3-26-2007

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Reactive oxygen species, ABA and nitric oxide interactions on the germination of warm-season C₄-grasses

Gautam Sarath · Guichuan Hou · Lisa M. Baird · Robert B. Mitchell

Received: 5 February 2007 / Accepted: 19 March 2007 / Published online: 13 April 2007 © Springer-Verlag 2007

Abstract Hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) as a source of reactive oxygen species (ROS) significantly stimulated germination of switchgrass (Panicum virgatum L.) seeds with an optimal concentration of 20 mM at both 25 and 35°C. For non-dormant switchgrass seeds exhibiting different levels of germination, treatment with H₂O₂ resulted in rapid germination (<3 days) of all germinable seeds as compared to seeds placed on water. Exposure to 20 mM H₂O₂ elicited simultaneous growth of the root and shoot system, resulting in more uniform seedling development. Seeds of big bluestem (Andropogon gerardii Vitman) and indiangrass [Sorghastrum nutans (L.) Nash] also responded positively to H₂O₂ treatment, indicating the universality of the effect of H₂O₂ on seed germination in warm-season prairie grasses. For switchgrass seeds, abscisic acid (ABA) and the NADPH-oxidase inhibitor, diphenyleneiodonium (DPI) at 20 μM retarded germination (radicle emergence), stunted root growth and partially inhibited NADPH-oxidase activity in seeds. H₂O₂ reversed the inhibitory effects of DPI and ABA on germination and coleoptile elongation, but did not overcome DPI inhibition of root elongation. Treatment with H₂O₂ appeared to enhance endogenous production of nitric oxide, and a scavenger of nitric oxide abolished the peroxide-responsive stimulation of switchgrass seed germination. The activities and levels of several proteins changed earlier in seeds imbibed on H₂O₂ as compared to seeds maintained on water or on ABA. These data demonstrate that seed germination of warm-season grasses is significantly responsive to oxidative conditions and highlights the complex interplay between seed redox status, ABA, ROS and NO in this system.

Keywords ABA · Diphenyleneiodonium · Hydrogen peroxide · Nitric oxide · Reactive oxygen species · Seed germination · Switchgrass · Warm-season C₄ grasses

Abbreviations
AscPx Ascorbate peroxidase
DPI Diphenyleneiodonium
GPx Guaiacol peroxidase
DAF-FM 4-Amino-5-methylamino-2',7' dihydrofluorescein
difluorofluorescein
H₂DCFDA 2',7'-Dichlorodihydrofluorescein diacetate
MAT Methionine-adenosyl transferase
NBT Nitroblue tetrazolium
NO Nitric oxide
PTIO 2-Phenyl-4,4,5,5,-tetramethylimidazoline-1-oxyl 3-oxide
Px Hydrogen peroxide
Rboh Respiratory burst oxidases
ROS Reactive oxygen species

Introduction
Exogenously supplied donors of NO significantly enhanced germination and overcame residual dormancy in three
warm-season C\textsubscript{4} grass seeds (Sarath et al. 2006b). In a
response similar to barley (Hordeum vulgare L.) and
Arabidopsis seeds (Bethke et al. 2004, 2005) cyanide-
releasing compounds also stimulated germination of
switchgrass (Panicum virgatum L.) seeds. 2-Phenyl-
4,4,5,5,-tetramethylimidazoline-1-oxyl 3-oxide (PTIO), a
chemical scavenger of NO, blocked both the NO and cya-
nide-responsive stimulation of grass seed germination, indi-
cating that adequate levels of endogenous NO were
required for germination (Sarath et al. 2006b). For switch-
grass seeds, application of abscisic acid (ABA) signi-
ficantly retarded radicle elongation and essentially abolished
coleoptile growth. Simultaneous imbibition with external
donors of NO failed to overcome the inhibitory effects of
ABA, suggesting that ABA and NO targeted different parts
of the germination machinery (Sarath et al. 2006b).

An important link between ABA and NO action in plants
are reactive oxygen species (ROS) (Neill 2005; Bright et al.
2006) and plants appear to have redundancy in signaling
mechanisms for these molecules (Kwak et al. 2003; Apel
and Hirt 2004; Shi et al. 2005; Zago et al. 2006). Therefore,
cross-talk between different elicitation pathways could
result in identical biological outputs for different stimuli.
This is especially true for complex events such as plant
growth processes (Zhang et al. 2005; Torres and Dangl
2005) where the same signaling molecule elicits differential
responses in different tissues.

Whereas the cellular interactions between these small
regulatory molecules are not fully known, exogenously
supplied sources of ROS, such as hydrogen peroxide
(H\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{2}) can impact a wide variety of plant responses,
including seed germination and breaking of dormancy
(Ogawa and Iwabuchi 2001; Clerkx et al. 2004; Gechev
and Hille 2005). Plants have evolved several mechanisms
that control seed dormancy and germination (Koornneef
et al. 2002). For example, for physiological barriers to
embryo germination to be removed post-maturation
changes are frequently involved. These after-ripening pro-
cesses enhance the ability of a seed to germinate (Heggie
and Halliday 2005; Gubler et al. 2005). Although release
from dormancy favors germination, the germination
process is still affected by internal and external events
(Koornneef et al. 2002; Bethke et al. 2004).

