

Triacontanol Alleviated Nickel Toxicity in Maize Seedling by Controlling Its Uptake and Enhancing Antioxidant System

Abeer Abdelrazk Younis¹, Hebatollah Ahmed Ismail^{1,*}

¹Botany Department, Faculty of Science, Ain Shams University, Cairo, Egypt

Abstract

Triacontanol (TRIA) role in improving growth, physiological activities and tolerance against abiotic stresses has been reported. Yet, the mechanism by which TRIA executes its effects remains elusive. This work therefore studied the possible role of TRIA exogenous application in counteracting the adverse effects of nickel (Ni) treated maize seedlings. Maize seedlings (15-day-old) were grown in washed sand irrigated with nutrient solution provided with 100 μM NiCl_2 . Two concentrations of TRIA (25 and 50 μM) were applied twice as a foliar spray for Ni-stressed seedlings. Shoot and root growth attributes, Ni content, and antioxidant defence systems of maize seedlings were determined. Ni treatment reduced the shoot and root length and biomass, causing necrosis of the old leaves, greater reduction was shown in the roots. The shoot and root length was negatively correlated with their Ni content, which was consistent with their content of H_2O_2 , but not with their malondialdehyde (MDA) content. As the roots had the greatest Ni content, maximum peroxidase (PX) and glutathione reductase (GR) activity as well as the highest ascorbic acid (ASA) and reduced glutathione (GSH) content were observed in the roots. The Ni-induced deleterious effects were alleviated by foliar application of TRIA concentrations. Also, TRIA treatment minimized root Ni content, whereas it maintained the shoots unharmed by Ni. Such mitigative effects of TRIA are explained by its key role in enhancing antioxidant capacity (expressed as IC_{50}), increased PX and ascorbate oxidase (AO) activity, GSH, and total phenolic contents.

Corresponding author: Hebatollah Ahmed Ismail, Botany Department, Faculty of Science, Ain Shams University, Cairo, Egypt

Keywords: Triacontanol, Nickel stress, Enzymatic and non-enzymatic antioxidants, *Zea mays*

Received: Sep 30, 2019

Accepted: Oct 07, 2019

Published: Oct 21, 2019

Editor: Mohamed Magdy Mansour, Department of Botany, Faculty of Science, Ain Shams University, Cairo 11566, Egypt.

Introduction

Heavy metal pollution is a global concern as it adversely affecting crop production. Heavy metals (HMs) are naturally occurring metals with atomic numbers greater than 20 and an elemental density greater than 5 g cm^{-3} [1,2]. HMs including cadmium (Cd), lead (Pb), and mercury (Hg), are nonessential and highly toxic to plants [3,4,5]. Other metals are required for life and considered as micronutrients (i.e., Zn, Mn, Ni, Cu, etc.), but their excessive accumulation in living organisms is always toxic. Ni is one of such micronutrients with dual characteristics. For instance, several enzyme activities depend on the presence of Ni highlighting its benefit effects on plant growth and development [6]. Conversely, excess concentrations of Ni become toxic and cause disturbances in several physiological processes including photosynthesis, respiration, mineral nutrition, transport of assimilates and water relations [7]. It is documented that the adequate levels of Ni for plant species are ranged from 0.01 to 10 mg g^{-1} dry weight [8].

Ni toxicity induces high levels of reactive oxygen species (ROS) which triggers lipid peroxidation, oxidation of proteins, degradation of chlorophyll pigments and DNA damage [9,10,11]. Plants evolved a complex ROS scavenging mechanism at the molecular and cellular levels to survive with HMs stress [11]. Therefore, increased stress tolerance in metal exposed plants is often associated with enhancement of antioxidant defense system comprising both enzymatic and non-enzymatic antioxidants [12,13,14]. The antioxidant enzymes comprise superoxide dismutase (SOD), catalase (CAT), peroxidase (PX), polyphenol oxidase (PPO), glutathione reductase (GR), ascorbate peroxidase (APX), and ascorbate oxidase (AO) [14]. The non-enzymatic antioxidants include phenolics, ascorbate (ASC), α -tocopherol, proline and glycinebetaine, and reduced glutathione (GSH) [15,16,17].

TRIA is one of relatively new plant growth regulators (PGRs) which has been established to play a critical role in plant growth and development when exogenously applied to various plant species [18,19]. The prominent effect of TRIA has been reported to influence the enzymes regulating growth [20], metabolic processes in plants [21], enhance photosynthetic rate

and chlorophyll fluorescence [22, 23], stimulate mineral nutrients uptake [24, 25], and increase various organic compounds in plants [26]. Furthermore, TRIA has been shown to improve the plant resistance against several abiotic stresses as salinity [23, 24, 14], water stress [27], chilling [28], and HMs stress [29, 30]. To our knowledge, the role of TRIA in Ni-induced oxidative stress and antioxidant response is fragmentary studied. Maize (*Zea mays* L.) is the third most important cereals crop [31] cultivated globally and used largely as food for human and animals. Maize suffers heavily by metals which eventually reduce its growth and grain yield [32]. The present study was therefore undertaken to investigate the role of TRIA in mitigating the adverse effects of Ni stress on maize seedlings. A variety of biochemical and physiological parameters related to antioxidant defense systems was addressed.

Materials and Methods

Plant Material and Growth Conditions

Maize (*Zea mays* L.) grains (hybrid three way cross 321) were obtained from the Agricultural Research Centre, Giza, Egypt, and kept in the dark at $4 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ before use. The grains were surface sterilized by immersion in 1% (w/v) sodium hypochlorite solution for 30 min. Maize was cultivated in sand in plastic pots (diameter 15 cm, height 30 cm, 2.5 Kg dry sand per pot). The sand was washed with 12% hydrochloric acid to remove any carbonates and contaminants, rinsed with deionized water, and then dried in an oven ($70 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, 48 h, then $200 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, 2 h). During the first week from the sowing, seedlings were irrigated with distilled water; then nutrients were added with Ni contamination ($\text{NiCl}_2 \cdot 6 \text{ H}_2\text{O}$), in a single dose ($100 \text{ } \mu\text{M}$), in a 150 ml (about $0.25 \text{ mg Ni/ } 100 \text{ g soil}$) nutritive solution was prepared according to the composition described by Smith et al. [33]. The nutrient solutions were applied at a rate of 50 ml per pot three times a week to maintain the same quantity of nutrient solution per unit of sand. Moisture stress was avoided by watering the sand in the pots to 80 % of saturation capacity. Two concentrations of triacontanol solution (TRIA) (Triplntanol.com), at 25 and $50 \text{ } \mu\text{M}$, were applied as foliar spray treatment at the two-leaf stage (15-day-old seedlings) twice for 7 days. At the end of experiment, 21-day-old seedlings of both the treated and the untreated (control) shoot and root

samples were collected, five plants per treatments were subjected for measuring some growth criteria and the remaining seedlings immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen and then stored at $-80\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ for the analyses.

