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The role of ABA and MAPK signaling pathways in plant abiotic stress responses

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ABSTRACT

As sessile organisms, plants have developed specific mechanisms that allow them to rapidly perceive and respond to stresses in the environment. Among the evolutionarily conserved pathways, the ABA (abscisic acid) signaling pathway has been identified as a central regulator of abiotic stress response in plants, triggering major changes in gene expression and adaptive physiological responses. ABA induces protein kinases of the SnRK family to mediate a number of its responses. Recently, MAPK (mitogen activated protein kinase) cascades have also been shown to be implicated in ABA signaling. Therefore, besides discussing the role of ABA in abiotic stress signaling, we will also summarize the evidence for a role of MAPKs in the context of abiotic stress and ABA signaling.

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1. Introduction

Abiotic stresses such as drought, high salinity, heat, cold, freezing, limited nutrient availability, heavy metals and hypoxia are severe environmental stresses that impair productivity in crop systems (Qin et al., 2011; Tuteja, 2007; Wang et al., 2003). Together, these stresses constitute the primary causes of crop losses worldwide, reducing average yields of most major crop plants by more than 50% (Boyer, 1982; Bray et al., 2000; Wang et al., 2003). Current climate change scenarios predict an increase in mean surface temperatures and aridity that will drastically affect global agriculture in the near future (Le Treut et al., 2007). Together with the decline in arable farmland due to soil degradation and human activities, an immense pressure is put on crop production to feed the burgeoning human population in the next decades. For these reasons, a major goal in plant science is to understand how plants respond to and withstand environmental stresses successfully. This understanding is crucial in providing us with the basis for effective engineering strategies to increase stress tolerance.

Abiotic stresses trigger many biochemical, molecular, and physiological changes and responses that influence various cellular and whole plant processes (Wang et al., 2001, 2003). For example, drought, salinity and low temperature stress lead to reduced availability of water (also known as dehydration/osmotic stress) characterized by a decreased turgor pressure and water loss (Boudsocq and Lauriere, 2005; Dhariwal et al., 1998). Osmotic stress promotes the synthesis of the phytohormone abscisic acid (ABA) which then triggers a major change in gene expression

and adaptive physiological responses (Seki et al., 2002; Shinozaki and Yamaguchi-Shinozaki, 2007; Yamaguchi-Shinozaki and Shinozaki, 2006). Recently, the core signaling complexes that perceive ABA and transmit cues to downstream events have been deciphered (Fujii et al., 2009; Ma et al., 2009; Park et al., 2009). This discovery has not only provided new avenues to test existing research hypotheses on ABA signaling but has also helped in shaping new ideas. Currently, the link between the core ABA complex and other known regulatory pathways of stress signaling in plants, such as the MAPK pathways, are beginning to unfold. This manuscript aims to review our current knowledge on the connection between ABA and MAPK pathways in the context of abiotic stress responses in plants.

2. ABA signaling in plants

ABA belongs to the class of isoprenoids (terpenoids) (Nambara and Marion-Poll, 2005) and also belongs to the most important phytohormones involved in plant growth, development and adaptation to various stress conditions (Schroeder et al., 2001a; Shinozaki and Yamaguchi-Shinozaki, 2000; Verslues et al., 2006). ABA is reported in all kingdoms of life with the exception of Archea (Hauser et al., 2011). A dynamic balance of biosynthesis and degradation determines the amount of available cellular ABA. In plants, these two processes are influenced by developmental and environmental factors such as light, salinity and water stress (Cutler and Krochko, 1999).

The functions of ABA in plants are multiple. High cellular ABA levels lead to synthesis of storage proteins in seeds, promote seed desiccation tolerance and dormancy (Finkelstein et al., 2002, 2008) and inhibit seed germination. ABA is also involved in the control of lateral root formation and seedling growth (Xiong et al., 2006) as well as in the reduction of water transpiration through promotion of stomatal pore closure

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(Hetherington, 2001; Kim et al., 2010). Moreover, ABA controls the expression of a large set of stress-responsive genes (Hoth et al., 2002; Nemhauser et al., 2006; Seki et al., 2002).

2.1. ABA biosynthesis, catabolism and transport

2.1.1. ABA biosynthesis

With the exception of the conversion of xanthoxin to ABA in the cytoplasm, all the steps for the de novo ABA synthesis occur in plastids (Seo and Koshiba, 2002). The early C₅ precursor of ABA, Isopentenyl pyrophosphate (IPP) is produced primarily in plastids via 1-deoxy-D-xylulose-5-phosphate (DXP) from pyruvate and glyceraldehydes-3-phosphate (Cutler and Krochko, 1999; Nambara and Marion-Poll, 2005; Seo and Koshiba, 2002; Wasilewska et al., 2008). This leads to the sequential production of farnesyl pyrophosphate, geranylgeranyl pyrophosphate (GGPP), phytoene, ζ -carotene, lycopene and β -carotene. β -carotene is converted to a xanthophyll, zeaxanthin, which is the first oxygenated carotenoid (Seo and Koshiba, 2002). Subsequent steps involve the synthesis of *cis*-isomers of violaxanthin and neoxanthin that are cleaved to form xanthoxin (the C₁₅ precursor of ABA). This cleavage is catalyzed by the 9-*cis*-epoxycarotenoid dioxygenase (NCED) enzymes (Schwartz et al., 1997, 2003; Tan et al., 1997). Xanthoxin is presumed to migrate from the plastid to the cytosol (Nambara and Marion-Poll, 2005), where it is converted to ABA by three possible pathways: via abscisic aldehyde, xanthoxic acid or abscisic alcohol (Seo and Koshiba, 2002).

2.1.2. ABA catabolism

Cellular ABA levels can be lowered via two pathways: hydroxylation and conjugation (Nambara and Marion-Poll, 2005).

ABA hydroxylation – ABA is hydroxylated via oxidation of the methyl groups of the ring structure at three positions, C-7', C-8', and C-9', of which C-8' is the primary site (Cutler and Krochko, 1999; Zeevaert and Creelman, 1988). The three forms of hydroxylated ABA exert significant biological activity (Zhou et al., 2004; Zou et al., 1995), but hydroxylation triggers further inactivation steps (Nambara and Marion-Poll, 2005). Cytochrome P450 monooxygenase (CYP707A) catalyzes the hydroxylation of ABA at the C-8' to form unstable 8'-hydroxy ABA, which is subsequently converted to phaseic acid (PA) by spontaneous isomerization (Kushiro et al., 2004; Nambara and Marion-Poll, 2005; Saito et al., 2004). PA is then converted to dihydrophaseic acid (DPA) by a soluble PA reductase (Gillard and Walton, 1976). Other oxidation products of ABA hydroxylation include 7'-hydroxy ABA, 9'-hydroxy ABA, and neo-phaseic acid (neo-PA) (Hampson et al., 1992; Zhou et al., 2004).

ABA conjugation – Apart from de novo biosynthesis, ABA conjugation/deconjugation plays a critical role in the regulation of cellular ABA amounts under both normal and dehydration conditions (Dietz et al., 2000; Lee et al., 2006; Xu et al., 2012). ABA and hydroxy ABA are conjugated with glucose for inactivation. ABA can be inactivated at the C-1 hydroxyl group by forming different conjugates. Of these conjugates, ABA glucosyl ester (ABA-GE) is the predominant form, which is produced by ABA glucosyltransferase (Cutler and Krochko, 1999; Koshimizu et al., 1968). The corresponding gene was first isolated from adzuki bean and named AOG (Xu et al., 2002). Recombinant AOG can conjugate ABA with UDP-D-glucose (Xu et al., 2002). The Arabidopsis genome encodes 8 glucosyltransferases (Lim et al., 2005). While all 8 glucosyltransferases can glucosylate ABA in vitro, only one of them (UGT71B6) shows enantioselective glucosylation towards (+)-ABA (Lim et al., 2005). Over-expression of *UGT71B6* leads to an increased ABA-GE content in Arabidopsis (Priest et al., 2006). However neither the knockout mutant nor overexpression of *UGT71B6* displayed any significant ABA-related phenotypes (Priest et al., 2006).

