

The Ca^{2+} /calmodulin2-binding transcription factor TGA3 elevates *LCD* expression and H_2S production to bolster Cr^{6+} tolerance in Arabidopsis

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SUMMARY

Heavy metal (HM) contamination on agricultural land not only reduces crop yield but also causes human health concerns. As a plant gasotransmitter, hydrogen sulfide (H_2S) can trigger various defense responses and help reduce accumulation of HMs in plants; however, little is known about the regulatory mechanisms of H_2S signaling. Here, we provide evidence to answer the long-standing question about how H_2S production is elevated in the defense of plants against HM stress. During the response of Arabidopsis to chromium (Cr^{6+}) stress, the transcription of L-cysteine desulhydrase (*LCD*), the key enzyme for H_2S production, was enhanced through a calcium (Ca^{2+})/calmodulin2 (*CaM2*)-mediated pathway. Biochemistry and molecular biology studies demonstrated that Ca^{2+} /*CaM2* physically interacts with the bZIP transcription factor TGA3, a member of the 'TGACG'-binding factor family, to enhance binding of TGA3 to the *LCD* promoter and increase *LCD* transcription, which then promotes the generation of H_2S . Consistent with the roles of TGA3 and *CaM2* in activating *LCD* expression, both *cam2* and *tga3* loss-of-function mutants have reduced *LCD* abundance and exhibit increased sensitivity to Cr^{6+} stress. Accordingly, this study proposes a regulatory pathway for endogenous H_2S generation, indicating that plants respond to Cr^{6+} stress by adjusting the binding affinity of TGA3 to the *LCD* promoter, which increases *LCD* expression and promotes H_2S production. This suggests that manipulation of the endogenous H_2S level through genetic engineering could improve the tolerance of grains to HM stress and increase agricultural production on soil contaminated with HMs.

Keywords: gasotransmitter, hydrogen sulfide, calcium signaling, calmodulin2, transcription factor TGA3, chromium stress.

INTRODUCTION

Increased anthropogenic and industrial activities have caused the release of toxic metals into the environment, so contamination of agricultural soil with heavy metals (HMs) has become a serious environmental problem in many developing countries (Wei and Yang, 2010). Chromium (Cr), often present in the forms Cr^{3+} and Cr^{6+} , is a serious pollutant of agricultural soil that not only affects crop yield and quality but also causes major concerns for food safety due to its mutagenic and carcinogenic properties (Shanker *et al.*, 2005). There have been reports that plants activate the gasotransmitter hydrogen sulfide (H_2S) to defend against HM stress (Zhang *et al.*, 2009; Wang, 2012; Li, 2013; Shi *et al.*, 2014; Jin and Pei, 2015; Fang *et al.*, 2016),

but little is known about the regulation of H_2S signaling during the responses of plants to HM stress.

H_2S , a multifunctional gasotransmitter, along with nitric oxide (NO) and carbon monoxide (CO), is a topic of interest in organismal studies (Wang, 2002, 2012; Zhang *et al.*, 2011). Research pertaining to endogenous H_2S in higher plants can be traced back to 1978, when H_2S was observed to be released from the leaves of some plants (Wilson *et al.*, 1978). Although emission of endogenous H_2S occurs in higher plants, the positive effects of H_2S have been neglected for many years. Only in the last decade have the physiological functions of H_2S been explored from a new perspective, and this is now an active area of research. H_2S

has been found to participate in the regulation of plant development, including seed germination, root morphogenesis, stomatal movement, photosynthesis and flower senescence (Wilson *et al.*, 1978; Pagnussat *et al.*, 2004; Zhang *et al.*, 2011; Jia *et al.*, 2014; Honda, 2015; Papanasiou *et al.*, 2015; Wang *et al.*, 2016). H₂S is also an important messenger in the adaptation of plants to various abiotic stresses, such as drought, salinity, extreme temperatures, non-ionic osmotic stress and HMs (Wang, 2012; Christou *et al.*, 2013; Li, 2013; Shi *et al.*, 2013; Chen *et al.*, 2015; Jin and Pei, 2015).

In plants, various physiological signals and environmental stimuli can activate H₂S emissions, and H₂S metabolic enzymes have been discovered (Wang, 2012; Jin and Pei, 2015). The cysteine desulfhydrases (CDes) are responsible for the majority of endogenous H₂S production in plants (Rennenberg *et al.*, 1987; Riemenschneider, 2006; Papenbrock *et al.*, 2007). L-cysteine desulfhydrase (LCD), the most unambiguous CDes, catalyzes the hydrolysis of L-cysteine to H₂S, ammonia and pyruvate at a stoichiometric ratio of 1:1:1, and its function requires pyridoxal 5'-phosphate as a cofactor (Harrington and Smith, 1980; Rennenberg *et al.*, 1987; Papenbrock *et al.*, 2007). A small fraction of H₂S can also be produced by the O-acetyl-L-serine (thiol) lyase (OASTL) family of proteins (Heeg, 2008; Alvarez *et al.*, 2009). DES1, which belongs to the OASTL family based on sequence features, was recently reported as a novel cysteine desulfhydrase, showing a much higher affinity for L-cysteine as a substrate to generate H₂S (Heeg, 2008; Romero *et al.*, 2013).

An appropriate level of H₂S can reduce the accumulation of HMs in millet (Tian *et al.*, 2017), revealing that regulation of endogenous H₂S generation is important for increasing agricultural production and reducing the economic losses caused by HM contamination of cultivated soil. In our previous study, H₂S emission induced by Cr⁶⁺ stress could be modulated by the calcium (Ca²⁺) level (Fang *et al.*, 2014). However, the molecular mechanism of Ca²⁺-induced endogenous H₂S emission has rarely been reported.

Ca²⁺ is a core transducer and regulator in plant development and defense responses (Sanders *et al.*, 2002; Hetherington and Brownlee, 2004). The transient elevation of intracellular Ca²⁺ is perceived by some downstream members, and then the signal is delivered (Kudla *et al.*, 2010; Peiter, 2011). Calmodulin (CaM) is the primary intracellular Ca²⁺ receptor. After being loaded with Ca²⁺, CaM binds to target proteins and modifies their activities. This CaM-mediated signal transduction accounts for an important portion of Ca²⁺ signaling, and is a delicate system involved in plant defense responses. Some environmental factors can stimulate Ca²⁺ to induce CaM to interact with its target transcription factors (TFs) and thus activate or repress the transcription of target genes (Szymanski and Zielinski,

1996; Park *et al.*, 2005; Doherty *et al.*, 2009; Galon *et al.*, 2010). TGA3, a basic leucine zipper (bZIP) TF, belongs to the 'TGACG'-binding factor (TGA) family (Miao *et al.*, 1994; Miao and Lam, 1995) which participates in some biotic and abiotic stress responses in plants (Jakoby *et al.*, 2002). Additionally, the activity of TGA3 can be regulated by CaMs *in vitro* (Szymanski and Zielinski, 1996).

Here, we present the regulatory pathway of endogenous H₂S emission that is mediated by Ca²⁺/CaM2 signaling during the response of Arabidopsis to Cr⁶⁺ stress, suggesting potential ways to improve Cr⁶⁺ tolerance and decrease Cr⁶⁺ accumulation in grains grown on agricultural lands contaminated by Cr⁶⁺.

RESULTS

Cr⁶⁺ stress inhibited the elongation of primary roots and induced endogenous H₂S production

To examine the responses of Arabidopsis seedlings to Cr⁶⁺ stress, primary root elongation and the rate of H₂S production in Cr⁶⁺-stressed Arabidopsis seedlings were analyzed. After 2 weeks' growth on 1/2 Murashige and Skoog (1/2 MS) medium containing Cr⁶⁺, the elongation of Arabidopsis roots was restrained in a concentration-dependent manner by Cr⁶⁺ stress (Figure 1a, b). Significant suppression ($P < 0.05$) was found in plants stressed by 180 μmol L⁻¹ Cr⁶⁺, in which root length was inhibited by approximately 50% (Figure 1a, 1b). Thus, 180 μmol L⁻¹ Cr⁶⁺ was chosen for further stress-based tests. Meanwhile, the rate of H₂S production increased as the Cr⁶⁺ concentration increased from 0 to 300 μmol L⁻¹ (Figure 1b), and the endogenous H₂S content increased by 55% in 180 μmol L⁻¹ Cr⁶⁺ stressed seedlings (Figure 1c). Therefore, we concluded that Cr⁶⁺ toxicity caused inhibition of root growth and that the generation of the gasotransmitter H₂S was activated during the responses of Arabidopsis to this stress.

