



Influence of salt stress on water uptake, pigments system, ion-homeostasis in crop plants

Mohsen Arabshahi*, Hamid Reza Ganjali, Ahmad Mehraban

Department of Agronomy, Islamic Azad University, Zahedan Branch, Zahedan, Iran

Abstract Increased salinization of arable land is expected to have devastating global effects, resulting in 30% land loss within the next 25 years and up to 50% by the middle of twenty-first century. High soil salinity causes both hyperionic and hyperosmotic stress and can lead to plant demise. Salinity in a given land area depends upon various factors like amount of evaporation (leading to increase in salt concentration), or the amount of precipitation (leading to decrease in salt concentration). Changes of pigment system contents under salt stress are used as parameter for selection of tolerant and sensitive cultivars in crop plants. Chlorophyll a, chlorophyll b, chlorophyll a/b and carotenoid contents showed increase and decrease depending on exposure time of NaCl exposure in many plants. When K substitute by Na in biochemical reactions then Ion cytotoxicity is happening and when Na and Cl ions interfere with non covalent interactions between their amino acid, then proteins don't function, thus in salinity condition poisonous levels of sodium and also inadequate amount of K for enzymatic reactions and osmotic adjustment is happened.

Keywords Toxicity, Morphological Adaptations, Salinity

Introduction

High salt depositions in the soil generate a low water potential zone in the soil, making it increasingly difficult for the plant to acquire both water as well as nutrients. The basic physiology of high salt stress and drought stress overlaps with each other. Salinization of soil is a serious land degradation problem and is increasing steadily in many parts of the world, in particular in arid and semiarid areas [1-2]. Increased salinization of arable land is expected to have devastating global effects, resulting in 30% land loss within the next 25 years and up to 50% by the middle of twenty-first century [3]. High soil salinity causes both hyperionic and hyperosmotic stress and can lead to plant demise. Salinity in a given land area depends upon various factors like amount of evaporation (leading to increase in salt concentration), or the amount of precipitation (leading to decrease in salt concentration) [4]. Therefore, salt stress essentially results in a water-deficit condition in the plant and takes the form of a physiological drought [4]. In plants, both drought and salinization are manifested primarily as osmotic stress, resulting in the disruption of homeostasis and ion distribution in the cell [5]. Increased salinization of arable land is expected to have devastating global effects, resulting in 30% land loss within the next 25 years and up to 50% by the middle of twenty-first century [3].

Toxicity in plants

Toxicity in plants results mainly from high concentrations of ions Na^+ , Cl^- , [6], although most studies on salinity effect on plants are associated with NaCl excess and few studies have focused on Na_2SO_4 performance in growth [7-8] and in physiology of plants [9]. Na^+ and Cl^- are present in greater amounts in seawater; thus, aquatic environments close to the sea may present high concentrations of Na^+ and Cl^- . High concentrations of SO_4^{2-} may be



found in aquatic environment where there are ores and anthropogenic activities such as agriculture [10]. Proximity to seawater also influences sulphate concentration in coastal aquatic environments [11].