Chlorophyll Fluorescence Measurements

The maximum quantum efficiency of PSII (F_v/F_m) were determined on fully exposed leaves with a Hansatech Pocket Plant Efficiency Analyzer (Pocket PEA, Hansatech Instruments, King's Lynn, Norfolk, UK) by following Kitajima and Butler [34] method. The data were recorded using previously dark-adapted leaves for 30 min.

Determination of Nickel Content

Dried samples (roots and shoots from each treatment) were extracted by dry ashing as described by Chapman and Pratt [35]. Ni content was determined by atomic absorption spectroscopy (Savant AA, GBC, Australia). The results were expressed as mg of metal g^{-1} of sample (dry weight).

Lipid Peroxidation and Hydrogen Peroxide Contents

Lipid peroxidation was evaluated by measuring the production of malondialdehyde (MDA) by thiobarbituric acid reaction (TBAR)-based colorimetric method as described by Heath and Packer [36]. Hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) were determined by the methods of Velikova et al. [37].

DPPH Radical Scavenging Assay

The measurement of diphenylpicrylhydrazyl (DPPH) radical scavenging activity was carried out according to the method of Hatano et al. [38]. The antiradical activity was finally expressed as IC_{50} (mg g^{-1} F W), the extract concentration required to cause a 50% inhibition. A lower IC_{50} value corresponds to a higher antioxidant activity of the plant extract. Standard curve was prepared to calculate IC_{50} value using ascorbic acid.

Enzymatic and Non-Enzymatic Antioxidants

Antioxidant enzymes were extracted from maize shoots and roots by using a known volume of phosphate buffer (PH 7) (1:4 W/V). The crude extracts were used for enzyme assays. Superoxide dismutase (SOD, EC 1.15.1.1) activity was assayed according to method for Kong et al. [39]. Catalase (CAT, EC 1.11.1.6) activity assayed following the method of Aebi et al. [40].

Peroxidase (PX, EC 1.11.1.7)) activity was determined by the method of Shannon et al. [41]. Ascorbate oxidase (AO, EC 1.10.3.3) and peroxidase (APX, EC 1.11.1.11) activities were measured by the methods of Diallinas et al. [42] and Ali et al. [43] respectively. Glutathione Reductase (GR; EC1.6.4.2) was assayed by the method of Goldberg and Spooner [44] using a commercially kit (Biodiagnostics, Giza, Egypt). Polyphenol oxidase (PPO, EC 1.10.3.1) activity was measured by the method of Gonzalez et al. [45]. Non-enzymatic antioxidants comprises total phenolics, as gallic acid equivalent (GAE), were determined according to Makkar et al. [46]. Ascorbic acid (ASA) was determined by the methods of Mukherjee and Choudhuri [47]. Reduced glutathione (GSH) was estimated according to the method given by Beutler et al. [48] using a commercially kit (Biodiagnostics, Giza, Egypt).

Statistical Analysis

The results were subjected to one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) using the software package SPSS v20.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, USA). The comparison of the means of different treatments was carried out using Duncan's multiple range test at a significance level of 5% ($P \leq 0.05$).

Results

Maize seedlings exposed to Ni treatment exhibited a major decrease in shoot height, circumference and fresh weight, as well as root length (Fig. 1A and 2) and developed symptoms of Ni toxicity such as chlorosis and necrosis, especially in the older leaves (Fig. 1B). However, a slight increment root fresh weight was observed (Fig. 2C). Foliar-applied TRIA significantly improved Ni-induced reduction in growth traits, but, it did not have any noticeable effect on root fresh weight of maize seedlings (Fig. 1 and 2).

Application of TRIA ($50\text{ }\mu\text{M}$) markedly decreased root Ni content, however, both TRIA treatments (25 and $50\text{ }\mu\text{M}$) did not show any prominent effect on shoot Ni content (Fig. 3A). Meanwhile, Ni effect was emphasized by correlating Ni content with root growth of maize seedling, as it has revealed a strong reverse correlation with root length ($R^2 = 0.9$, data not shown), while a positive correlation has been obtained with root fresh weight ($R^2 = 0.9$, data not shown).



Figure 1. A) A Growth comparison of 21-day-old maize seedlings (control—untreated plants, Ni—plants exposed to Ni stress alone, Ni+ TRIA 25—plants exposed to Ni stress and treated with 25 μM triacontanol, Ni+ TRIA 50—plants exposed to Ni stress and treated with 50 μM triacontanol). B) Symptoms of injury on leaf tips, especially in mature leaves, caused by Ni exposure.

The values of the maximum quantum efficiency of PSII (F_v/F_m) showed nonsignificant effect for Ni treatment as well as both concentration of TRIA (Fig. 3B), which correlated with shoot Ni content ($R^2= 0.8$, data not shown). Interestingly, Ni-exposed maize shoots exhibited higher lipid peroxidation (MDA) content reached about 136% as compared with untreated control seedlings despite of low shoot Ni content (Fig. 3C). On the other hand, roots did not exhibit differences in MDA levels of Ni-exposed plants as well as TRIA-treated ones (Fig. 3C). However, TRIA treatments decreased the MDA level by about its half value as compared with untreated Ni-stressed shoot (Fig. 3C). Further, the exposure of maize seedlings to 100 μM Ni led to a significant increment of H_2O_2 content in the roots reached about 109% as compared with untreated control seedlings (Fig. 2D). Meanwhile, applications of 25 and 50 μM TRIA significantly reduced H_2O_2 accumulated in Ni-stressed root by about 28.5% and 60.5% respectively (Fig. 3D). The enhancement in root H_2O_2 level was positively correlated with its Ni content ($R^2= 0.7$, data not shown). While in shoots, H_2O_2 were shown to be reduced in Ni exposed plants, but the

treatment with TRIA resulted in H_2O_2 content to around control levels (Fig. 3D).

The lowest IC_{50} values indicating the highest antioxidant capacity was recorded in 25 μM TRIA-treated stressed shoots, whereas, the highest IC_{50} value was obtained in Ni-stressed roots of maize seedlings (Fig. 4A). Which was strongly correlated with Ni content ($R^2= 0.91$, data not shown). Regarding antioxidant enzymes, roots of all treatment showed boosted activities of most enzymes (SOD, CAT, PX, APX, GR and PPO), as compared with its corresponding roots (Fig. 4). Reduction of SOD was resulted in 25 μM TRIA treated shoot, while no significant change in this enzyme activity for all root treatment (Fig. 4B). Generally, maize roots exhibited increased CAT activities compared to those of roots (ranging between 1 and 1.5 folds, except for 50 μM TRIA). The treatment does not seem to affect the CAT activity in both shoots and roots. The only exception is the treatment with 50 μM TRIA, in which the treatment caused a reduction in root's CAT activity to be almost equal to that of shoot (Fig. 4C). Ni-stressed maize roots recorded the maximum PX activity (115.4% over the control level), while no significant changes of PX activity

