

EFFECTS OF CADMIUM AND ARSENIC IONS ON CONTENT OF PHOTOSYNTHETIC PIGMENTS IN THE LEAVES OF *GLYCINE MAX* (L.) MERRILL

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Abstract

Heavy metals belong to significant pollutants of environment accumulate in organisms and are unable to degrade. The goal of our experiments was to measure spectroscopically the content of photosynthetic pigments in the leaves of two soybean cultivars (*Glycine max* L.) exposed to cadmium (50 mg.kg⁻¹ of soil Cd²⁺) and the metalloid arsenic (5 mg.kg⁻¹ of soil As³⁺). Electrothermal atomic absorption spectroscopy analyses showed that after 10 days of plant growth in contaminated soil the shoots of the cv. Bólyi 44 accumulated much more Cd than As, and in both cases in significantly larger amounts than in the cv. Cordoba. However, leaves of the cv. Cordoba exerted more signs of intoxication since statistically significant decrease of some chlorophyll (Chl) content such as Chl_a, Chl_(a+b) and Chl_{a/b} were detected in the Cd²⁺-treated leaves. Our results revealed, that leaves of the cv. Bólyi 44 has significantly higher amount of carotenoids that might serve as protection compounds against metal damage.

Introduction

The metalloid arsenic and the heavy metal cadmium are found naturally at low concentrations in the earth's crust, while main natural sources of these metals are volcanic eruptions. However, they are also released to the environment as a result of different anthropogenic activities (Kazantzis, 1987; Rühling, 1994). As a consequence, leaking of these metals into atmosphere, soil or into irrigation water is becoming a serious environmental issue since can affect the normal growth and development of plants, and after entering the food chain represents a health risk for animals and humans as well.

Both arsenic and cadmium (for simplicity henceforth used for both the term "metal") are considered to be biologically nonessential. However, being neighbouring elements of phosphorus and zinc (respectively) in the respective columns of the periodic table, they tend to substitute for P and Zn in the cellular metabolism. This renders them potentially toxic for the living cells. Cellular As(V), is usually rapidly reduced to As(III), which behaves as a sulphur-seeking heavy metal ion, rather like Cd²⁺ (Verbruggen *et al.*, 2009). Therefore, there is a degree of similarity between the toxicologies of, and the sequestration machineries of the two metals. Toxic effects of arsenic and cadmium on the seedlings of crops has been reported by several authors (Abedin & Meharg, 2002; Liu *et al.*, 2005; Li *et al.*, 2007), while the symptoms of metal toxicity in plants were manifested by wilting, chlorosis and dying of the leaves (Stoeva *et al.*, 2005; Bavi *et al.*, 2011), limiting of the growth of roots and shoots (Carbonell-Barrachina *et al.*, 1998; Shafi *et al.*, 2010; Mészáros *et al.*, 2013), decreasing of the length of roots and shoots (Stoeva *et al.*, 2005; Shri *et al.*, 2009; Ozdener & Kutbay, 2011) and decreasing the yield of fruits and grains (Rahman *et al.*, 2007).

Leaf pigment content provides valuable information about the physiological status of plants and can indicate to

occurring metal intoxication. The chlorophylls (Chls) are essential for the conversion of light energy to stored chemical energy, while their content can directly determine the photosynthetic potential and primary production (Curran *et al.*, 1990). In addition Chls indirectly indicate to nutrition status of plants since much of leaf nitrogen is incorporated in chlorophyll (Filella *et al.*, 1995; Moran *et al.*, 2000). Furthermore, leaf Chl content is closely related to plant stress and senescence (Hendry *et al.*, 1987; Merzlyak & Gitelson 1995; Merzlyak *et al.*, 1999). On the other hand, another type of pigments – the carotenoids (Car) – play a structural role in the organization of photosynthetic membranes, participation in light harvesting, energy transfer, interception of deleterious free oxygen and organic radicals and quenching (Young & Britton, 1990).

Since heavy metals can affect each photosynthetic component at different level creating changes in some part of plants physiology and not in others (Li *et al.*, 2009), the goal of this study was to assess the accumulation and effect of both cadmium and arsenic (respectively) on contents of basic photosynthetic pigments in two soybean cultivars. Though in plants the metals accumulate mainly in the root system, soybeans were shown to have higher concentrations of metal in the edible portion comparing to other crops (Sugiyama *et al.*, 2011). Therefore, we focused on metal impact on the shoot system of the tested soybean plants. Studies on metal translocation to aboveground organs are expected to provide further knowledge for control of heavy metal pollution and food safety.

