

Chapter 6 System Biology of Metal Tolerance in Plants: An Integrated View of Genomics, Transcriptomics, Metabolomics, and Phenomics

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6.1 Introduction

For the successful plant life, mineral elements absorption by roots from rhizosphere is indispensable. The water and mineral uptake are, therefore, major drivers in developmental plasticity and physiological activities in plant systems. In the process of mineral and nutrient absorption, heavy metals (HMs) can also be taken up and make their way to plant tissues. Some metals are functional in very small amounts for various biochemical and physiological activities such as photosynthesis, chlorophyll biosynthesis, DNA synthesis, sugar metabolism, redox reactions, and protein modifications. Some are toxic to plants in excess amounts, while others are toxic even in traces (Garzón et al. 2011; Shahid et al. 2012; Gill et al. 2013). The toxic metals are cadmium, lead, aluminum, zinc, cobalt, arsenic, chromium, nickel, copper, iron, and molybdenum (Sharma and Agrawal 2005; Hossain and Komatsu 2013; Noman and Ageel 2017; Noman et al. 2018a).

Many heavy metals naturally occur at various levels in the earth's crust, but their excess amounts are released into the environment mainly by anthropogenic activities (Singh et al. 2011a, b; Khalid et al. 2018a, b). Heavy metal release from industries, mines, vehicle emissions and municipal wastes have contaminated outsized areas with HMs (Yang et al. 2005). Plants growing in these areas of localized high metal ions concentrations get exposed to HMs (Khalid et al. 2018e). The HMs

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toxicity in plants alters physiological activities and cause activation of plant's defense systems and other adaptations. In response to the harmful impacts of heavy metals, plants keep HM utilization and uptake under control (Singh et al. 2012; Farias et al. 2013). The common HM toxicity symptoms in plants include chlorosis, senescence, stunted growth, low biomass accumulation, poor yield, and sometimes even death (Vassilev et al. 2005; Malar et al. 2016; Khalid et al. 2017, 2018c). In addition to having toxic effects on plants, they also pose a great threat to human health. For example, cadmium is principal human carcinogen (ATSDR 2015; Luckett et al. 2012).

Abiotic stresses have markedly reduced the crop production throughout the world (Jewell et al. 2010; Noman et al. 2018a, b). To ensure food security for everincreasing human population, improvement in plant adaptations under various abiotic stresses is very essential to understand. Productivity of our major food crops is expected to decrease in the next decade due to increased occurrence of floods, storm, drought, and global warming. Hence, for improving crop production quality and quantity, set of modern technologies are required to unravel the plants responses to abiotic stresses especially HMs. Measuring the expression of genes in HM stress conditions in tolerant plant species can give better insight in understanding the mechanisms these plants follow to curtail the toxicity of metals. Recent advances in various biotechnology approaches made possible to understand plant's responses to heavy metal stress (Lowe et al. 2017). Current studies mainly focus on various approaches which take into consideration the role of metabolomics (metabolites), transcriptomics (RNA transcripts), genes (genomics), and phenotypes (phenomics) to address the heavy metal stress in plants (Fig. 6.1). The data gathered in this chapter will aid in increased understanding to heavy metal stress tolerance and can be employed in engineering programs using desired traits for developing new plants especially HMs tolerant crops.

6.2 Plant Responses to Heavy Metal Stress

Being sessile, plants are the most sensitive victims of the unwanted changes in the environment. The most known plants response to heavy metal toxicity is reduced growth. Heavy metal toxicity triggers a series of biochemical and physiological perturbations in the plants. Toxic metal ions interrupt the normal metabolic activities in several ways. The metal ions are similar in structure with other nutrient cations. Hence, they compete with other cations at root absorptive surfaces. Due to this similarity and competition, they also quench essential cations inside vital biomolecules making them inactive. This interaction culminates in the destruction of functional proteins after displacing their sulfhydryl groups (-SH). Another important consequence of HMs toxicity is the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS), that have detrimental effects on biomolecules leading to disrupted metabolism (Sharma and Dietz 2009; DalCorso et al. 2013).



Fig. 6.1 Omics approaches used for identification of stress response regulatory genes in plants

To cope with the negative impacts of HM toxicity, plants use different approaches. Plants respond to toxicity by early sensing of external metal stress ending at intracellular signal transduction. Then by modulating molecular, biochemical, and physiological activities inside the cell, plants counteract the adversaries of heavy metal toxicity. For their defense, plants facing toxicity reduce or prevent metal ions uptake by restricting them to the apoplast in root cell walls. However, if the metal ions somewhat make their way to the cytoplasm, then plants adapt other detoxification and storage strategies to get rid of noxious metal ions, for example, sequestration into the vacuole, chelation, or their trafficking and transport (Manara 2012). Hence, plants can react in several ways to survive by sensing the external stress signals. But after exposure to metal toxicity, it is very difficult to measure changes in signal transduction at the whole plant level; however, responses of plants to toxic effects caused by metals can be monitored at earlier stages. The responses which can be measured at early stages to sense the signal transduction in plants include metabolites accumulation, proteomic changes, compromised efficiency of transcription factors, and the accumulation of ROS.

The toxic effects of various HMs on plants have been reported by many researchers. For example, Singh et al. (2011a, b) and Mohamed (2011) have reported the effects of lead (Pb) toxicity in *Brassica campestris* and *Vigna sinensis*. The high Pb levels retarded the radical emergence through increased carbohydrates and protein contents. Thus, it badly affected the activities of enzymes, that is, β -amylases, α -amylases, phosphatases, and invertases in *B. campestris* and caused alterations in the genome of *V. sinensis*. Similarly, high arsenic (As) levels can lead to severe metabolic disorders, for example, disruption of respiratory and photosynthetic systems, secondary metabolism stimulation, and growth inhibition (Garg and Singla 2011). Stoeva et al. (2004) recorded reduced CO₂ fixation and hampered PSII functional activity as a consequence of As toxicity in young maize plants. In another study, six varieties of *Triticum aestivum* were exposed to increased concentrations of As (III) and As (V). Significant reduction in seedling roots production was recorded along with reduced grain yield in all varieties (Liu et al. 2005).

High concentrations of copper (Cu) in the soil induce stress and cause cytotoxicity and injury in plants. This could lead to leaf chlorosis and growth retardation (Lewis et al. 2001). Interestingly, Copper toxicity has been noticed to increase the activities of all antioxidant enzymes, for example, peroxidase (POD), superoxide dismutase (SOD), and ascorbate peroxidase (APX) in the roots and shoots of *Zea mays* (Tanyolac et al. 2007; Kumar et al. 2008), and *Oryza sativa* (Chen et al. 2000; Thounaojam et al. 2012). In wheat, at mitotic telophase, chromosomal aberrations were attributed to high Cu content (Truta et al. 2013). Atha et al. (2012) reported damaged DNA structure due to excess Cu quantities in *Lolium perenne* and *Raphanus sativus*. However, each crop response varies differently to Cu toxicity. It chiefly depends upon cultivar used and the nature of crop (Adrees et al. 2015). Similarly, in plant exposed to increased quantities of antioxidant enzymes, that is, catalase (CAT), ascorbate peroxidase (APX), glutathione reductase (GR), and superoxide dismutase (SOD) have been reported by researchers (Ahmad et al. 2011; Arshad et al. 2016). Ali et al. (2014) reported reduced photosynthetic pigments and growth, while ROS, malondialdehyde content, and antioxidant enzymes were increased in *Brassica napus* due to Cd toxicity.