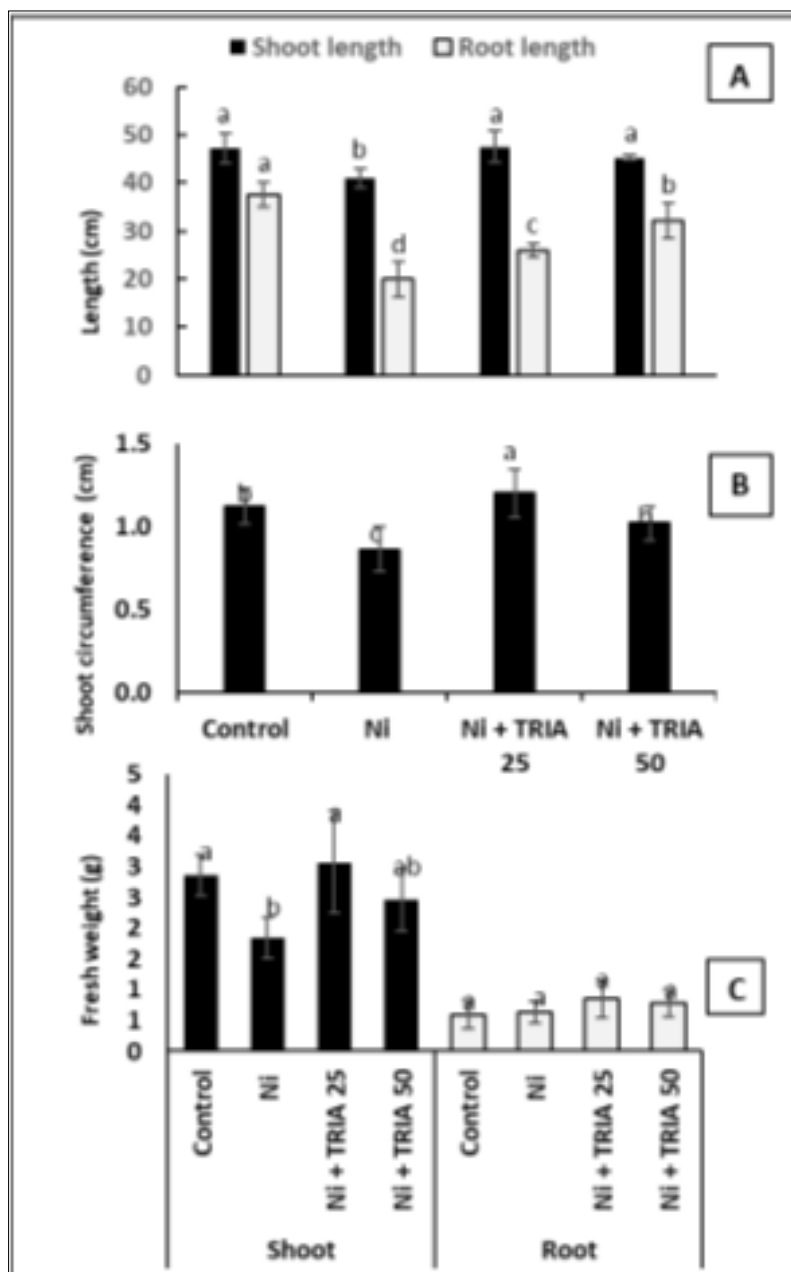


Figure 2. Effect of Nickel (Ni) alone or combined with different concentrations of triacontanol (25 and 50 μM) on A) Shoot and root length, B) Shoot circumference and C) Shoot and root fresh weights, as compared with the control untreated plants. Data are means \pm SD (n=4), bars with different letters are significantly different at $P \leq 0.05$.

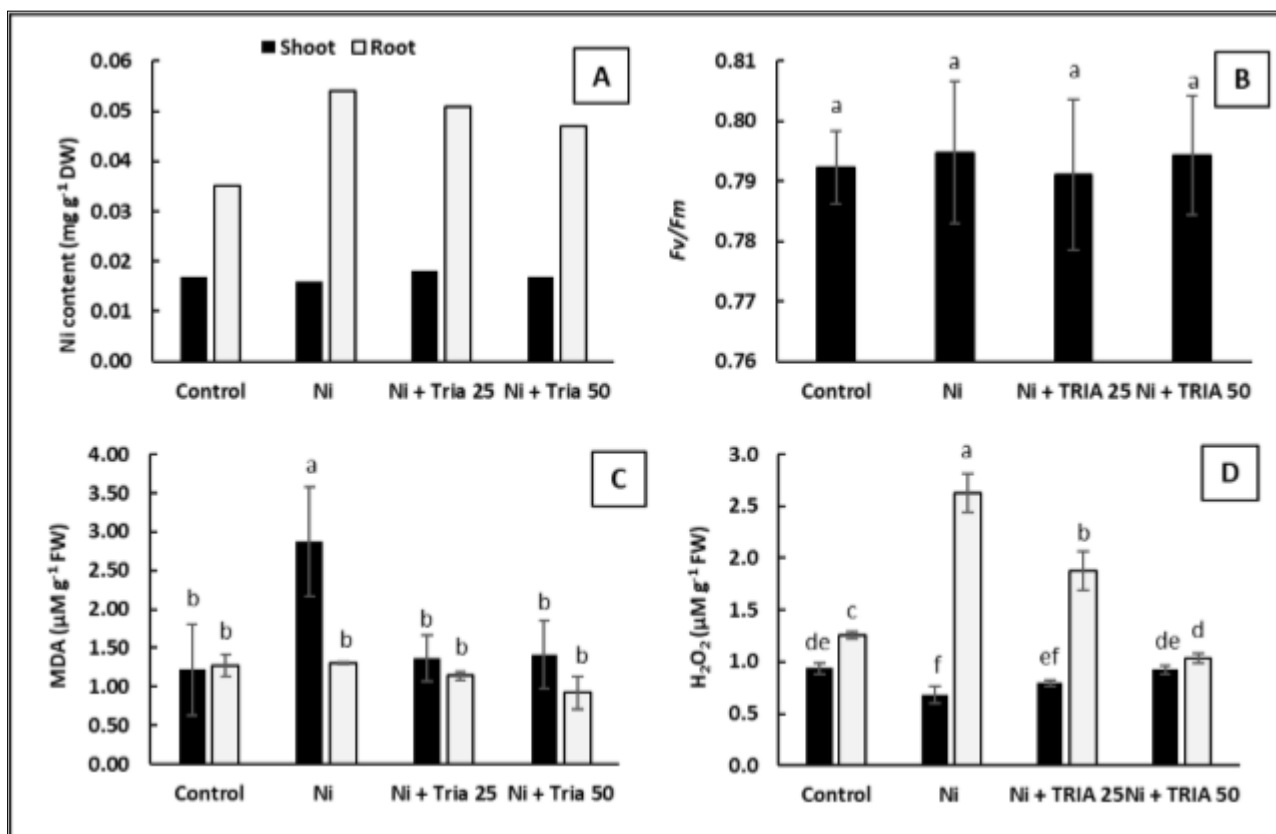


Figure 3. Effect of triacontanol (TRIA) (25 and 50 μM) on A) Nickel (Ni) content B) Quantum efficiency of the photochemical reactions in PSII (F_v/F_m) in leaves, C) lipid peroxidation (MDA) and D) H_2O_2 content in shoots and roots of maize plants exposed to Ni stress, as compared with the control untreated plants. Data are means \pm SD ($n=3$), bars with different letters are significantly different at $P \leq 0.05$.