H₂S production was elevated by Cr⁶⁺ stress through increased LCD expression

Because endogenous H₂S emission was increased by Cr⁶⁺ stress, we investigated the transcription and translation of LCD, which is the key enzyme responsible for H₂S production and which catalyzes the hydrolysis of L-cysteine to H₂S, ammonia and pyruvate at a stoichiometric ratio of 1:1:1 (Figure 2a). Data showed that Cr⁶⁺ stress significantly enhanced the expression of LCD at both the transcriptional and translational levels (Figure 2b). As previously reported (Jin *et al.*, 2013), weaker LCD expression and a lower H₂S content were detected in the *lcd* mutant, a LCD weak allele, which contains a T-DNA insertion in the 3'-untranslated region of the LCD gene (Figure 2c). Consistent with the reduced H₂S production, *lcd* was more sensitive to Cr⁶⁺ stress compared with the wild type (WT), and Cr⁶⁺ stress

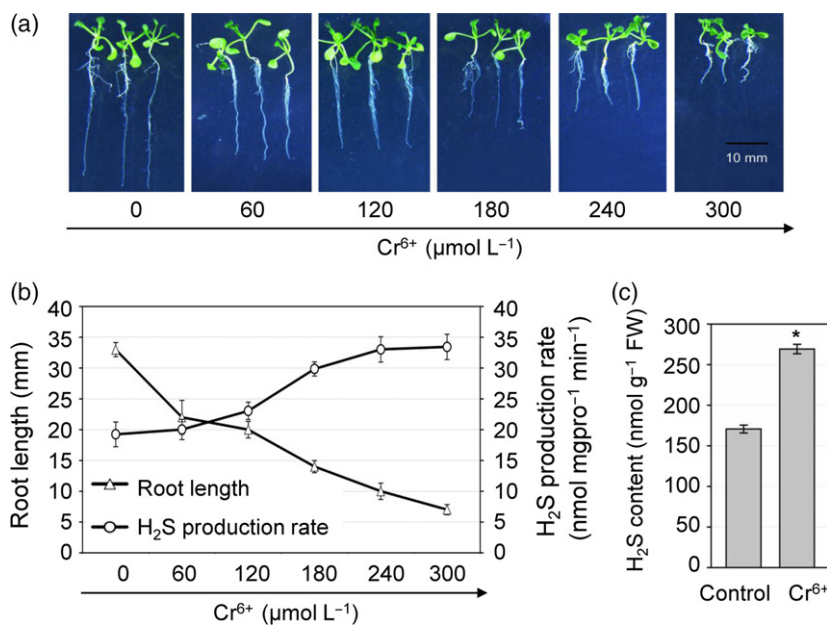


Figure 1. Cr^{6+} stress inhibited root elongation and activated endogenous H_2S production in Arabidopsis.

(a) The root phenotype of Arabidopsis seedlings stressed with Cr^{6+} .

(b) Root length and endogenous H_2S production rate in Cr^{6+} -stressed Arabidopsis.

(c) The endogenous H_2S content in Cr^{6+} -stressed Arabidopsis. FW, fresh weight.

The Arabidopsis wild type (Col-0) was grown directly on Cr^{6+} containing 1/2 MS medium (0, 60, 120, 180, 240 and 300 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ Cr^{6+}). Two weeks later, the growth phenotype (a), the primary root lengths and H_2S production rate (b) and the H_2S content (c) were recorded, and the lengths of primary roots were counted from 30 seedlings ($n = 30$). Data are means \pm standard error (SE) of three biological repeats, error bars indicate SEs and *indicates a statistical difference ($P < 0.05$). [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com].

caused significant inhibition of root growth in *lcd* seedlings (Figure 2d). In the *lcd* mutant, the activation of H_2S emissions by Cr^{6+} stress was greatly suppressed (Figure 2e). In contrast, when we treated the WT and *lcd* mutant with exogenous H_2S , the H_2S content in the *lcd* mutant recovered to the same level as in WT, and exogenous H_2S fumigation further increased the H_2S content in WT and *lcd* under Cr^{6+} stress (Figure 2e). Correspondingly, the toxic symptoms associated with Cr^{6+} stress were alleviated in both the WT and *lcd* mutant upon fumigation with exogenous H_2S (Figure 2f). Thus, H_2S increased the tolerance of Arabidopsis to Cr^{6+} stress and alleviated Cr^{6+} stress-triggered toxic symptoms, which were mediated by the function of LCD in H_2S production.

Cr^{6+} -induced LCD expression and H_2S production was modulated by Ca^{2+}

The generation of H_2S appeared to be activated in Arabidopsis under conditions of Cr^{6+} stress. Because Ca^{2+} is involved in the Cr^{6+} stress-associated production of H_2S for defense in millet (Fang *et al.*, 2014), to further investigate the function of Ca^{2+} in H_2S production under Cr^{6+} stress we assessed LCD transcription and translation, as well as the H_2S content, with or without Ca^{2+} . During Cr^{6+} stress, activation of LCD transcription and translation, as well as the H_2S content, triggered by Cr^{6+} stress increased significantly in the presence of Ca^{2+} but decreased in the presence of the Ca^{2+} chelator ethylene glycol-bis (β -aminoethyl ether)-*N,N,N,N*-tetraacetic acid (EGTA) (Figure 3a). Thus, Ca^{2+} may have an important role in Cr^{6+} stress-induced expression of LCD and hence in endogenous H_2S production. In the responses of *lcd* to Cr^{6+} stress, the positive effect of Ca^{2+} on H_2S emission was markedly attenuated, and EGTA

did not obviously decrease the H_2S content (Figure 3b). Additionally, the knock-down of LCD suppressed the positive effect of Ca^{2+} , indicating that LCD is a key mediator in Ca^{2+} -dependent regulation of H_2S emission during responses to Cr^{6+} stress in Arabidopsis.

We also examined the seedling phenotypes of the Cr^{6+} -stressed WT and *lcd* mutant supplemented with Ca^{2+} or Ca^{2+} -deprived by EGTA. Ca^{2+} significantly rescued the inhibition of root growth (Figure 3c, d) caused by Cr^{6+} stress in WT seedlings. However, the protective effects of Ca^{2+} were impaired in the Cr^{6+} -stressed *lcd* mutant. EGTA aggravated the negative influences of Cr^{6+} on root growth in both WT and *lcd*. In the *lcd* mutant, the combined treatment of EGTA plus Cr^{6+} caused a more dramatic root phenotype and suppressed root elongation (Figure 3c, d).

The Ca^{2+} /CaM2-associated bZIP TF TGA3 specifically binds the 'TGACG' motifs in the LCD promoter

As described above, Ca^{2+} is an indispensable mediator in upregulating LCD transcription during Cr^{6+} stress. Because of the importance of interactions between *trans*-acting factors and *cis*-acting elements in transcriptional regulation, we hypothesized that Ca^{2+} signaling might trigger LCD expression through certain TFs and then activate H_2S synthesis. Signal transduction mediated by CaM occupies a very important position in Ca^{2+} signaling, and our results indicated that Cr^{6+} stress could enhance both the transcriptional and translational levels of CaM2 (Figure 4a). Although the abundance of TGA3 was hardly changed in Cr^{6+} -stressed plants (Figure 4a), the promoter region of LCD contains core sequences for binding TGA3. Therefore, we speculated that CaM2-mediated Ca^{2+} signaling may modulate the binding activity of TGA3, which regulates