Roots are the first organs of plants that face HMs presence in the soil. Roots absorb water along with nutrients from the soil and transport them to the entire body of the plant under normal conditions. However, their normal function alters when they encounter higher concentrations of toxic metal elements in the soil. In such conditions, roots have to undergo various functional and structural modifications (Noman et al. 2017b). For example, alteration of membrane characteristics and metabolism, hardening of cell wall, certain cellular, molecular, and phenotypic changes and root growth inhibition (Atkinson and Urwin 2012). Some plants are able to accumulate HMs inside vacuoles in root cells rendering their inactivation. Whereas, other plants translocate and concentrate heavy metal ions in shoot system, for example, in hyperaccumulator plants (Noman et al. 2014, 2017b). Reduction in mitotic activity of roots after exposure to toxicity of HMs has been recorded by researchers in many plant species. The consequences abridged mitotic divisions are reduced cell division and elongation and ultimately suppressed root growth (Sundaramoorthy et al. 2010; Thounaojam et al. 2012).

Among all the heavy metals, chromium (Cr) is particularly toxic for the plant roots as its higher concentrations occur in roots as compared to the other plant parts (Kumar and Maiti 2013). The defense strategy of plant roots against Cr toxicity is to immobilize and accumulate Cr ions inside the vacuole and this is the proposed reason for high Cr accumulation in root cells (Nematshahi et al. 2012). Inhibition of root cell elongation and cell division has been attributed to Cr toxicity (Shanker et al. 2005). Likewise, Srivastava and Jain (2011) also recorded extended cell cycle due to the presence of toxic level of Cr inside the root cells. Furthermore, reduced root length in *Helianthus annuus* due to Cr toxicity has also been credited to cell cycle extension (Fozia et al. 2008). Absorption of water and minerals are severely curtailed by restricted root length. Consequently, shoot length and overall plant growth and vigor is also brutally affected. Likewise, the findings of Yuan et al. (2013) and Petö et al. (2011) held copper (Cu)-mediated toxicity responsible for the inhibition of primary root elongation due to induced alterations in the auxin level.

Membranes are the most vulnerable targets of HM attack. Commonly, the degree of stress tolerance is measured by the extent of membrane damage (Gadallah 1999). To protect the cells from injurious effects of HMs and other unwanted substances, certain checkpoints are located on the plasma membranes that are highly controlled. Damaged membranes can cause unbalanced and abrupt water and nutrients uptake. This may lead to decline in stomatal conductance and consequently lowered photosynthetic rate. Reduced transpiration intensity in oat plants due to As-mediated stress was considered to be a consequence of disturbed transport and uptake of water (Stoeva and Bineva 2003). Singh et al. (2006) also reported reduction in membrane stability when they were evaluating the effect of As on membrane conductivity of *Pteris ensiformis* and *Pteris vittata*. Vazquez et al. (2008) also confirmed the membrane damage in mung bean treated with As. Increased amounts of malondialdehyde

along with electrolytes leakage were found in the root cells of mung bean. Similarly, nickel (Ni) has reportedly been involved in inducing cell membrane damage in different plant species. In *Oryza sativa*, Ni toxicity badly affected the H-ATPase activity and lipid composition of plasma membrane (Ros et al. 1992). Excess ROS production due to high iron (Fe) concentrations ultimately cause irreversible damage to cell membrane, cellular structure, proteins, DNA and other vital biomolecules (de Dorlodot et al. 2005).

6.3 Hyperaccumulator Plants and Heavy Metals Up Take

Hyperaccumulator plants take up and accumulate extraordinary quantities of toxic substances in their shoot system during normal growth and reproduction. These plants do not exhibit any phytotoxic effects in spite of concentrating toxic heavy metals (Khalid et al. 2018d). The hyperaccumulator plants share common ability to grow on metal contaminated soils and fall in different families. However, in comparison with non-hyperaccumulators, all of the hyperaccumulator plants proceed with three basic steps in concentrating metal elements inside their bodies, that is, (1) high rate of HMs uptake, (2) faster translocation to the shoots, and (3) detoxification through sequestration in above ground parts. Comparative studies regarding molecular and physiological aspects of hyperaccumulating plants revealed upregulation and overexpression of trans-membrane transporters, for example, HMA, ZIP, YSL, MTP, and MATE families encoding genes in hyperaccumulators (Arbaoui et al. 2014). Hence, the overexpression of these genes is directly proportional to augmented metals uptake, their xylem-based translocation, ability to make phytochelatinheavy metal complexes, and their final sequestration in the vacuoles (Hossain et al. 2012). Keeping the above facts in view, it has been demonstrated by molecular, genetic, and biotechnological tools that plant's tolerance to HMs can be altered significantly. The three key steps of heavy metal accumulation shown by hyperaccumulators have been given in the following;

6.3.1 Heavy Metal Uptake and Role of Transporters

Many factors regulate the uptake of metal ions from the soil, for example, the metal availability, soil aeration, soil moisture, pH, and temperature. Hence, heavy metal accumulation is not simple increase in concentrations inside the plant against increasing concentrations in the environment. Similarly, microorganisms and root exudates also influence the HMs availability and mobility patterns in the soil (Wenzel et al. 2003). Some metals like Cd are more mobile in the soil as compared to the other; hence, they are taken up swiftly (Spence et al. 2014). Root proliferation system also influences the uptake of heavy metals (Whiting et al. 2000). Nevertheless,

the rate of metal uptake by plants can be estimated by using biological accumulation factor (BAF) under a known set of environmental conditions:

$$BAF = \frac{The concentration of heavy metal in the plant}{The concentration of heavy metal in the soil}$$

To avoid metal ions uptake, plants secrete various organic substances through the roots into the soil. These root secretions act as first line of defense and prevent metal uptake into the cell by chelating the metal ions (Marschner 1995). For nutrients and metal ions uptake from the soil, plants possess highly specialized transport systems (Fig. 6.2). These transport systems involve different mechanisms to carry metal ions. Most of the HMs move via highly evolved co-transporters and metal pumps on the cell membrane of root cells (Pilon et al. 2009). These transporters are the membrane proteins present at the organ, tissue or at the whole plant level. The intracellular metal ions transport is controlled by a set of these proteins located across the cell membrane, tonoplast, and other subcellular membrane bounded organelles (Krämer et al. 2007; Maestri et al. 2010). On the other hand, some of the HMs like Cd and Pb are very toxic even in traces. Also, these heavy metals do not take part in any of the specialized biological functions in plants. For this reason, it is assumed that these do not have any specific transporters present on cell membrane for their



Fig. 6.2 Heavy metal uptake and transport in plants through various metal transporters on plasma membrane

movement. For cellular entry, these toxic metal ions move through wide range of transporters. The most common transporters involved in HM transport belong to ZIP family, NRAMP, CDF, and P1B-ATPases (Guerinot 2000; Williams et al. 2000; Takahashi et al. 2012). Overexpressing genes for these transporters have been noticed in hyperaccumulator plants. Notably, their expression does not have any harmful impact on physiological homeostasis in plants, but instead they confer enhanced heavy metal tolerance (Curie et al. 2000; Verret et al. 2004). In hyperaccumulator plants, expression of zinc-iron permease (ZIP) genes coding for cell membrane cation transporters have been observed irrespective of high Zn availability in the soil (Weber et al. 2004). Contrarily, in non-hyperaccumulator plants, their expression is highly dependent on soil Zn availability. Only detectable fraction of these transporters can be seen under Zn deficiency (Assunção et al. 2010). In Zn hyperaccumulator plant, Thlaspi caerulescens, genes coding for Zn transporters express all the times irrespective the Zn status of soil. Therefore, this elucidates the great ability of T. caerulescens's to accumulate high amount of Zn (Pence et al. 2000). ZIP expression in plants is directly associated with capacity to accumulate metal ions and they play vital role in enhanced metal accumulation capacity of hyperaccumulator plants (Krämer et al. 2007). In roots of N. caerulescens, constitutive, high expression of NcZNT1 indicates its involvement in root-to-shoot long distance transport by maintaining Zn and Cd influx for xylem loading (Lin et al. 2016).

