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Communication

# Salinity triggers proline synthesis in peanut leaves

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**Abstract:** To investigate the magnitude of proline accumulation under different salinity levels, a salinity-imposed experiment was conducted. The peanut seedlings were cultured hydroponically for 7 days before imposing salinity and then grown further for another 7 days under salinity-loaded condition. Results showed that shoot dry matter, relative water content, chlorophyll and K<sup>+</sup> decreased significantly with increasing salinity. In contrast, Na<sup>+</sup>, hydrogen peroxide and proline increased with increasing salinity level. Free proline content increased abruptly at medium and high salinity levels. Interestingly, the lowest level of dry matter (an indicator of tolerance/sensitivity) accompanied by the highest accumulation of proline at 200 mM NaCl puts a question mark on the well-documented role of proline in relation to salinity tolerance. The underlying mechanism is discussed in detail in the current study.

Keywords: salinity, proline biosynthesis, peanut leaves

# INTRODUCTION

Salinity is one of the most important environmental stresses which severely limits plant growth and productivity worldwide [1-2]. The problem is ever increasing because of irrational human acts causing secondary salinisation [3] and also because of global warming with consequent rise in sea level and increase in tidal surges, particularly in coastal areas [4]. In Bangladesh, more than 1 million hectares of the coastal areas have been seriously affected by salinity [5], which is considered as one of the major problems of crop production in Bangladesh.

Salinity exerts its undesirable effects through osmotic inhibition, ionic toxicity and also by disturbing the uptake and translocation of nutritional ions [6]. Now it is widely accepted that abscisic-acid-mediated root signals limit the availability of water to the plant cells, which leads to

slower plant growth during salinity stress [7-9]. This is known as the 'osmotic effect' of salinity [10]. This effect can disturb the physiological and biochemical functions of the plant cells, leading finally to cell death [11]. So osmotic balance is certainly crucial for the survival of a plant under salinity-stressed condition. Under various environmental stresses, plant cells have experienced the accumulation of some organic solutes such as sucrose [12], glycinebetaine [13], mannitol [14], trehalose [15-16] and proline [17-18], and these organic solutes contribute to the maintenance of turgor. Plants under salinity stress also accumulate a number of metabolites, which are termed compatible solutes because they do not interfere with the plant's metabolism even at molar concentrations [19]. The accumulation of such compatible osmolytes involved in osmoregulation allows additional water to be taken up from the environment, thus buffering the immediate effect of water shortage within the plant [20].

Among the accumulation of compatible osmolytes, that of proline is one of the most frequently reported modifications induced by water deficit as well as salinity stress in plants. Several functions are proposed for the accumulation of proline in tissues exposed to salinity stress: osmotic adjustment [21], C and N reserves for growth after stress relief [22-23], detoxification of excess ammonia [24], stabilisation of proteins and membranes [25], protection of macromolecules from denaturation [26], osmoprotection [27], free radical scavenging [28], antioxidation [29] and regulation of cytosolic acidity [30]. In addition, proline biosynthesis may be associated with the production of NADP<sup>+</sup> for the stimulation of the pentose phosphate pathway [31]. Now it is well documented that proline plays a predominant role in protecting plants from osmotic stress. In the present study, we aim to investigate the magnitude of proline accumulation under different levels of salinity in peanut seedlings.

#### **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

#### **Plant Material and Treatments**

Seeds of groundnut (*Arachis hypogea* L., genotype Dhaka-1) were obtained from the plant breeding division of Bangladesh Institute of Nuclear Agriculture (BINA). The seeds were surface sterilised with ethanol for 3 minutes. The surface-sterilised seeds were rinsed thoroughly with distilled water and placed on water-soaked filter paper at  $25^{\circ}$ C to germinate. After germination, healthy and vigorous seedlings with uniform roots were selected and transferred to perforated plastic sieves, each of which contained 4 seedlings. The seedlings were grown hydroponically in modified half-strength Hoagland solution [5] at  $25^{\circ}$ C and 60% relative humidity with a photoperiod of 16 hr (700 µmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>). The seedlings were cultured for 7 days at pH 6.5 in the growth chamber under the control environment as described by Rahman et al [5]. The pH of the nutrient solution was adjusted to 6.5 using H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> and NaOH. A salinity-imposed experiment was then conducted in fullstrength Hoagland solution supplemented with 4 concentrations of salt (0, 50, 100 and 200 mM of NaCl) for 7 days. The experimental containers were laid out in completely randomised design (CRD) with 4 replicates, giving a total of 16 plots. Then the plants were harvested and seedling growth was determined by measuring the length and fresh weight of root and shoot. Plant materials were ovendried (70°C for 24 hr) and dry weights were recorded.