The roles and interactions of plant hormones in imposing
seed dormancy and promoting seed germination have been
extensively studied in monocots and dicots (for example,
Studies from a number of systems reviewed by Gubler et al.
(2005) indicate that ABA levels in the seed are of overrid-
ing importance in the control of dormancy. As a seed exits
dormancy, ABA levels decrease, with concomitant
increases in other hormones such as GAs which promote
germination (also see Seo and Koshiba 2002; Heggie and
Halliday 2005). Plant hormones catalyze their cellular
actions through receptors. Subsequent interactions between
the receptors and their cognate proteins then drive signaling
cascades resulting in biological outputs. Additionally,
second messengers such as calcium, NO, ROS and G-pro-
teins are intrinsically linked to most hormone responsive
cellular processes (Lovegrove and Hooley 2000; Zentella
et al. 2002; Chen et al. 2004; Higuchi et al. 2004; Verslues
and Zhu 2005; Chiwocha et al. 2005; Okamoto et al. 2006;
Pandey et al. 2006).

In this study we evaluated the response of warm-season
grass seed germination to exogenously supplied H\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{2}
(source of ROS), ABA and their intersection with endoge-
nous NO. H\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{2} significantly enhanced germination at two
different temperatures and elicited a simultaneous develop-
ment of the seedling root and shoot system. ABA and the
NADPH-oxidase inhibitor, diphenyleneiodonium (DPI),
significantly inhibited seed germination. DPI in addition
strongly retarded root growth and seeds imbibed on DPI
had lowered levels of NADPH-oxidase activities. H\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{2}
substantially reversed the effects of ABA and DPI on seed
germination and seedling growth. A scavenger of NO par-
tially inhibited germination of switchgrass seeds and abol-
ished the stimulation in seed germination observed upon
peroxide treatment. We also assessed aleurome activation
status through analyses of hydrolytic enzymes and protein
markers known to accompany seedling growth. Levels of
\alpha-amylose and guaiacol peroxidase (GPx) increased sooner
and more dramatically in seeds imbibed on peroxide. Like-
wise, protein levels for ascorbate peroxidase (AscPx) and
methionine-adenosyl transferase (MAT) increased earlier
in seeds imbibed in the presence of 20 mM H\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{2}. Levels of
all of these proteins were significantly reduced by ABA.
Our results indicate that exogenous one-off hydrogen per-
oxide strongly stimulates seed germination in switchgrass
and appears to overcome endogenous/exogenous inhibition
modulated by ABA. Both H\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{2} and ABA appear to inter-
sect with NO production and NADPH-oxidases during the
germination process in switchgrass.

Materials and methods

Plant materials and germination assays

Panicum virgatum L. cv Kanlow seeds were obtained from
plants grown in the field at Mead, NE. Seeds were surface
sterilized and assayed for germination. For biochemical
analyses 0.20 g of seeds were used in duplicate. Plates were
sealed with parafilm and placed in temperature-controlled
incubators. Conditions for seed sterilization and germina-
tion were as described earlier (Sarath et al. 2006b), except
experiments were conducted at 35°C unless noted otherwise.
Seeds were considered as germinated when the radicle had protruded through the seed coat. All germination experiments were repeated thrice and data were analyzed from this pooled set. Statistical analyses for analysis of variance (ANOVA) were performed using the statistical routines available in Microsoft Excel. Critical values of the $t$-distribution were obtained from published tables (Steel and Torrie 1982). Seeds of big bluestem (*Andropogon gerardii* Vitman) and indiangrass (*Sorghastrum nutans* (L.) Nash) were surface-sterilized using bleach and germinated and counted as described above. Root and coleoptile lengths when measured were performed 6 days post-imbibition using a dissecting microscope and a plastic scale with mm markings. Root and coleoptile lengths were measured from the tip to the seed and rounded to the nearest mm.

Any direct degradation of ABA by peroxide was monitored by incubating ABA in a solution of $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ for a period of 4 days in the incubator used for seed germination assays. Triplicate aliquots corresponding to approximately 30 ng ABA were removed daily, dried and analyzed as its silylated derivatives using $\text{N},\text{O}$-bis-(trimethylsilyl)trifluoroacetamide and trimethylchlorosilane using manufacturer recommended protocols (Pierce Chemical Company; Rockford, IL). Gas chromatography-mass spectrometry analyses were performed as described by Sarath et al. (2006a). We did not observe a loss of ABA (inferred from peak heights) even when the ratio of ABA to peroxide was increased from 1:1,000 (conditions of assay) to 1:1,00,000 (data not shown). Based on these observations it is unlikely that peroxide contributed to a direct chemical degradation of ABA within the conditions of our assay.