Overexpression of *IRT1* in the root cells of *Arabidopsis thaliana* against iron (Fe) deficiency in the soil proves the role of *IRT1* in the uptake of Fe from the soil (Vert et al. 2002). Several other heavy metal transporters are present on the cell membrane, for example, in hyperaccumulator plant *Anemone halleri*, *AtHMA4* is involved in hyperaccumulation and root-to-shoot translocation of Cd and Zn (Hanikenne et al. 2008). In *Noccae acaerulescens* ecotypes, the difference in the expression of *NcHMA3* and *NcHMA4* is involved in rendering Cd tolerance (Ueno et al. 2011; Craciun et al. 2012).

NRAMP is another class of cell membrane-bound metal transporters involved in the transport of different metal ions (e.g., Ni, Cd, Zn, Mn, and Co). These transporters are localized on the tonoplast and the cell membrane of root and shoot cells (Nevo and Nelson 2006). OsNRAMP1 is known to transport Fe through endodermis and pericycle cell membranes in rice. Expression of OsNRAMP1 greatly increased the Cd and As tolerance in roots and shoots of Arabidopsis thaliana (Tiwari et al. 2014). Arsenic (As) enters the cell through phosphate transporters since it is proved to be analogous to phosphate in chemical structure (Meharg and Hartley-Whitaker 2002; Kanoun-Boulé et al. 2009). Different phosphate/arsenate transporters are present on hyperaccumulator plant Pteris vittata as compared to Pteris tremula, a non-hyperaccumulator (Caille et al. 2005). Similarly, Galeas et al. (2007) attributed much higher concentrations of Selenium (Se) and Sulfur (S) in Se hyperaccumulator plants Stanley apinnata and Astragalus bisulcatus as compared to nonhyperaccumulators. This helps us to build opinion that the sulfate transporters in the cell membrane of roots are involved in Se uptake due to structural similarity between the two elements.

6.3.2 Heavy Metals Translocation from Root to Shoot

Non-hyperaccumulator plants retain most of the HMs in their root cells either by storing them in the vacuole or by detoxifying them in the cytoplasm. Conversely, hyperaccumulator plants readily translocate heavy metals to the shoot cells through vascular system (Fig. 6.2). For this process, different root-based chelators have been identified in hyperaccumulators. The chelators translocate heavy metals by binding with them. Organic acids (e.g., citrate, malate) and certain amino acids (e.g., methionine, nicotinamine, histidine) act as chelators and make complexes by binding with the metal ions (Callahan et al. 2006; Anwer et al. 2017). For example, free histidine transports Ni through xylem by making His-Ni complex. The high quantity of histidine in Ni hyperaccumulating plant Thlaspic aerulescens have also been reported by Assunção et al. (2003). Various transporter proteins are also involved in the translocation of metals via xylem; for example, P-type ATPases, cation diffusion facilitator proteins (CDF), multidrug and toxin efflux proteins (MATE), natural resistanceassociated macrophage proteins (NRAMP), and zinc-iron permease (ZIP) proteins. Among P-type ATPases, P1B-type ATPases proteins are particularly important as they play role in metal tolerance, homeostasis and transport (Axelsen and Palmgren 1998a, b). Genes encoding for mentioned protein types such as HMA4 overexpress in A. halleri and T. caerulescens (Mils et al. 2003; Talke et al. 2006; Hanikenne et al. 2008). Similarly, overexpression of AtHMA4 proteins increased translocation of Cd and Zn from root to shoot. Moreover, they also enhance plant tolerance to these metals (Verret et al. 2004). The expression of AtHMA4 has also been known to positively influence other genes involved in HMs translocation. However, in another study, Zhang et al. (2016) reported high expression of HMA2 in roots of Cd hyperaccumulator plant Sedum alfredii as compared to this plant's non-hyperaccumulating populations. Interestingly, they did not find the expression of HMA4. Overexpression of AtHMA5 has also been correlated to copper (Cu) detoxification and root-shoot transport (Andrés-Colás et al. 2006). Genes encoding for MATE family of protein transporters are FDR3. The role of FDR3 inside root cells is citrate transport (a ligand for Fe homeostasis) via xylem. The overexpression of these genes was also recorded in the roots of A. halleri and T. caerulescens (Talke et al. 2006; van de Mortel et al. 2006). The overexpression of FDR3 suggests its probable role in other heavy metals translocation (Durrett et al. 2007; Krämer et al. 2007). Similarly, in YSL family of proteins, ZmYS1 (maize Yellow Stripe 1 protein) transporters are involved in the translocation of Mn, Ni, Zn, Fe, Cu, and Cd (Schaaf et al. 2004).

6.3.3 Heavy Metal Detoxification/Sequestration

After translocation to shoots, cytosolic metal ions concentrations become so high that can cause phytotoxicity. To alleviate the detrimental effects of metal toxicity, plants either compartmentalize metals inside the cell or accumulate them in the vacuole. Hyperaccumulators have great efficiency to detoxify/sequester heavy metals. This key property enables them to concentrate and tolerate high quantities of toxic metals in their aerial parts without showing phytotoxic effects.

In detoxification and sequestration as well, Various intracellular transporters take part in detoxification and sequestration of HMs, for example ABC, NRAMP, CDF, CaCA, and HMA (Fig. 6.2). Exploration of miRNA targets such as ABC or NRAMP transporters have displayed their direct function in metal tolerance pathways (Noman and Ageel 2017). Two families - Multidrug Resistance associated Proteins (MRP) and Pleiotropic Drug Resistance proteins (PDR) - of ABC transporters play crucial role in sequestering and transporting of chelated metals and xenobiotics inside the vacuole. Additionally, HMT1 transporters are present in the tonoplast and transport PC-Cd (phytochelatin-cadmium) complexes (Ortiz et al. 1995; Kuriakose and Prasad 2008). In Zn/Ni hyperaccumulator plant leaves, the overexpression of MTP1 gene has been reported. MTP1 gene encodes for a protein which is localized to tonoplast and have role in increasing accumulation and tolerance of Zn (Hammond et al. 2006; Dräger et al. 2004; Gustin et al. 2009). After excess Zn transportation to the vacuole, Zn deficiency may occur inside the cytosol leading to the enhanced expression of ZIP transporters in the root cells of hyperaccumulators (Gustin et al. 2009). CDF transporters are found in many eukaryotes. They are known to transport metal cation, for example, Cd, Ni, Fe, Mn, Co, and Zn from cytoplasm to the apoplast, vacuole, and endoplasmic reticulum (Krämer et al. 2007; Montanini et al. 2007; Peiter et al. 2007). AtHMA3 overexpression induced tolerance against heavy metals, for example, Zn, Pb, Cd, and Co in hyperaccumulators through storage of these metals in the vacuole (Morel et al. 2009a, b). Furthermore, CaCA and NRAMP transporters are also present on the tonoplast and play role in the transport of metals from cytosol to the vacuole.