was recorded in its corresponding shoots (Fig. 2D). Further, the TRIA application reduced the activity of PX enzyme in both Ni-stressed shoots and roots, with greatest decrease in 25 μM TRIA-treated shoots (ten folds blow the untreated control) (Fig. 4D). On the other hand, significant reductions in APX enzyme activity by 25% and 22% were noticed in 50 μM TRIA-treated shoots and roots respectively as compared with Ni-stressed untreated ones (Fig. 2E). The most pronounced induction in response of maize plants to Ni stress was observed in the case of GR activity of the maize roots, where it recorded about 9-fold higher than the control (Fig. 4F). However, no significant changes in GR activity were found in the maize Ni-stressed shoots as well as TRIA treatment (Fig. 4F). Shoots treated with 25 μM TRIA exhibited the maximum enhancement in AO activity under Ni stress (Fig. 4G). While in roots, 25 μM TRIA treatment significantly reduced the activity of this enzyme by about 61% as compared with the untreated

stressed roots (Fig. 4G). Treatment with 100 μM Ni along with 25 μM TRIA reduced the PPO activity by 43.7% (Fig. 4H).

Interestingly maize roots revealed similar behavior in both ASA and GSH contents (Fig. 5A and B). As Ni caused a significant increase in ASC and GSH contents in roots of maize seedlings reached about 38.5% and 18% respectively as compared with unstressed control (Fig. 5A and B). However, both TRIA treatments (25 and 50 μM) resulted in significant reduction in ASC and GSH contents of Ni-stressed maize roots (Fig. 5A and B). On the other hand, in the shoots, treatment with Ni induced a highly significant reduction approximately 64% and 67% in ASC and GSH contents respectively as compared with untreated control (Fig. 5A and B). Meanwhile, both TRIA treatment succeeded to retrieve control levels of GSH, but for ASA in maize shoots (Fig. 5A and B). Interestingly, total phenolic

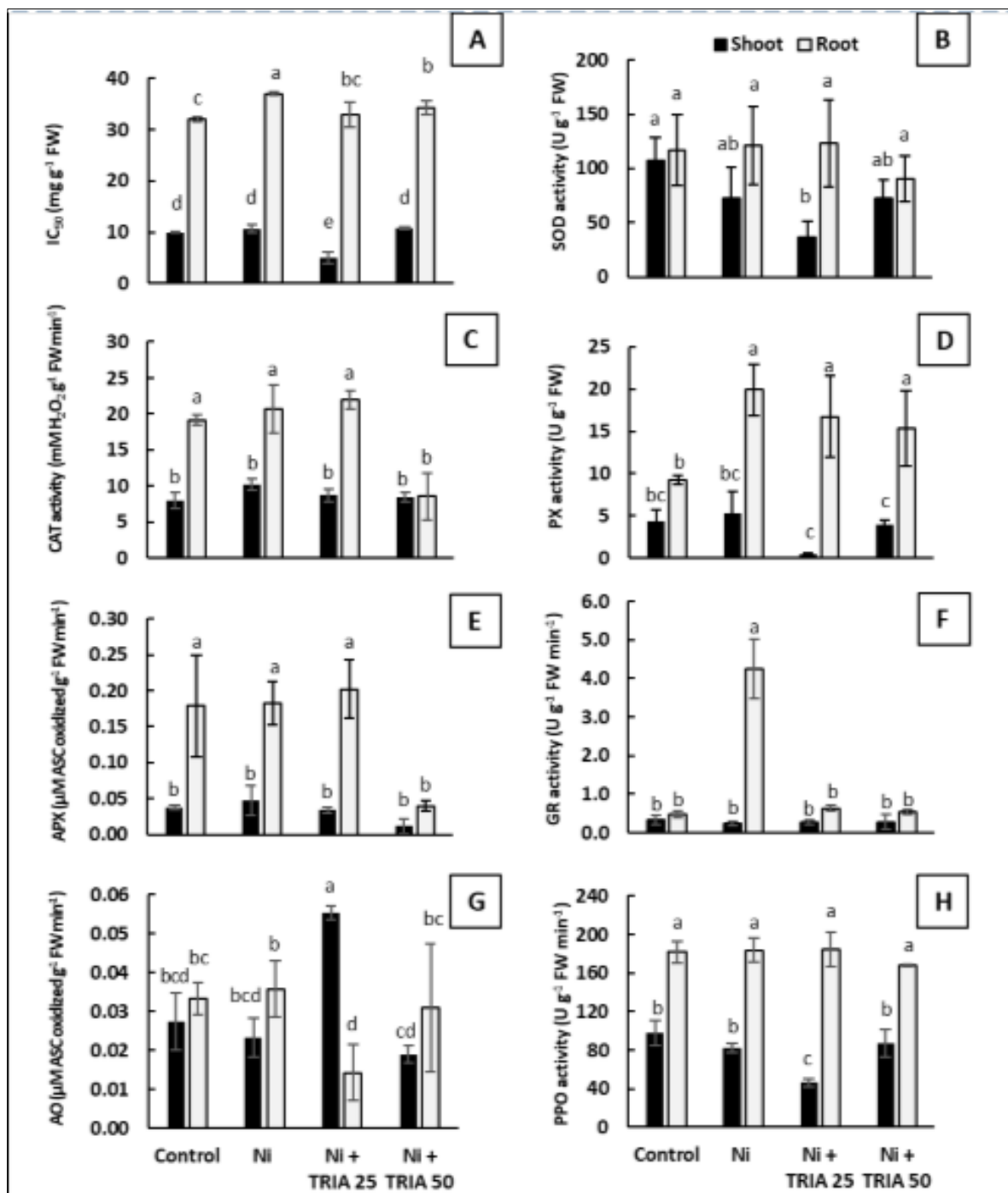


Figure 4. Effect of triacontanol (TRIA) (25 and 50 μ M) on A) scavenging activity of DPPH expressed as IC₅₀ value B) Superoxide dismutase (SOD) activity, C) Catalase activity (CAT), D) Peroxidase activity (PO), E) Ascorbate peroxidase (APX) activity, F) Glutathione reductase (GR), G) Ascorbate oxidase (AO) activity and H) Polyphenol oxidase (PPO) activity measured in shoots and roots of maize plants exposed to Ni stress, as compared with the control untreated plants. Data are means \pm SD (n=3), bars with different letters are significantly different at $P \leq 0.05$.