**Confocal microscopy**

Seeds were imbibed on filter papers wetted with the indicated solutions containing 2.5 $\mu$g ml$^{-1}$ of 4-amino-5-methylamino-2',7' difluorofluorescein diacetate (DAF-FM) a specific cell permeable probe for NO (for example, Sarath et al. 2006b). Seeds from different experimental groups were examined and imaged with an Olympus confocal laser scanning microscope (FluView500, Olympus, USA). The confocal settings including laser power were maintained the same during the period of imaging. Several seeds were imaged from each treatment, and fluorescence in the green channel (fluorescein) and in the red channel (Cy 3; autofluorescence) and the merged images were obtained. At least ten seeds were viewed for each treatment and the experiment repeated thrice. Representative images are shown.

**Seed extraction and enzyme assays**

Germinating seeds were harvested 2 days after imbibition, frozen on dry-ice and stored at $-20^\circ\text{C}$ until analyzed. This time point was chosen to detect changes, if any, in enzymes and proteins known to accompany seed germination and seedling development. We anticipated obtaining data that would indicate relative aleurone activity in switchgrass seeds as a response to treatments.

Seeds (0.2 g) were ground to a fine powder with liquid nitrogen in a mortar and pestle, weighed and transferred to 2 ml tubes and kept on ice. One milliliter of cold ($4^\circ\text{C}$) 10 mM Na-phosphate buffer, pH 6.0 was added to each tube and the contents were mixed and sonicated using a microtip for 15 s (Branson Digital Sonifier 250D, VWR Corp). Homogenates were clarified by centrifugation at 13,400 rpm for 15 min at $4^\circ\text{C}$ in a refrigerated microcentrifuge (MicroGPR, Thermo Electron Corp). Clarified extracts were used for all subsequent analyses. Initial experiments with desalted or non-desalted extracts did not show any differences in enzyme activities; and centrifuged crude homogenates were used in all subsequent analyses. Soluble protein was quantitated by the BCA assay (Pierce Chemical Co) using bovine serum albumin as a standard. Non-specific peroxidases were assayed at pH 6.0 in phosphate buffer essentially according to Córdoba-Pedregosa et al. (2003), and GPx activity was calculated using an extinction coefficient of 26.6 mM$^{-1}$ cm$^{-1}$. Alpha-amylase was assayed using the Megazyme kit (Megazyme International Ltd., Ireland) except the protocol was adapted as follows: aliquots of seed homogenates were diluted with an equal amount of 2× assay buffer (Megazyme kit) and “activated” by incubation at 37°C for 30 min. Five microliter aliquots of “activated” extracts were assayed in triplicate in a total volume of 20 $\mu$l that contained 5 $\mu$l of amylase substrate, 5 $\mu$l of 4× assay buffer and 5 $\mu$l of water for a total time of 5 min. Reactions were stopped by adding 230 $\mu$l of 1× stop solution (Megazyme kit) and the absorbance measured at 410 nm. Enzyme activity was calculated using an extinction coefficient of 17.4 mM$^{-1}$ cm$^{-1}$. Absorbance measurements were performed using a Spectramax Plus plate reader (Molecular Devices, Sunnyvale, CA, USA). NADPH-oxidases were assayed essentially according to Van Gestel et al. (1997) using nitroblue tetrazolium (NBT) and NADPH. Crude seed homogenates (0.2 ml) were precipitated with acetone (9:1 acetone:homogenate) at $-20^\circ\text{C}$ for 15 min. Precipitated proteins were recovered by centrifugation at 14,000×g for 10 min at $4^\circ\text{C}$. Protein pellets were resuspended in buffer (50 mM Tris–Cl, 0.1 mM MgCl$_2$, 0.25 M Suc, 0.1% Triton-X-100, pH 8.0) and used to assay for NADPH-oxidases. Oxidase activities were calculated from the difference in NBT reduction using an extinction coefficient of 12.8 mM$^{-1}$ cm$^{-1}$ in the absence or presence of 50 U ml$^{-1}$ superoxide dismutase (bovine erythrocytes, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA).

All assays were routinely done in triplicate and the germination experiments repeated at least thrice.
For switchgrass seeds, published colorimetric methods for determining tissue peroxide levels (Park et al. 2004; Cheeseman 2006) were unsuccessful primarily due to a high background arising from extractable components that interfered with these assays. Attempts to clean extracts by passage through normal or C-18 reverse phase matrices conditioned with phosphate buffer containing 5 mM KCN (Cheeseman 2006) were also unsuccessful. Indirect estimation of total ROS produced in switchgrass seeds using the fluorescent dye DFCDA, either after uptake by seeds or after base-catalyzed removal of acetate esters were inconsistent. A problem noticed during these studies was significant quenching of fluorescence by even trace levels of free peroxide/and or extractables present in switchgrass seeds. We therefore did not ascertain the actual levels of peroxide present in switchgrass seeds during germination or in response to the different chemical treatments. However, the bulk of our results presented below would suggest that endogenous levels of ROS are important during switchgrass seed germination.