Morphological Adaptations

Munns (1992) [12] concluded that the salts absorbed by plants do not control growth directly, but that they do influence turgor, photosynthesis and/or the activity of specific enzymes. Demonstrating the complexity of salt stress, this author developed a model showing a two-phase effect of salinity on plant growth. Growth is first reduced by a decrease in the soil water potential (osmotic phase) and, later, a specific effect appears as salt injury in leaves, which die because of a rapid increase in salt in the cell walls or cytoplasm when the vacuoles can no longer sequester incoming salts (ionic phase). Munns (1992) [12] found that this salt accumulation in the old leaves accelerates their death and thus decreases the supply of carbohydrates and/or growth hormones to the meristematic regions, thereby inhibiting growth. The fact that plant growth is limited by a reduction in the photosynthesis rate and by an excessive uptake of salts affects the production of specific metabolites that directly inhibit growth (Azza *et al.*, 2007). Salinity reduces plant growth through osmotic and toxic effects, and high sodium uptake ratio values cause sodicity, which increases soil resistance, reduces root growth, and reduces water movement through the root with a decrease in hydraulic conductivity [13]. Root hydraulic conductivity in field crops may vary in response to the salt content of the irrigation water applied [14]. In general, the root hydraulic conductivity in plants irrigated with poor quality water tends to decrease. In fact, the effect on root hydraulic conductivity is one of the main factors determining the sustainability of a reclaimed water irrigation system. Normally, root hydraulic conductance is expressed in terms of the whole root dry weight, without taking into account the role of root architecture in the water uptake capacity. Nonetheless, for any given root dry weight value, the amount of fine roots, which determine the root length and surface area, may vary greatly, thus, affecting the water absorption level [15]. Moreover, in assays where the grafted technique has been applied, the rootstock properties can affect the plant response to salinity. Salt-tolerant rootstocks alleviate the negative effects of abiotic stress to a greater extent than salt-sensitive rootstocks. Navarro *et al.* (2010) [16] described worse fruit yield and quality in *Clemenules* mandarin trees grafted on Carrizo (salt-sensitive rootstock) compared with Cleopatra (salt-tolerant rootstock), both irrigated with a NaCl solution (30 mM). The anatomy of the root system (length, root diameter, etc.) determines root performance, enabling plants to acquire water and nutrients and thereby increase the replacement rate of plant water lost [17]. Optimum root systems can support shoot growth and improve plant yields, since roots serve as an interface between plants and the soil [18]. A proliferated root system would therefore appear to be better for plants, for it allows them to penetrate deeper layers of soil to acquire water and nutrients [19]. Recent studies, however, have shown that species with other root features, including small roots, can be more advantageous for shoot development [20]. For example, just a few roots in moist soil can provide amounts of water independent of the root number. Other root characteristics, such as the number and diameter of xylem vessels, width of the root cortex, number of root hairs, and the suberin deposition in both the root exodermis and endodermis, also determine the permeability of roots to water [21]. Furthermore, environmental factors in the soil (changes in temperature, lack of O₂, mechanical impedance, salinity) can also produce marked impacts on root anatomy. The cell walls of root cells of salinized plants are often unevenly thickened and convoluted [22]. Salts often promote the suberisation of the hypodermis and endodermis in woody tree roots, resulting in the formation of a well-developed casparian strip closer to the root apex, different to that found in non-salinized roots [23]. Furthermore, the morphology of some plants shows their sensitivity to salinity. For example, in avocado trees, the root system is quite superficial and presents low ramification, thus reducing the water and nutrient absorption capacity [24], resulting in a higher sensitivity to soil salinity [25]. These morphological features limit the distribution of this crop to areas where irrigation water is of good quality. Saline water irrigation has also been found to alter the root system morphology of *Callistemon citrinus* plants [26].

Pigments system

Net photosynthesis and stomatal conductance are significantly affected by salt stress due to changes in chlorophyll content and chlorophyll fluorescence, damage of photosynthetic apparatus and chloroplast structure [27]. Plant



pigments content were determined in different tolerant and sensitive plant varieties at wide range of salt concentrations [28]. Chlorophyll a, chlorophyll b and carotenoid are main photosynthetic pigments and they play important role in photosynthesis. The changes in the amount of pigments system were evaluated as the changes in photosynthesis. Changes of pigment system contents under salt stress are used as parameter for selection of tolerant and sensitive cultivars in crop plants [29]. Chlorophyll a, chlorophyll b, chlorophyll a/b and carotenoid contents showed increase and decrease depending on exposure time of NaCl exposure in many plants [30]. The reduction of chlorophyll a and chlorophyll b amounts with NaCl application was reported in many plants such as *Zea mays*, *Carthamus tinctorius*, *Bean* and *Paulownia imperialis* that this due to increasing of destructive enzymes called chlorophyllase [31]. Pigments system reduction is attributed to a salt induced weakening of protein-pigment-lipid complex or increased chlorophyllase enzyme activity [32]. Also, increase in pigment content was observed in salinity stressed plant such as *Rice* [27] and *Purslane* [31], that this increment may be due to increase in the number of chloroplast in the stressed plant leaves [33]. In other hand, the changes in pigment system were affected by exposure time and salt concentration [27].

Plants growing in saline soil

Plants growing in saline soil are subjected to three distinct physiological stresses. First, the toxic effects of specific ions such as sodium and chloride, prevalent in saline soils, disrupt the structure of enzymes and other macromolecules, damage cell organelles, disrupt photosynthesis and respiration, inhibit protein synthesis, and induce ion deficiencies [34]. Second, plants exposed to the low osmotic potentials of saline soil are at risk of physiological drought because they must maintain lower internal osmotic potentials to prevent water moving from the roots into the soil. Finally, salinity also produces nutrient imbalance in the plant caused by decreased nutrient uptake and/or transport to the shoot [35-36]. As a consequence, salt stress affects all the major processes, such as growth, photosynthesis, protein synthesis, and energy and lipid metabolisms [37].