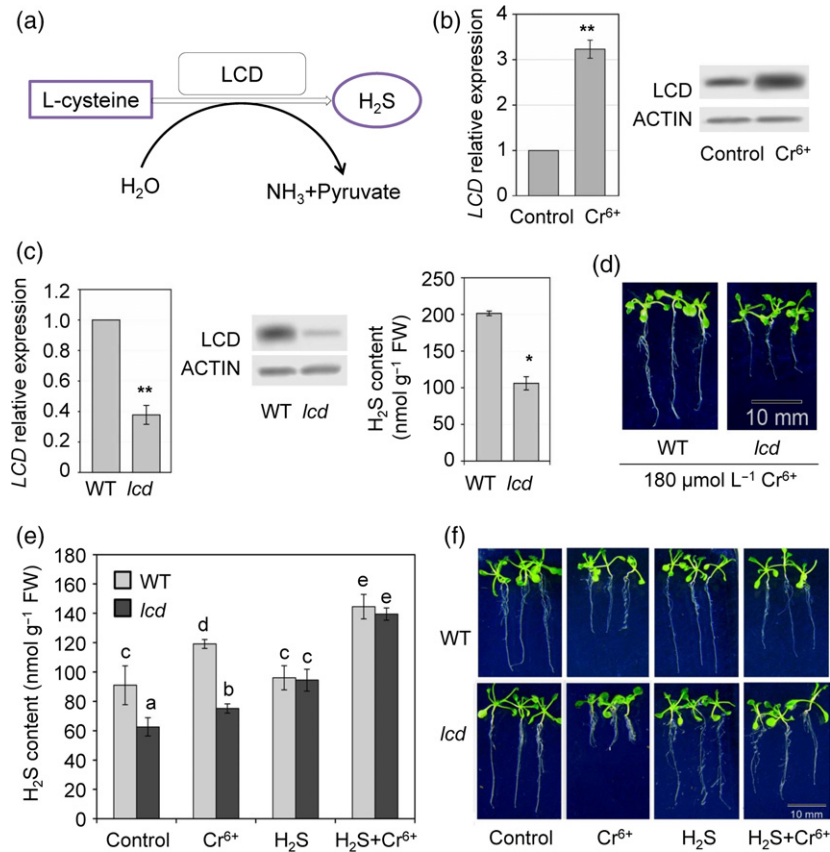


Figure 2. H₂S generated by L-cysteine desulfhydrase (LCD) has important functions in defense responses of Arabidopsis to Cr⁶⁺ stress. (a) A schematic diagram of H₂S generation mediated by LCD in plants. (b) The transcriptional and translational levels of LCD in Cr⁶⁺-stressed Arabidopsis. The Arabidopsis wild type (WT; Col-0) was grown directly on 1/2 MS medium with (Cr⁶⁺) or without (CK) 180 μmol L⁻¹ Cr⁶⁺. Two weeks later, LCD transcription and translation were detected by real-time quantitative RT-PCR (qRT-PCR) and immunoblotting. (c) LCD transcription and translation, as well as H₂S content, in the LCD T-DNA insertion mutant *lcd*. The seeds of the WT and *lcd* mutant were grown on 1/2 MS medium. Two weeks later, LCD transcription and translation were detected by qRT-PCR and immunoblotting; the H₂S content was detected using a novel polarographic H₂S sensor from 40 WT and *lcd* seedlings. FW, fresh weight. (d) The root growth phenotype of Cr⁶⁺-stressed WT and *lcd* mutant. The seeds of the WT and *lcd* mutant were grown on 1/2 MS medium containing 180 μmol L⁻¹ Cr⁶⁺. Two weeks later, the growth phenotypes were recorded. (e) The H₂S content in Cr⁶⁺-stressed WT and *lcd* with exogenous H₂S fumigation. (f) The protective effect of H₂S on root elongation in Cr⁶⁺-stressed WT and *lcd* plants. The seeds of Arabidopsis WT and *lcd* mutants were grown directly on 1/2 MS medium with or without 180 μmol L⁻¹ Cr⁶⁺, and with or without 50 μmol L⁻¹ H₂S fumigation. Two weeks later, the endogenous H₂S contents (e) and the growth phenotypes (f) were recorded from 20 seedlings. Data are means ± SE of three biological repeats, error bars indicate SEs and different letters indicate significant differences (*P* < 0.05); *indicates significant differences at *P* < 0.05, **indicates significant differences at *P* < 0.01. [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com].

LCD expression. As shown in Figure 4(b), two ‘TGACG’ motifs, core sequences to which TGA3 binds, exist in the promoter region of LCD (Figure 4b). Subsequently, the interaction between TGA3 and the LCD promoter was confirmed by electrophoretic mobility shift assay (EMSA), in which fragment I (pLCD-1) covers the first ‘TGACG’ motif and fragment II (pLCD-2) covers the second one (Figure 4b). The recombinant TGA3 protein bound specifically to pLCD-1, and a competition assay using unlabeled pLCD-1 (ulpLCD-1) showed a proportionate decrease in the binding of TGA3 to pLCD-1, but unlabeled mutated pLCD-1 (umpLCD-1, in which the ‘TGACG’ motif was mutated to ‘TCACG’) did not compete with pLCD-1 for TGA3 binding (Figure 4c, left). Furthermore, TGA3 did not bind to mpLCD-1 because the core motif in the LCD promoter was

mutated (Figure 4c, left). Additionally, a 6× His-tagged peptide was used as the protein control, and data showed that the peptide could not bind to the pLCD fragments. Similar results were also detected between TGA3, pLCD-2 and mpLCD-2 (Figure 4c, right). Thus, TGA3 bound specifically to pLCD-1 and pLCD-2 *in vitro*.

To further confirm that TGA3 can bind to the LCD promoter *in vivo*, chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) combined with PCR was performed. The chromatin fractions from WT, with or without Cr⁶⁺ stress, were isolated and used for ChIP analysis with antibodies against TGA3. The products precipitated by the anti-TGA3 antibody, as well as positive (Input) and negative (with pre-immune serum, NoAb) controls, were analyzed by real-time PCR using primers corresponding to pLCD-1 and pLCD-2. Both the

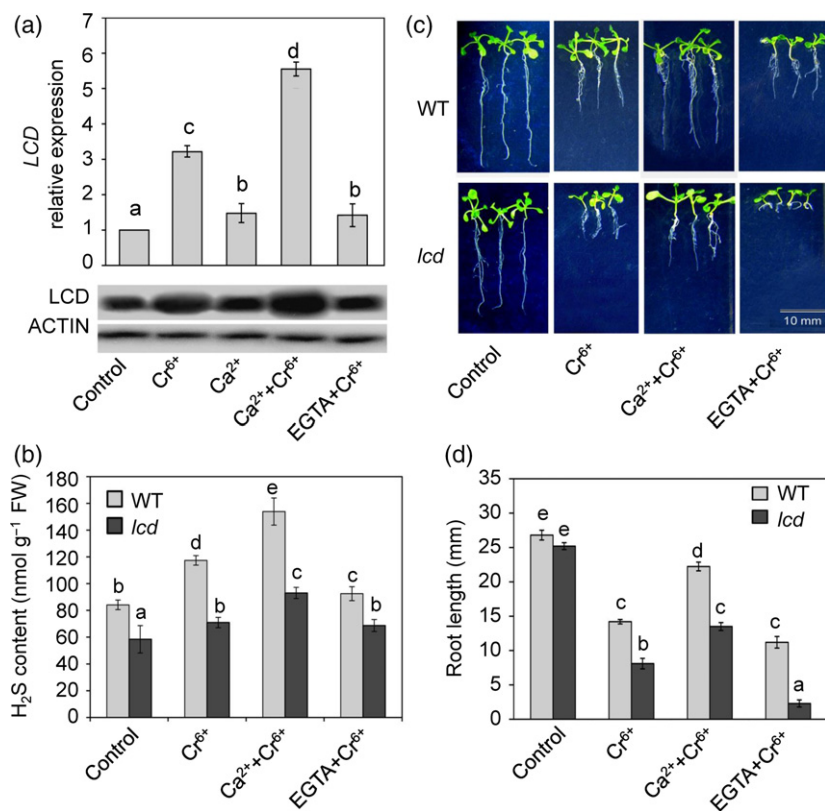


Figure 3. L-cysteine desulhydrase (LCD)-mediated H₂S generation was increased by Ca²⁺ in the defense of Arabidopsis against Cr⁶⁺ stress.

(a) The effects of Ca²⁺ and EGTA on the Cr⁶⁺-stress activated transcription and translation of *LCD*. The wild type (WT) was grown on 1/2 MS medium containing Cr⁶⁺, Ca²⁺, Ca²⁺ + Cr⁶⁺ or EGTA + Cr⁶⁺. Two weeks later, the transcription and translation of *LCD* were detected by real-time quantitative RT-PCR and immunoblotting.

(b) The effects of Ca²⁺ and EGTA on the H₂S content in WT and *lcd* mutants with or without Cr⁶⁺ stress. FW, fresh weight.

(c), (d) The effects of Ca²⁺ and EGTA on root elongation in Cr⁶⁺-stressed WT and *lcd* mutants.

The seeds of WT and *lcd* mutants were grown directly on 1/2 MS medium containing Cr⁶⁺, Ca²⁺ + Cr⁶⁺ or EGTA + Cr⁶⁺. Two weeks later, the endogenous H₂S contents (b), the growth phenotypes (c) and the lengths of primary roots (d) were recorded from 20 seedlings. Data are means ± SE of three biological repeats, error bars indicate SEs and different letters indicate significant differences ($P < 0.05$). [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com].

pLCD-1 and pLCD-2 fragments were pulled down by the anti-TGA3 antibody (Figure 4d), suggesting that TGA3 precisely bound to pLCD-1 and pLCD-2 *in vivo*. Moreover, this interaction seemed to be reinforced in Cr⁶⁺-stressed plants (Figure 4d).