#### **Relative Water Content**

A pre-dawn leaflet sample was taken from three plants for each replicate in each treatment on the 7th day after salinisation and its fresh weight immediately recorded. The leaf sample was then incubated in deionised water for 4 hr as described by Sairam et al. [32], after which the turgid weight of the leaf sample was taken. The leaf sample was then packed in a butter paper bag and oven-dried at 65°C for 48 hr and the dry weight of the sample was taken. The relative water content (RWC) was estimated as follows:

$$RWC = \frac{Fresh \text{ weight} - Dry \text{ weight}}{Turgid \text{ weight} - Dry \text{ weight}} \times 100$$

# **Proline Determination**

Free proline was determined according to the method of Bates et al. [33] with slight modification. Briefly, fresh leaf sample (500 mg) was homogenised in 5 ml of 3% sulphosalicylic acid by a mortar and pestle and then centrifuged at 18000 g for 10 min to remove cell debris. The resulting extract (2 ml) was taken in a test-tube and glacial acetic acid (2 ml) and ninhydrin reagent (2 ml) were added. The reaction mixture was boiled in a water bath for 60 min. After cooling of the tube in ice, toluene (6 ml) was added and mixed thoroughly. Then the upper toluene phase was separated into a glass cuvette and free proline was quantified spectrophotometrically at 520 nm. Proline concentration was calculated from proline standard (0-50  $\mu$ g/ml) treated in an identical manner.

#### H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> Determination

 $H_2O_2$  concentration in the leaves of peanut genotype was measured spectrophotometrically as described by Alexieva et al. [34]. Freshly harvested leaves (0.5 g) were crushed into a fine powder in a mortar under liquid N<sub>2</sub>. Then it was centrifuged at 12000 g for 10 min at 4°C and the supernatant was collected for determination of  $H_2O_2$ . The reaction mixture consisted of 0.5 ml of 0.1% trichloroacetic acid (TCA) containing the leaf extract supernatant, 0.5 ml of 100 mM potassium phosphate buffer and 2 ml of KI reagent (1 M KI in distilled  $H_2O$ ). The blank consisted of 0.1% TCA instead of the leaf extract. The reaction was allowed to run for 1 hr in the dark and the absorbance was measured at 390 nm. The amount of  $H_2O_2$  was calculated using a standard graph of known concentrations.

## **Chlorophyll Determination**

Fully expanded leaves (3rd and 4th from the top, photosynthetically active) were sampled for chlorophyll determination. Fresh leaf samples (0.5g) were homogenised in cold 80% acetone (4 ml) in a cold mortar and centrifuged at 3000 rpm for 10 min at 25°C. Then the supernatant was collected and the volume made up to 20 ml with 80% acetone. The absorbance reading was taken at 645 nm with a UV-VIS spectrophotometer and the chlorophyll content expressed as mg ml<sup>-1</sup> [35].

# Na<sup>+</sup> and K<sup>+</sup> Content

About 0.3 g dry and ground leaves was placed in a digestion tube and 2.5 ml of digestion mixture ( $H_2SO_4 + HClO_4$ ) was added [5]. After mixing, the tube was allowed to stand for 2 hr, then placed in a heating block and heated for 2 hr at 100°C. After cooling, three 1-ml aliquots of 30%  $H_2O_2$  were added, the content of the tube being thoroughly mixed after each addition. The tube was then placed in an aluminium block and heated to 330°C (just below the boiling point of the digestion mixture) for about 2 hr. The cooled, clear, digested mixture was diluted to 20 ml with deionised water and filtered, and aliquots were taken for analysis. Na<sup>+</sup> and K<sup>+</sup> ion concentrations in the extract were estimated by flame photometry and expressed as % dry matter (DM).

### **Statistical Analysis**

All data were subjected to analysis of variance by CRD method and data were expressed as mean  $\pm$  SE obtained from four independent experiments. Duncan's multiple range test was applied to compare the treatment means. P value  $\leq 0.05$  was considered as significant.

## RESULTS

Figure 1 shows a gradual decrease in shoot DM with increasing salt concentration. High salinity stress (200 mM NaCl) resulted in 50% decrease in shoot DM compared to control. RWC in the peanut leaves was also found to decrease with increasing salt concentration (Figure 2a). At 200 mM salinity a decrease of 13% compared to control can be observed.



Figure 1. Effect of salinity on shoot dry matter in peanut seedlings. Vertical bars indicate means  $\pm$  S.E. (n=4).

From Figure 2b, the free proline content in peanut leaves can be observed to dramatically increase with increasing salinity: a 2.5-, 10- and 18-fold increase in proline accumulation at 50, 100 and 200 mM NaCl respectively. The free proline content increased slowly at low salinity and rapidly at medium and high salinity. In response to salinity,  $H_2O_2$  content also increased significantly with the level of salinity (Figure 2c). It increased more than threefold when the young plants were exposed to 200 mM NaCl. Conversely, the total chlorophyll content in the leaves decreased 50% from control at 200 mM NaCl (Figure 2d), indicating that the salt present in the culture solution might be involved in the damage of the chloroplasts.