Materials and Methods

Plant growth condition and exposure to metals: Surface sterilized seeds of soybean (*Glycine max* L. Merrill. cv. Bólyi 44, cv. Cordoba) were germinated in the Petri dish (Ø 15 cm) for 3 days. When the roots

reached a length of 5-8 mm, they were planted to pots (Ø 25 cm, volume 1 500 ml) to a mixture of peat soil BORA (pH 5 to 7, humidity 65%) and perlite (in a ratio of 4:1). Plants were grown until the unifoliolate (UL) and the first trifoliolate leaves (TL) had fully developed, and the second trifoliolate leaf was half-developed. They were flooded with distilled water, amount of which corresponded to the maximum sorption capacity of soil (~700 ml). The dose of metal (5 mg.kg⁻¹ of soil As³⁺ and 50 mg.kg⁻¹ of soil Cd²⁺) in the form As₂O₃ and Cd(NO₃)₂.4H₂O solution (respectively) and distilled water as control were applied on plants on the 10th day of experiment. The experiments were conducted in a growth chamber with a controlled climate at 23°C. After 10 days of plant growth in control and contaminated soil, the growth parameters such as shoot length, fresh weight and dry weight were determined.

Measurements of pigment content in leaves: Chlorophyll (Chl) and carotenoid (Car) content was determined spectrophotometrically (UV-VIS spectrophotometer, Shimadzu, Tokyo, Japan) at wavelengths 663 nm (Chla), 645 nm (Chlb), 470 nm (Car), and calculated according to Lichtenthaler & Wellburn (1985). For each treatment, measurements were carried out on 8-10 leaves that were taken from 5 plants. The experiment was performed in four replicates.

Measurements of metal content in leaves: Dried plant material (0.5g) was digested in the mixture of 5ml water, 5ml of concentrated HNO₃ p.a. (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) and 1.5ml of H₂O₂ p.a. (Slavus, Bratislava, Slovakia) by using the microwave oven Mars Xpress (CEM Corporation, Matthews, USA). Decomposition temperature was 140°C, ramp time 15 minutes and hold time 13 minutes. After digestion the solution was diluted to 25 ml with deionized water and filtered through an acid-resistant cellulose filter (Whatman No. 42). Blank samples were prepared in a similar way. The elements (As and Cd) were determined by electrothermal atomic absorption spectroscopy (AAS Perkin Elmer 1100B, Norwalk, Connecticut, USA) equipped with deuterium background correction and HGA 700 graphite furnace with automated sampler AS-70. Arsenic content was measured at wavelength 189 nm, slit 2 nm, and lamp current EDL 8W. Working conditions for Cd were: wavelength 228.8 nm; slit 0.2 nm and lamp current EDL 4.5W.

To prepare calibration solutions, aliquots were taken from a stock standard solution 1000 mg.l⁻¹ of As/Cd (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany). The calibration range was 5 - 20 µg.l⁻¹. The matrix modifier (Ru) was used by the determination of As. The accuracy of analytical results for As/Cd content in plant samples was checked by the analysis of the certified reference material BCR No 60 (trace elements in an aquatic plant). The recommended value for As was 8 µg.g⁻¹ and the determined value was 8.1µg g⁻¹; for Cd the certified value was 2.2± 0.1µg.g⁻¹, the determined value was 2.2 ± 0.2µg.g⁻¹.

Statistical analyses: Each experiment was performed at least in triplicate. For statistical analyses the software JMP IN 8.0.2. was used. After verification of normal distribution and variance homogeneity the data was analysed by t-test (comparison of two treatments) or ANOVA with subsequent student's t-test or Tukey-test with $\alpha = 0.05$. If normal distribution was not fulfilled nonparametric tests (Wilcoxon) were applied. Data in the tables are expressed as the means of replicates ± standard deviation (SD).

Results and discussion

The doses of metal (loid) applied in this work are comparable or higher than are commonly found in soils in Europe; the mean value for As content in soils of Slovakia is 7.2 mg.kg⁻¹ of soil (Dragun, 1998) and for cadmium is 1.24 mg.kg⁻¹ of soil (Hronec, 1996). Different literature data indicate that in different plant species (Peralta *et al.*, 2001; Stoeva *et al.*, 2005; Ahmad *et al.*, 2012) and lichens and moss (Bačkor *et al.*, 2010; Pisani *et al.*, 2011) they caused different toxicity symptoms. For example, Peralta *et al.*, (2001) reported a reduction of shoot length of *Medicago sativa* at the applied dose of 5 mg and 20 mg Cd²⁺.l⁻¹, while the dose of 40 mg Cd²⁺.l⁻¹ was lethal. Stoeva *et al.*, (2005) reported that immersion of bean roots in solution of arsenic at a dose of 2 mg(As).dm⁻³ resulted in significant signs of toxicity.