Immunoblotting

For immunoblotting, aliquots containing approximately 20 μg protein were separated by SDS-PAGE using 12% gels (Laemmli 1970). Duplicate gels were stained with Coomassie blue to confirm equal loading (data not shown). Proteins were transferred to nitrocellulose membranes using a semidy transfer apparatus in 10 mM CAPS-NaOH, pH 11.0 containing 8% (v/v) methanol. Membranes were probed with antibodies raised to plant proteins and antigen-antibody complexes were detected by chemiluminescence (Xiang et al. 2002). Sources of antigens were as follows: AscPx (soybean root nodules, rabbit; Dalton et al. 1993), MAT [peptide antibody based on C-terminal of Arabidopsis thaliana MAT-3 protein, accession number: gi 15450421, sequence (C)DPDFTWEVKPLKWDKPQA-AMIDE, rabbit], and PPDK (recombinant maize leaf, rabbit, generous gift from Dr Chris Chastain, Morehead State University, MN). All other chemicals were reagent grade or better and obtained from commercial sources. Initial experiments did not reveal any apparent changes in the level of PPDK protein between the experimental treatments 2 days post-imbibition, and these antibodies were used as a control to verify equal transfer of proteins separated by gel electrophoresis.

Results

ROS strongly stimulates switchgrass seed germination

Switchgrass seeds incubated at 35°C on water exhibited about 50% germination after 2 days, and were essentially fully germinated after 4 days (73.4%) (Fig. 1a). Imbibing seeds on various concentrations of H2O2 induced a pronounced stimulation in germination with an apparent concentration threshold of about 10 mM. Both 10 and 20 mM peroxide treatment elicited a significant increase in seed germination at all time points tested as compared to water controls (Fig. 1a). In contrast to seeds maintained on water, seeds imbibed on 20 mM peroxide exhibited almost 88% of full germination after only 2 days of imbibition (74.1% on day 2 vs 84.3% on day 6). Treatment with H2O2 concentrations

![Fig. 1 Reactive oxygen species strongly promotes switchgrass seed germination. Seeds were germinated at 35°C (a) or at 25°C (b) under continuous light on filter paper wet with water, or the indicated concentrations of hydrogen peroxide (Px). Germination as determined by radicle emergence was recorded every 2 days as indicated. Data were pooled from three different experiments and analyzed. Each experiment was conducted with duplicate plates. In panel a, bars with different numbers of asterisks were significantly different at P < 0.05 as compared to water controls. In panel b, bars with different numbers of asterisks were significantly different at P < 0.05. LSD0.05 are indicated for each experiment.](image)
of up to 60 mM did not produce a significant negative effect on switchgrass seed germination (not shown). Imbibing seeds on 1 mM H₂O₂ showed an initial inhibition of germination after 2 days, but was otherwise similar to seeds maintained on water (Fig. 1a).

Peroxide treatment (20 mM) at 25°C resulted in a significant enhancement in switchgrass seed germination after 2 days as compared to water controls (Fig. 1b). Germination after 2 days of imbibition on peroxide was equal to germination on water after 4 days, 50.1% vs 49.6% respectively. Percent germination in seeds imbibed on 20 mM peroxide at 25°C continued to be significantly greater across all days as compared to water controls (Fig. 1b). At both temperatures tested, 20 mM H₂O₂ resulted in a near simultaneous development of the coleoptile along with the root.

ROS accelerates seed germination in other warm-season grasses

We evaluated the responses of seeds from two other warm-season grasses, big bluestem (A. gerardii Vitman.) and indiangrass [S. nutans (L.) Nash] to peroxide treatment. Data for each species was analyzed separately and are shown in Table 1. Seed germination in both species was significantly stimulated by H₂O₂ at 35°C. However, the concentrations of H₂O₂ required to elicit maximal response were different for the two species. For big bluestem, all concentrations of peroxide tested significantly accelerated germination as compared to seeds maintained on water. For seeds maintained on 20 mM or 40 mM H₂O₂, the percent germination 2 days post-imbibition on was essentially equal to the percent germination for seeds maintained on water for 7 days (46.1 and 45.7% vs 47.4% respectively). At 60 mM H₂O₂ germination after 2 days was greater than twofold as compared to water controls (62.6% vs 27.3% respectively). Highest germination was observed for big bluestem seeds maintained on 60 mM H₂O₂ for 7 days.

For indiangrass, imbibition on 20 mM H₂O₂ caused the most rapid germination and by day 2 the percent germination was already significantly greater than those observed for seeds maintained on water for 7 days (59.3% vs 46.1% respectively) (Table 1). With increasing concentrations of peroxide, seed germination rates declined, and at 60 mM H₂O₂, germination was essentially similar to water controls (Table 1). Indiangrass seeds imbibed on 40 mM H₂O₂ exhibited an intermediate level of germination as compared to seeds maintained on 20 or 60 mM H₂O₂.