When peanut seedlings were grown on hydroponic culture solutions containing various concentrations of NaCl, the sodium concentration in the leaves was always higher than that in the

control (Table 1) and was found to increase with increasing salinity level. A reverse trend was observed for  $K^+$  concentration. As a consequence, the  $K^+/Na^+$  ratio decreased with increasing concentration of NaCl in the culture solution.



**Figure 2.** Effect of salinity on (a) RWC (b) proline content, (c)  $H_2O_2$  content and (d) chlorophyll content in peanut seedlings. Vertical bars indicate means  $\pm$  S.E. (n=4).

Table 1.	Sodium	and potassium	content	(% of DM	) in leaves	of peanut	seedlings.	Each
value repr	resents tl	he mean $\pm$ S.E	obtained	from four	independe	ent experir	nents; $P \leq$	0.05.

Treatment (mM NaCl)	Na <sup>+</sup> content (% DM)	K <sup>+</sup> content (% DM)		
0	$0.23\pm0.01$	$6.99\pm0.08$		
50	$0.35\pm0.03$	$6.40\pm0.06$		
100	$9.55\pm0.08$	$1.75 \pm 0.24$		
200	$13.33 \pm 0.06$	$0.63 \pm 0.01$		

#### DISCUSSION

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Proline accumulation, a common metabolic response of plants subjected to salinity stress, is considered to be involved in stress-tolerance mechanisms [20]. In the present study, a significant increase in proline content was found in peanut seedlings after 7 days of exposure to NaCl stress (Figure 2b). The results also revealed that the magnitude of proline accumulation was positively  $(R^2=0.98, P\leq 0.05)$  associated with the concentration of NaCl in the culture solution. These results are consistent with the findings of some earlier studies [36-37]. One distinctive feature of most plants growing in saline environments is the accumulation of proline [1] and it has been inferred that there may be a relationship between cellular proline level and cell turgidity via osmotic adjustment [23, 38]. Interestingly, such beneficial effect of elevated proline level was not reflected in the maintenance of relative water content in peanut leaves in the present study. The results could be interpreted as follows. Firstly, salinity stress limits the uptake of CO<sub>2</sub> [8-9], resulting in decreasing carbon reduction by Calvin cycle [39], which leads to non-availability of NADP<sup>+</sup> for acceptance of electrons during photosynthesis. In this situation, photosynthetic reducing power, NADPH<sub>2</sub>, is used for proline biosynthesis and consequently NADP<sup>+</sup> is regenerated [40]. These reactions are summarised in Figure 3. The excess accumulation of proline may therefore be a result of metabolic changes induced by high salinity. The present results also agrees with the observations of Delauney and Verma [41], who stated that excess proline accumulation in response to high salinity functions by other than osmotic adjustment.



**Figure 3.** Schematic illustration of electron flow in : (a) normal physiological condition and (b) high-salinity stress condition, which can lead to inhibition of photosynthesis by diverting the flow of photoreductant (e<sup>-</sup>) from the  $CO_2$  reducing system to proline biosynthesis, leading to reduced growth and productivity of the plants.

The low shoot DM (an indicator of salt sensitivity) along with the high proline content also suggests that the increase in proline concentration may not be associated with salinity tolerance, which agrees with some previous studies [9, 42]. Thus, the maximal accumulation of proline might have occurred when plants were exposed to excessive salinity which might damage them fatally. Also, other osmolytes other than proline might be involved in leaf water content or cell turgidity. This was also reflected in our current investigation. The concentration of inorganic osmoticum (K<sup>+</sup>) in the leaf tissues might be associated (R<sup>2</sup>=0.97, P $\leq$ 0.05) with relative water content in the leaves (Figure 2a) and actively contribute to turgor maintenance of the cells [43]. Further investigation is needed to clarify their relative importance in turgor maintenance.

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The low DM yield in high salinity level may be explained by excess accumulation of toxic ions, particularly Na<sup>+</sup> with concomitant reduction of K<sup>+</sup> ions (Table 1), an important osmolyte in the cellular environment. The degree of inhibition of K<sup>+</sup> uptake is associated with salinity levels in the culture solution (Table 1). This is reasonable as high Na<sup>+</sup> concentration negatively affects K<sup>+</sup> acquisition due to similar physicochemical properties of Na<sup>+</sup> and K<sup>+</sup> [44]. Moreover, low DM yield and low chlorophyll content (Figure 2d) in highly salinised leaves might be related to the elevated levels of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (Figure 2c), which was also stimulated by salinity [36], resulting in serious photodamage of chlorophyll [45-46].

Taken all together, it may be concluded that in the present study proline accumulation was a result of photosynthetic impairments or metabolic changes induced by high salinity whereas its function in maintaining cell turgidity/relative water content was not so strong.

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