ABA-GE is stored in vacuoles and the apoplast (Dietz et al., 2000). The low membrane permeability makes ABA-GE suitable for long-distance translocation and storage in vacuoles and the apoplastic

space (Jiang and Hartung, 2008). Under dehydration conditions, ABA is released from the glucosyl ester form by β -glucosidases (Dietz et al., 2000; Jiang and Hartung, 2008; Lee et al., 2006; Xu et al., 2012). The enzymatic activity of β -glucosidases to catalyze the hydrolysis of ABA-GE for releasing free ABA was first demonstrated in barley (Dietz et al., 2000). Recently, two β -glucosidases (*BG1* and *BG2*) were isolated in Arabidopsis (Lee et al., 2006; Xu et al., 2012). Abiotic stresses such as dehydration and NaCl induce *BG1* and *BG2* expression. Knockout mutants of these genes are hypersensitive to abiotic stresses while over-expression lines were tolerant and contained more ABA. Interestingly, the two β -glucosidases localize to different compartments in the cell; *BG1* is localized to the endoplasmic reticulum while *BG2* is found in the vacuole. The authors of these studies suggested an organelle-specific hydrolysis of ABA-GE in response to specific developmental or environmental signals (Xu et al., 2012).

2.1.3. ABA transport

Stress-induced biosynthesis of ABA primarily occurs in vascular tissues but ABA exerts its responses in various cells, including distant guard cells (Kuromori et al., 2010). Thus, ABA responses require translocation from ABA-producing cells via intercellular transport to allow rapid distribution into neighboring tissues. Recently, cell-to-cell ABA transport was shown to be mediated by two plasma membrane-bound ATP-binding cassette (ABC) transporters (Kang et al., 2010; Kuromori et al., 2010) and a family of low-affinity nitrate transporters (Kanno et al., 2012). Most ABC transporters are integral membrane proteins and act as ATP-driven transporters for a very wide range of substrates, including lipids, drugs, heavy metals, and auxin (Rea, 2007). Kuromori et al. (2010) isolated *AtABCG25* (also known as *AtWBC26*), which encodes a half size ABC transporter protein and which is responsible for ABA transport and responses in Arabidopsis. The *atabcg25* mutant was isolated by genetic screening for ABA sensitivity during the greening of cotyledons. *AtABCG25* is a membrane protein and is predominantly expressed in vascular tissues. Efflux of ABA was detected in membrane vesicles derived from Sf9 insect cells that expressed *AtABCG25*. Moreover, *AtABCG25*-overexpressing plants showed higher leaf temperatures implying an influence of *AtABCG25* on stomatal regulation.

AtBCG40 (also known as *AtPDR12*) encodes a full-size ABC transporter and was reported to function as an ABA importer in plant cells (Kang et al., 2010). The *atabcg40* mutant was isolated in a screen for seed germination and stomatal movement in 13 out of 15 ABC transporter gene knockout mutants (*atabcg29-atabcg41*). *AtBCG40* is also a plasma membrane protein and expressed primarily in leaves of young plantlets and in primary and lateral roots. In leaves, expression was the highest in guard cells. The stomata of *atabcg40* mutants close more slowly in response to ABA, resulting in reduced drought tolerance. Uptake of ABA into yeast and BY2 cells expressing *AtBCG40* showed a time-dependent increment, whereas ABA uptake into protoplasts of *atabcg40* plants decreased when compared with control cells. The delay in ABA uptake in *atabcg40* mutant correlated with the delayed expression of several ABA-inducible genes, indicating that *AtBCG40* is necessary for the timely response to ABA.

Recently, Kanno et al. (2012) isolated ABA-IMPORTING TRANSPORTER 1 (*AIT1*) (which is also known as low-affinity nitrate transporter; *NRT1.2*) from a modified yeast-2-hybrid screen in which positive clones are capable of inducing interactions between the ABA receptor PYR/PYL/RCAR and PP2C protein phosphatase at low ABA concentrations. *AIT1* preferentially localized to the plasma membrane of plant cells and was mainly expressed in vascular tissues in cotyledons, true leaves, hypocotyls, roots and inflorescence stems. Yeast and insect cells that expressed *AIT1* showed enhanced uptake of exogenously applied ABA but did not import GA₃, IAA or JA. The *ait1* mutants were less sensitive to ABA during germination and post-germination growth, and the inflorescence stems displayed a lower surface temperature than that of wild-type due to excess water loss from open stomata. Overexpression of *AIT1* resulted in

ABA hypersensitivity. Together, these data demonstrate that AIT1 functions as an ABA importer mediating cellular ABA uptake.

2.2. ABA perception and signal transduction

Recent progress in our understanding of ABA signal transduction indicates that the earliest events occur via a central signaling module made up of proteins belonging to three protein classes: Pyrabactin Resistance/Pyrabactin resistance-like/Regulatory Component of ABA Receptor (PYR/PYL/RCARs) proposed to be the ABA receptors, Protein Phosphatase 2Cs (PP2Cs) which act as negative regulators, and SNF1-related protein kinase 2 s (SnRKs) which are positive regulators (Mustilli et al., 2002; Park et al., 2009; Schweighofer et al., 2004; Umezawa et al., 2009; Yoshida et al., 2006a). In the presence of ABA, the PYR/PYL/RCAR-PP2C complex formation leads to inhibition of PP2C activity (Fujii et al., 2009; Ma et al., 2009; Park et al., 2009; Santiago et al., 2009a), thus allowing activation of SnRKs which target membrane proteins, ion channels and transcription factors, and facilitate transcription of ABA-responsive genes (Fig. 1) (Sheard and Zheng, 2009; Soon et al., 2012; Umezawa et al., 2010).

2.2.1. The PYR/PYL/RCAR ABA receptors

In Arabidopsis, structural and molecular studies have shown that members of the PYR/PYL/RCAR family play a central role in ABA perception (Ma et al., 2009; Melcher et al., 2010; Miyazono et al., 2009; Nishimura et al., 2009, 2010; Park et al., 2009; Santiago et al., 2009a,b; Yin et al., 2009). Members of this soluble ABA receptor family were first discovered in an elegant chemical genetic approach consisting to screen for mutants able to germinate in the presence of pyrabactin, an agonist of ABA (Park et al., 2009), and independently in a yeast two hybrid screen using the PP2C ABI2 as a bait (Ma et al., 2009). The Arabidopsis genome encodes 14 PYR/PYL/RCAR proteins that are highly conserved at the amino acid sequence level. All members encode small proteins, ranging between 159 and 211 amino acid residues (Santiago et al., 2009a). Several of them, including PYR1, PYL1, and PYL2 were biochemically shown to directly bind ABA (Miyazono et al., 2009; Nishimura et al., 2009; Santiago et al., 2009b; Yin et al., 2009).