Inhibitory effects of ABA and DPI on switchgrass seed germination are reversed by ROS

Earlier studies had shown that ABA significantly retarded switchgrass seed germination and essentially abolished coleoptile elongation at 25°C. External compounds that generated NO did not appreciably reverse the inhibitory effects of ABA (Sarath et al. 2006b), suggesting that ABA was affecting processes both upstream and downstream of NO action. To more fully understand these relationships, switchgrass seed germination and early seedling growth were monitored in the presence or absence of ABA, H₂O₂ and an inhibitor of NADPH oxidases, DPI.

Germination data as scored by radicle emergence and coleoptile emergence were analyzed independently of each other and are shown in Table 2. Treatment with 20 mM H₂O₂ significantly stimulated switchgrass seed germination 2 days post-imbibition as compared to water controls (56.2% vs 31.6% respectively). Both 20 μM DPI and 20 μM ABA significantly retarded radicle emergence after 2 days as compared to seeds maintained on water or on H₂O₂ (Table 2). Over the next 4 days about 66% of seeds maintained on water had germinated, as compared to 83.5% germination for seeds maintained on H₂O₂ and 44.3 and 51.7% for seeds maintained on DPI and ABA respectively. In marked contrast, imbibing switchgrass seeds on filter paper wet with solutions containing either DPI or ABA and H₂O₂ resulted in a significant reversal of the inhibitory effects observed in the presence of these compounds alone. Co-treatment with H₂O₂ + DPI resulted in germination percentages which were essentially similar to seeds that were maintained on H₂O₂ alone. For seeds imbibed on solutions

### Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Species</th>
<th>Percent radicle emergence</th>
<th>Days after imbibition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Big bluestem</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water</td>
<td>27.3 a</td>
<td>40.3 b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 mM H₂O₂</td>
<td>46.1 b</td>
<td>62.3 c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 mM H₂O₂</td>
<td>47.9 b</td>
<td>70.4 cd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60 mM H₂O₂</td>
<td>62.6 cd</td>
<td>77.5 d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LSD₀.₀₅</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indiangrass</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water</td>
<td>27.2 a</td>
<td>42.5 b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 mM H₂O₂</td>
<td>59.3 d</td>
<td>71.1 e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 mM H₂O₂</td>
<td>45.3 bc</td>
<td>64.4 d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60 mM H₂O₂</td>
<td>29.6 a bc</td>
<td>44.1 b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LSD₀.₀₅</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data are the means of three experiments with duplicate plates. Germination data were analyzed separately for each species across all days, and values followed by a different letter were significantly different at *P* < 0.05 within each species. LSD₀.₀₅ values are indicated for each dataset.
Negative effects of DPI and ABA on switchgrass seed germination are reversed by H$_2$O$_2$. Seeds were germinated in the light at 35°C and radicle and coleoptile emergence score 2 and 6 days after imbibition.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Treatment</th>
<th>Percent emergence</th>
<th>Days after imbibition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Radicle</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water</td>
<td>31.6 a</td>
<td>65.7 d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 mM H$_2$O$_2$</td>
<td>56.2 b</td>
<td>83.5 c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 μM DPI</td>
<td>19.1 c</td>
<td>44.3 f</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 μM ABA</td>
<td>17.9 e</td>
<td>51.7 b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 μM DPI + 20 mM H$_2$O$_2$</td>
<td>63.2 d</td>
<td>78.8 e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 μM ABA + 20 mM H$_2$O$_2$</td>
<td>54.9 b</td>
<td>71.2 g</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LSD$_{0.05}$ = 5.69</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Coleoptile (percent of germinated seeds)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Treatment</th>
<th>Percent emergence</th>
<th>Days after imbibition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Water</td>
<td>15.8 a</td>
<td>79.3 f</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 mM H$_2$O$_2$</td>
<td>45.2 b</td>
<td>86.1 g</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 μM DPI</td>
<td>17.9 a</td>
<td>84.4 gh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 μM ABA</td>
<td>0.0 c</td>
<td>41.2 e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 μM DPI + 20 mM H$_2$O$_2$</td>
<td>6.7 d</td>
<td>81.3 fh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 μM ABA + 20 mM H$_2$O$_2$</td>
<td>38.4 e</td>
<td>69.6 i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LSD$_{0.05}$ = 3.14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data are the means of three different experiments containing duplicate or triplicate plates. Radicle and coleoptile emergence data were analyzed independent of each other and across all days. Values followed by different letters are significantly different at $P < 0.05$ for each parameter analyzed. LSD$_{0.05}$ values are indicated for each dataset.

Seeds with visible roots and coleoptiles obtained from experiments shown in Table 2, were used to evaluate coleoptile and root growth as influenced by the imbibition conditions. Seeds maintained on water exhibited the longest primary roots, which were significantly different than those for the other treatments (Fig. 2a). Imbibing switchgrass seeds on H$_2$O$_2$ caused a moderate inhibition in primary root elongation. ABA induced a more profound change in root elongation relative to root lengths for seeds imbibed on water. DPI essentially abolished root growth in the time frame of the experiment (approximately 12% of water controls). We did observe new lateral growth in seeds treated with DPI after about 5–6 days, but these roots were too small to measure.
Primary root growth inhibition induced by ABA was reversed by co-treatment with \( \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \), however peroxide was without effect when supplied along with DPI (Fig. 2a).