Ion-homeostasis

Salinity interrupts homeostasis ion distribution and water potential at cellular and whole plant levels [38-39]. When K substitute by Na in biochemical reactions then Ion cytotoxicity is happening and when Na^+ and Cl^- ions interfere with non covalent interactions between their amino acid, then proteins don't function, thus in salinity condition poisonous levels of sodium and also inadequate amount of K for enzymatic reactions and osmotic adjustment is happened [40-42]. Potassium is necessary in high concentrations, and functions in the cell through direct interacting in enzyme activation, stabilization of protein synthesis, and neutralization of negative charges on proteins [43-45] also the positive correlation between potassium content and final yield in different crops was reported [41, 46-47]. When potassium shortage is happened, acidification and sodium transport are increased [48-49].

Water uptake

Salt has two major effects on plants: osmotic stress and ionic toxicity, both of which affect all major plant processes [50]. Plants are able to take up water and essential minerals because they have a higher water pressure than the soil under normal conditions. When salt stress occurs, the osmotic pressure of the soil solution is greater than that in plant cells. Thus, the plant cannot get enough water [51]. In addition, its cells will have decreased turgor and its stomata will close to conserve water. Stomatal closing can lead to less carbon fixation and the production of Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS) such as superoxide and singlet oxygen. ROS disrupts cell processes through damage to lipids, proteins, and nucleic acids [52]. Ionic toxicity occurs when concentrations of salts are imbalanced inside cells and inhibit cellular metabolism and processes. Sodium ions at the root surface disrupt plant nutrition of the similar cation potassium by inhibiting both potassium uptake and enzymatic activities within the cell. Potassium is an important nutrient in a plant, regulating over 50 enzymes (Kader, 2010). Essential for maintaining cell turgor pressure, creating membrane potential, and regulating enzymatic activities, potassium must be maintained at 100-200mM in the cytosol. Sodium, on the other hand, causes stress at concentrations higher than 10mM in the cytosol



[51]. Na^+ is a cation similar to K^+ and easily crosses the cell membrane. It also acts as an inhibitor to many enzymes, affecting metabolic processes. Calcium cations, however, protect some plants through signaling pathways that regulate potassium sodium transporters [52]. When a plant senses salt stress through transmembrane proteins or enzymes in the cytosol, the amount of calcium in the cytosol increases [51]. Calcium is a second messenger important to many biochemical pathways and can aid plants in responding to salt stress. The osmotic and ionic stress induced by salinity can halt plant growth as the plant focuses its energy on conserving water and improving ionic balance. In order for plants to return to normal functioning and photosynthesis, the plant must facilitate its own detoxification – damage must be prevented or lessened, homeostasis must be reestablished, and growth must resume [39].