Ca²⁺/CaM2 interacted with TGA3 to enhance its binding to the *LCD* promoter, upregulating *LCD* expression during Cr⁶⁺ stress

Interestingly, the pLCD-1 and pLCD-2 fragments were also precipitated by the anti-CaM2 antibody (Figure 4d), which indicated that CaM2 might interact with TGA3 to form a CaM2–TGA3–pLCD complex, and that the anti-CaM2 antibody might co-precipitate the pLCD fragments via TGA3 (Figure 4d). This conclusion was reinforced by the ChIP analysis of *tga3* and *cam2* loss-of-function mutants. The anti-TGA3 antibody did not precipitate the pLCD fragments in the *tga3* mutant, but did precipitate the pLCD fragments in the *cam2* mutant; however, the anti-CaM2 antibody cannot precipitate the pLCD fragments in either the *cam2* or *tga3* mutants (Figure 4d). Thus, TGA3 is an indispensable mediator in the formation of the CaM2–TGA3–pLCD complex.

The interaction between CaM2 and TGA3 *in vivo* was verified using co-immunoprecipitation (CoIP) analysis. Proteins extracted from WT, with or without Cr⁶⁺ stress, were immunoprecipitated by anti-TGA3 and anti-CaM2

antibodies, respectively, and then the precipitates were analyzed with the appropriate antibody. Whether Arabidopsis seedlings were stressed by Cr⁶⁺ or not, CaM2 and TGA3 bound to each other *in vivo* (Figure 5a). Because the Cr⁶⁺ stress enhanced the transcription and translation of CaM2, but the TGA3 level was unchanged (Figure 4a), it can be speculated that the interaction of TGA3 and CaM2 was enhanced by Cr⁶⁺ stress, mainly by upregulating the abundance of CaM2 protein.

To investigate the effects of Ca²⁺/CaM2 on the combination of the TGA3 and *LCD* promoter, CaM2 or Ca²⁺/CaM2 was added to the reaction system of EMSA to detect any interaction between TGA3 and pLCD-1 or pLCD-2. The binding affinity of TGA3 to pLCD-1 or pLCD-2 was enhanced by CaM2 and Ca²⁺/CaM2. Ca²⁺ strengthened the positive effects of CaM2 on the interaction between TGA3 and the *LCD* promoter (Figure 5b).

Additionally, the ability of CaM2 and TGA3 to regulate the activity of the *LCD* promoter was assayed *in vivo* by co-transforming tobacco leaves with the *TGA3* gene, the *CaM2* gene and the *LCD* promoter linked to a green fluorescent protein gene (pLCD-GFP). Notably, the reporter construct pLCD-GFP was maintained at the same concentration among the treatments and controls in each group of assays. TGA3 bound to the *LCD* promoter and enhanced its activity, as seen by the increased GFP-produced fluorescence (Figure 5c). Moreover, the co-expression of CaM2

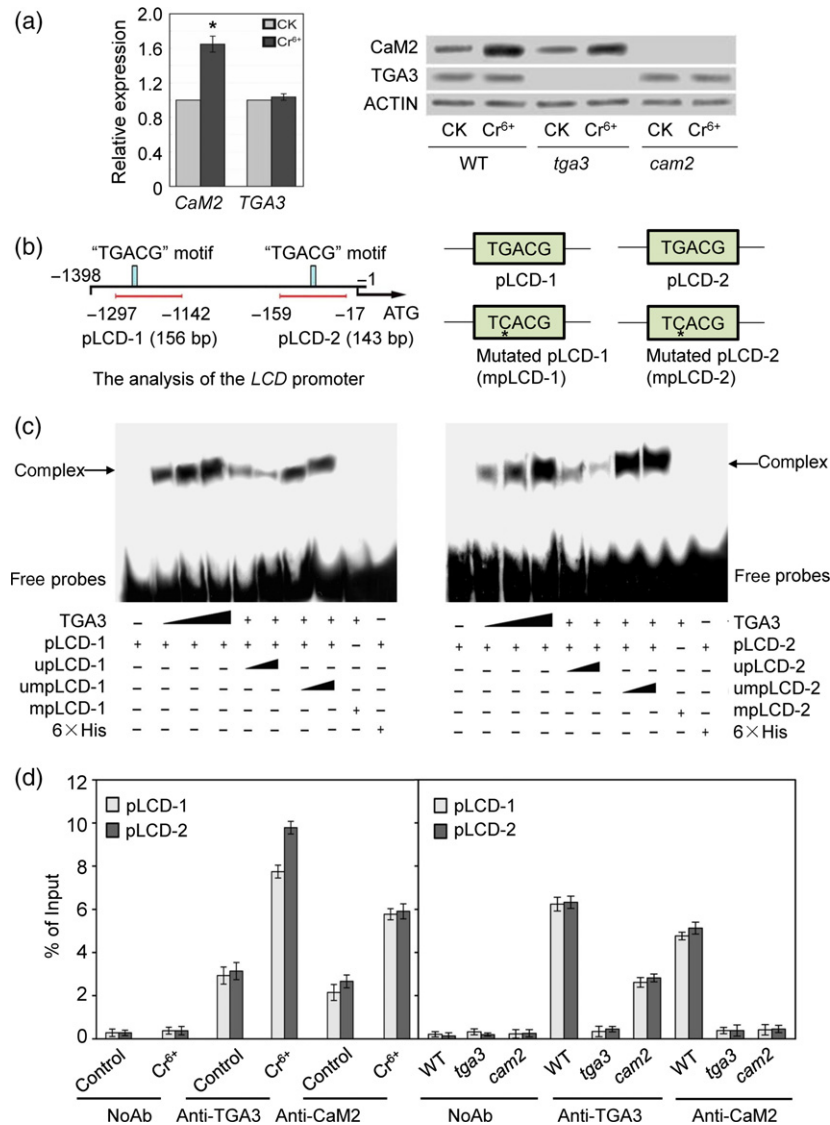


Figure 4. The calmodulin2 (CaM2)-associated transcription factor TGA3 specifically bound to the LCD promoter both *in vitro* and *in vivo*.

(a) The effect of Cr⁶⁺ stress on the transcription and translation of *CaM2* and *TGA3*. The Arabidopsis wild type (WT), *tga3* and *cam2* mutants were grown on 1/2 MS medium with (Cr⁶⁺) or without (CK) 180 μmol L⁻¹ Cr⁶⁺. Two weeks later, *TGA3* and *CaM2* transcription and translation were detected by real-time quantitative RT-PCR and immunoblotting. Data are means ± SE of three biological repeats, error bars indicate SEs and *indicates significant differences at $P < 0.05$.

(b) An analysis of 'TGACG' motifs present in the LCD promoter. The vertical columns indicate the locations of 'TGACG' motifs in the LCD promoter. The lines (from -1297 to -1142 and -159 to -17) indicate the probes used in EMSA or the fragments, pLCD-1 and pLCD-2, analyzed in the chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) assay. mpLCD-1 and mpLCD-2 represent pLCD-1 and pLCD-2, respectively, having 'TGACG' mutated to 'TCACG'. The asterisk represents the mutated nucleotide in the specific motif.

(c) Electrophoretic mobility shift assay of TGA3 binding to the 'TGACG' motifs in the LCD promoter. pLCD indicates the probes labeled with digoxigenin-11-dUTP, and mpLCD indicates the mutated probes labeled with digoxigenin-11-dUTP. upLCD indicates unlabeled probes and umpLCD indicates unlabeled mutated probes. upLCD and umpLCD were used to compete with pLCD for binding with the TGA3 recombinant protein. The labeled mutated probe mpLCD was used as a negative control; the 6× His (6× His-tagged peptide) was used as another protein control.

(d) ChIP analysis of CaM2-TGA3 binding to LCD promoter fragments. WT seedlings, with or without Cr⁶⁺ stress, as well as the *tga3* and *cam2* loss-of-function mutants, were used for the ChIP assay. The chromatin fractions from these seedlings were immunoprecipitated by anti-TGA3 or anti-CaM2 antibodies. The non-immunoprecipitated sonicated chromatin was used as an input DNA control, and the chromatin precipitated with pre-immune serum (NoAb) was used as a negative control. The input DNA (diluted 50×) and the precipitated chromatin fragments were analyzed with real-time PCR using two primer sets amplifying the pLCD-1 and pLCD-2 fragments, as indicated in (b). The results are expressed as per cent of input. Three biological replications were performed and showed similar results. Each value is the mean ± SE of three independent experiments. [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com].

obviously strengthened the activity of the TGA3-enhanced LCD promoter and exhibited a much stronger GFP fluorescence, while CaM2 alone could not alter the GFP

fluorescence intensity (Figure 5c). These results were consistent with the EMSA observation that Ca²⁺/CaM2 could enhance the binding affinity of TGA3 for the pLCD

fragments (Figure 5b). Thus, the observed increase in GFP intensity driven by the *LCD* promoter was caused by TGA3 or CaM2-TGA3. Additionally, CaM2 interacted with TGA3 and enhanced its ability to bind the *LCD* promoter; thereby strengthening the activation of the *LCD* transcription induced by TGA3.