In contrast to the mentioned observations, no wilting or chlorosis of leaves was observed in our experiment at the given doses of As and Cd. The stressed plants of the cv. Cordoba showed faster growth. However, this was not reflected in the final shoot biomass (neither fresh weight nor dry matter) (Table 1). On the other hand, we have scored a significant reduction in dry weight of shoots of the cv. Bólyi 44 (by 24, 34%) exposed to Cd, but at the same time no differences in lengths and fresh weights of stressed- versus control shoots. Thus, the impact of the two metals on the growth of tested soybean plants was relatively mild, possibly given by bioavailability of metals in the soil used.

The exposure to metals, however, resulted in significantly elevated amounts of both As and Cd accumulated in the soybean shoots (Table 2). Clearly, the plants of the cv. Bólyi 44 took up significantly higher amounts of metal comparing to the cv. Cordoba ($p < 10^{-5}$). Nevertheless, based on a survey on Cd-accumulation capacity of 150 Japanese soybean cultivars (Sugiyama *et al.*, 2011) both the cv. Bólyi 44 and the cv. Cordoba represent a low-accumulating cultivar type. In the mentioned work the average concentrations of Cd in shoots for the low- and high accumulating soybean groups were 2.19 (± 0,02) µg.g⁻¹ and 4.16 (± 0,11) µg.g⁻¹, respectively. Accumulation of metals in entire shoots (and later on seeds) is determined by the ability to accumulate the metal in roots and is given genetically (Sugiyama *et al.*, 2007).

Table 1. Effect of arsenic (As) and cadmium (Cd) on the selected physiological parameters of shoots of the cvs. Bólyi 44 and Cordoba with respect to corresponding controls (C).

Cultivar	Treatment	length	FW	DW
Bólyi 44	As	21,52 ± 1,93 ^{n.s.}	1,17 ± 0,22 ^{n.s.}	0,15 ± 0,06 ^A
	Cd	21,27 ± 2,23 ^{n.s.}	1,23 ± 0,29 ^{n.s.}	0,12 ± 0,04 ^B
	C	20,93 ± 1,77 ^{n.s.}	1,26 ± 0,22 ^{n.s.}	0,15 ± 0,04 ^A
Cordoba	As	31,03 ± 5,20 ^A	1,60 ± 0,40 ^{n.s.}	0,21 ± 0,07 ^{n.s.}
	Cd	30,34 ± 3,79 ^A	1,57 ± 0,30 ^{n.s.}	0,22 ± 0,06 ^{n.s.}
	C	28,10 ± 2,54 ^B	1,64 ± 0,27 ^{n.s.}	0,22 ± 0,07 ^{n.s.}

Values followed by different letters in the same column for a genotype indicate a significant difference at $p < 0.05$; n.s.: no significant difference between treatments

Table 2. Content of As and Cd (in $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$) in the shoots of the studied plants.

Metal (oid)	Bólyi 44			Cordoba		
	control	metal-stressed	fold increase	control	metal stressed	fold increase
Arsenic	0,31 ± 0,00	1,18 ± 0,22 ^{***}	3,8	0,31 ± 0,00	0,87 ± 0,19 ^{**}	2,8
Cadmium	0,12 ± 0,03	5,82 ± 0,73 ^{***}	46,9	0,21 ± 0,02	2,72 ± 0,35 ^{***}	13,3

Asterisks indicate significant difference with respect to control values at $p < 0.01$ (**) or $p < 0.001$ (***)