Switchgrass seeds imibed on 20 mM \( \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \) had longer coleoptiles as compared to water controls (Fig. 2b). ABA treatment induced a drastic reduction in coleoptile length (approximately 32% of seeds imibed on \( \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \) alone). DPI treatment resulted in a smaller, but significant reduction in coleoptile length. For seeds germinated with ABA + \( \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \), coleoptile lengths were twofold greater as compared to seeds germinated on ABA alone (12.3 mm vs 6.1 mm). Coleoptile lengths were reduced for seeds imibed on DPI alone or in combination with \( \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \) as compared to seeds maintained on water or on \( \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \) by itself (15.1 and 15.7 mm vs 17.0 and 18.7 mm respectively) (Fig. 2b).

The NO scavenger PTIO inhibits ROS-induced stimulation of switchgrass seed germination

Previously it was shown that germination of warm-season grass seeds was stimulated by exogenous sources capable of generating NO, and this stimulation was blocked by the NO scavenger, PTIO (Sarath et al. 2006b). Since peroxide induced a marked stimulation of switchgrass seed germination, we studied the interaction between the NO scavenger, PTIO and \( \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \) on seed germination. This experiment was conducted at 25°C.

Imbibing switchgrass seeds on 20 mM \( \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \) significantly stimulated germination relative to all the other treatments over the 6 days of the experiment at 25°C (Fig. 3). After 6 days approximately 82% of all seeds maintained on peroxide had germinated, as compared to 62% for seeds imibed on water. PTIO by itself significantly inhibited germination after 2 days as compared to water controls (23.7% vs 33.6% for PTIO and water respectively) and was then without apparent effect (Fig. 3). However, when seeds were imibed on filter paper wet with both PTIO and \( \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \), there was an inhibition in seed germination relative to the germination of seeds maintained on \( \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \) by itself; although the percent germination was significantly enhanced over water and PTIO treatments across all 6 days of the experiment (Fig. 3). After 2 days, PTIO in the presence of peroxide had reduced germination by 18% as compared to seeds maintained on peroxide alone. This inhibition of switchgrass seed germination by PTIO in the presence of \( \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \) was significant even after 6 days (Fig. 3).

NO is produced in seeds imibed on \( \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \)

The results obtained with PTIO and \( \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \) (Fig. 3), and the reversal by \( \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \) of ABA-induced inhibition of switchgrass seed germination indicated that NO was a potential common denominator in these reactions. Previous studies had shown that endogenous NO is produced by germinating switchgrass seeds (Sarath et al. 2006b).

As expected, signal due to endogenous NO was detected in germinating seeds across all treatments (Fig. 4a–d), although the relative signal appeared to be weaker in seeds imibed on ABA alone (Fig. 4b). Fluorescent signal intensity was enhanced in seeds imibed on ABA and \( \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \) together (Fig. 4d). Hand sections of seeds indicated that the fluorescent signal was largely present in the aleurone layer (Fig. 4e). Green fluorescence was not observed for seeds imibed in the absence of DAF-FM, however strong autofluorescence was seen at the chalazal end of the seeds (yellow color, arrow, Fig. 4d). Experiments to detect fluorescence were repeated at least thrice as were hand sectioning of germinating seeds. A representative image for each treatment is shown. Results were essentially identical for each trial.

Onset of hydrolytic activities and increase in specific proteins is hastened by ROS

Our data indicated a significant promotive effect of ROS on grass seed germination and the ability of peroxide to reverse ABA-induced inhibition of germination. Since endogenous NO was produced in seeds maintained on
ABA (Sarath et al. 2006b) with or without H₂O₂ (Fig. 4), we explored some biochemical changes occurring in switchgrass seeds 2 days post-imbibition to obtain an estimate of aleurone activation and seedling metabolism affected by the treatments. We did not attempt to dissect embryos and aleurone layers from these small seeds and the data represent proteins present in the aleurone, embryo and endosperm combined.

Guaiacol peroxidase activity was present in dry seeds and increased several-fold with time in all treatments. Seeds imbibed on water displayed an approximately sixfold increase in peroxidase activity. ABA treatment reduced GPx activity approximately 30% as compared to water controls. Seeds imbibed on peroxide or peroxide + ABA displayed an approximately eightfold greater activation in GPx levels as compared to seeds at the start of imbibition (Fig. 5a).