Both *cam2* and *tga3* loss-of-function mutants generated less H₂S and were more sensitive to Cr⁶⁺ stress

Under normal conditions, both transcription and translation (Figure 6a) of *LCD* were sharply reduced in *cam2* and *tga3* loss-of-function mutants, while the H₂S contents in *cam2* and *tga3* were no different from that of the WT (Figure 6c). Interestingly, the abundance of *LCD* and the H₂S content were significantly increased by Cr⁶⁺ stress in the WT, but this Cr⁶⁺ stress-associated activation did not

occur in *cam2* and *tga3* mutants (Figure 6a–c). Furthermore, in the double mutants *tga3/lcd* and *cam2/lcd*, with or without Cr⁶⁺ stress, both the *LCD* level and H₂S content were significantly decreased (Figure 6a–c). These results were consistent with the functions of TGA3 and CaM2 in upregulating *LCD* expression and enhancing H₂S emission.

We further detected the root growth of the *cam2*, *tga3*, *tga3/lcd* and *cam2/lcd* mutants. Like the *lcd* mutant, which is defective in producing H₂S, these mutants exhibited higher sensitivities to Cr⁶⁺ stress, and root elongation in these mutants was suppressed more severely by Cr⁶⁺ stress (Figure 6d). When these mutants were fumigated with exogenous H₂S, their H₂S content significantly increased and the inhibition of root elongation caused by Cr⁶⁺ stress was significantly relieved (Figure 6c, 6d),

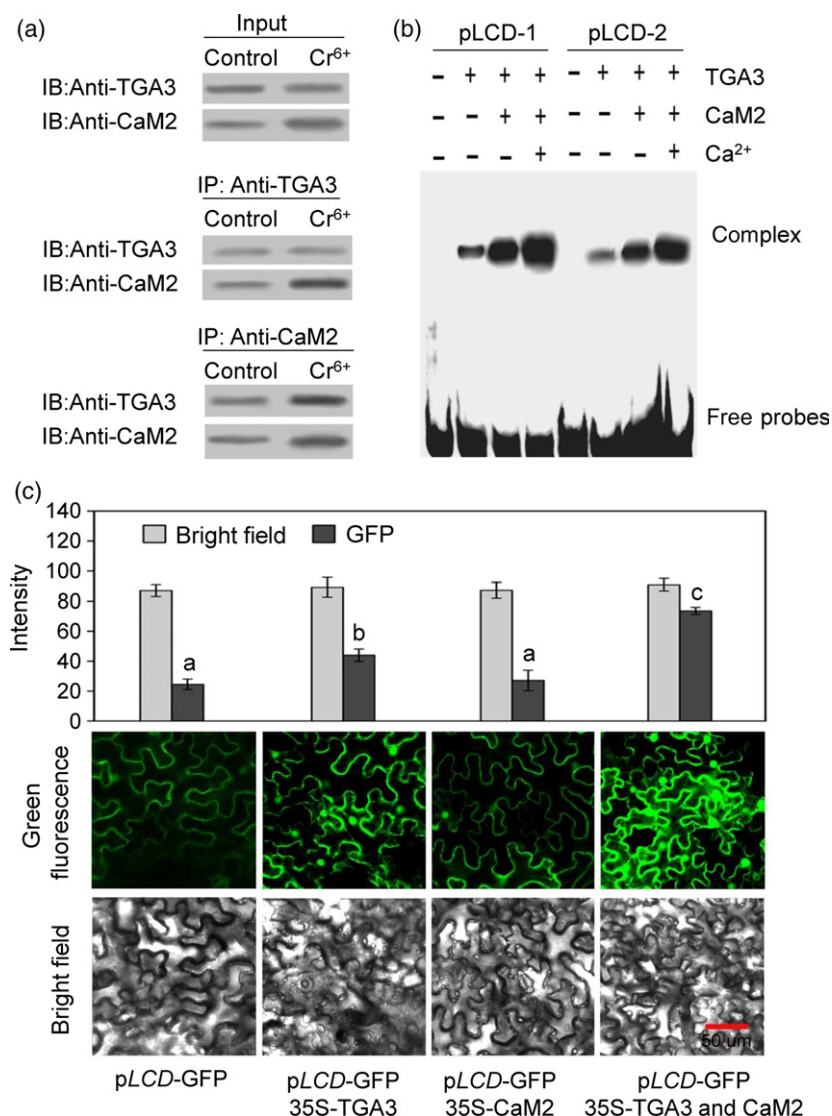


Figure 5. Calmodulin2 (CaM2) interacted with TGA3 and enhanced its binding ability to the *LCD* promoter.

(a) The combination of CaM2 and TGA3 in Arabidopsis with or without Cr⁶⁺ stress. Protein extracted from the wild type (WT), with (Cr⁶⁺) and without (CK) 180 μmol L⁻¹ Cr⁶⁺ stress, was immunoprecipitated (IP) by anti-TGA3 or anti-CaM2 antibodies, respectively, and then the precipitates were immunoblotted (IB) with the appropriate antibodies.

(b) The effects of Ca²⁺ and CaM2 on the binding activity of TGA3 to the *LCD* promoter. The TGA3-recombinant protein was incubated with labeled pLCD probes in the absence or presence of Ca²⁺ and CaM2. The complexes were analyzed by electrophoretic mobility shift assay, and the experiments were repeated three times with similar results.

(c) The effects of CaM2 and TGA3 on the transcriptional activity of the *LCD* promoter. The effector constructs, CaMV 35S-TGA3 and CaMV 35S-CaM2, and the reporter construct pLCD-GFP, were transformed into tobacco leaves, and the green fluorescence intensities, which indicated the transcriptional activity of the *LCD* promoter, were observed using confocal laser scanning microscopy (Zeiss, LSM-880). Bars = 50 μm. The gray column indicates bright field intensities and the black column indicates green fluorescence intensities. The construct CaMV 35S-RFP was simultaneously transformed into the tobacco leaves as a control. Each value is the mean ± SE of three independent experiments, and different letters indicate significant differences ($P < 0.05$). [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com].

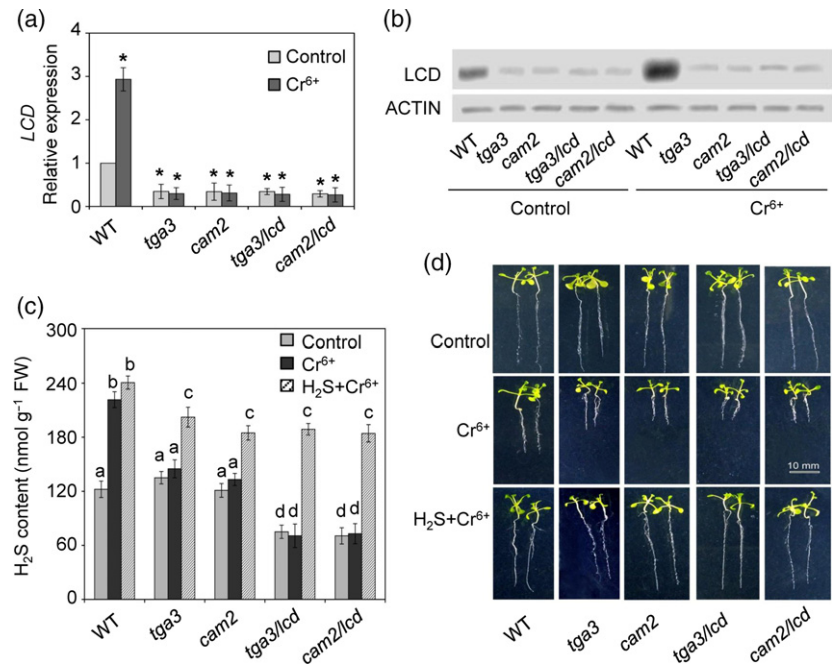
Figure 6. TGA3 and calmodulin2 (CaM2) are important in L-cysteine desulfhydrase (LCD) expression and H₂S generation during defense of Arabidopsis against Cr⁶⁺ stress.