6.4 Detoxification of Heavy Metals, ROS Production, and Antioxidant Defense System

Reactive oxygen species (ROS), that is, OH^- , O_2^- , H_2O_2 , are excited and partially reduced forms of oxygen. These are highly reactive and unstable components (Halliwell and Gutteridge 2007) produced inside the organelles during different cellular metabolic processes (Noman et al. 2014). These are byproduct of aerobic metabolism and mostly produced in plant cell organelles experiencing high electron flow or showing high oxidizing metabolic activities. For example, mitochondria, chloroplast, and peroxisomes are the principle sites for ROS production (Apel and Hirt 2004; Mittler et al. 2004; Mhamdi et al. 2010). However, their production increases many folds after plants exposure to heavy metals. Incremented ROS production is commonly considered as the primary plant response to metal and other abiotic stresses (Mittler et al. 2011; Ali et al. 2016; Ahmad et al. 2017). ROS are known to cause oxidative stress whenever they are in excess amount inside the cell (Sharma and Dietz 2009). They react with and damage the structure of essential macromolecules, for example, lipids, proteins, DNA, RNA, and many other important biomolecules (Mittler 2002; Valko et al. 2006). The intensity of damage toward different molecules is different depending upon the type of ROS. Besides having toxic effects inside the cellular organelles, ROS also acts as signaling molecules for the regulation of many crucial physiological processes, for example, stomatal movement, cell differentiation, growth, and root hair growth (Kwak et al. 2006; Tsukagoshi et al. 2010). ROS are highly versatile as signaling molecules, and show diverse properties depending upon the sites of production, their reactivity, and potential to cross the cell membrane (Konig et al. 2012; Vaahtera et al. 2014). They regulate stress signaling, systemic responses, redox levels, development, differentiation, and cell death (Mittler et al. 2011; Mignolet-Spruyt et al. 2016). Many complex processes are involved in regulating the fate of ROS whether to act as damaging element or the signaling one.

Besides being important signaling molecules of metal stress, ROS cause lipid peroxidation thus lead to damaged cell membrane. The excessive membrane destruction can culminate in cell death (Foyer and Noctor 2005; Zaheer et al. 2015; Mittler 2017). According to studies, plant tissues generate ROS from 1 to 2% of their total oxygen intake (Bhattachrjee 2005). High levels of superoxide and H_2O_2 inside the chloroplasts during heavy metal stress are the result of reduced CO₂ fixation (Takahashi and Murata 2008). As a result of reduced electron transport, ROS is also produced in mitochondria (Keunen et al. 2011). In chloroplast, reduced PS II efficiency and uncoupling of electron transport can be a result of HMs toxicity after replacement of Mn and Ca in the reaction center of PS II (Faller et al. 2005; Krantev et al. 2008). Similarly, Cd-inhibited electron flow in PS I could be the reason for the ROS generation. In photorespiration, the oxidation of glycolate to glyoxylic acid also produces H_2O_2 (Mittler et al. 2004). It is also produced in leaf peroxisomes due to HM stress (Romero-Puertas et al. 2004). O_2^{-} and H_2O_2 are also produced by enzymes activities, for example, peroxidases are associated with cell wall and cell membrane-bound NADPH oxidases (Mhamdi et al. 2010). The hydroxyl radicals are formed by the action of free iron due to its role in Fenton reaction (Vaahtera et al. 2014; Mignolet-Spruyt et al. 2016).

Despite the extreme toxic effects of ROS to plants, some plants are found to be tolerant to the high levels of ROS. How plants can survive in high ROS concentrations? From the studies on hyperaccumulator plants, it has been determined that several factors in these plants contribute in resistance to ROS. These factors include several physio-biochemical adaptations, low ROS production, and ROS scavenging. Thus, the production of ROS is balanced by the scavenging mechanism by activating cellular antioxidant defense system (Das and Roychoudhury 2016; Zafar et al. 2016). The two processes are always running parallel in the plant cell, that is, the production of ROS as a byproduct of aerobic metabolism and removal of ROS by antioxidative defense system. Under normal conditions, plants keep an appropriate balance between ROS production and its quenching (Noman et al. 2017c, d).

Exposure to toxic levels of heavy metals can disturb the balance between ROS production and quenching. Thus, intracellular ROS levels rapidly increase (Sharma et al. 2010; Mishra et al. 2011). Plants stimulate the overexpression of antioxidant defense in order to prevent adversaries caused by ROS.

The components of antioxidant defense system may be enzymatic or nonenzymatic (Arshad et al. 2016; Noman and Ageel 2017). The enzymatic components of antioxidant defense system are ascorbate peroxidase (APX), superoxide dismutase (SOD), and catalase (CAT), monodehydroascorbate reductase (MDHAR), dehydro ascorbate reductase (DHAR), glutathione peroxidase (GPX), glutathione reductase (GR) and glutathione-S-transferase (GST) (Zafar et al. 2016). The nonenzymatic components are glutathione, ascorbate, tocopherols, proline, and carotenoids (Apel and Hirt 2004; Sharma and Dietz 2009; Noman et al. 2014). The level of cellular antioxidants is generally related to increased or decreased stress levels. The ROS concentration at an appropriate level encourages plant growth by developing resistance against stressors. Plants keep the ROS concentration in control by directing the expression of a cascade of signaling pathways and several genes (Neill et al. 2002; Noman et al. 2017e). Considering the role of antioxidants in mitigating the oxidative stress by managing ROS levels, biosynthetic pathway genes for maintaining the appropriate ROS level in organisms/transgenic plants showing increased levels of antioxidants has been given in the Table 6.1.

CAT has high specificity for scavenging H_2O_2 . However, its activity for organic peroxides is not very strong. H_2O_2 are mainly produced in peroxisomes during β-oxidation of fatty acids, photorespiratory oxidation, and other systems during stressed conditions (Del Río et al. 2006; Corpas et al. 2008). CAT degrades H₂O₂ in a very energy efficient manner (Mallick and Mohn 2000). From Brassica juncea, overexpression of genes for CAT were introduced into tobacco plants rendering them Cd stress tolerant (Guan et al. 2009). The CAT scavenges H_2O_2 very rapidly but its affinity for H₂O₂ is lower than that of APX. In managing metal stress, APX may have a more important role in ROS scavenging. Increased APX expression in plants facing HM toxicity has been reported by many studies (Khan et al. 2007; Malar et al. 2014; Carneiro et al. 2017). Overproduction of APX stimulates the SOD activity, thus improving the tolerance by strengthening the ROS scavenging (Sarowar et al. 2005). In transgenic plants, the overproduction of APX improves the tolerance to heavy metal stress. Similarly, SOD is found in many subcellular compartments and catalyzes the removal of O₂, H₂O₂, and O₂⁻. SOD overproduction in plants is related to increased oxidative stress tolerance. Zaefyzadeh et al. (2009) reported that SOD level can be used as a selection standard to screen stress resistant plants. All of the antioxidants are involved in alleviating the heavy metal stress in plants. ROS-based overexpression of antioxidant defense system has been reported by several studies (Ovečka and Takáč 2014; Sytar et al. 2013; Barrameda-Medina et al. 2014; Bashri and Prasad 2015).