Genetic evidence of the role of PYR/PYL/RCARs in ABA signaling comes from the fact that the triple *pyr1/pyl1/pyl4* or quadruple *pyr1/pyl1/pyl2/pyl4* (and more recently the sextuple *pyr1/pyl1/pyl2/pyl4/pyl5/pyl8*) mutants show hyposensitivity in germination and root growth responses to ABA (Gonzalez-Guzman et al., 2012; Park et al., 2009), although single mutants displayed normal ABA responses, suggesting a high level of functional redundancy in this gene family. The quadruple mutant also exhibited impaired ABA-induced stomatal closure, reduced activation of SnRKs and an ABA-insensitive transcriptome profile (Gonzalez-Guzman et al., 2012; Nishimura et al., 2010; Park et al., 2009). Again, over-expression of *PYL5*, *PYL8* or *PYL9* produced enhanced ABA responses or conferred drought resistance to Arabidopsis (Ma et al., 2009; Saavedra et al., 2010; Santiago et al., 2009a). The entire PYR/PYL/RCAR family in Arabidopsis (with the exception of *PYL13*) is capable of activating ABA signaling responses indicating that nearly all members can function as ABA receptors (Fujii et al., 2009).

2.2.2. PP2Cs are major negative regulators of ABA signaling

ABA binding to PYR/PYL/RCARs induces a conformational change that exposes the interaction surface allowing for favorable binding of some PP2Cs (Cutler et al., 2010). In yeast and mammals, PP2Cs act as general negative regulators of stress signaling through the regulation of the stress-activated MAPK pathway, DNA damage signaling, or the dephosphorylation of AMP-activated kinase (AMPK), the mammalian counter-part of yeast SNF1 kinase (Lammers and Lavi, 2007; Vlad et al., 2009). The Arabidopsis genome encodes 76 PP2Cs that have been clustered into 10 groups (Schweighofer et al., 2004). The first two PP2C group A genes to be studied in plants, ABA-INSENSITIVE 1 (ABI1) and ABI2 were identified in genetic screens for ABA-insensitive mutants (Koorneef et al., 1984; Leung et al., 1994, 1997; Meyer et al., 1994; Rodriguez et al., 1998). Later, HOMOLOGY TO ABI1 (HAB1) and HAB2 were isolated based on their sequence similarity to ABI1 (Saez et al., 2004). Other members of clade A PP2Cs, such as ABA-HYPERSENSITIVE GERMINATION 1 (AHG1) and AHG3/PP2CA were identified in genetic screens of Arabidopsis and a yeast complementation test (Antoni et al., 2012; Kuhn et al., 2006; Kuromori and Yamamoto, 1994; Nishimura et al., 2007; Yoshida et al., 2006b).

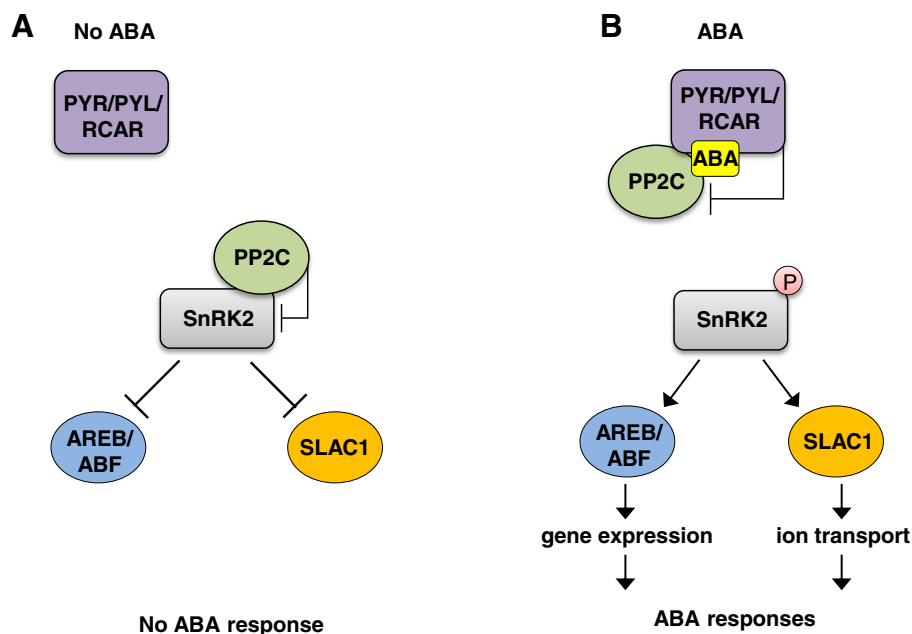


Fig. 1. A simplified model of the early events in the ABA signaling pathway. A: In the absence of ABA, PP2Cs constitutively inactivates SnRK2s by physically interacting with and dephosphorylating serine residues in the kinase activation loop. Without activation, SnRK2s are unable to transmit signal to downstream targets. B: ABA-bound PYR/PYL/RCAR receptors bind and inhibit PP2Cs, thereby allowing activation of SnRK2s. Active SnRK2 kinases phosphorylate downstream target proteins, including AREB/ABF transcription factors, anion channels and NADPH oxidases, to induce ABA responses.

Genetic evidence revealed that group A PP2Cs are negative regulators of ABA signaling in Arabidopsis. Plants carrying the dominant mutations *abi1-1* (*abi1^{G180D}*) or *abi2-1* (*abi2^{G168D}*) or plants expressing the mutant HAB1^{G246D} protein are strongly insensitive to ABA including reduced seed dormancy, ABA-resistant seed germination and seedling growth, abnormal stomatal regulation, and defects in various responses to drought (Finkelstein and Somerville, 1990; Hoth et al., 2002; Koornneef et al., 1984; Leung et al., 1994, 1997; Meyer et al., 1994; Robert et al., 2006; Rodriguez et al., 1998). The mutations have the same single amino acid substitution (Gly to Asp) in the highly conserved phosphatase catalytic domain, and are capable of blocking ABA responses (Gosti et al., 1999; Leung et al., 1994, 1997; Meyer et al., 1994; Robert et al., 2006). Isolation of intragenic suppressor alleles of *abi1-1* and *abi2-1* provided vital evidence that these proteins act as negative regulators of the ABA signaling pathway (Gosti et al., 1999). Conversely, loss-of-function and knockout mutants in ABI1, ABI2 and HAB1 are hypersensitive to ABA, providing further proof that PP2Cs are major negative regulators of ABA signaling in plants (Gosti et al., 1999; Hirayama and Shinozaki, 2007; Leonhardt et al., 2004; Merlot et al., 2001; Saez et al., 2004).