(a), (b) The transcriptional and translational levels of LCD in *tga3*, *cam2*, *tga3/lcd* and *cam2/lcd* mutants with or without Cr⁶⁺ stress.

(c) Effects of exogenous H₂S fumigation on the H₂S content in Cr⁶⁺-stressed *tga3*, *cam2*, *tga3/lcd* and *cam2/lcd* mutants.

(d) Effects of exogenous H₂S fumigation on the root elongation of wild type (WT), *tga3*, *cam2*, *tga3/lcd* and *cam2/lcd* mutants during Cr⁶⁺ stress.

The seeds of WT, *tga3*, *cam2*, *tga3/lcd* and *cam2/lcd* Arabidopsis mutants were grown directly on 1/2 MS medium or 1/2 MS medium containing 180 μmol L⁻¹ Cr⁶⁺. After growing for 2 weeks, the LCD transcriptional (a) and translational (b) levels, the H₂S contents (c) and the growth phenotypes (d) were recorded from 20 seedlings. Data are means ± SE of three biological repeats, and error bars indicate the SE. *Significant differences at *P* < 0.05; different letters indicate significant differences (*P* < 0.05). [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com].



supporting the conclusion that CaM2 and its binding transcription factor TGA3 acted upstream of LCD expression and H₂S emission during defense against Cr⁶⁺ stress in Arabidopsis.

DISCUSSION

H₂S is a versatile gasotransmitter, and different concentrations of H₂S act differently in plants. Physiological levels of H₂S mediate numerous positive functions, but a high level of H₂S can be cytotoxic (Wang, 2012). Thus, to benefit from H₂S, it must be maintained at the appropriate level. Correspondingly, there must be some stress-targeted and stress-induced signals in plants to directly or indirectly modulate the H₂S level, ensuring that the endogenous H₂S emission is activated and that H₂S remains at its physiological concentration. Under these conditions H₂S acts as a transmitter that mediates the appropriate cellular responses in plants.

The transcription factor TGA3 activated LCD expression and H₂S emission in Arabidopsis under Cr⁶⁺ stress by integrating into CaM2-mediated Ca²⁺ signaling

A regulatory mechanism for endogenous H₂S generation in Cr⁶⁺-stressed seedlings was proposed based on this study, which indicated that Ca²⁺/CaM2-mediated TGA3 functioned as a switch regulating LCD expression and modulating H₂S generation during the response of Arabidopsis to Cr⁶⁺ stress. As shown in Figure 7, Cr⁶⁺ stress increased CaM2 expression, and then the CaM2-mediated Ca²⁺ signal in Arabidopsis was received and the stress signal transmitted. After the loading of Ca²⁺, CaM2 physically

interacted with the bZIP transcription factor TGA3 and enhanced its binding affinity to the 'TGACG' cis-acting elements present in the LCD promoter, forming the Ca²⁺/CaM2-TGA3-pLCD complex, which acted as a transcriptional activator to enhance LCD expression and then H₂S production (Figure 7).

The assay for *trans*-activation ability in tobacco leaves illustrated that TGA3 enhanced pLCD-GFP fluorescence intensity, and co-expression of CaM2 strengthened the TGA3-induced increase in LCD promoter activity (Figure 5c). However, without TGA3, CaM2 alone had no *trans*-activation ability and could not alter the fluorescence intensity of pLCD-GFP (Figure 5c), suggesting that is TGA3 indispensable in Ca²⁺/CaM2-TGA3-pLCD complex formation and LCD transcription. This was further supported by the ChIP analysis, in which the anti-CaM2 antibody could not precipitate the pLCD fragments in the *tga3* mutant, but the anti-TGA3 antibody could precipitate the pLCD fragments in the *cam2* mutant (Figure 4d).

Collectively, Ca²⁺/CaM2 received and transmitted the Cr⁶⁺ stress signal, and the CaM2-targeted TGA3 then acted as a pivotal regulator for activating LCD transcription and H₂S emission. Subsequently, the activated endogenous H₂S was utilized to induce appropriate cellular responses and fight against Cr⁶⁺ stress (Figure 7). H₂S acted as a gasotransmitter and then further induced cysteine accumulation, which increased the Cr⁶⁺ stress tolerance of the Arabidopsis seedlings (Fang *et al.*, 2016). Cr⁶⁺ stress-induced H₂S acts as a gasotransmitter to upregulate the expression of the cysteine synthesis-related genes *SAT1*, *SAT5* and *OASTLa*, thus improving cysteine accumulation. The H₂S–

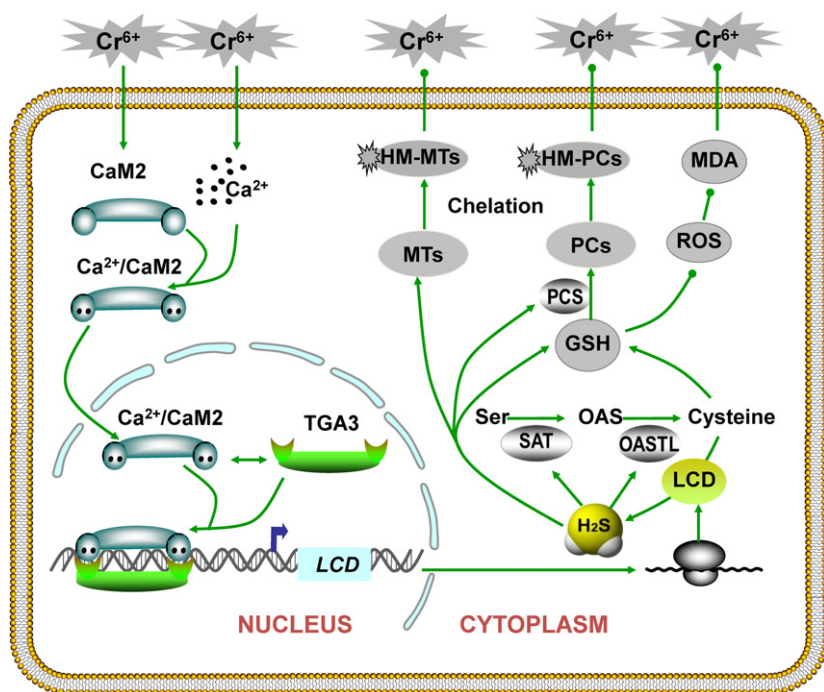


Figure 7. Model of how Ca^{2+} /calmodulin2 (CaM2) and TGA3 regulate LCD expression and H_2S generation during defense against Cr^{6+} stress in Arabidopsis.

Arrows indicate enhanced expression levels, and hyphens indicate suppressed expression levels. Ca, calcium; CaM, calmodulin; Cr, chromium; GSH, glutathione; H_2S , hydrogen sulfide; HMs, heavy metals; LCD, L-cysteine desulfhydrase; MT, metallothionein; OASTL, O-acetyl-L-serine (thiol) lyase; PC, phytochelatin; PCS, phytochelatin synthase; ROS, reactive oxygen species; SAT, serine acetyltransferase; Ser, serine; TGA, 'TGACG'-binding factor. [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com].

cysteine signaling then participated in physiological processes that mediated metal detoxification, activating generation of the antioxidant GSH to relieve the Cr^{6+} stress-associated oxidative damage and promoting the accumulation of HM chelators to chelate Cr^{6+} (Figure 7) (Fang *et al.*, 2016).

Interestingly, Yang *et al.* reported that the activity of cystathionine γ -lyase (CSE), an important enzyme responsible for physiological generation of H_2S in animals, could be activated by the Ca^{2+} /CaM pathway (Yang *et al.*, 2008). This was the first study to propose a correlation between Ca^{2+} signaling and H_2S production. In the current study, we propose a specific mechanism for enhancement of endogenous H_2S generation by Ca^{2+} /CaM2, suggesting that Ca^{2+} /CaM2-enhanced LCD expression via TGA3-mediated transcriptional regulation.

The interplay between Ca^{2+} , CaM2 and its target TGA3 increased the flexibility of transcriptional regulation of LCD

In this study, Cr^{6+} stress did not change TGA3 expression, but increased the transcriptional and translational levels of CaM2 (Figure 4a), and correspondingly enhanced the interactions of CaM2 with its target protein TGA3 (Figure 5a). The EMSA analysis indicated that TGA3 bound specifically to the LCD promoter (Figure 4c) and that Ca^{2+} /CaM2 strengthened this combination (Figure 5b). Moreover, in Cr^{6+} -stressed seedlings, more LCD promoter fragments were precipitated by both anti-TGA3 and anti-CaM2 antibodies (Figure 4d, left). This suggested that Cr^{6+} stress

induced more stable Ca^{2+} /CaM2–TGA3–pLCD complexes to enhance LCD expression.