Trace levels of α-amylase present in dry seeds increased gradually in seeds maintained on water, with an approximately threefold increase over 2 days (0.05 nmol min⁻¹ mg⁻¹ protein vs 0.14 nmol min⁻¹ mg⁻¹ protein). For seeds imbibed on ABA, there was a more modest increase in α-amylase activity relative to dry seeds; this value was approximately 50% less compared to seeds imbibed on water alone (0.07 nmol min⁻¹ mg⁻¹ protein vs 0.14 nmol min⁻¹ mg⁻¹ protein, respectively). In the presence of 20 mM H₂O₂, the increase in α-amylase was more dramatic. By 2 days post-imbibition activity level were fivefold greater than that observed in seeds at the start of imbibition (day 0), and approximately 71% greater than for water controls. In seeds maintained on ABA + H₂O₂, levels of α-amylase were greater than in seeds maintained on ABA alone, but less than those imbibed on peroxide alone (Fig. 5b).

After 2 days post-imbibition, levels of MAT and AscPx protein were greater in extracts from seeds maintained on peroxide as compared to seeds imbibed on water. ABA abolished increases in the levels of these two proteins. For seed maintained on ABA and peroxide, the levels of AscPx and MAT were similar to those observed for seeds maintained on peroxide alone (Fig. 5c). As a blotting control, we used antibodies to PPDK. There was no apparent difference in the amount of signal for this protein between the experimental treatments (Fig. 5c) indicating approximate equal transfer in the different lanes. Protein loads were also verified by staining duplicate gels with Coomassie blue (data not shown).
NADPH-oxidases are inhibited by DPI

Among the potential sources of endogenous ROS in seeds are NADPH-oxidases, which utilize molecular oxygen and NADPH to produce superoxide anions, which can then participate in the formation of other ROS (Torres and Dangl 2005). After 2 days of imbibition on different solutions, activities of putative NADPH-oxidases were enhanced by treatment with H$_2$O$_2$ (Px; $\sim$55%) and decreased in seeds imbibed on DPI ($\sim$30%) relative to seeds maintained on water (Fig. 6). Seeds imbibed in the presence of ABA possessed NADPH-oxidase activities similar to water controls. Addition of H$_2$O$_2$ to ABA and DPI enhanced NADPH-oxidase activities relative to imbibition of seeds on ABA or DPI alone, but were not as high as that observed for seeds imbibed on H$_2$O$_2$ by itself.

Discussion

Our data (Fig. 1; Tables 1 and 2) show that treatment with H$_2$O$_2$ as an exogenous source of ROS significantly promotes seed germination in several warm-season C$_4$-grasses such as switchgrass, big bluestem and indiangrass. Treating seeds with H$_2$O$_2$ has been shown to promote germination in several other species, including zinnia (Zinnia elegans L.).
What has not been explored in warm-season grasses is the relationship between \( \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \), NO and ABA during seed germination. For switchgrass seeds, ABA inhibited germination and exogenous NO was unable to overcome ABA effects on seed germination, suggesting that NO responsive cascades could be effectively blocked by ABA (Sarath et al. 2006b). Negative effects of ABA were more pronounced on coleoptile growth as compared to radicle emergence, underscoring the differential hormonal responses of the young seedling tissues. In contrast, imbibition on peroxide resulted in the simultaneous development of the seedling shoot and root system (Table 2), and imbibition of switchgrass seeds on ABA + \( \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \) resulted in a significant enhancement in shoot and root growth as compared to seeds maintained on ABA alone. These data demonstrated that for switchgrass seeds, addition of \( \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \) could largely overcome the negative effects of ABA, possibly by swamp ing ABA-dependent signaling, as has been suggested for barley (Wang et al. 1998).

Conceivably, exogenous peroxide could act through several different routes in significantly promoting switchgrass seed germination. These are: (1) through interactions with existing ROS mediated GA/ABA/NO dependent signaling cascades (Beligni et al. 2002; Kwak et al. 2003; Malolepsza and Rozalska 2005; Bright et al. 2006; Pandey et al. 2006); (2) by oxidative destruction of germination inhibitors (Ogawa and Iwabuchi 2001) and enhanced oxygenation of tissues (for example, Wang et al. 1998); or (3) by a combination of ABA dependent and ABA-independent mechanisms.

The known effects of NO, ABA and gibberellic acid on switchgrass seed germination (Zarnstorff et al. 1994; Loch et al. 2004; Sarath et al. 2006b) and processes such as after-ripening and cold-stratification that impact endogenous ABA levels in other species and prime seeds for germination (Loch et al. 2004; Gubler et al. 2005), would strongly favor a hormonal basis for controlling seed dormancy and germination in switchgrass. These results would suggest that non-ABA-related germination inhibitors are unlikely to be present in switchgrass, as has been suggested for Zinnia (Ogawa and Iwabuchi 2001). Furthermore, the switchgrass seeds used for our current experiments were after-ripened and extensively cold-stratified, and would be expected to be suitably primed for germination. In fact germination on water approached nearly 70\% (for example, Fig. 1). In the absence of a significant direct degradation of ABA by \( \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \) in-vitro, especially in the first 48 h, the ability of \( \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \) to overcome ABA inhibition suggests that peroxide is acting on ABA-responsive mechanisms and potentially on other signaling pathways. Although our current data do not discriminate between these pathways, future experiments using dissected embryos and aleurone tissues could provide detailed insights into switchgrass seed signaling cascades.