Table 6.1	Expression of genes	of enzymatic and/or non	enzymatic antioxidant	s in plants and their role in transgenic plants against heavy r	netal stress tolerance
Sr. No.	Transgenic organism	Source plant	Gene(s)	Functional response	References
	Arabidopsis thaliana	Allium sativum/ Saccharomyces	AsPCS1/GSH1	As and Cd tolerance by high production of glutathione and phytochelatin	Guo et al. (2008)
		Nicotiana tabacum	NtPox parB	Provide protection against oxidative stress and Al toxicity	Ezaki et al. (2001)
			NtPox parB AtPox	Provide protection against oxidative stress and Al toxicity	Ezaki et al. (2000)
		Synechocystis PCC 6803	GPX-2	Fe tolerance along with tolerance to H ₂ O ₂ , MV, chilling, and drought stresses	Gaber et al. (2006)
5	Brassica juncea	Arabidopsis	APSI	Se tolerance caused by its quick reduction	Pilon-Smits et al. (1999)
		Bacterial	cytGR/cpGR	Cause reduced accumulation of Cd and increase GR activity	Pilon-Smits et al. (2000)
		Escherichia coli	gshII	Enhances Cd tolerance by increasing thiols, phytochelatins, and glutathione concentrations in transgenic plants	Zhu et al. (1999)
3	Brassica napus	Triticum aestivum	MnSOD	Imparts Al tolerance by showing greater activity of SOD	Basu et al. (2001)
4	Escherichia coli	Anabaena sp. PCC7120	PCS	Enhances Cu and Cd tolerance by increasing the production of phytochelatins	Chaurasia et al. (2008)
		Anabaena sp. PCC7120	Alkyl hydroperoxide reductase	Enhances Cu and Cd tolerance by increased H ₂ O ₂ and reactive sulfur species scavenging	Mishra et al. (2009)
		Brassica rapa	GR	Tolerance to Al, Cd, and Zn by enhancing GR activity	Kim et al., (2009)
		Oryza sativa	DHAR	Imparts tolerance toward heavy metals and oxidative stresses	Shin et al. (2008)
		Thlaspi goesingense	Serine acetyltransferase	Tolerance to Co and Ni by overexpressing glutathione	Freeman et al. (2005)
		Nicotiana tabacum	Mn SOD + APX	Enhance tolerance to As, Cd, Cu, and H ₂ O ₂ , reduce chlorophyll degradation, ion leakage, and increase APX activity	Lee et al. (2007)

(continued)

Table 6.	1 (continued)				
Sr. No.	Transgenic organism	Source plant	Gene(s)	Functional response	References
5	Hebeloma cylindrosporum	Paxillus involutus	MTI	Tolerance to Cd and Cu	Bellion et al. (2007)
6	Nicotiana tabacum	Arabidopsis	MDHAR/DHAR	Tolerance to Al by regulating level of ascorbate	Yin et al. (2010)
		Arabidopsis	PCs	Increases Cd tolerance and regulates its root-to-shoot transport	Pomponi et al. (2006)
		Brassica juncea	CAT3	Increases Cd tolerance, roots and seedling growth	Gichner et al. (2004)
		Brassica juncea	CAT	Induces to lerance to Cd and Zn by lowering H_2O_2 level and increasing CAT activity	Guan et al. (2009)
		Escherichia coli	DHAR/GR/GST	Enhance heavy metal tolerance by maintaining level of glutathione and ascorbate	Le Martret et al. (2011)
		Mus musculus	MTI	Increases Hg tolerance and its accumulation	Ruiz et al. (2011)
		Thlaspi caerulescens	TcPCSI	Increase Cd tolerance by enhancing CAT, SOD, and POD activities and by reducing lipid peroxidation	Liu et al. (2011)
		Trichoderma virens	GST	Enhance Cd tolerance by reducing its uptake, Increase APX, CAT, SOD, GST, and GPX activities	Dixit et al. (2011)
		Methanothermobacter thermoautotrophicum	MTH1745	Increase Hg tolerance by enhancing POD and SOD activity, induce high photosynthesis	Chen et al. (2012)

6.5 Heavy Metal Stress and Plant Signaling

The intracellular responses of plants to HMs are a result of functioning of intricate signaling networks to transmit the stimuli from the outside of the cell. Certain biochemical and molecular mechanisms are regulated by the plants as a response to HMs stress in the environment. A large number of signal transduction units work in this regard by making up a signal transduction network. Several signaling cascades work in this regard; they regulate several defense-related genes by perceiving the signals from the receptors at upstream and transmitting them to the nucleus. These signals perceiving receptors in stress conditions have been studied by researchers, for example, *EF-Tu* receptor (*EFR*), protein kinases (*RLKs*), *ERECTA* (ER), and ethylene resistance1/2 (*ETR1/2*) etc. (Sinha et al. 2011; Jalmi and Sinha 2015). In HM stress conditions, hormones signaling, calcium signaling, and MAPK signaling are the major signaling networks. To counteract the HM stress with a network of signaling pathways, metal binding and transporting proteins are synthesized (Peng and Gong 2014).

There are several calcium-sensing proteins which take part in calcium signaling such as CaM like proteins (CMLs), Ca²⁺-dependent protein kinases (CDPKs), calmodulins (CaMs), and calcineurin B-like proteins (CBLs) (Steinhorst and Kudla 2014). Transmitting a signal in response to environmental heavy metal stress, CDPKs and MAPK work together (Opdenakker et al. 2012). According to a report, Ca plays a role in plants under high Pb stress causing cell death and during this process, CDPK kinases trigger the activity of MAPKs through CDPK-mediated pathway (Huang and Huang 2008).

Different plant hormones are also involved in HM stress responses via hormone signaling (Chen et al. 2014). These plant hormones, for example, auxin, gibberellins, ethylene, cytokinin, etc. help the plants in tolerating the HM stress by remodeling the root system. Auxin homeostasis directly influences the plant responses under HM stress (Potters et al. 2007). AUX1 and PIN2 genes are responsible for basipetal transport of auxin via outer cell layers in roots (Rashotte et al. 2000). Similarly, PIN1 is involved in the inhibition of primary roots elongation by redistributing auxin under Cu toxicity (Yuan and Huang 2016). Expression of auxin-related genes such as Gretchen Hagen (GH3) genes, CYP79B2, CYP79B3, Phosphoribosyl Anthranilate Transferase 1 (PAT1), ABCB family, and PIN family is related to HM stress in plants (Wang et al. 2016). In Cd toxicity, lateral root growth is promoted by an increase in the IAA concentration; the process is controlled by NITRILASE (NIT) biosynthetic gene thus trying to protect the plant from toxic Cd (Vitti et al. 2013). Cytokinins and ethylene also appear in plants when they want to overcome the adverse effects of HMs. For example, Piotrowska-Niczyporuk et al. (2012) reported that Cd destroyed the chloroplast membranes and inhibited the photosynthetic pigments in green alga Chlorella vulgaris; however, application of cytokinin restored the primary metabolite level and increased photosynthetic activity. Ethylene induces Al tolerance in plants by regulating the malate ions efflux using ET8 (Yu et al. 2016).

6.6 Biotechnological Approaches for Improving Plant System Biology Against Metal Stress

6.6.1 Genomics

6.6.1.1 Plant Gene Expression in Response to Heavy Metals

Understanding the plant responses to HMs stress is imperative for improving crop productivity. Specific structural genes maintain the function of cellular components that lead to metal stress tolerance. Therefore, identification, validation, and characterization of genes associated with HM stress is very important. Most of the plant molecular responses against metal stress can be a result of changes in gene expression. Generally, plant stress-responsive genes can be categorized as early responsive genes and delayed responsive genes. The early responsive genes are quickly activated but for a short time. Contrarily, the delayed responsive genes are induced gradually with long-lasting expression. Transcription factors (TFs) which are involved in downstream delayed responses are encoded by early responsive genes. This utilizes signaling components of the cell and no new metabolites are synthesized in the process. Of note, most of the stress-responsive genes are encoded by delayed responsive genes which are expressed as a result of complex regulation.