CaM, a small acidic protein that contains four EF hands for Ca^{2+} -binding, is the best characterized Ca^{2+} sensor. Although CaM has no enzymatic activity of its own, it can interact with proteins and regulate their functions to transmit signals (Iqbal *et al.*, 2002). CaM responds to the elevation of cytosolic Ca^{2+} . Binding to Ca^{2+} induces a conformational change in CaM and regulates its interactions with target proteins. Thus, Ca^{2+} /CaM-mediated signaling pathways are integrated into the plant's physiological responses to external stimuli (Kim *et al.*, 2009). The intracellular Ca^{2+} level can be increased by Cr^{6+} stress (Fang *et al.*, 2014). As shown in Figure 5(b), Ca^{2+} enhanced the binding of CaM2 with TGA3 *in vitro*, and thus more Ca^{2+} /CaM2–TGA3–pLCD complexes were formed (Figure 5b), suggesting that CaM2 interacted with TGA3 in, at least partially, a Ca^{2+} -dependent manner. Conversely, CaM-targeted proteins or peptides can enhance the ability of CaM to bind Ca^{2+} (Johnson *et al.*, 1996), and the enhancing effects of different target proteins on the Ca^{2+} –CaM combination are not identical (Zielinski, 1998). Accordingly, it is more appropriate to regard CaM2 as a tunable molecular modulator, rather than a simple on and off switch to initiate and transmit the Ca^{2+} signal during Cr^{6+} stress, activating LCD expression. Ca^{2+} enhanced the combined effect of CaM2 and TGA3, while TGA3 may in turn modify the ability of CaM2 to bind to Ca^{2+} through feedback loops; thus the CaM2-mediated cellular response can be modulated with more flexibility, not just on and off.

The sophisticated interplay between Ca²⁺, CaM and the target proteins gives Ca²⁺ signaling in plants a high level of complexity and flexibility when responding to stresses.

Complicated interactions between the gasotransmitter H₂S and Ca²⁺ signaling during plant responses to environmental stimuli

Based on our model, we can interpret some previously reported phenomena. In our previous study, Cr⁶⁺ stress caused a rapid increase in intracellular Ca²⁺, and exogenous Ca²⁺ strengthened H₂S production induced by Cr⁶⁺ stress in *Setaria italica* (Fang *et al.*, 2014). Coincidentally, Li *et al.* (2012) reported that Ca²⁺ and CaM induced endogenous accumulation of H₂S, which increased thermotolerance in tobacco suspension cultured cells. Thus, Ca²⁺ signaling, one of the earliest events in response to numerous stimuli, was activated to transmit the stress signal and finally induce the appropriate protective responses. Importantly, the modulation of H₂S emission might be a critical step in Ca²⁺/CaM-mediated stress defenses.

However, some studies found that H₂S regulates Ca²⁺ signaling to mediate cellular biological functions in plants. Li *et al.* (2012) reported that pre-treatment with NaHS promoted the entry of Ca²⁺ into tobacco suspension cultured cells to increase heat tolerance (Li *et al.*, 2012). H₂S can also regulate the expression of the Ca²⁺ transporter, to close stomata in response to drought stress (Jin *et al.*, 2013). H₂S can regulate some Ca²⁺ sensors and interact with Ca²⁺ signaling to enhance Cr⁶⁺ tolerance in *S. italica* (Fang *et al.*, 2014). Thus, during the responses of plants to environmental stimuli, Ca²⁺ signaling and H₂S have complicated connections not a simple linear relationship. The Ca²⁺ signal results from environmental stimuli and has a key role in modulating H₂S functions that initiate some defense responses in plants. Conversely, H₂S regulated Ca²⁺ transporters and Ca²⁺ sensors to further tune signaling transduction and complete the cycle. Thus, the interaction between Ca²⁺ signaling and the gasotransmitter H₂S appears to be more intricate than previously thought, and this topic demands more research.

Here, the H₂S content was no different in the Cr⁶⁺ and EGTA plus Cr⁶⁺ treated *lcd* mutant (Figure 3b), but the EGTA plus Cr⁶⁺ combined treatment had a more dramatic root phenotype and root elongation in *lcd* mutants was significantly suppressed (Figure 3c, d). Thus, Ca²⁺ signaling could also regulate root development in an LCD-independent manner, and in the EGTA-treated *lcd* mutant the H₂S content decreased and the Ca²⁺ signal was downregulated by EGTA; therefore, the effect of Cr⁶⁺ toxicity on root growth was significantly increased (Figure 3c, d).

Additionally, the transcriptional regulation of LCD may be a key step in the Ca²⁺ signaling-associated increase in H₂S production; however, this is not the only pathway, because the activation effect of Ca²⁺ on H₂S emission was

decreased, but not completely destroyed, in the Cr⁶⁺-stressed *lcd* mutant (Figure 3b). This indicated that there were other H₂S-producing enzymes activated by Ca²⁺ signaling during the response of Arabidopsis to Cr⁶⁺ stress.

The endogenous H₂S content in Cr⁶⁺-stressed *cam2* and *tga3* was much lower than that in the WT (Figure 6c), which made the mutants more sensitive to Cr⁶⁺ stress (Figure 6d). Thus, the defect in CaM2 or TGA3 decreased endogenous H₂S generation, reducing the ability of the mutants to defend against Cr⁶⁺ stress. Interestingly, during normal condition, LCD transcription and translation decreased obviously in *cam2* and *tga3* (Figure 6a, b), but the H₂S content showed no obvious difference between the WT and mutants (Figure. 6c). This suggested that there may be other signals or other H₂S-producing enzymes than LCD in *cam2* and *tga3* to supplement H₂S emission. In other words, there are precise regulatory pathways for maintaining a basic level of H₂S in these mutants. However, although *cam2* and *tga3* have supplementary pathways for H₂S content, Cr⁶⁺ stress still could not increase the H₂S content to a higher level (Figure 6c), suggesting that the Ca²⁺/CaM2-TGA3-mediated regulation of LCD transcription was dominant in activating H₂S emissions during defense against Cr⁶⁺ stress in Arabidopsis. This was supported the higher sensitivities to Cr⁶⁺ stress of *cam2* and *tga3* (Figure 6d). The root lengths of the double mutants *tga3/lcd* and *cam2/lcd* were much shorter than in the WT during Cr⁶⁺ stress, indicating that CaM2 and TGA3 acted upstream of LCD expression. These results highlight the importance of CaM2-mediated Ca²⁺ signaling in regulating endogenous H₂S emission during the response of Arabidopsis to Cr⁶⁺ stress.

H₂S functions as a gasotransmitter in plant defenses against numerous stresses, and the appropriate level of H₂S can reduce the accumulation of HMs in millet (Tian *et al.*, 2017). Our results indicated a regulatory pathway for endogenous H₂S emission in the responses of Arabidopsis to Cr⁶⁺ stress. The results also emphasized the important role of CaM2-targeted TGA3 in tuning LCD expression, and hence H₂S production, suggesting that manipulation of the endogenous H₂S level through genetic engineering may assist agricultural production on soil contaminated with HMs. Recently, the H₂S target proteins, as well as the interactions between H₂S and other signals in the H₂S regulatory network, have attracted attention. The focus is currently on the proteins' S-sulfhydration and polysulfide reactions mediated by H₂S, which may require the transition of intermediate links and the contribution of other signals.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Plant materials

Seeds of *A. thaliana* WT (Columbia, Col-0), the LCD T-DNA insertion mutant *lcd* (SALK_082099), the TGA3 T-DNA insertion

mutant *tga3* (SALK_086928) and the *CaM2* T-DNA insertion mutant *cam2* (SALK_089283) were employed in this research. The seeds of *lcd* were obtained from the Arabidopsis Biological Resource Center (<http://www.arabidopsis.org/abrc/>). The *tga3* mutant was kindly provided by Jiawei Wang (Institute of Plant Physiology and Ecology, Shanghai Institutes for Biological Sciences, Chinese Academy of Sciences, China). The *cam2* mutant was kindly provided by Weicai Yang (Institute of Genetics and Developmental Biology, Chinese Academy of Sciences, China). After stratification at 4°C, seeds were sterilized in 75% ethanol for 50 sec and 6% sodium hypochlorite for 8 min under sterile conditions. After washing with sterile water three times, seeds were grown on 1/2 MS medium with or without additional treatments under a 16-h/8-h (light/dark) photoperiod, with light illumination at 160 E m⁻² sec⁻¹, at 23°C, with 60% relative humidity.

