Khan <i>et al.</i> (2016b)
Hordeum vulgare	5 μM CdCl <sub>2</sub>	1 - 25 d	GSH levels	Chen et al. (2010)
Lycium chinense	100 μM CdCl <sub>2</sub>	3 - 24 h	transcripts GSH biosynthesis genes GSH levels	Guan <i>et al.</i> (2015a)
Oryza sativa	50 μM CdCl <sub>2</sub>	0 - 7 d	GSH levels	Zhang et al. (2013)
Populus x canescens	75 μM CdCl <sub>2</sub>	27 d	GSH levels	Ding et al. (2017)
Triticum aestivum	50 μM CdCl <sub>2</sub>	10 d	transcripts GSH biosynthesis genes GSH levels	Li et al. (2021)

Table 2 Selected studies demonstrating a changed redox environment in mitochondria and/or chloroplasts of various plant species exposed to cadmium (Cd).

Plant	[Cd]	<b>Exposure duration</b>	Response	Reference
Arabidopsis thaliana	50, 100 μM CdSO <sub>4</sub>	12 - 96 h 7, 14 d	time-dependent changes in mitochondrial and chloroplastic GSH levels	Koffler et al. (2014)
	5 mM CdCl <sub>2</sub>	30 min	↑ mitochondrial roGFP2-oxidation	Schwarzländer et al. (2009)
	20 μM CdCl <sub>2</sub>	1, 2 h	↑ mitochondrial and chloroplastic ROS production in protoplasts	Bi et al. (2009)
Cucumis sativus	$200~\mu M~CdCl_2$	48 h	↑ mitochondrial H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> level	Luo et al. (2021)
Hordeum vulgare	30 μM CdCl <sub>2</sub>	30 min	↑ O₂ and H₂O₂ production that is affected by mitochondrial complex III inhibition	Zelinová et al. (2019)
	10 - 60 μM CdCl <sub>2</sub>	30 min	↑ O₂ and H₂O₂ production that is affected by mitochondrial complex I inhibition	Tamás <i>et al.</i> (2016)
Nicotiana tabacum bright yellow-2 cells	3 mM CdCl <sub>2</sub>	1 h	↑ O₂ • production that is affected by mitochondrial complexes I-II and complex III inhibition	Garnier <i>et al.</i> (2006)
Nicotiana tabacum	2.24 mg.kg <sup>-1</sup> CdCl <sub>2</sub>	10 d	altered transcription and enzymatic activity of redox regulators, including chloroplastic PRXs	Yang et al. (2021)
Solanum tuberosum	10, 30 μM CdCl <sub>2</sub>	5 min (for O <sub>2</sub> .) 30 min (for H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> )	↑ O <sub>2</sub> and H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> production in isolated mitochondria <i>in vitro</i>	Heyno et al. (2008)

Table 3 Selected studies demonstrating increased cadmium (Cd) tolerance upon sodium hydrosulfide (NaHS) supplementation as a consequence of increased chelation and antioxidative defence strategies in various plant species.

Plant	[Cd]	[NaHS]	Exposure duration	Response	Reference
Arabidopsis thaliana	50 μM CdCl <sub>2</sub>	50 μΜ	6 h	↑ GSH content	Jia et al. (2016)
Brassica juncea	50 μM CdCl <sub>2</sub>	100 μΜ	30 d	↑ antioxidant enzyme activity ↑ GSH and AsA content	Kaur et al. (2022)
Brassica napus	$20~\mu M~CdCl_2$	50 µM - pretreatment	1 week	<ul><li>↑ Cd retention in cell walls</li><li>↓ Cd translocation</li></ul>	Yu et al. (2019)
Cynodon dactylon	$750~\mu M~CdCl_2$	500 μΜ	1 d	↑ antioxidant enzyme activity ↑ GSH content	Shi et al. (2014)
Hordeum vulgare	$5,25~\mu M~CdCl_2$	200 μΜ	25 d	<ul><li>↓ Cd translocation</li><li>↑ antioxidant enzyme activity</li></ul>	Fu et al. (2019)
Isatis indigotica	4.5 - 22.5 μM CdCl <sub>2</sub>	50-200 μΜ	14 d	↑ Cd retention in cell walls  ↓ Cd translocation  ↑ PC content  ↓ Cd influx	Jia <i>et al</i> . (2020)
Populus euphratica cell culture	100 μM CdCl <sub>2</sub>	50 μM - pretreatment	24-72 h	↑ antioxidant enzyme activity ↑ vacuolar Cd ↓ Cd influx	Sun et al. (2013)
Salix matsudana	5 - 30 μM CdCl <sub>2</sub>	0.3 mM	60 d	↑ antioxidant enzyme activity  ↑ Cd retention in cell walls  ↑ GSH content	Yang et al. (2018)
Trigonella foenum- graecum	1 - 2 mM CdCl <sub>2</sub>	100 - 200 μΜ	2 weeks	↑ antioxidant enzyme activity ↑ phenolics and flavonoids	Javad et al. (2022)
Zingiber officinale	7.5 mg.l <sup>-1</sup> CdCl <sub>2</sub>	0.8 mM	2, 4, 6, 8, 10 d	↑ antioxidant enzyme activity ↑ PCS transcription	Chen et al. (2022)

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### Figure legends

Figure 1: Proposed sequence of events of the mild cadmium (Cd) stress response in plants, showing the glutathione (GSH)-dependent alarm phase, a subsequent signalling phase and an acclimation phase. The GSH-dependent alarm, characterised by a phytochelatin (PC)-induced GSH depletion, triggers ethylene (ET) production and signalling. The subsequent signalling phase is additionally associated with organellar stress responses, elevated reactive oxygen species (ROS) production and autophagy, which are intertwined. Glutathione production is gradually increased to control ROS levels and maintain PC production, while autophagy might be involved in resolving Cd-induced organellar stress. Following prolonged Cd exposure, signalling responses attenuate and both GSH and PC levels stabilise to reach an acclimation state. During this phase, hydrogen sulfide (H2S) may be involved in maintaining GSH and PC production, as well as regulating signalling events. Full lines are based on established interactions, whereas dashed lines indicate interactions that are more speculative.

Figure 2: Hypothetical overview of responses upon cadmium (Cd) exposure in plants. symbols indicate stress responses elicited by Cd, depicting the altered redox environment as well as organellar stress. The (hypothetical) points at which hydrogen sulfide (H2S) acts are indicated using blue plus (positive interaction) or minus (negative interaction) signs. Full lines are based on established interactions, whereas dashed lines are more speculative. ANAC017: no apical meristem/Arabidopsis transcription activation factor/cup-shaped cotyledon 17, ACC: 1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylic acid, ACO: ACC oxidase, ACS: ACC synthase, AOX: alternative oxidase, ET: ethylene, GSH: glutathione, MDS: mitochondrial dysfunction stimulon, MPK: mitogen-activated protein kinase, OXI: oxidative signal inducible, PC: phytochelatin, PCS: PC synthase, RBOH: respiratory burst oxidase homologue, ROS: reactive oxygen species, SAM: S-adenosylmethionine, UPR: unfolded protein response.