Predominantly, different researchers have elaborated the effects of heavy metal stress on plant genome, that is, Arabidopsis thaliana (Wintz et al. 2003; Weber et al. 2004; Yamasaki et al. 2007; Jagadeeswaran et al. 2014). Although A. thaliana does not have strong tolerance toward the metal stress, however, comparison of its genome with that of heavy metal tolerant or hyperaccumulator plants can be interesting. Thlaspi caerulescens is a hyperaccumulator model plant species for genomics, proteomics, transcriptomics, and metabolomics technologies as it is well able to grow and thrive in soils contaminated with Cd, Pb, Ni, and Zn (Assunção et al. 2003). Comparison between the genomes of A. thaliana and T. caerulescens display remarkable differences in gene expression (van de Mortel et al. 2006). Over 2200 genes in roots were differentially expressed in T. caerulescens and A. thaliana. Similarly, using Affymetrix arrays, Hammond et al. (2006) reported 5000 differentially expressed genes in the shoots of T. caerulescens as compared with nonhyperaccumulating plant species T. arvense. In both of these studies, the overexpression of genes in T. caerulescens was related to metal transport, compartmentalization and homeostasis. The more interesting part was non-induction/ expression of these genes in non-adapted plants.

The heavy metal ATPase (*HMA*) genes family in plants is associated with metal absorption, transport and resistance. *HMAs* can be classified into two major subgroups based upon metal substrate specificity, that is, the Zn/Co/Cd/Pb P_{1B} -ATPase group and Cu/Ag P_{1B} -ATPase group (Axelsen and Palmgren 1998a, b). Eight members of P_{1B} -ATPases have been identified in *A. thaliana* (Williams and Mills 2005). Some members of P_{1B} -type ATPases has also been identified in *Arabidopsis halleri*, *T. caerulescens*, wheat, and barley (Deng et al. 2013). Li et al. (2015a) observed differential expression of various *HMA* genes in different tissues against Ag, Cu,

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Cd, Zn, Pb, Co, and Mn toxicity in *Populus trichocarpa*. Tissue-specified actions revealed upregulation of *HMA*1 and *HMA*4 genes in leaves. Whereas, *HMA*5.1 and *HMA*8 had high expression levels in roots under metal stress. In some cases, metal ion accumulation and gene overexpression are in direct correlation. For example, Cd accumulation in roots and shoots increases with overexpression of *HMA*3 (Morel et al. 2009a, b). Similarly, rice *HMA*5 is overexpressed under elevated soil Cu concentrations (Deng et al. 2013). *Aeluropus littoralis* manages its phytoremediation potential for Pb and Hg metals by regulating H^+ -*ATPase* gene on the plasma membrane (Jam et al. 2014). Similarly, treatment with Cd resulted in overexpressed serine acetyltransferase (*SAT*) genes family in *Arabidopsis* (Howarth et al. 2003). Evidence suggest that genes encoding for MAPK pathway have important roles in stress signaling and hormone action. Gene functional analysis at large scale with high-throughput technology can be done with functional genomics, that is, proteomics, transcriptomics, ionomics, metabolomics, and phenomics (Rout and Panigrahi 2015; Soda et al. 2015).

6.6.1.2 Utilizing Functional Approaches to Elucidate Plant Stress Responses

Transcriptomics

Studying plant responses to various stresses including HM stress widely use plant transcriptomics. An extensive range of defense-related pathways have been exposed by the overexpression of genes during metal stress. Cell-specific studies and spatial profiling of plant tissues have become possible with more advanced technology of microarrays (Brady et al. 2007; Spollen et al. 2008). Different technologies are in use for transcriptomic studies such as sequence-based approaches, cap analysis of gene expression (CAGE), serial analysis of gene expression (SAGE), massively parallel signature sequencing (MPSS), next generation sequencing (NGS), and RNA sequencing (Kodzius et al. 2006; Tan et al. 2009; Wang et al. 2009; Paicu et al. 2017; Lowe et al. 2017). Using these technologies, specific transcripts of many plant species have been quantified and identified stress tolerant pathways in plants like rice, maize, soybean, and *Arabidopsis* (Deyholos 2010; Pu and Brady 2010; Rogers et al. 2012).

The genes triggered by stressors are categorized into two types, that is, (1) regulatory genes and (2) functional genes (Tran et al. 2010). Regulatory type of genes constitutes a gene network and encode various TFs. Whereas, functional type genes encode various metabolites, for example, alcohols, sugars, and amines. These metabolites are crucial in rendering plant tolerant to heavy metal stress. The TFs are normally members of multigenic families and control expressions of many genes, thus considered as master regulators. TFs bind at specific binding sites of cis-acting elements in the target gene promoters and thereby regulate the genes expression (Wray et al. 2003). Several TFs families have been recognized so far to regulate the stress responses in plants such as, *EMF1*, *CCAATDR1*, *AP2/EREBP*, *AREB/ABF*, C2H2, C2C2-Dof, C3H, C2C2-Gata, C2C2-YABBY, C2C2-CO-like, ARID, CCAAT-HAP2, CCAAT-HAP3, CCAAT-HAP5, CPP, SBP, E2F-DP, WRKY, bZIP, HSF, E2F-DP, AtSR, MADS, MYB, MYC, bHLH, HB, ABI3VP1, DREB1/CBF, ARF, NAC, and TUB (Singh et al. 2002; Shameer et al. 2009; Noman et al. 2017e).

Ramos et al. (2007) reported induction of zinc finger and basic region leucine zipper (bZIP) TFs in B. juncea and A. thaliana in response to Cd stress. TFs were also found in A. halleri under Cd stress (Weber et al. 2006). Similarly, two other TFs, that is, *ERF*1 and *ERF*5 from *AP2/ERF* super family have been induced in A. thaliana facing Cd toxicity (Herbette et al. 2006). In these plants, differential expression of TFs might be due to different levels of Cd stress. Norton et al. (2008) applied sodium arsenate to arsenate tolerant rice plants to perform transcriptomic analysis and found the expression of several TFs, stress protein genes and transporters. They found about 576 upregulated and 622 downregulated genes. Of note, most of the genes were related to glutathione metabolism, synthesis, and transport. Similarly, transcriptomic profiling of Al-sensitive genotype of maize (\$1587-17) was performed under high level of Al in the soil. Differential expression of genes was evident with upregulation of genes for ethylene, auxin, and lignin biosynthesis which is positively correlated with inhibition of root growth (Mattiello et al. 2010). Under Fe deficiency, several genes are found to be upregulated in leaves and roots of A. thaliana such as FIT, AtbHLH38, AtbHLH39, AtbHLH100, and AtbHLH101 (Wang et al. 2007; Yuan et al. 2008). Due to upregulation of these genes, TFs are generated for ferrous transporters and ferric chelate reductases that are critical in regulating Fe uptake in plants under Fe deficiency (Varotto et al. 2002; Yuan et al. 2008). Moreover, several other Fe transporters get activated when FIT and AtbHLH38 or AtbHLH39 genes are expressed together, for example. HMA3, Iron-Regulated Transporter 2 (IRT2), and MTP3 and adequate intercellular Fe level (Wu et al. 2012).

Mitogen-Activated Protein Kinase (MAPK) cascade also get activated in response to HM stress. There are three types of kinases, that is, MAPK, MAPK kinase (MAPKK), and MAPK kinase kinase (MAPKKK) which play a major role for hormone synthesis and signal transduction pathway activation under stressed conditions (Jonak et al. 2002). In *Medicago sativa*, these pathways get activated under Cd and/or Cu stress that results in regulation of TFs for biosynthesis of defense, chelating compounds and metal transporters (Jonak et al. 2004).