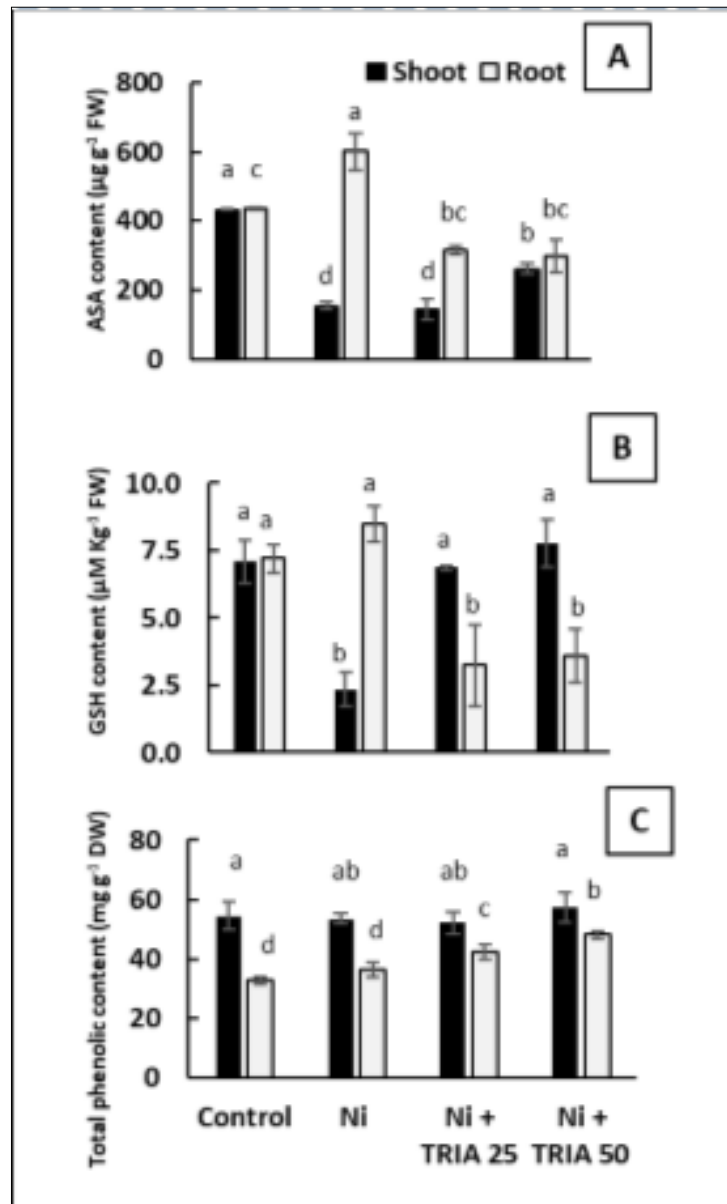


Figure 5. Effect of triacontanol (TRIA) (25 and 50 μM) on A) Ascorbic acid content (ASA) B) Reduced glutathione content and C) Total phenolic content of maize plants exposed to Ni stress, as compared with the control untreated plants. Data are means \pm SD ($n=3$), bars with different letters are significantly different at $P \leq 0.05$.

compounds were the unique antioxidant component that accumulated in shoots more than roots, even though their contents seemed to be treatment independent (Fig. 5C). Total phenolic of roots has not been affected by Ni stress, but it is boosted by addition of TRIA in concentration dependent manner (Fig. 5C).

Discussion

Decreased growth of maize seedlings exposed to 100 μM Ni could be attributed to inhibition of cell division [7, 49]. Several studies indicated that Ni-stressed plants showed disrupted mitotic index and had chromosome abnormalities [50, 51, 7, 52, 53]. TRIA-induced improvement in the growth of maize might be due to the synergistic interaction of TRIA with phytohormones and induction of 9-b-L (+) adenosine, cytokinin like structure, which might mainly responsible for increased growth [26]. Our results are in agreement with previous studies where TRIA induces the growth of *Brassica napus* [53], *Coriandrum sativum* [30], and *Erythrina variegata* [29] under metal stress.

Increased Ni accumulation in the roots but not in the shoots of maize seedlings could possibly be due to the contention that roots are directly contacted with soil solution including Ni, and root water absorption likely increased Ni accumulation with low translocation of Ni to the shoots [54]. Consistently, previous works on other plant species also reported a greater accumulation of Ni in the roots [55, 56, 57, 58]. TRIA treatment decreased root Ni content in concentration dependent manner, but never retrieved the control levels. Accordingly, it seems that TRIA might reduce Ni uptake from the beginning. Supporting to our proposal is the finding that TRIA could affect heavy metal ATPases or cation diffusion facilitators [1]. Although little is known about the effect of TRIA on ions absorption and membrane permeability, Ramani and Kannan [58] showed that TRIA hinders absorption of minerals from the soil. Moreover, Shripathi and Swamy [59] report changes in the composition of membrane phospholipids of cotton by TRIA treatment.

Our results showed nonsignificant effect on F_v/F_m values in all treatments of maize shoots, which is consistent with low Ni content in the shoots. Absence of Ni effect on this parameter might be interpreted to short

time of Ni exposure independently of the prior spraying of the seedlings with TRIA. Also, lower contents of H_2O_2 in the shoots of Ni stressed seedlings parallel with shoot decreased Ni concentration. In contrast, significant increase in the shoot MDA relative to the roots under Ni stress might be explained by the fact that other ROS might participate in increased MDA and that symptoms of Ni toxicity such as chlorosis and necrotic spots were visible in the older leaves of maize plants treated with Ni which may indicate Ni accumulation mostly in the oldest leaves and hence function as metal sink and protect younger leaves against its toxicity [60]. The results agree with earlier studies on Ni-stressed shoots of *Cajanus cajan*, *Brassica juncea* [61, 62], and *Zea mays* [52]. Similarly, roots of *Triticum aestivum* [54] *Solanum nigrum* [51] did not demonstrate significant changes in lipid peroxidation levels under Ni stress. The reduction in the shoot lipid peroxidation by foliar treatment of TRIA under Ni stress is in agreement with previous investigations [30, 14] that TRIA may play a key role in protecting the structure and function of cell membranes against metal toxicity *via* elevating antioxidant system. Maize shoots showed higher antioxidant capacities (expressed as lower IC_{50} of DPPH), which might be attributed to non-enzymatic antioxidant compounds like total phenolic compounds and reduced glutathione that accumulated in shoots in response to TRIA treatment.

Accumulation of H_2O_2 and Ni in the roots of maize seedlings agrees with previous studies on roots of *Alyssum bertolonii* and *Nicotiana tabacum* [63] and *Triticum aestivum* [55, 56] illustrating Ni-stressed roots suffered from oxidative stress. Despite the higher Ni and H_2O_2 accumulation in roots, no significant effect on the root MDA which may be attributed to the elevated activity of antioxidant enzymes that scavenged ROS generated under stress conditions [55, 64, 65]. Minimum antioxidant capacity was observed in Ni-stressed maize roots under TRIA treatment. Similar relation between Ni concentration and antioxidant capacity has been reported by Stanisavljevic et al. [66], Kulbat and Leszczyńska [67] and Georgiadou et al. [68]. Interestingly, Ni content was found to be strongly correlated to IC_{50} and PX ($R^2 = 0.91$ and 0.93 , respectively) and to lesser extent to APX, total phenolic

compounds and H₂O₂ content (R² = 0.56, 0.55 and 0.68, respectively). This can be interpreted that accumulated Ni in stressed tissues exerted an oxidative stress led to H₂O₂ formation, which was scavenged using antioxidative enzymes and phenolic compounds. Similarly, Ibrahim et al. [69] report such correlation relationships under heavy metal stress. Moreover, our results observed a correlation between PX and both IC₅₀ and H₂O₂ content, indicating that it is the chief antioxidant enzyme in Ni-stressed roots (either treated with TRIA or no). In addition to PX, Ni-stressed root used other antioxidative mechanisms, such as glutathione/ascorbate cycle, which was evident from their enhanced levels of GR, GSH and ASA. Despite these defense mechanisms, it appears that the oxidative rate was greater than scavenging one in maize stressed roots.