The strong positive germination response to \( \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \) indicated the potential for ROS involvement during switchgrass seed germination. Interestingly, DPI an inhibitor of NADPH-oxidases (Foreman et al. 2003) inhibited switchgrass seed germination and root growth (Table 2), but not coleoptile growth (Fig. 2a, b). This compound is known to block root development in Arabidopsis (Foreman et al. 2003) through inhibition of a specific NADPH-oxidase (AtRboh-C).

Simultaneous application of \( \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \) overcame the inhibition of germination by DPI, but not its effect on root elongation, indicating the potential involvement of switchgrass Rbohs during root elongation in switchgrass as well. These data also provided further proof that \( \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \) is probably not acting on an endogenous chemical inhibitor of seed germination, but more likely through hormone-responsive processes. Since DPI can inhibit flavin-containing enzymes (Foreman et al. 2003), it is possible that proteins other than NADPH-oxidases are also targets for DPI inhibition. However, our data on NADPH-oxidase activity and endogenous ROS levels suggests a role for oxidative signaling during switchgrass seed germination and highlights the fact that exogenous peroxide is able to override parts of the pathway influenced by ABA and DPI potentially acting through oxidative signaling arising from NADPH-oxidases.

Peroxide treatment markedly enhanced the levels of GPx, \( \alpha \)-amylase activities and MAT and AscPx proteins during early stages of germination of switchgrass seeds. Increase in hydrolytic activities accompanies seed germination, and increases in \( \alpha \)-amylase is a classical indicator of aleurone activation in grass seeds (for example, Loch et al. 2004; Gubler et al. 2005) MAT is required for generating \( s \)-adenosyl methionine, a key metabolite required for growth processes and for the formation of ethylene. In Arabidopsis, methionine synthase and MAT protein and activity are enhanced during seed germination (Gallardo et al. 2002). That MAT protein is upregulated in switchgrass seeds treated with \( \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \) is also in concordance with the scheme presented by Zago et al. (2006) for tobacco (Nicotiana tabacum L.). In tobacco, both NO and \( \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \) apparently act on a combination of signaling pathways including ethylene synthesis via \( s \)-adenosylmethionine (Zago et al. 2006). For AscPx, peroxide treatment caused an earlier appearance of this protein as compared to the water controls. Interestingly, ABA treatment abolished the appearance of AscPx in concert with its inhibition of coleoptile development. Ascorbate metabolism and its importance to redox regulation in plant tissues is well established (Smirnoff et al. 2001). Levels of AscPx are high in metabolically active
tissues, and increase during seed germination (Tommasi et al. 2001). Our results indicated that MAT and AscPx proteins appear to be markers for seedling development and seedling vigor in switchgrass.

The relative inhibition by PTIO of H$_2$O$_2$-stimulated germination (Fig. 3) was similar in trend to that observed for switchgrass seeds imbibed on PTIO and NO donors (Sarath et al. 2006b) suggesting that residual dormancy in after-ripened switchgrass seeds is indeed more directly responsive to NO rather than other stimuli, as has been shown for Arabidopsis and barley (Bethke et al. 2004).

Based on our data presented previously (Sarath et al. 2006b) and in this manuscript, we propose the following model integrating information obtained with warm-season grass seeds (Fig. 7). In this model, exogenous ABA and DPI block germination potentially through the involvement of ROS and NO (broken arrows with question marks). Both ABA and DPI have been shown to interact with ROS, Rbohs and NO in other plants (Foreman et al. 2003; Torrey and Dangl 2005; Bright et al. 2006; Zago et al. 2006) and in switchgrass (this study).

Application of mM levels of external H$_2$O$_2$ stimulated seed germination and overcame the inhibitory effects of ABA and DPI. Similarly, external sources of NO or CN$^-$ promoted germination in switchgrass (Sarath et al. 2006b). That PTIO blocked both H$_2$O$_2$ and NO/CN donor-induced increases in germination (Sarath et al. 2006b; Fig. 3) suggests that NO could be a common denominator (broken arrow and question mark in Fig. 7). How a switchgrass seed senses NO levels and how much NO is needed for seed germination is unknown. However, our data so far suggests that cellular NO level is likely to be a key indicator of germinability of switchgrass seeds.

**Fig. 7** A model integrating the observed effects of ABA, DPI, hydrogen peroxide (ROS) and nitric oxide during germination of switchgrass seeds. The rationale for the model is explained in Sect. "Discussion". Rboh, ROS generating NADPH-oxidases; ABA by itself is able to block pro-germinative cascades. Finally, external peroxide is able to overcome both DPI and ABA induced arrest of warm-season grass seed germination.

**Acknowledgments** We thank Nathan Palmer, Ashley Hejny, Nicholas Anderson, and Cynthia Larsen for technical assistance. Mention of trade names or commercial products in this publication is solely for the purpose of providing specific information and does not imply recommendation or endorsement by the U.S. Department of Agriculture.

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