2.2.3. SnRK2s are major positive regulators of ABA signaling

The SnRK2 family of protein kinases are plant-specific Ser/Thr kinases involved in plant responses to abiotic stresses and in ABA-dependent plant development (Hrabak et al., 2003). In Arabidopsis, the SnRK2 family consists of 10 members that are categorized into three subclasses (Hrabak et al., 2003; Yoshida et al., 2002). Members of subclass I are rapidly activated by osmotic stress but not ABA. In contrast, subclass II and III members are activated by both ABA and osmotic stress, albeit subclass II is weakly activated by ABA (Boudsocq et al., 2004). The first reports of an involvement of SnRK2s in ABA signaling was found in wheat (PKABA1) and *Vicia faba* (AAPK), indicating their high conservation throughout the plant kingdom (Gomez-Cadenas et al., 1999; Li et al., 2000). The putative ortholog of AAPK in Arabidopsis, SnRK2.3/OPEN STOMATA 1 (OST1) was identified independently by different experimental approaches aimed at identifying key regulatory elements in osmotic stress adaptation (Boudsocq et al., 2004; Merlot et al., 2002; Mustilli et al., 2002; Wasilewska et al., 2008; Xie et al., 2006; Yoshida et al., 2002). *snrk2.3* mutations blocked stomatal responses to ABA and to mild drought conditions (Mustilli et al., 2002; Yoshida et al., 2002). Later on, SnRK2.3/OST1 was shown to interact with ABI1 in yeast-two-hybrid assays (Yoshida et al., 2006a). A conserved domain II motif in the C-terminus constitutes the binding site for ABI1 (Yoshida et al., 2006a). In vitro assays, Group A PP2Cs dephosphorylated SnRK2s (Umezawa et al., 2009; Vlad et al., 2009). Compared to wild type, the ABA-activated kinase activity is significantly reduced in quadruple *pry1/pyl1/pyl2/pyl4* or dominant PP2C mutants, while higher kinase activities are observed in PP2C loss-of-function or knockout mutants (Umezawa et al., 2009; Vlad et al., 2009). Boudsocq et al. (2004) reported that the subclass III kinases, SnRK2.2, SnRK2.3 and SnRK2.6, exhibit strongest activation by ABA and thus have to be considered as major regulators of ABA. Recently, the importance of subclass III SnRK2s was genetically highlighted by the analysis of a triple knockout mutant in Arabidopsis. The *snrk2.2/snrk2.3/snrk2.6* triple mutant is extremely sensitive to low humidity and highly resilient to ABA in all the elementary phenotypic responses (Fujita et al., 2009; Nakashima et al., 2009). These 3 SnRK2s, along with 9 of the 14 members of PYR/PYL/RCARs, co-immunoprecipitated with ABI in Arabidopsis protein extracts. Though the composition of co-purified proteins was ABA-independent, these data suggest that at least ABI1, the 3 SnRK2s and at least 9 of the 14 receptor proteins may constitute a core ABA signaling complex (Fujii and Zhu, 2009; Joshi-Saha et al., 2011; Nishimura et al., 2010).

In a recent study, Soon et al. (Soon et al., 2012) reported the 3D structure of the SnRK2-PP2C protein complex which helped to solve the question of how SnRK2 activation is orchestrated with ABA binding

and PP2C inhibition. In the absence of ABA, PP2Cs dephosphorylate SnRK2 in a serine residue in the kinase activation loop (Ser175 in SnRK2.6/OST1) whose phosphorylation is necessary for kinase activity (Ma et al., 2009; Park et al., 2009; Soon et al., 2012; Umezawa et al., 2009; Vlad et al., 2009; Yin et al., 2009; Yoshida et al., 2006a). The kinase activation loop of SnRK2s docks into the active site of PP2Cs, while the conserved ABA-sensing tryptophan of PP2Cs inserts into the kinase catalytic cleft. This SnRK2-PP2C complex structure also mimics a receptor-PP2C interaction (Soon et al., 2012). Binding of ABA to PYR/PYL/RCAR receptors promotes the receptors to bind to the catalytic site of PP2Cs and inhibit their enzymatic activity (Melcher et al., 2010; Miyazono et al., 2009; Nishimura et al., 2009; Santiago et al., 2009b). In turn, ABA-induced inhibition of PP2Cs leads to SnRK2 activation by activation loop autophosphorylation (Boudsocq et al., 2007), which allows the SnRK2s to relay the ABA signal to downstream effectors (Cutler et al., 2010; Hubbard et al., 2010; Umezawa et al., 2010). In plants, SnRK2 activation loop phosphorylation may also involve unidentified upstream kinases (Boudsocq et al., 2007; Burza et al., 2006).

2.2.4. Additional ABA signal perception and transduction modules

The existence of intracellular ABA receptors as well as extracellular receptors has been proposed by several laboratories. Earlier studies suggested the presence of ABA transmembrane receptors. For example, when ABA is negatively charged at high pH, it was shown that ABA can no longer cross the plasma membrane and thereby loses its potential to promote stomatal closure in *Valerianella locusta* (Hartung, 1983). Moreover, ABA failed to inhibit stomatal opening when microinjected directly in the cytosol of *Commelina* guard cells (Anderson et al., 1994). Another piece of evidence comes from experiments with barley aleurone protoplasts when externally applied ABA reversed the stimulation of α -amylase synthesis by gibberellic acid (GA), whereas microinjection of up to 250 μ M ABA was ineffective (Gilroy and Jones, 1994). Several candidate proteins were proposed as potential ABA receptors including the G-protein coupled receptor (GCPR)-type G proteins (GTG1 and GTG2) and ABA binding protein (ABAR)/Mg-chelatase H subunit (CHLH)/Genomes uncoupled 5 (GUN5).

GTG1 and GTG2 are plasma membrane proteins that share sequence similarity to the mammalian Golgi pH regulator membrane protein (Pandey et al., 2009). These GPCRs were shown to genetically and physically interact with the G-protein α -subunit GPA1 to mediate all known ABA responses (Liu et al., 2007; Pandey et al., 2009). Previous studies have shown that the *gpa1* mutant causes ABA insensitivity in guard cells and ABA hypersensitivity in seeds (Chen et al., 2006; Pandey et al., 2009). ABA binds to a fraction (~1%) of GTG1 and GTG2 recombinant proteins. The *gtg1/gtg2* double mutant displayed reduced sensitivity to ABA in seed germination, seedling and root growth, stomatal closure and gene expression. However, *gtg1/gtg2* was only partially insensitive to ABA, suggesting the likely existence of additional independent ABA receptors.

ABAR/CHLH/GUN5 is a chloroplast protein involved in chlorophyll biosynthesis (Shen et al., 2006; Walker and Willows, 1997; Wu et al., 2009) and plastid-to-nucleus retrograde signaling (Mochizuki et al., 2001; Nott et al., 2006; Strand et al., 2003; Surpin et al., 2002). ABAR/CHLH/GUN5 was identified through homology with an ABA-specific binding protein from *V. faba* (Zhang et al., 2002). ABAR/CHLH/GUN5 specifically binds ABA and mediates ABA signaling as a positive regulator in seed germination, post-germination growth and stomatal movement (Shen et al., 2006). However, mutants of the homologous ABAR/CHLH/GUN5 protein in barley, XanF, did not bind ABA or show similar ABA-related phenotypes as found in *V. faba* (Müller and Hansson, 2009). Moreover, the mechanism by which CHLH as an ABA receptor transmits a signal upon ABA binding remains unanswered (Klingler et al., 2010; Wu et al., 2009). ABAR/CHLH/GUN5 localizes to the chloroplast envelope, raising the question of how it transduces ABA to effect ABA-mediated transcriptional regulation in the nucleus. Recent studies identified

WRKY40, WRKY18 and WRKY60 transcription factors that could interact with the cytosolic C-terminus of ABAR/CHLH/GUN5 (Liu et al., 2012; Shang et al., 2010). In the absence of ABA, the WRKYs bind to the promoters (W-Box *cis*-elements) of ABI4 and ABI5, thus acting as negative regulators of ABA signaling in Arabidopsis. Shang et al. (2010) proposed a model in which ABA recruited the WRKYs from the nucleus to the cytosol and also promoted the interaction with ABAR/CHLH/GUN5. Sequestration of the WRKYs thus relieves inhibition of ABI4 and ABI5. Overall, these data suggest that there exist multiple ABA receptors and signal transduction cascades and more research will be required to clarify these mechanisms.