References

1. Giri B, Kapoor R, Mukerji KG (2003) Influence of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi and salinity on growth, biomass, and mineral nutrition of *Acacia auriculiformis*. *Biol Fertil Soils* 38:170–175.
2. Al-Karaki GN (2006) Nursery inoculation of tomato with arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi and subsequent performance under irrigation with saline water. *Sci Hortic* 109:1–7.
3. Wang WX, Vinocur B, Altman A (2003) Plant responses to drought, salinity and extreme temperatures: towards genetic engineering for stress tolerance. *Planta* 218:1–14.
4. Mahajan S, Tuteja N (2005) Cold, salinity and drought stresses: an overview. *Arch Biochem Biophys* 444:139–158.
5. Serrano R, Cullianz-Macia FA, Moreno V (1999) Genetic engineering of salt and drought tolerance with yeast regulatory genes. *Sci Hortic* 78:261–269.
6. Chinnusamy, V. and Zhu, JK. 2003. Plant salt tolerance: In *Plant Responses to Abiotic Stress. Topics in Current Genetics*, vol. 4, p. 241-270.
7. Renault, S., Croser, C., Franklin, JA. and Zwiazek, JJ. 2001. Effects of NaCl and Na_2SO_4 on red-osier dogwood (*Cornus stolonifera* Michx) seedlings. *Plant and Soil*, vol. 233, no. 2, p. 261-268.
8. Stoeva, N. and Kaymakanova, M. 2008. Effect of salts stress on the growth and photosynthesis rate of bean plants (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.). *Journal of Central European Agriculture*, vol. 9, no. 4, p. 385-392.
9. Pagter, M., Bragato, C., Malagoli, M., Brix, H. 2009. Osmotic and ionic effects of NaCl and Na_2SO_4 salinity on *Phragmites australis*. *Aquatic Botany*, vol. 90, no. 1, p. 43-51.
10. Davies, TD. 2007. Sulphate toxicity to the aquatic moss, *Fontinalis antipyretica*. *Chemosphere*, vol. 66, p. 444-451.
11. Esteves, BS. and Suzuki, MS. 2008. Efeito da salinidade nas plantas. *Oecologia Brasiliensis*, vol. 12, no. 4, p. 662-679.
12. Munns, R. A leaf elongation assay detects an unknown growth inhibitor in xylem sap from wheat and barley. *Aust. J. Plant Physiol.* 1992, 19, 127–135
13. Rengasamy, P.; Olsson, K.A. Irrigation and sodicity. *Aust. J. Soil Res.* 1993, 31, 821–837.
14. Steudle, E. Water uptake by roots: Effects of water deficit. *J. Exp. Bot.* 2000, 51, 1531–1542.
15. Jonathan, N.F.G.; Lehti-Shiu, M.D.; Ingram, P.A.; Deak, K.I.; Biesiada, T.; Malamy, J.E. Identification of quantitative trait loci that regulate *Arabidopsis* root system size and plasticity. *Genetics* 2006, 172, 485–498
16. Navarro, J.M.; Gómez-Gómez, A.; Pérez-Pérez, J.G.; Botía, P. Effect of saline conditions on the maturation process of clementine *Clemenules* fruits on two different rootstocks. *Span. J. Agric. Res.* 2010, 8, 21–29.
17. Passioura, J.B. Water Transport in and to Roots. *Ann. Rev. Plant Physiol. Plant Mol. Biol.* 1988, 39, 245–265.
18. Vamerali, T.; Saccomani, M.; Bona, S.; Mosca, G.; Guarise, M.; Ganis, A. A comparison of root characteristics in relation to nutrient and water stress in two maize hybrids. *Plant Soil* 2003, 255, 157–167.
19. Franco, J.A.; Bañón, S.; Vicente, M.J.; Miralles, J.; Martínez-Sánchez, J.J. Root development in horticultural plants grown under abiotic stress conditions—A review. *J. Hortic. Sci. Biotechnol.* 2011, 86, 543–556.