For Cr⁶⁺ stress, a sterile K₂Cr₂O₇ solution was added directly to the 1/2 MS medium. For Ca²⁺ treatment, a sterile CaCl₂ solution was added to the 1/2 MS medium and the final concentration of Ca²⁺ was 20 mmol L⁻¹ (the data for selecting the effective concentration of Ca²⁺ are shown in the Figure S1 in the Supporting Information). For Ca²⁺ deprivation, the 1/2 MS medium was coated with a sterile solution of 5 mmol L⁻¹ EGTA. For the H₂S treatment, the materials were kept in Petri dishes placed in a sealed glass container and then fumigated with 50 μmol L⁻¹ H₂S, which was released from NaHS, a widely recognized H₂S donor, and all of the manipulations were performed as described previously (Fang et al., 2014).

RNA extraction and real-time quantitative RT-PCR

Two-week-old seedlings were collected for total RNA extraction with RNA isolation TRIzol[®] Reagent (Invitrogen, <http://www.invitrogen.com/>), according to the manufacturer's instructions. The cDNAs used for real-time quantitative RT-PCR (qRT-PCR) were synthesized using a reverse transcription system kit (TaKaRa, <http://www.takara-bio.com/>) and oligo(dT) primers. All of the primer pairs used for qRT-PCR were checked for amplification specificity and are listed in Table S1. *Ubiquitin4* (*UBQ4*, *At5g20620*) was used as the internal control. A Bio-Rad Real-Time System (CFX96TM C1000 Thermal Cycler, <http://www.bio-rad.com/>) was used to perform qRT-PCR.

Determination of the H₂S production rate and H₂S content

Total protein extracts were collected from 2-week-old seedlings, then L-cysteine was added as a substrate in the extracts to determine the H₂S production rate using a previously published protocol (Jin et al., 2013). The endogenous H₂S content was detected using a novel polarographic H₂S sensor (WPI, TBR4100, <https://www.wpiinc.com/>), and all of the manipulations were performed according to a previous publication (Riemenschneider, 2006).

Production of recombinant proteins TGA3 and CaM2

The cDNAs encoding TGA3 (*At1g22070*) and CaM2 (*At2g41110.1*) were cloned into the 6× His-tagged vector pET28a. After checking their accuracy, the plasmids were independently transformed into *Escherichia coli* BL21, and 1 mmol L⁻¹ isopropyl β-D-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG) was used to induce TGA3 expression at 16°C or 0.5 mmol L⁻¹ IPTG to induce CaM2 expression at 28°C. The recombinant proteins were purified with the Ni²⁺-chelating column according to the manufacturer's instructions. The purified proteins were used for *in vitro* experiments and antibody preparation.

Electrophoretic mobility shift assay

The EMSA was executed according to a previously published method (Liu et al., 2012). The recombinant 6× His-TGA3 and 6× His-CaM2 proteins purified from *Escherichia coli* BL21 were used for EMSA. For probes, the promoter fragments (pLCD-1 and pLCD-2) and the site-specific mutated pLCD fragments (mpLCD-1 and mpLCD-2) were amplified and labeled with digoxigenin-11-dUTP (Roche, <http://www.roche.com/>) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The primers used for probe amplification are listed in Table S1.

The labeled probes and recombinant proteins were incubated in binding buffer [10 mM 2-amino-2-(hydroxymethyl)-1,3-propanediol (TRIS)-HCl (pH 8.0), 20 mM NaCl, 0.4 mM MgCl₂, 0.25 mM EDTA and 0.25 mM DTT] at 25°C for 30 min, with poly (dI-dC) as a non-specific competitor. Then, the samples were separated on a 5% polyacrylamide gel (19:1 acrylamide:bisacrylamide) and transferred onto a nylon filter membrane (Hybond-N⁺, GE, <http://www.gelifesciences.com/>). After UV crosslinking, the membrane was blocked in blocking reagent for 2 h and incubated with the anti-digoxigenin-AP antibody for 1 h. The result was detected using a CDP-star-based detection kit (Roche).

Trans-activation ability assay in tobacco leaves

This assay was performed as previously described (Liu et al., 2012). To obtain the effector constructs, the cDNAs of *TGA3* (*At1g22070*) and *CaM2* (*At2g41110.1*) were amplified and fused to the pCambia1302 vector downstream of the cauliflower mosaic virus (CaMV) 35S promoter at the *Bam*HI/*Hind*III sites and *Nco*I/*Pst*I sites, respectively. The primer pairs are listed in Table S1. For the reporter construct, the *GFP* gene was driven by the *LCD* promoter (−1 bp to −1398 bp), which was fused to the *Pst*I/*Kpn*I sites and replaced the CaMV 35S promoter in pCambia1300. These constructs were mobilized into *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* strain GV3101 and infiltrated into young but fully expanded leaves of 7-week-old *Nicotiana benthamiana* plants using a needleless syringe. The concentration of the reporter construct pLCD-GFP should be identical among treatments and controls in each assay group. After infiltration, plants were kept in the dark for 12 h and then transferred to a 16-h/8-h (light/dark) photoperiod for 60 h. Subsequently, the GFP fluorescence was observed by confocal laser scanning microscopy (LSM-880, Zeiss, <https://www.zeiss.com/>). The experiments were repeated five times independently, with similar results.

Chromatin immunoprecipitation assay

The ChIP assay was performed as previously described (Pei et al., 2007; Mukhopadhyay et al., 2008). WT seedlings, with or without Cr⁶⁺ stress, as well as the *tga3* and *cam2* loss-of-function mutants, were used for the ChIP assay. Four-week-old seedlings were immersed in the crosslinking buffer, which contained 0.4 M sucrose, 10 mM TRIS-HCl (pH 8.0), 1 mM phenylmethanesulfonyl fluoride (PMSF), 5 mM β-mercaptoethanol and 1% formaldehyde, for a 10-min vacuum treatment, and glycine (0.125 M) was added to terminate the reaction with an additional 5-min vacuum treatment. Subsequently, the seedlings were ground rapidly in liquid nitrogen, and the resuspended chromatin was sonicated to fragments of 0.5–2.0 kb at 4°C. The sheared chromatin was incubated in ChIP dilution buffer [16.7 mM TRIS-HCl (pH 8.0), 167 mM NaCl, 1.2 mM EDTA, 1 mM PMSF and 1.1% Triton X-100]. After pre-combination with 20 μl of Protein G Agarose/Salmon Sperm DNA (16-201, Upstate, <http://www.merck.cn/zh/index.html>) for 1 h at 4°C with gentle rotation, the chromatin was recovered and incubated

with the appropriate antibodies overnight at 4°C. The pre-immune serum, instead of the antibody, was the negative control. Then, 40 µl of Protein G Agarose/Salmon Sperm DNA was added to the mixture for a further 2-h incubation at 4°C. Subsequently, the agarose beads were collected, and the immunoprecipitated chromatin was isolated by reversing crosslinking. The non-immunoprecipitated sonicated chromatin was reverse crosslinked and used as an input DNA control. Both immunoprecipitated DNA and input DNA were analyzed by PCR.

The polyclonal anti-TGA3 antibody (10 000×) and anti-CaM2 antibody (20 000×), made by the Biology Institute of Shanxi (<http://www.sxsws.com/>), were used to immunoprecipitate TGA3 and CaM2, which in turn pulled down bound DNA fragments.

The experiment was repeated independently with three biological replicates, with similar results.

Co-immunoprecipitation assay

The ColP assays were performed as previously described (Shang *et al.*, 2010). Approximately 0.6 mg of 4-week-old Arabidopsis seedlings was ground in liquid nitrogen and then resuspended in 1 ml of extraction buffer containing 50 mM TRIS-HCl (pH 7.4), 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 0.1% Triton X-100, 10% glycerol, 1 mM PMSF and 1× protease inhibitor cocktail. The protein extract was then collected by centrifugation at 12 000g for 5 min at 4°C. After pre-incubation with protein G agarose beads, the protein extract was incubated with the anti-TGA3 (10 000×) or anti-CaM2 antibody (20 000×) at 4°C overnight with gentle rotation. Subsequently, the protein G agarose beads were added. After incubation at 4°C with gentle rotation for 3 h, the beads were collected and washed three times with extraction buffer and resuspended. The immunoprecipitates were separated on a 12% SDS-PAGE and analyzed by immunoblotting with anti-TGA3 (10 000×) or anti-CaM2 antibody (20 000×).

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CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest.

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article.

Figure S1. The effects of Ca²⁺ on the root growth and H₂S production rate in Cr⁶⁺ stressed Arabidopsis.

Table S1. Primers used in this study.

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