2.3. ABA signaling responses

2.3.1. Phosphorylation of bZIPs by SnRK2s activate ABA-induced gene expression

ABA signaling leads to large changes in gene expression, which may involve changes in transcription, transcript processing, and stability (Cutler et al., 2010). In Arabidopsis, about 10% of all genes are regulated by ABA (Hoth et al., 2002; Nemhauser et al., 2006; Seki et al., 2002). Analysis of the promoters of ABA-inducible genes showed that ABA gene expression requires multiple *cis*-elements (also called ABA-responsive elements; ABREs – PyACGTGG/TC), or combinations of an ABRE with a coupling element such as CE1, CE3 and DRE/CRT (Giraudat et al., 1994; Gomez-Porras et al., 2007; Umezawa et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2005). Proteins that bind to ABRE, called ABRE-binding (AREB) or ABRE-binding factors (ABFs), were first isolated using ABRE sequences as bait in yeast one hybrid screens (Choi et al., 2000; Uno et al., 2000). AREB/ABFs are group-A subfamily basic-domain leucine zipper (bZIP) transcription factors with 13 members in Arabidopsis (Bensmihen et al., 2002; Correa et al., 2008; Jakoby et al., 2002; Yamaguchi-Shinozaki and Shinozaki, 2006).

Expression of *AREB1/ABF2*, *AREB2/ABF4*, and *ABF3/DPBD5* in Arabidopsis was up-regulated by ABA, dehydration and high salinity stresses (Fujita et al., 2005). Over-expression of these factors in transgenic plants resulted in ABA hypersensitivity in germination and seedling growth, and also enhanced drought tolerance (Abdeen et al., 2010; Fujita et al., 2005; Furihata et al., 2006; Kang et al., 2002; Kim et al., 2004). Recently, Yoshida et al. (2010) generated triple mutants of *areb1/areb2/abf3*, which were more resistant to ABA than the single and double mutants with respect to primary root growth and reduced drought tolerance. Transcriptome analysis revealed that stress-responsive gene expression was remarkably impaired in this triple mutant. Another group-A bZIP factor, ABI5, was isolated by genetic screening of γ -irradiated seeds for ABA-insensitivity during germination (Finkelstein, 1994; Finkelstein et al., 2002; Lopez-Molina and Chua, 2000).

Phosphorylation/dephosphorylation events play important roles in ABA signaling (Yamaguchi-Shinozaki and Shinozaki, 2006). Several studies have shown that AREB/ABF proteins are phosphorylated in multiple conserved RxS/T regions, and this phosphorylation is necessary for their activation (Furihata et al., 2006; Kagaya et al., 2002; Uno et al., 2000). Substitution of the five serine/threonine residues in the putative phosphorylation sites by aspartic acid mimicked constitutive activation, and plants over-expressing the resulting dominant active form of AREB1/ABF2 activated ABA-responsive gene expression under non-stressed conditions (Furihata et al., 2006). AREB/ABFs co-localized and interacted with SnRK2.2, SnRK2.3 and SnRK2.6 in plant cell nuclei (Fujita et al., 2009; Yoshida et al., 2010). Furihata et al. (Furihata et al., 2006) showed that SnRK2s can phosphorylate AREB/ABF polypeptides *in vitro*. Also, a large part of ABA-activated protein kinase activities were eliminated in the *snrk2.2/snrk2.3/snrk2.6* triple mutant, and the expression of examined ABA-induced genes was completely blocked (Fujii and Zhu, 2009; Umezawa et al., 2010). In a recent study, a substantial number of ABA-responsive AREB/ABF target genes showed reduced expression levels in a *snrk2.2/snrk2.3/snrk2.6* triple mutant in

response to ABA (Fujita et al., 2009). Together, these results indicate that the SnRK2s regulate AREB/ABFs in ABA signaling.

2.3.2. ABA induces stomatal closure in guard cells

Light induces stomatal ostiole opening, while ABA and elevated CO₂ levels promote closure (Kim et al., 2010; Mäser et al., 2003; Wasilewska et al., 2008). This aperture regulation is under the control of guard cell turgor. Closing stimuli, including ABA, were shown to inhibit the uptake cellular machinery and trigger ion and water efflux. Those fluxes are under the control of channel transporters.

Rapid production of ROS is one of the early detectable events following ABA perception (Kwak et al., 2003; Pei et al., 2000). Genetic studies suggest a role of NADPH oxidases as key regulators of ROS production in ABA signaling (Kwak et al., 2003). The ABA-activated SnRK2.3/OST1 protein kinase was shown to directly interact with and phosphorylate the RBOHF NADPH oxidase at Ser13 and Ser174 (Sirichandra et al., 2009), which is consistent with the findings that NADPH oxidases function in early ABA-mediated ROS signaling (Kim et al., 2010; Kwak et al., 2003). ROS act as a second messenger in activating Ca²⁺-permeable channels and thus stimulate Ca²⁺ release from internal stores and influx across the plasma membrane (Cho et al., 2009; Hamilton et al., 2000; Köhler et al., 2003; Kwak et al., 2003; Pei et al., 2000; Zhang et al., 2001). Other second messengers regulating ABA signaling include nitric oxide (NO), phosphatidic acid (PA), phosphatidyl-inositol-3-phosphate (PIP3), inositol-3-phosphate (IP3), inositol-6-phosphate (IP6), and sphingolipids (Garcia-Mata et al., 2003; Jung et al., 2002; Kim et al., 2010; Park et al., 2003).

Elevated cytosolic Ca²⁺ levels activate two types of anion channels that mediate anion release from guard cells; slow-acting sustained (S-type) or rapid transient (R-type) anion channels (Roelfsema et al., 2004; Schroeder and Keller, 1992; Schroeder et al., 2001a). It was proposed that the S-type, and not the R-type, channel is responsible for ABA-mediated stomatal closure (Joshi-Saha et al., 2011). Two independent studies reported SLOW ANION CHANNEL-ASSOCIATED 1 (SLAC1) as the most likely S-type anion channel that triggers membrane depolarization required for stomatal closure (Negi et al., 2008; Vahisalu et al., 2008). SLAC1 is phosphorylated by OST1 at both the N- and C-terminal cytosolic tails, which may alter its gating properties, although the precise mechanism is not clear (Geiger et al., 2009; Lee et al., 2009). The membrane depolarization caused by anion efflux via ion channels activates outward-rectifying K⁺ (K⁺_{out}) channels and results in K⁺ efflux from guard cells (Schroeder et al., 2001a). The sustained efflux of both anions and K⁺ from guard cells drives water efflux and contributes to the loss of guard cell turgor, leading to stomatal closure (Fan et al., 2004; Mäser et al., 2003; Schroeder et al., 2001a).

ABA also inhibits ion uptake, which is required to initiate hyperpolarization of guard cell plasma membranes to induce stomatal opening (Schroeder et al., 2001a). Ion uptake requires the activation of plasma membrane H⁺-ATPases (Kim et al., 2010). Genetic evidence for the role of H⁺-ATPases in stomatal movements comes from the isolation of two dominant alleles of the Arabidopsis H⁺ ATPase 1/OPEN STOMATA 2 (AHA1/OST2). The dominant *ost2-1* and *ost2-2* mutants produce constitutively active H⁺-ATPases, persistent stomatal opening, and thus ABA insensitivity (Kim et al., 2010; Merlot et al., 2002). The defect found in stomatal closure in the dominant *ost2* correlates with ABA-inhibition of H⁺-ATPases (Kim et al., 2010; Shimazaki et al., 1986). It was also shown that SnRK2.3 inhibited K⁺-inward rectifying channel (KAT1) activity in an ABA-mediated manner to promote stomatal closure (Sato et al., 2009).