In the leaves of both the soybean cultivars we investigated the effects of heavy metals on the leaf pigment contents, since it is considered as a marker of physiological state of plants during not only development and senescence, but also acclimation and adaptation to different environments and stresses including heavy metals (Young & Britton, 1990). According to several authors (Li *et al.*, 2009) changes in the concentration of Chl *a* and *b* and particularly changes in their ratio are an equal important parameter for estimating the effect of an environmental parameter in plants. However, in the leaves (both unifoliar and trifoliar) of the Cd-treated plants of the cv. Cordoba we found that the content of Chl *a*, the sum of (Chl *a* + Chl *b*) and the Chl *a/b* weight ratio (unifoliar leaves only) was negatively affected (Table 3), as observed also by others (Ouzounidou *et al.*, 1997; Raziuddin *et al.*, 2011). In contrast, the contents of Chl *b* or carotenoids remained unaltered. Previously it has been shown that ions of cadmium cause chlorophyll *a* to degrade more rapidly than chlorophyll *b* (Oliveira *et al.*, 1994; Abdel-Basset *et al.*, 1995; Kummerová *et al.*, 2010). The reduction in chlorophylls (Kang *et al.*, 2007; Shah *et al.*, 2008) under cadmium stress has been attributed to disruption of the chloroplast structure (Barceló *et al.*, 1988), direct inhibition of the activity of sulfhydryl requiring enzymes such as ALA (δ -aminolevulinat)-synthase and ALA-dehydratase (important for tetrapyrrole biosynthetic pathway leading to chlorophyll formation) and RUBISCO (Mobin & Khan, 2007). Since the Chl *a/b* weight ratio is an indicator of the functional pigment equipment and light adaptation/acclimation of the photosynthetic apparatus, monitoring of its decreasing can be used as an early warning system for the toxic

effect of metal accumulation in plants (Li *et al.*, 2009). Nevertheless, altered content of a single photosystem component does not appear to be a sufficient indicator for occurring intoxication.

Our data (Tables 1 and 3) are in agreement with previous observations that Car content is affected to lesser extent than Chl content (Stoeva *et al.*, 2005). In contrast they do not seem to support the hypothesis that in young metal-stressed plants the photosynthesis is inhibited to less extent than growth (Merakchiyska & Yordanov 1983; Stoeva *et al.*, 2005).

Inspite that except for the few above mentioned metal-related changes no other ones were detected in neither of the 2 cultivars (Table 3). The carotenoid and other pigment levels in the leaves of the cv. Bólyi 44 were significantly higher when compared with the cv. Cordoba (Table 4). This difference between the plants of the 2 cultivars was significant in case of both control- as well as heavy metal-stressed plants. This fact might have serious consequences for capability to fate stress conditions since the photosynthetic equipment directly determines the energetically status of plants as a prerequisite for activate defense (Drazkiewicz *et al.*, 2003; Stamp, 2003). In addition, under normal conditions carotenoid retention in the progress of Chl breakdown directly contributes to photoprotection during leaf senescence (Merzlyak & Gitelson, 1995). The higher carotenoid biosynthesis/content of leaves of the cv. Bólyi 44 is a genetic characteristic and might indicate to relatively better defense equipment against stresses (Middleton & Teramura, 1993). Thus, these results in our study support the previously described genotype-dependent response of plants to heavy metals (Metwally *et al.*, 2005; Sugiyama *et al.*, 2011).

Table 3. Contents of photosynthetic pigments in the leaves of two soybean cultivars exposed to heavy metals.

Leaf type	Pigment content (mg.g ⁻¹ of fresh weight)					
	cv. Bólyi 44			cv. Cordoba		
	control	As 5	Cd 50	control	As 5	Cd 50
	Chlorophyll a					
Unifoliar	1,83 ± 0,54 ^A	1,66 ± 0,10 ^A	1,75 ± 0,40 ^A	1,47 ± 0,32 ^A	1,46 ± 0,18 ^A	1,16 ± 0,29 ^B
Trifoliar	1,70 ± 0,45 ^A	1,45 ± 0,11 ^A	1,62 ± 0,44 ^A	1,54 ± 0,25 ^A	1,48 ± 0,23 ^{AB}	1,25 ± 0,15 ^B
	Chlorophyll b					
Unifoliar	0,58 ± 0,19 ^A	0,44 ± 0,13 ^A	0,50 ± 0,17 ^A	0,48 ± 0,11 ^A	0,46 ± 0,04 ^A	0,45 ± 0,10 ^A
Trifoliar	0,45 ± 0,13 ^A	0,39 ± 0,11 ^A	0,46 ± 0,10 ^A	0,43 ± 0,10 ^A	0,45 ± 0,07 ^A	0,38 ± 0,06 ^A
	Carotenoids					
Unifoliar	0,54 ± 0,19 ^A	0,46 ± 0,08 ^A	0,49 ± 0,18 ^A	0,37 ± 0,11 ^A	0,37 ± 0,08 ^A	0,36 ± 0,11 ^A
Trifoliar	0,45 ± 0,09 ^A	0,41 ± 0,07 ^A	0,49 ± 0,22 ^A	0,43 ± 0,06 ^A	0,35 ± 0,12 ^A	0,36 ± 0,10 ^A
	Chlorophyll (a+b)					
Unifoliar	1,14 ± 0,30 ^A	1,06 ± 0,07 ^A	1,11 ± 0,22 ^A	0,97 ± 0,17 ^A	0,96 ± 0,09 ^A	0,79 ± 0,14 ^B
Trifoliar	1,07 ± 0,25 ^A	0,90 ± 0,08 ^A	0,99 ± 0,28 ^A	0,99 ± 0,16 ^A	0,96 ± 0,13 ^A	0,82 ± 0,09 ^B
	Chlorophyll a/b					
Unifoliar	3,72 ± 1,07 ^A	3,60 ± 0,73 ^A	4,34 ± 0,91 ^A	3,46 ± 0,62 ^A	3,03 ± 0,36 ^B	2,78 ± 0,45 ^B
Trifoliar	4,01 ± 0,93 ^A	4,14 ± 0,97 ^A	3,86 ± 0,78 ^A	3,44 ± 0,55 ^A	3,31 ± 0,58 ^A	3,28 ± 0,55 ^A
	Chlorophyll (a+b)/ Carotenoids					
Unifoliar	2,14 ± 0,40 ^A	2,31 ± 0,37 ^A	2,14 ± 0,25 ^A	2,51 ± 0,42 ^A	2,65 ± 0,38 ^A	2,52 ± 0,23 ^A
Trifoliar	2,25 ± 0,40 ^A	2,23 ± 0,28 ^A	2,25 ± 0,30 ^A	2,31 ± 0,32 ^A	2,53 ± 0,27 ^A	2,55 ± 0,41 ^A