TRIA enhanced enzymatic (mainly peroxidases) and non-enzymatic (phenolic compounds) antioxidants under Ni stress, which is previously reported in response to heavy metal-stressed plants [30, 14, 54]. Even though TRIA-treated plants did not use multiple and complex antioxidant systems as that observed in Ni-stressed plants alone, it seems that such antioxidant defense system was sufficient to reduce H₂O₂ content and counterbalanced the deleterious impacts of Ni stress. The elevated AO activity in of TRIA 25 µM treated shoots was one of the most remarkable results in this study as this was escorted by increased growth parameters and reduced ASA. Taken together, we can hypothesize that TRIA might have enhanced shoot growth *via* enhancing AO activity on the expense of ASA. AO is an ubiquitous apoplastic multi-copper oxidase enzyme that catalyze oxidation of apoplastic ASA into monodehydroascorbate (MDHA) then finally into dehydroascorbate (DHA) using oxygen as a hydrogen acceptor. This mechanism controlled by AO is the main regulator of apoplastic redox status and hence growth. The reciprocal interaction between AO expression and auxins has confirmed the role of AO in auxins signal transduction [70, 71]. Smirnoff [72] has demonstrated that increased AO activity and its product (DHA) are performing critical role in auxin signal transduction and are directly associated with cell elongation and expansion in actively growing tissues. It has been also

shown that overexpression of AO gene is associated with a leap in AO activity and apoplastic DHA, which promote shoot elongation in tobacco and cotton plants [73,74].

In conclusion, our results showed that TRIA foliar spray did not only alleviate the toxicity and oxidative stress imposed by Ni stress, but also provoked the growth to be comparable with that of the untreated plants. We propose three mechanisms by which TRIA express its effect: extrusion of Ni from roots, enhancing enzymatic and non-enzymatic antioxidants, and stimulating growth-related enzymes.

Acknowledgement

The authors would like to thank Dr Fatma Zaki for providing triacntanol. We specially thank Miss Eman Kamal for her help in the statistical analysis.

Abbreviations

- AO - Ascorbate oxidase
- APX - Ascorbate peroxidase
- ASA - Ascorbic acid
- CAT - Catalase
- CDFs - Cation Diffusion Facilitators
- DHA - Dehydroascorbate
- DPPH - Diphenylpicrylhydrazyl
- Fv/Fm - The maximum quantum efficiency of PSII
- GR - Glutathione Reductase
- GSH - Reduced glutathione
- HMA_s - Heavy Metal ATPases
- HMs - Heavy metals
- IC₅₀ - Median inhibitory concentration
- MDA - Malondialdehyde
- MDHA - Monodehydroascorbate
- Ni - Nickel
- PGRs - Plant growth regulators
- PPO - Polyphenol oxidase
- PX - ROS
- Peroxidase - Reactive oxygen species
- SOD - Superoxide dismutase
- TBAR - Thiobarbituric acid reaction

TRIA - Triacontanol

References

1. Singh S, Parihar P, Singh R, Singh V P, Prasad S M (2016) Heavy metal tolerance in plants: Role of transcriptomics, proteomics, metabolomics, and ionomics. *Front. Plant Sci.* 6, 1143.
2. Ali H, Khan E (2018) What are heavy metals? Long-standing controversy over the scientific use of the term 'heavy metals'—proposal of a comprehensive definition": *Toxicol. Environ. Chem.* in Taylor and Francis, Ltd.100(1), 6–19.
3. Ding S, Ma C, Shi W, Liu W, Lu Y, et al. (2017) Exogenous glutathione enhances cadmium accumulation and alleviates its toxicity in *Populus × canescens*. *Tree Physiol.* 37(12),1697–1712.
4. Ma C, Chen Y, Ding S, Li Z, Shi W, et al. (2018) Sulfur nutrition stimulates lead accumulation and alleviates its toxicity in *Populus deltoides*. *Tree Physiol.* 38(11), 1724–1741.
5. Shi WG, Liu W, Yu W, Zhang Y, Ding S et al.(2019) Abscisic acid enhances lead translocation from the roots to the leaves and alleviates its toxicity in *Populus × canescens*. *J. Hazard. Mater.*362, 275–285.
6. Muszyńska E, Labudda M (2019) Dual role of metallic trace elements in stress biology—from negative to beneficial impact on plants. *Int. J. Mol. Sci.* 20(13), 3117.
7. Muhammad BH, Shafaqat A, Aqeel A, Saadia H, Muhammad AF *et al.* (2013) Morphological, physiological and biochemical responses of plants to nickel stress: A review. *African J. Agric. Res.*8(17), 1596–1602.
8. Gratão PL, Pompeu G B, Capaldi F R, Vitorello V A, Lea P J, *et al.* (2008) Antioxidant response of *Nicotiana tabacum* cv. Bright Yellow 2 cells to cadmium and nickel stress. *Plant Cell Tiss. Org.* 94 (1), 73–83.
9. Ahmad P, Jaleel CA, Salem MA, Nabi G, Sharma S (2010) Roles of enzymatic and nonenzymatic antioxidants in plants during abiotic stress. *Crit. Rev. Biotechnol.* 30(3), 161–175.
10. Dourado M N, Franco M R, Peters L P, Martins P F, Souza LA et al. (2015) Antioxidant enzymes activities of *Burkholderia* spp. strains—oxidative responses to Ni toxicity. *Environ. Sci. Pollut. Res.* 22 (24), 19922–19932.
11. Hasanuzzaman M, Nahar K, Alam M M, Roychowdhury R, Fujita M (2013) Physiological, biochemical, and molecular mechanisms of heat stress tolerance in plants. *Int. J. Mol. Sci.* 14(5), 9643–9684.
12. Fidalgo F, Freitas R, Ferreira R, Pessoa A M, Teixeira J (2011) *Solanum nigrum* L. antioxidant defence system isozymes are regulated transcriptionally and posttranslationally in Cd-induced stress. *Environ. Exp. Bot.* 72(2), 312–319.
13. Fidalgo F, Azenha M, Silva A F, de Sousa A, Santiago A et al. (2013) Copper-induced stress in *Solanum nigrum* L. and antioxidant defense system responses. *Food Energy Secur.*2(1), 70–80.
14. Asadi Karam E, Keramat B, Sorbob S, Maresca V, Asrar Z et al. (2017) Interaction of triacontanol and arsenic on the ascorbate-glutathione cycle and their effects on the ultrastructure in *Coriandrum sativum* L. *Environ. Exp. Bot.* 14, 161–169.
15. Sinha S, Saxena R, (2006) Effect of iron on lipid peroxidation, and enzymatic and non-enzymatic antioxidants and bacoside-A content in medicinal plant *Bacopa monnieri* L. *Chemosphere.* 62(8), 1340–50.
16. Mansour MMF, Ali EF (2017) Glycinebetaine in saline conditions: an assessment of the current state of knowledge. *Acta Physiol. Plant.* 39, 56
17. Mansour MMF, Ali EF (2017) Evaluation of proline functions in saline conditions. *Phytochemistry* 140, 52-68.
18. Perveen S, Shahbaz M, Ashraf M, (2013) Influence of foliar-applied triacontanol on growth, gas exchange characteristics, and chlorophyll fluorescence at different growth stages in wheat under saline conditions. *Photosynthetica.* 51(4), 541–551.
19. Verma A, Malik C P, Gupta V K, Bajaj B K (2011) Effects of in vitro triacontanol on growth, antioxidant