Micro RNAs (miRNAs) are well modulators of heavy metal stress tolerance by regulating the number of TFs for stress signaling (Noman et al. 2017a; Noman and Aqeel 2017). miRNAs fight with stressors by regulating various cellular and metabolic processes, for example, cell proliferation, transcription regulation, and apoptosis. Their role in regulating abiotic stress tolerance has been identified in a number of plant species, for example, *Arabidopsis, Medicago*, and *Phaseolus* (Trindade et al. 2010; Budak et al. 2015). In *B. vulgaris*, 13 different miRNAs were identified for their involvement in metal stress regulation (Li et al. 2015a, b). miRNAs aid molecular mechanisms by making plants tolerant against heavy metal stress (Fang et al. 2013). Different transcripts, for example, miR156, miR171, and miR396a have reportedly been downregulated in *Brassica napus* exposed to Cd stress (Zhou et al. 2012a, b). In modified miRNAs expression profiles of *Medicago* under various levels of Cd stress, miR166 was reported to be downregulated while miR393,

miR171, miR319, and miR529 were found to be upregulated (Zhou et al. 2008). Similarly, Al stress in plants is also regulated by miRNAs. Comparison between two subspecies of rice, that is, *Oryza indica* and *Oryza japonica* for miRNAs expression levels revealed different responses under Al stress. A complex response was indicated by the appearance of 16 different kinds of miRNAs (Lima et al. 2011). Under Hg stress, miR171, miR319, miR393, and miR529 were found upregulated in *M. truncatula* (Zhou et al. 2008). Similarly, other scientists reported the downregulation of miR398 in response to Hg or Cd toxicity and nutrient deficiency in plants (Kuo and Chiou 2011; Yang and Chen 2013) indicating the miRNA398-mediated ROS regulation under nutrient stress conditions.

In As stress, on account of differential expression, 18 different miRNAs were identified in Chinese rice (Liu and Zhang 2012) and 69 novel miRNAs were reported in *B. juncea* (Srivastava et al. 2012). In another study, exogenously applied JA and IAA changed the expression of miR167, miR319, and miR854 under As stress, which in turn positively influenced the plant growth (Gupta et al. 2014). Similarly, oxidative stress in rice lead to differential expression of seven miRNAs having genes encoding for nutrient transport, transcriptional regulation, programmed cell death, auxin homeostasis, and cell proliferation (Li et al. 2010).

Metabolomics

Physiological state of living cells can be determined with the help of metabolites which carry energy for growth and maintenance. All the metabolites characterization of an organism under a set of environmental conditions is called metabolomics. They denote physiological state as they are key link between phenotype and genetics of an organism. They reflect the genetic information of an individual because they correlate with variety of biosynthetic pathways. The quantity of metabolites is directly proportional to physiological activities of plants depending upon surrounding environmental conditions (Bundy et al. 2005). Physiological activities of heavy metal tolerant plants also expected to be changed in stress conditions. Therefore, under normal and stressed physiological status, acquiring the detailed knowledge of metabolome in the plant can be significant and is called metabolomics. Stress signals stimulate the plant receptors thereby activating the stress-responsive genes which synthesize specific metabolites to help in adapting environmental stress (Nakabayashi and Saito 2015). In this way, typical stress-responsive genes and alterations in physiological pathways can be identified to screen stress tolerant plants. Metabolomics is overwhelmingly used to understand plants responses to abiotic stress tolerance (Jia et al. 2016). In the past few years, high-throughput methodologies were developed to analyze metabolites. A number of analytical technologies such as liquid and gas chromatography, nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy (NMR), matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization (MALDI), and inductively coupled mass spectrometry are used to analyze metabolites in plants. Metabolomic studies have been get boosted by the recent advancements in molecular techniques (Morrow 2010). The role of various metabolites in tolerating heavy metal stress is discussed in the next section.

Free Amino Acids

Plants accumulate various compatible solutes in response to different environmental stresses (Serraj and Sinclair 2002; Akula and Ravishankar 2011). These include proline, trehalose, polyols, sucrose, histidine, proline, glycine, betaine, pipecolate betaine, and alanine betaine (Ashraf and Harris 2004; Sharma and Dietz 2006). The plants produce extraordinary high levels of these free amino acids as a nonenzymatic response to combat the negative effects of environmental stresses including HM stress. They provide protection to plants by regulating ROS detoxification, cellular osmotic adjustment, protein/enzymes stabilization, and providing protection to membrane integrity (Bohnert and Jensen 1996; Ashraf and Foolad 2007). The level of proline increases many folds in plants under heavy metal toxicity (Talanova et al. 2000; Sharma and Dietz 2006; Szabados and Savouré 2010). When it comes to opposing stress, proline has been identified to play diverse roles in plants, for example, as signaling molecule, metal chelator, and antioxidant defense molecule (Hayat et al. 2012). It also strengthens the metal-quenching ability of other antioxidant enzymes (Emamverdian et al. 2015). Elevated levels of proline have been seen in lower plants, for example, algae and lichens (Siripornadulsil et al. 2002; Bačkor and Loppi 2009) as well as in higher plants under heavy metal toxicity (Nedjimi and Daoud 2009; Belhaj et al. 2016). Genes encoding proline synthesis can be cloned to confer heavy metal tolerance to transgenic plants.

Another important metabolite, putrescine has been found to play crucial role in plants under abiotic stresses. It is also precursor of spermine and spermidine in plants. Significantly high quantity of putrescine was found in bean and oat plants exposed to Cu and Cd stress (Weinstein et al. 1986). Similarly, Lin and Kao (1999) also reported increased quantity of putrescine in rice under Cu stress. Increased levels of histidine were also reported by Krämer et al. (1996) in xylem sap of Ni hyperccumulating plant *Alyssum lesbiacum* under Ni stress (Singh et al. 2016).

α -Tocopherol

In plants, alpha-Tocopherols are normally synthesized in plastids and are active forms of vitamin E. Their concentration increases under stress conditions. Besides scavenging ROS very efficiently, they are involved in terminating chain reactions in lipid peroxidation (Munne-Bosch 2005; Maeda and DellaPenna 2007). Therefore, these appear to be guard of cell membranes against the damaging effects of stresses. Before being degraded by resonance energy transfer, one tocopherol molecule can deactivate up to 220 molecules of O_2 . The tocopherol level inside the plants alters dramatically with the intensity of environmental stresses. The involvement of α -tocopherol in regulating plant activities under heavy metal stress has been addressed by many studies (Collin et al. 2008; Lushchak and Semchuk 2012). Collin et al. (2008) reported the accumulation of α -tocopherol in *A. thaliana* under Cd and Cu stress. Comparison between two mutants of *A. thaliana* clearly proved the link between heavy metal stress alleviation and α -tocopherol production.

Ascorbate

Ascorbate is a low molecular weight and abundantly found antioxidant in plants also known as vitamin C. It is crucial element of defense against ROS activity (Noman et al. 2014). Ascorbate normally exists as reduced form in chloroplast and actively protects the macromolecules from detrimental consequences of oxidative stress. It plays role in many important physiological functions of plants such as growth, metabolism, and differentiation. Because of its great ability to donate electrons to various enzymatic and nonenzymatic pathways, it is known as a powerful antioxidant. D-mannose/L-galactose are main contributing elements of ascorbate through Smirnoff-Wheeler pathway (Wheeler et al. 1998). It is synthesized in mitochondria and transported by facilitated diffusion or through a proton-electrochemical gradient to other cell components. It is abundantly found in photosynthetic tissues; however, it has also been spotted in other cell types, apoplasts, cytoplasm, and organelles in plants (Smirnoff et al. 2004; Shao et al. 2008). Among these, apoplastic ascorbic acid performs the most important role and considered as prime defense line against ROS (Barnes et al. 2002). The level of ascorbate changes in plants in response to heavy metal stresses (Maheshwari and Dubey 2009; Mishra et al. 2011; Srivastava and Dubey 2011; Soares et al. 2016). The level of ascorbate in plants depends upon the intensity of environmental stress (Chaves et al. 2002). Overexpression of biosynthetic enzymes of ascorbate is involved in enhancing plant tolerance to abiotic stress. In tomato plants, overexpression of GME gene family members is involved in biosynthesis and accumulation ascorbate in response to oxidative stress (Zhang et al. 2011). Similarly, in A. thaliana, enhanced ascorbate content helped combating oxidative stress (Wang et al. 2010).