20. Ma, S.C.; Li, F.M.; Xu, B.C.; Huang, Z.B. Effect of lowering the root/shoot ratio by pruning roots on water use efficiency and grain yield of winter wheat. *Field Crops Res.* 2010, 115, 158–164.
21. Steudle, E. Water uptake by roots: Effects of water deficit. *J. Exp. Bot.* **2000**, 51, 1531–1542.
22. Shannon, M.C.; Grieve, C.M.; Francois, L.E. Whole-plant response to salinity. In *Plant-Environment Interactions*; Wilkinson, R.E., Ed.; Marcel Dekker, Inc.: New York, NY, USA, 1994; pp. 199–244.
23. Walker, R.R.; Sedgley, M.; Blesing, M.A.; Douglas, T.J. Anatomy, Ultrastructure and Assimilate Concentrations of Roots of Citrus Genotypes Differing in Ability for Salt Exclusion. *J. Exp. Bot.* 1984, 35, 1481–1494.
24. Whiley, A.W.; Schaffer, B.; Wolstenholme, B.N. *The Avocado. Botany, Production and Uses*; CAB International: Wallingford, UK, 2002.
25. Bernstein, N.; Meiri, A.; Zilberstaine, M. Root Growth of Avocado is More Sensitive to Salinity than Shoot Growth. *J. Am. Soc. Hortic. Sci.* **2004**, 129, 188–192.
26. Álvarez, S.; Sánchez-Blanco, M.J. Long-term effect of salinity on plant quality, water relations, photosynthetic parameters and ion distribution in *Callistemon citrinus*. *Plant Biol.* **2014**, 16, 757–764.
27. Doganlar ZB, Demir K, Basak H, Gul I (2010). Effects of salt stress on pigment and total soluble protein contents of the three different Tomato cultivars. *Afr. J. Agri.* 5(15): 2056-2065.
28. Sarwat MI, El-Sherif MH (2007). Increasing salt tolerance in some Barley genotypes (*Hordeum vulgare*) by using kinetin and benzyladenin. *World. J. Agric. Sci.* 3(5): 617-629.
29. Eryilmaz F (2007). The relationships between salt stress and anthocyanin content in higher plants. *Biotechnol. J.* 20(1): 47-52.
30. Pinheiro HA, Silva JV, Endres L, Ferreira VM, Camara CA, Cabral FF, Santos BG (2008). Leaf gas exchange, chloroplastic pigments and dry matter accumulation in Caster bean (*Ricinus communis* L.) seedlings to salt conditions. *Crop. J.* 27: 385-392.
31. Rahdari P, Tavakoli S, Hosseini SM (2012). Studying of salinity stress effect on germination, proline, sugar, protein, lipid and chlorophyll content in Purslane (*Portulaca oleraceae* L.) leaves. *Stress Physio and Bio. J.* 8(1): 182-193
32. Turan MA, Katkat V, Taban S (2007). Variations in proline, chlorophyll and mineral elements contents of Wheat plants grown under salinity stress. *Agronomy. J.* 6(1): 137-141.
33. Chaum S, Kirdmanee C (2009). Effect of salt stress on proline accumulation, photosynthetic ability and growth characters in two Maize cultivars.
34. Juniper S, Abbott LK (2006) Soil salinity delays germination and limits growth of hyphae from propagules of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi. *Mycorrhiza* 16:371–379.
35. Marschner H (1995) *Mineral Nutrition of Higher Plants*, Academic Press.
36. Adiku SGK, Renger M, Wessolek G, Facklam M, Hecht-Bucholtz C (2001) Simulation of the dry matter production and seed yield of common beans under varying soil water and salinity conditions. *Agr Water Manage* 47:55–68
37. Ramoliya PJ, Patel HM, Pandey AN (2004) Effect of salinization of soil on growth and macro- and micro-nutrient accumulation in seedlings of *Salvadora persica* (Salvadoraceae). *For Ecol Manag* 202:181–193.
38. Tunuturk M, Tuncturk R, Yildirim B, Ciftci V (2011) Effect of salinity stress on plant fresh weight and nutrient composition of some Canola (*Brassica napus* L.) cultivars. *Afr J Biotech.* 10 (10): 1827-1832
39. Zhu JK (2001) Plant salt tolerance. *Trends Plant Sci.* 6: 66-71.
40. Munns R, James RA, Lauchli A (2006) Approaches to increasing the salt tolerance of wheat and other cereals. *J Exp Bot.* 57: 1025–1043.
41. Ashraf M, Harris PJ (2004) Potential biochemical indicators of salinity tolerance in plants. *Plant Sci.* 166: 3–16.
42. Zhu JK (2002) Salt and drought stress signal transduction in plants. *Annu rev plant biol.* 53: 247-273.



43. Pandolfi C, Mancuso S, Shabala S (2012) Physiology of acclimation to salinity stress in pea (*Pisum sativum*). *Environ Exp Bot.* 84: 44– 51.
44. Marschner H, Kuiper PJC, Kylin A (1981) Genotypic differences in the response of sugar-beet plants to replacement of potassium by sodium. *Physiol Plant* 51:239–244
45. Perrenoud S (1990) Potassium and Plant Health, International Potash Institute, Basel.
46. Rameeh V (2013) Effect of Salinity Stress on Yield, Component Characters and Nutrient Compositions in Rapeseed (*Brassica napus* L.) Genotypes. *Agri tropica subtrop.* 46 (2): 58-63.
47. Bandeh Hagh A, Toorchi M, Mohammadi A, Chaparzadeh N, Salekdeh G H, Kazemnia H (2008) Growth and osmotic adjustment of canola genotypes in response to salinity. *J Food Agric Environ.* 6 (2): 201-208.
48. Batlle DC, Kurtzman NA (1985) Renal regulation of acid-base homeostasis: an integrated response. In *The Kidney Physiology and Pathophysiology*, D. W. Seldin and G. Giebisch, editors. Raven Press, New York. 1539-1565.
49. Kurtzman NA (1990) Disorders of distal acidification. *Kidney Int.* 38: 720-727.
50. Yadav S, Irfan M, Ahmad A, Hayat S (2011) Causes of salinity and plant manifestations to salt stress: A review. *J Environ Biol* 32: 667-685
51. Kader MAL, S. (2010 March) Cytosolic calcium and pH signaling in plants under salinity stress. *Plant Signal Behav.* 5(3): 233-238
52. Parida AK, Das AB (2005) Salt tolerance and salinity effects on plants: a review. *Ecotox. Environ. Safe.* 60: 324-349.