- enzymes, and photosynthetic characteristics in *Arachis hypogaea* L. Brazilian J. Plant Physiol. 23(4), 271–277.
20. Chen X, Yuan H, Chen R, Zhu L, Du B. et al. (2002) Isolation and characterization of triacontanol-regulated genes in rice (*Oryza sativa* L.): Possible role of triacontanol as a plant growth stimulator. Plant Cell Physiol. 43(8), 869–876.
 21. Morr e D J, Selld en G, Zhu X Z, Brightman A (1991) Triacontanol stimulates NADH oxidase of soybean hypocotyl plasma membrane. Plant Sci. 79(1)31–36.
 22. Perveen S, Shahbaz M, Ashraf M (2010) Regulation in gas exchange and quantum yield of photosystem II (PSII) in salt-stressed and non-stressed wheat plants raised from seed treated with triacontanol. Pak. J. Bot. 42, 3073-3081.
 23. Shahbaz M, Noreen N, Perveen S, (2013) Triacontanol modulates photosynthesis and osmoprotectants in canola (*Brassica napus* L.) under saline stress. J. Plant Interact. 8(4), 350–359.
 24. Perveen S, Shahbaz M, Ashraf M (2012) Changes in mineral composition, uptake and use efficiency of salt stressed wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) plants raised from seed treated with triacontanol. Pak. J. Bot. 44, 27-35.
 25. Chen X, Yuan H, Chen R, Zhu L, He G (2003) Biochemical and photochemical changes in response to triacontanol in rice (*Oryza saliva* L.). Plant Growth Regul. 40(3), 249–256.
 26. Naeem M, Khan A, Masroor M, Moinuddin (2012) Triacontanol: A potent plant growth regulator in agriculture. Journal of Plant Interactions. 7(2), 129–142.
 27. Muthuchelian K, Murugan C, Nedunchezian N, Kulandaivelu G (1997) Photosynthesis and growth of *Erythrina variegata* as affected by water stress and triacontanol. Photosynthetica. 33(2), 241–248.
 28. Borowski E., Blamowski Z K (2009) The effects of triacontanol 'TRIA' and Asahi SL on the development and metabolic activity of sweet basil (*Ocimum basilicum* L.) plants treated with chilling. Folia Horticulturae 21, 39–48.
 29. Muthuchelian K, Bertamini M, Nedunchezian N (2001) Triacontanol can protect *Erythrina variegata* from cadmium toxicity. J. Plant Physiol. 158(11), 1487–1490.
 30. Asadi Karam E, Keramat B, Asrar Z, Mozafari H, (2016) Triacontanol-induced changes in growth, oxidative defense system in Coriander (*Coriandrum sativum*) under arsenic toxicity. Indian J. Plant Physiol. 21(2), 137–142.
 31. Akongwubel A O , Ewa U B, Prince A, Jude O, Martins A et al. (2012) Evaluation of Agronomic Performance of Maize (*Zea mays* L.) under Different Rates of Poultry Manure Application in an Ultisol of Obubra, Cross River State, Nigeria. Int. J. Agric. For. 2(4), 138–144.
 32. Aliu S, Gashi B, Rusinovci I, Fetahu S, Vataj R (2013) Effects of some heavy metals in some morpho-physiological parameters in maize seedlings. Am. J. Biochem. Biotechnol. 9(1), 27–33.
 33. Smith G S, Johnston C M, Cornforth I S (1983) Comparison of nutrient solutions for growth of plants in sand culture. New Phytol. 94(4), 537–548.
 34. Kitajima M, Butler W L (1975) Quenching of chlorophyll fluorescence and primary photochemistry in chloroplasts by dibromothymoquinone. BBA - Bioenerg. 376(1), 105–115.
 35. Chapman HD and Pratt PF. (1962) Methods of analysis for soils, plants and waters. Soil Science. 93 (1), 68.
 36. Heath RL and Packer L. (1968) Photoperoxidation in isolated chloroplasts. I. Kinetics and stoichiometry of fatty acid peroxidation. Arch. Biochem. Biophys. 125 (1), 189–198.
 37. Velikova V, Yordanov I, Edreva A, (2000) Oxidative stress and some antioxidant systems in acid rain-treated bean plants protective role of exogenous polyamines. Plant Sci. 151(1), 59–66.
 38. Hatano T, Kagawa H, Yasuhara T, Okuda T (1988) Two New Flavonoids and Other Constituents in Licorice Root Their Relative Astringency and Radical Scavenging Effects. Chem. Pharm. Bull. 36(6), 2090–2097.
 39. Kong F X, Hu W, Chao S Y, Sang W L, Wang L. S (1999) Physiological responses of the lichen