3. MAPK cascades and signal transduction

MAPKs constitute one of the most studied signaling mechanisms in plants, comprising a class of proteins that plays an essential role in linking perception of stimuli with several cellular and adaptive responses. The MAPK signal transduction pathways are evolutionarily

conserved in all eukaryotic organisms, and have been found in plants, yeast, fungi, insects, nematodes and mammals (Hamel et al., 2012; Kelkar et al., 2000). A MAPK cascade is minimally composed of distinct combinations of at least three protein kinases: a MAPKKK (MAP3K/MEKK/MKCK), a MAPKK (MKK/MEK), and a MAPK (MPK) which activate each other in a sequential manner via phosphorylation (Fig. 2) (Colcombet and Hirt, 2008; Ichimura et al., 2002). An activated MAPKKK first phosphorylates two serine and/or threonine residues (S/T-X₃-S/T) located within the activation loop of the MAPKK. Activated MAPKKs in turn trigger MAPK activation through dual phosphorylation of a highly conserved T-X-Y motif in the activation loop (Hamel et al., 2012). The sequential activation of the MAPK cascade results in the phosphorylation of specific targets and the modulation of activity of transcription factors, phospholipases, cytoskeletal proteins, microtubule-associated proteins and the expression of specific sets of genes in response to environmental stimuli (Neill et al., 2002; Popescu et al., 2009; Taj et al., 2010). A fourth level of kinases, named MAP4Ks (MAP3K kinases), may act as adaptors linking upstream signaling steps to the core MAPK cascades (Colcombet and Hirt, 2008). Available data have shown that MAPKs are involved in plant signal transduction in response to pathogens, drought, salinity, cold, wounding, ozone, ROS, and hormone stimuli (Berriri et al., 2012; Gao et al., 2008; Jonak et al., 2002; Lu et al., 2002; Mittler, 2002; Moon et al., 2003; Samuel and Ellis, 2002; Tena et al., 2001; Xiong and Yang, 2003; Zhang and Klessig, 2001).

3.1. The MAPK family in Arabidopsis

Sequence and functional analyses of the Arabidopsis genome have revealed that there are 20 MAPKs, 10 MAPKKs and 80 MAPKKKs, with a similar repertoire of genes observed in other plant genomes (Colcombet and Hirt, 2008; Hamel et al., 2006; Ichimura et al., 2002).

Based on structural motifs and sequence similarities, Arabidopsis MAPKs can be divided into four groups (A–D). Except for members of the most distant D group, which carry a T-D-Y phosphorylation motif, all other MAPKs (A, B and C groups) are activated in the T-E-Y motif (Ichimura et al., 2002). The best studied MAPKs, MPK3, MPK4 and MPK6 have been implicated in plant innate immunity (Asai et al., 2002; Droillard et al., 2004; Petersen et al., 2000), cytokinesis and microtubule organization (Beck et al., 2010, 2011; Kosetsu et al., 2010; Zeng et al., 2011), epidermal patterning (Wang et al., 2007), ovule development (Wang et al., 2008), and also activation by abiotic stresses and ABA (Ahlfors et al., 2004; Droillard et al., 2002, 2004; Gudesblat et al., 2007; Ichimura et al., 2000; Teige et al., 2004). MPK7 and MPK11 also appear to play a role in innate immunity (Bethke et al., 2012; Doczi et al., 2007; Eschen-Lippold et al., 2012). The functions of the other MAPKs are less well understood, but several appear to also function in abiotic stress signaling and ABA (see below).

Arabidopsis MAPKKs can similarly be divided into four groups (A–D). Plant MAPKKs usually carry five amino acids separating the Ser/Thr residues (S/TxxxxS/T), which distinguish them from mammalian MAPKKs (that bear the consensus sequence S/TxxxS/T in the activation loop) (Ichimura et al., 2002). Two members of group A, MKK1 and MKK2, have been shown to function upstream of MPK4/MPK6 in stress response (Gao et al., 2008; Ichimura et al., 2006; Meszaros et al., 2006; Nakagami et al., 2006; Qiu et al., 2008; Suarez-Rodriguez et al., 2007). MKK4/MKK5 of group C function upstream of MPK3/MPK6 in positively regulating PAMP responses and some important developmental processes (Asai et al., 2002; Bush and Krysan, 2007; Kovtun et al., 2000; Ren et al., 2002; Wang et al., 2007). Other MAPKKs that have been analyzed include MKK3, MKK6, MKK7 and MKK9 (Beck et al., 2010, 2011; Dai et al., 2006; Kosetsu et al., 2010; Melikant et al., 2004; Takahashi et al., 2007, 2010, 2011; Yoo et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2007a). MKK3 is the only member of Group B, and has an unusual C-terminal extension

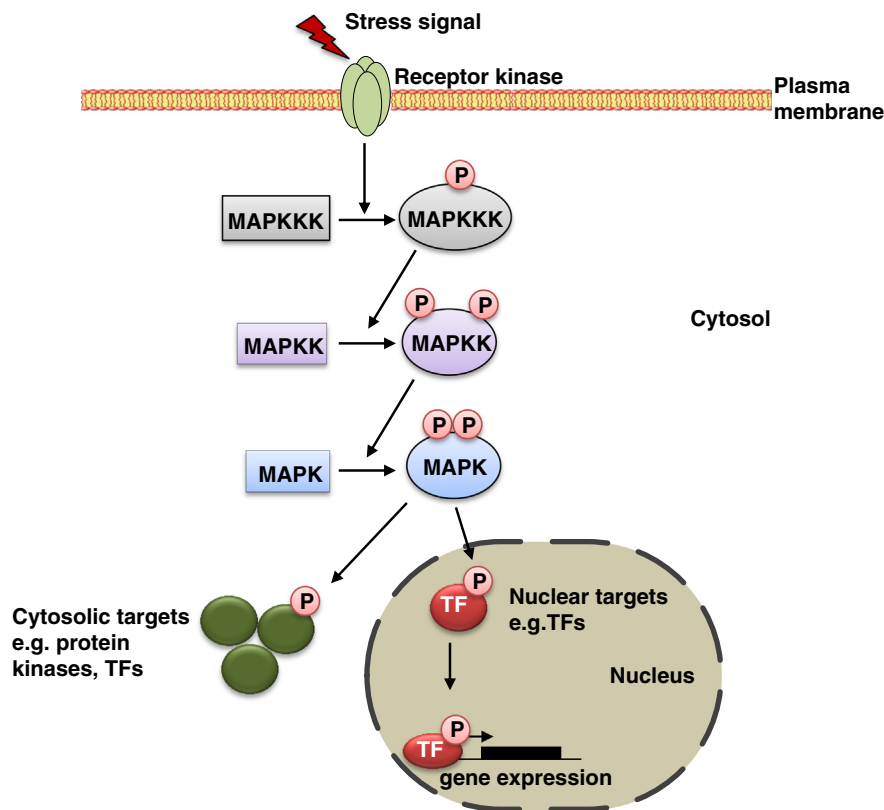


Fig. 2. A typical MAPK cascade. The MAPK cascades are generally organized as modular pathways in which the activation of upstream MAPKKKs leads to the sequential phosphorylation and subsequent activation of downstream MAPKKs and MAPKs. Through their kinase activity, MAPK cascades translate incoming environmental cues into post-translational modifications of target proteins, e.g., transcription factors, to ultimately reorganize gene expression and stress adaptation.

encoding a nuclear transfer factor (NTF2) domain (Hamel et al., 2006; Ichimura et al., 2002). MKK3 was implicated in jasmonic acid (JA)-mediated developmental responses and pathogen defense (Doczi et al., 2007; Takahashi et al., 2007). Recently, Takahashi et al. (2011) reported a possible role of MKK3 in ROS homeostasis in Arabidopsis.