Glutathione

Glutathione (γ -glutamylcysteinyl-glycine, GSH) is a nonprotein low molecular weight thiol that acts against the toxic effects of ROS inside the cells. It is found in all cellular organelles such as chloroplasts, vacuoles, endoplasmic reticulum, mitochondria, and cytosol (Foyer and Noctor 2003). GSH has good reducing power and in several ways it acts as an antioxidant. It acts as free radical scavenger by directly reacting with H_2O_2 , OH, and O_2^{-} . It is involved in many cellular processes such as signal transduction, cell growth, synthesis of phytochelatins, synthesis of nucleic acids and proteins, enzymatic regulation, conjugation of metabolites, detoxification of xenobiotics, regulation of sulfate transport, and expression of the stressresponsive genes (Foyer et al. 1997). GSH is formed from oxidized glutathione (GSSG) by the enzyme glutathione reductase (GR). Under metal stress, the disulfide bridge of GR breaks off (Lee et al. 1998). Hence, GR enzyme plays crucial role in antioxidant defense by maintaining a high GSH/GSSG ratio. In the presence of ROS, GSH care for macromolecules by acting either as proton donor or by forming adducts with reactive electrophiles and yield GSSG (Asada 1994). GSH is also involved in the regeneration of ascorbate. Singh et al. (2015) reported increments in GR activity in *Luffa* seedlings with increasing As concentration. Similarly, increased activity of GSH was noted in *Helianthus annuus* in response to multimetal toxicity (Belhaj et al. 2016).

Phenols and Carotenoids

Phenols are abundantly found diverse secondary metabolites in plants such as tannins, lignin, hydroxycinnamate esters, and flavonoids (Grace and Logan 2000). Due to their great ability to donate hydrogen atoms or electrons, they have strong antioxidant properties. They have great ability to chelate metal ions and reduce heavy metal toxicity (Jun et al. 2003). These inhibit lipid peroxidation and directly scavenge ROS. Phenols hinder free radical diffusion through the membranes by modifying lipid packing order and decreasing fluidity of cell membranes (Arora et al. 2000). Phenols are involved in chelating Fe ions and thus reduce ROS production by suppressing Fenton's reaction. Janas et al. (2009) reported the accumulation of phenolic compounds in lentil roots exposed to Cu stress. They were of the opinion that the accumulation of phenols is in response to production of ROS. Tannins chelate Mn ions reducing Mn toxicity in tannin rich tea plants (Lavid et al. 2001). Zayneb et al. (2015) reported high phenolic and flavonoid contents in Trigonella foenumgraecum exposed to Cd stress. Increased flavonoid contents were also seen in wheat growing in the presence of heavy metals (Copaciu et al. 2016). In another study, improved antioxidant capacity of transgenic potato plants was due to the accumulation of flavonoids (Lukaszewicz et al. 2004). Carotenoids are lipophilic antioxidants and detoxify various kinds of ROS (Young 1991). Carotenoids absorb light energy for chlorophyll. They scavenge ROS and protect the photosynthetic apparatus by preventing the formation of O_2 in excited chlorophyll molecules. They also act as signaling molecule to environmental stress responses (Li et al. 2008). Their concentrations increase in plants exposed to heavy metal stress (Wang et al. 2014; Piotrowska-Niczyporuk et al. 2015; Soares et al. 2016).

Phenomics

Phenotypes of plants are a result of genotypes or a set of genetic instructions and interactions with the environment. It is generally difficult to predict phenotype from genotype due to the involvement of so many genes and gene products under the influence of complex and instable environmental conditions. Study of full set of phenotypic traits translated by genetic instructions from a gene or the entire genome of an organism is called phenomics. Phenotypes can be described at several levels, from a single molecule to complex cellular, physiological, and developmental dynamic metabolic networks. Additional effects of phenotypic complexity can be created by interactions with competing organisms, pathogens, and symbionts. Moreover, phenotypes are dynamic and change tremendously over the course of time.

For genetic improvement in plants, accurate and precise measurement of traits is very critical. It has broad spectrum importance for yield improvement in food crops and environmental remediation by plants. Several large-scale approaches are used to study phenomics including forward and reverse phenomics which can help to identify desirable traits which make a genotype the best. Genotype of a species, genus, several representatives of a population or phylogenetic group can be determined with next generation sequencing methods. The high-throughput technologies include near infrared imaging for the measurement of cellular and soil water contents; far infrared imaging for measuring the temperature of leaf/canopy; color imaging for plant structure, leaf health, phenology, and biomass; fluorescence imaging for assessing the physiological efficiency of photosynthetic machinery (Kumar et al. 2015).

Interactions between genotypes and environment pressurize the phenotype. Hence, collecting large data at different developmental stages for multiple organ types across multiple environments would be ideal. For studying a specific problem, cell types, organs, or the whole plants are identified with genome of interest. Then, genome sequencing and/or transcriptomics are used for characterizing mRNAs and gene spaces. The candidate genes are discovered through construction of metabolic networks and large-scale proteomic analysis. A tremendous number of molecular markers can be generated by resequencing of genetic variants. Traditional genetic mapping or genome-wide association and other modern approaches are used to find target genes for specific phenotypes (Rounsley and Last 2010).

6.7 Conclusions and Future Prospects

Heavy metal stress tolerance is difficult to control and engineer due to the involvement of several signaling pathway components and many genes. The original systems for metal uptake, its translocation, sequestration, and detoxification help plants to combat HMs stress. To confer heavy metal stress tolerance in plants, we require extensive knowledge for the identification and validation of novel HM responsive genes, TFs, miRNAs, gene products and linkage of their expression profiles with the consequent targets. Advanced understanding of the dogmatic mechanisms and linked components like TFs or miRNAs would result in the purposeful development of the plant tolerance to metal stress. It is now possible to identify specific changes in biochemical and molecular networks of tissues and cells in response to heavy metal stress by using functional genomics and phenomics technologies. By using techniques like omics approach, genes and their target validation will offer sufficient evidence for approval or disapproval of their role in metal tolerance. These omics approaches have amplified our understanding of gene expression mechanisms. The production of stress tolerant crops is becoming more possible with increased understanding of molecular pathways behind heavy metal stress tolerance. Modifications in the target genes expression level of newly identified miRNAs or other genes would also give new elements of plants HM tolerance mechanism.

With the advancement and advent of new omic technologies for investigation of cellular complexity, we are in a position to have a better look at stress tolerant mechanisms. Thousands of stress-related genes have been identified so far and this trend is increasing with improvement of sequencing technologies. Surprising results have been obtained by genetic engineering of metabolites, proteins, and heavy metal stress-responsive genes. There is a need to exploit full potential of functional genomics and phenomics. With the employment of multidisciplinary approach using transcriptomics, metabolomics, and phenomics, heavy metal stress tolerant valuable crop plants can be produced in future. Amalgamation of described knowl-edge about omics, regulatory networks and targets would guide us to incremented regulation of HM stress in different crops.

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