- Xanthoparmelia mexicana* to oxidative stress of SO₂. Environ. Exp. Bot. 42(3), 201–209.
40. Aebi H Catalase *in Vitro*. (1984) Methods Enzymol. 105(C), 121–126.
41. Shannon L X, Kay E, Lew J Y (1966) Peroxidase Isozymes from Horseradish Roots I. Isolation and physical properties.
42. Diallinas G, Pateraki I, Sanmartin M, Scossa A, Stilianou E et al. (1997) Melon ascorbate oxidase: Cloning of a multigene family, induction during fruit development and repression by wounding. Plant Mol. Biol. 34(5), 759–770.
43. Ali MB, Hahn EJ, Paek KY. (2005) Effects of light intensities on antioxidant enzymes and malondialdehyde content during short-term acclimatization on micropropagated Phalaenopsis plantlet. Environ. Exp. Bot. 54(2), 109–120.
44. Goldgerg D M, Spooner R J (1983) Glutathion reductase, in Methods of Enzymatic Analysis ,3rd,ed, pp. 258–265.
45. Trejo-Gonzalez A and Soto-Valdez H. (1991) Partial Characterization of Polyphenoloxidase Extracted from 'Anna' Apple. J. Amer. Socie. for Horti. Sci., 116 (4), 672-675.
46. Makkar HP, Blümmel M, Borowy NK, Becker K. (1993) Gravimetric determination of tannins and their correlations with chemical and protein precipitation methods. J. Sci. Food Agric. 61(2), 161–165.
47. Mukherjee SP and Choudhuri MA. (1983) Implications of water stress-induced changes in the levels of endogenous ascorbic acid and hydrogen peroxide in Vigna seedlings. Physiol. Plant. 58(2), 166–170.
48. Beutler E, Durgun O, Kelly BM. (1963) Improved method for the determination of blood glutathione. J. Lab. Clin. Med. 61, 882–888.
49. Yusuf M, Fariduddin Q, Hayat S, and Ahmad A. (2011) Nickel: An overview of uptake, essentiality and toxicity in plants. Bull. Environ. Contam. Toxicol. 86(1), 1–17.
50. Gomes-Junior RA, Moldes CA, Delite FS, Gratão PL, Mazzafera P *et al.* (2006) "Nickel elicits a fast antioxidant response in Coffea arabica cells. Plant Physiol. Biochem. 44(5–6), 420–429.
51. Soares C, de Sousa A, Pinto A, Azenha M, Teixeira JV *et al.* (2016) Effect of 24-epibrassinolide on ROS content, antioxidant system, lipid peroxidation and Ni uptake in *Solanum nigrum* L. under Ni stress. Environ. Exp. Bot. 122, 115–125.
52. Rizvi A and Khan MS. (2016) Heavy metal-mediated toxicity to maize: oxidative damage, antioxidant defence response and metal distribution in plant organs. Int. J. Environ. Sci. Technol. 16(8), 4873-4886.
53. Asadi Karam E, Maresca V, Sorbo S, Keramat B and Basile A. (2017) Effects of triacontanol on ascorbate-glutathione cycle in *Brassica napus* L. exposed to cadmium-induced oxidative stress. Ecotoxicol. Environ. Saf. 144, 268–274.
54. Gajewska E, Słaba M, Andrzejewska R, and Skłodowska M. (2006) Nickel-induced inhibition of wheat root growth is related to H₂O₂ production, but not to lipid peroxidation. Plant Growth Regul. 49(1), 95–103.
55. Gajewska E and Skłodowska M. (2008) Differential biochemical responses of wheat shoots and roots to nickel stress: Antioxidative reactions and proline accumulation. Plant Growth Regul. 54(2), 179–188.
56. Singh K and Pandey SN. (2011) Effect of nickel-stresses on uptake, pigments and antioxidative responses of water lettuce, *Pistia stratiotes* L. J. Environ. Biol. 32(3), 391–394.
57. González CI, Maine MA, Cazenave J, Hadad HR, Benavides MP. (2015) Ni accumulation and its effects on physiological and biochemical parameters of *Eichhornia crassipes*. Environ. Exp. Bot. 117, 20–27.
58. Ramani S and Kannan S. (1980) Effect of triacontanol on the absorption and transport of Rb⁺ and PO₄⁴⁻ in plants. Zeitschrift für Pflanzenphysiologie. 99(5), 427–433.
59. Shripathi V and Swamy GS. (1994) Effect of triacontanol on the lipid composition of cotton (*Gossypium hirsutum* L.) leaves and its interaction with indole-3-acetic acid and benzyladenine. Plant Growth Regul. 14(1), 45–50.

60. Gajewska E and Skłodowska M. (2007) Effect of nickel on ROS content and antioxidative enzyme activities in wheat leaves. *BioMetals*. 20(1), 27–36.
61. Madhava Rao KV and Sresty TV. (2000) Antioxidative parameters in the seedlings of pigeonpea (*Cajanus cajan* (L.) Millspaugh) in response to Zn and Ni stresses. *Plant Sci*. 157(1), 113–128.
62. Ali B, Hayat S, Fariduddin Q, Ahmad A. (2008) 24-Epibrassinolide protects against the stress generated by salinity and nickel in *Brassica juncea*. *Chemosphere*. 72(9), 1387–1392.
63. Boominathan R and Doran PM. (2002) Ni-induced oxidative stress in roots of the Ni hyperaccumulator, *Alyssum bertolonii*. *New Phytol*. 156(2), 205–215.
64. Gill SS and Tuteja N. (2010) Reactive oxygen species and antioxidant machinery in abiotic stress tolerance in crop plants. *Plant Physiology and Biochemistry*. 48(12), 909–930.
65. Hayat S, Hayat Q, Alyemeni MN, Wani AS, Pichtel J *et al.* (2012) Role of proline under changing environments: A review. *Plant Signaling and Behavior*. 7(11), 1456-1466.
66. Stanisavljević N, Savić J, Jovanović Ž, Miljuš-Djukić J, Radović S *et al.* (2012) Antioxidative-related enzyme activity in *Alyssum markgrafii* shoot cultures as affected by nickel level. *Acta Physiol. Plant*. 34(5), 1997–2006.
67. Kulbat K and Leszczyńska J. (2015) Biotechnology and Food Science Antioxidants as a defensive shield in thyme (*Thymus vulgaris* L.) grown on the soil contaminated with heavy metals.
68. Georgiadou EC, Kowalska E, Patla K, Kulbat K, Smolińska B, *et al.* (2018) Influence of heavy metals (Ni, Cu, and Zn) on nitro-oxidative stress responses, proteome regulation and allergen production in basil (*Ocimum basilicum* L.) plants. *Front. Plant Sci*. 9, 826.
69. Ibrahim M, Chee Kong Y, Mohd Zain N. (2017) Effect of Cadmium and Copper Exposure on Growth, Secondary Metabolites and Antioxidant Activity in the Medicinal Plant Sambung Nyawa (*Gynura procumbens* (Lour.) Merr). *Molecules*. 22(10), 1623.
70. Pignocchi C, Kiddle G, Hernández I, Foster SJ, Asensi A *et al.* (2006) Ascorbate oxidase-dependent changes in the redox state of the apoplast modulate gene transcript accumulation leading to modified hormone signaling and orchestration of defense processes in tobacco. *Plant Physiol.*, 141(2), 423–435.
71. Stevens R, Truffault V, Baldet P, and Gautier H. (2018) Ascorbate oxidase in plant growth, Development, and stress tolerance, in *Ascorbic Acid in Plant Growth, Development and Stress Tolerance*, Springer International Publishing, pp. 273–295.
72. Smirnoff N. (1996) The function and metabolism of ascorbic acid in plants. *Ann. Bot.* 78(6), 661–669.
73. Kato N and Esaka M. (2000) Expansion of transgenic tobacco protoplasts expressing pumpkin ascorbate oxidase is more rapid than that of wild-type protoplasts. *Planta*. 210(6), 1018–1022.
74. Li R, Xin S, Tao C, Jin X, and Li H. (2017) Cotton ascorbate oxidase promotes cell growth in cultured tobacco bright yellow-2 cells through generation of apoplast oxidation. *Int. J. Mol. Sci.* 18(7), 1346.