Compared with our current knowledge on the MAPKs and MAPKKs, much less is known on the function of the much larger and heterogeneous family of MAPKKKs. Arabidopsis MAPKKKs can be divided into three main classes: MEKK-like, Raf-like and ZIK-like. To date, no evidence exists that proves Raf-like and ZIK-like kinases to encode functional MAPKKKs in plants (Colcombet and Hirt, 2008). The two best-characterized Raf-like kinases, CONSTITUTIVE TRIPLE RESPONSE 1 (CTR1) and ENHANCED DISEASE RESISTANCE 1 (EDR1), were shown to participate in ethylene-mediated signaling and defense responses (Frye and Innes, 1998; Frye et al., 2001; Huang et al., 2003; Kieber et al., 1993). Nonetheless, neither CTR1 nor EDR1 have been confirmed to participate in a canonical MAPK cascade, and thus the biochemical functions of these proteins remain uncertain (Rodriguez et al., 2010).

The MEKK-like class of MAPKKKs consists of 20 members that can further be divided into 6 subgroups A1–A6. Currently, only members of subgroups A1–A4 have been functionally characterized to some extent. Subgroup A1 comprises four proteins (MEKK1–MEKK4). MEKK1, the best-studied Arabidopsis MAPKKK, is involved in plant innate immunity (Asai et al., 2002; Gao et al., 2008; Rodriguez et al., 2010), salt and cold stress responses (Teige et al., 2004). Recently, MEKK1 was shown to negatively regulate its closest homologue, MEKK2, whose activation triggers the R protein SUMM2 (suppressor of *mkk1 mkk2*)-mediated immune responses (Kong et al., 2012). Interestingly, MEKK1, MEKK2 and MEKK3 form a tandemly arranged gene locus. Recently, it was shown that deletion of MEKK2 and MEKK3 together reverts the phenotype of mutants of the MPK4 pathway. Moreover, activated MPK4 appears to be responsible for regulating MEKK2 RNA abundance levels, an increase of which triggers defense response activation (Su et al., 2013). Therefore, the MPK4 pathway constitutes a cellular surveillance mechanism to decide between growth and cell death. The functions of MEKK3 and MEKK4 still remain unknown. Subgroup A2 consists of three proteins MAPKKK α , MAPKKK γ and YODA. The functions of MAPKKK α and MAPKKK γ remain to be determined. YODA, however, was shown to function upstream of MKK4/MKK5-MPK3/MPK6 in the regulation of embryonic cell fate and stomatal patterning (Bergmann et al., 2004; Bush and Krysan, 2007; Lukowitz et al., 2004; Wang et al., 2007). Members of subgroup A3 have been implicated in cytokinesis (Krysan et al., 2002). MAPKKK ϵ 1 and MAPKKK ϵ 2 are members of subgroup A4, which are also involved in cell division (Jouannic et al., 2001) and pollen development (Chaiwongsar et al., 2012). To date, the biological and molecular functions of the members of subgroup A5 and A6 remain unknown.

3.2. The role of MAPK pathways in abiotic stress signaling

In Arabidopsis, the most complete MAPK cascade functioning in abiotic stresses consists of the MEKK1–MKK2–MPK4/MPK6 module (Teige et al., 2004). In a previous study, mRNA levels of MEKK1 highly accumulated in response to various environmental stresses such as low temperature, high salinity and mechanical stresses (Mizoguchi et al., 1996). Directed yeast two hybrid analyses also showed protein–protein interactions between MEKK1 and MKK1/MKK2, between MKK1/MKK2 and MPK4, and between MEKK1 and MPK4 (Ichimura et al., 1998). Further studies by Ichimura et al. (2000) demonstrated the rapid and transient activation of MPK4 and MPK6 by low temperature, low humidity, hyper-osmolarity, touch and wounding. Using yeast functional complementation assays and reverse genetics analysis, Teige et al. (2004) showed that MKK2–MPK4/MPK6 functions downstream of MEKK1 in salt and cold stress. Additionally, MKK1 is activated by salt, drought and wounding and can phosphorylate MPK4, suggesting a role in abiotic stress signaling (Teige et al., 2004; Xing et al., 2008).

Abiotic stresses can induce the production of ROS which leads to oxidative stress (Pitzschke and Hirt, 2006). In Arabidopsis, oxidative stress by exogenous H₂O₂ can activate MPK1 and MPK2 (Ortiz-Masia et al., 2007), MPK3 and MPK6 (Kovtun et al., 2000), MPK4 (Nakagami et al., 2006) and MPK7 (Doczi et al., 2007). In protoplasts, Kovtun et al. (2000) showed the H₂O₂-dependent activation of ANP1. Overexpression of the *Nicotiana* ANP1 homolog *NPK1*, enhanced abiotic stress tolerance in transgenic tobacco (Kovtun et al., 2000) and maize (Shou et al., 2004a,b). Overexpression of *DSM1*, a Raf-Like MAPKKK in rice, increased tolerance to dehydration and oxidative stress at the seedling stage (Ning et al., 2010). Overexpression of a maize MAPK gene, *ZmMPK7*, in transgenic tobacco enhanced protection provided by the peroxidase (POX) defense systems against ROS-mediated injury during osmotic stress (Zong et al., 2009). Together, these results demonstrate important roles of MAPKs in abiotic stress signaling in plants.

3.3. The role of MAPK cascades in ABA signaling

Treating plants with ABA induces the transcriptional regulation, protein accumulation and stability, and kinase activity of several components of distinct MAPK signaling cascades in many plant species, suggesting an important function of MAPK pathways in ABA signaling. The available evidence suggests that MAPK cascades are involved in several ABA responses, including antioxidant defense, guard cell signaling and seed germination (Jammes et al., 2009; Xing et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2010; Zong et al., 2009).

3.3.1. ABA differentially regulates expression of components of the MAPK cascades

Gene expression is often indicative of gene function. Treatment with ABA induced the transcriptional regulation of *MPK3*, *MPK5*, *MPK7*, *MPK18*, *MPK20*, *MKK9*, *MAPKKK1* (*ANP1*), *MAPKKK10* (*MEKK3*), *MAPKKK14*, *MAPKKK15*, *MAPKKK16*, *MAPKKK17*, *MAPKKK18*, *MAPKKK19*, *Raf6*, *Raf12* and *Raf35* in Arabidopsis (Menges et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2011) suggesting a possible role in ABA signaling. However, the function of most of these ABA-inducible MAPK pathway genes in ABA signaling pathway remains to be determined.

In other plant species including rice, several MAPKs have also been reported to be transcriptionally activated by ABA; *OsMAPK5* (*OsMAP1*), *OsMAPK2*, *OsMSRMK2*, *OsMSRMK3*, *OsBIMK1*, *DMS1*, *OsEDR1*, *OsMAPK44*, *OsSIPK*, *OsWJUMK1*, and *OsmMKK1* (Agrawal et al., 2002, 2003; De Vleeschauwer et al., 2010; Huang et al., 2002; Jeong et al., 2006; Kim et al., 2003; Lee et al., 2008; Ning et al., 2010; Song and Goodman, 2002; Wen et al., 2002; Xiong and Yang, 2003; You et al., 2007). The ABA-inducible *OsMAPK5* was shown to act as a positive regulator in abiotic stress tolerance and as a negative regulator of PR gene expression and broad-spectrum disease resistance (Xiong and Yang, 2003). A recent study in maize has implicated *ZmMKK3* in osmotic stress and ABA responses (Zhang et al., 2012). Other MAPKs in maize induced by ABA include *ZmMPK7*, *ZmMPK17*, *ZmSIMK1*, and *ZmMPK3* (Gu et al., 2010; Pan et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2010a; Zong et al., 2009). ABA has also been shown to induce transcription of MAPK genes in other plant species: *CbMAPK3*, *CsNMAPK*, *AhMPK3*, *BnOIPK*, *BnMPK3*, *RaMPK1*, *RaMPK2*, *RsMPK2*, and *StMPK1* (Blanco et al., 2006; Ghawana et al., 2010; Kumar et al., 2009; Liu et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2010b; Xu et al., 2008; Yin et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2006a).