Values followed by different letters in the same column for a genotype indicate a significant difference at p<0.05

Table 4. Overview of the results of the 2-way ANOVA analysis on the pigment content data from metal-exposed soybean leaves.

	Chl a			Chl b			Car			Chl(a+b)			Chla/b			Chl(a+b)/car		
	G	LT	I	G	LT	I	G	LT	I	G	LT	I	G	LT	I	G	LT	I
As	*	*	*	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	*	*	n.s.	*	n.s.	n.s.	*	n.s.	n.s.
Cd	*	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	*	n.s.	n.s.	*	n.s.	n.s.	*	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.

Asterisks indicate significant effect of the genotype (G), leaf type (LT - unifoliar or trifoliar) or their interaction (I) at p<0.01 (**) or p<0.5 (*). No significant effect is indicated as n.s.

The data obtained in this study further pointed differences in responses when the 2 leaf types (unifoliar and trifoliar) were compared, or when the interaction of leaf type and genotype was assayed. For example, the decrease of the Chla content upon. As treatment was not significant with respect to corresponding controls in case of the cv. Bólyi 44 (Table 3). However, it appeared to be significantly different between the unifoliate and trifoliate leaf of the same plant (Table 4). In this case the interaction of genotype and leaf type was significant as well (Table 4). Previously the close relationship between the age and type of the leaf tissue and response of the photosynthetic apparatus under Cd stress has been shown (Drazkiewicz *et al.*, 2003; Barceló *et al.*, 1988). The phenomenon has partially been attributed to differences in accumulation of glutathione and phytochelatins involved in metal chelation and detoxification (Drazkiewicz *et al.*, 2003). A trade-off between development (growth) and

defence has been presumed and a range of theories exist that try to explain spatial and temporal variation in plant defense (reviewed in Stamp, 2003).

Conclusions

Cadmium accumulated in shoots of soybean increased the length of shoots of the cv. Cordoba, while arsenic caused significant decrease of dry weight of shoots of the cv. Bólyi 44. Nevertheless, the signs of occurring stress were mild and out of the photosynthetic pigments analysed only the content of chlorophyll a was negatively affected in the leaves of the cv. Cordoba. The genotype dependent response to heavy metals can be attributed to several factors (e.g. to the content of phytochelatins involved in metal detoxification), while in this work it coincides with the content of photosynthetic pigments e.g. carotenoids that are effective antioxidative

protectants. The results of our analyses suggest that pigment content can be a more sensitive and perhaps reliable indicator for plant damage by heavy metals than plant growth parameters since the negative effect cannot be readily observed. Further experiments on a larger genotype set would be required to identify the possible correlation between carotenoids and metal tolerance. Furthermore, plant response apparently varies in different plant parts. Therefore, specificities of plant defense mechanisms are important to consider to efficiently avoid/eliminate heavy metal pollution.

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