3.3.2. ABA-induced activation of MAPKs

Particular members of the MAPK family in plants have been reported to be activated by ABA to perform diverse functions (Jammes et al., 2009; Lu et al., 2002; Xing et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2006b). ABA activated several MAPK isoforms of 40–43 kDa in barley aleurone protoplasts (Knetsch et al., 1996), p38MAPK in moss (D'Souza and Johri, 2002), p46MAPK and *ZmMPK5* in maize (Ding et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2006b, 2007b). In pea, an ABA-activated MAPK (p45MAPK) was implicated in guard cell signaling (Burnett et al., 2000; Schroeder et al.,

2001b). An ABA-stimulated MAPK in rice, OsMAPK5, was shown to be involved in disease resistance and abiotic stress tolerance (Xiong and Yang, 2003). In Arabidopsis, MPK3 is activated by both H₂O₂ and ABA in seedlings, and over-expression of MPK3 increased ABA sensitivity in ABA-induced post germination arrest of growth (Lu et al., 2002). MPK4 and MPK6 are also transiently activated by ABA (Ichimura et al., 2000). Xing et al. (2008) demonstrated the ABA-dependent MKK1-mediated activation of MPK6 to regulate catalase 1 (CAT1) expression in ROS homeostasis. MPK9 and MPK12, two MAPKs that are preferentially expressed in guard cells, are also activated by ABA and have been shown to mediate ABA guard cell signaling (Xing et al., 2008). In another study, a double knockout mutant of the MAPK-interacting phosphatases, *pp2c5/ap2c1*, showed enhanced ABA-dependent activation of MPK3 and MPK6, resulting in ABA insensitivity, and thus suggesting that a MAPK cascade involving MPK3/MPK6 negatively regulates ABA signaling in plants (Brock et al., 2010).

Immunokinase assays showed that MPK1 and MPK2 can be activated by ABA treatment of plants (Hwa and Yang, 2008; Ortiz-Masia et al., 2007). These results are supported by an independent phosphoproteomic study in response to ABA, showing ABA-triggered phosphorylation of the activation loops of MPK1 and MPK2 (Umezawa et al., 2013).

3.3.3. MAPK-mediated ABA signaling in guard cells

ROS mediate ABA signaling in guard cells (Jammes et al., 2009; Pei et al., 2000; Zhang and Klessig, 2001). Interestingly, components of the ABA-activated MAPKs are also activated by ROS (Desikan et al., 2004; Lu et al., 2002), suggesting that ABA and ROS may converge at the MAPK level in regulating stomatal closure. Evidence of a MAPK-mediated ABA regulation of guard cell signaling came from the fact that MAPK specific inhibitors strongly impaired the ABA- or H₂O₂-mediated stomatal closure (Burnett et al., 2000; Jiang et al., 2008). In pea epidermal peels, the selective MAPKK inhibitor PD98059 significantly decreased ABA-induced stomatal closure and dehydrin gene expression (Burnett et al., 2000). Similarly, a specific inhibitor of p38 MAPK of mammals (SB203580) could block the ABA- and H₂O₂-mediated stomatal closure, ABA-induced H₂O₂ generation and decreased the K⁺ flux across plasma membrane in *V. faba* (Jiang et al., 2008). Together, these data suggested that MAPKs could function in ABA signaling. Further studies using guard cell-specific silencing of MPK3 has revealed more insight into MAPK-mediated ABA signaling in stomatal closure (Gudesblat et al., 2007). Transgenic lines with reduced MPK3 expression were impaired in ABA inhibition of stomatal opening and H₂O₂-induced stomatal closure but not ABA-induced stomatal closure. Knock-out mutants of *mkk1* and *mpk6* were similarly impaired in ABA-induced H₂O₂ production in guard cells (Xing et al., 2008).

Recently, using a cell type-specific functional genomics approach, Jammes et al. (2009) identified the MAPKs MPK9 and MPK12 to be preferentially expressed in guard cells. MPK12 was activated by ABA and H₂O₂. Double mutants of *mpk9/mpk12*, but not the single mutants of *mpk9* and *mpk12*, exhibited enhanced transpirational water loss and ABA- and H₂O₂-insensitivity in both stomatal opening and closure. These data suggest that MPK9 and MPK12 are positive regulators of ABA signaling in guard cells (Fig. 3). Interestingly, recent evidence indicates that two independent MAPK pathways mediate ABA and pathogen signals in guard cells. Whereas MPK9 and MPK12 were found to mediate ABA signaling, pathogen signals were revealed to be mediated by MPK3 and MPK6 (Montillet et al., 2013). Although ROS produced by the NADPH oxidases RBOHD and RBOHF seems to be involved in both pathways, RBOHD only mediates pathogen and RBOHF only ABA signals (Mersmann et al., 2010). How guard cells can differentiate between ROS generated by the different RBOHs and couple to distinct MAPK pathways is presently unclear. Nonetheless, pathogen and ABA guard cell signaling pathways converge again at the level of the activation of the SLAC 1 anion channel (Montillet et al., 2013). Taken together, it appears that the closure/opening machinery of stomates is regulated by at least two pathways that both use distinct sets of MAPKs (Montillet and Hirt, in

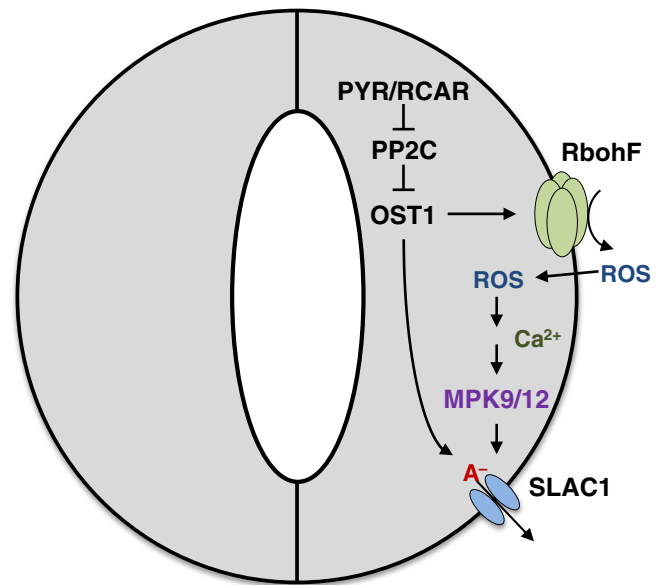


Fig. 3. MAP kinases are involved in ABA-mediated stomatal closure. Following ABA perception in guard cells, active SnRK2 kinases such as OST1 (released from inhibition by PYR/PYL/RCAR-mediated sequestration of PP2Cs) phosphorylate the NADPH oxidase RbohF, leading to ROS accumulation. ROS activate two MAPKs, MPK9 and MPK12, which function positively to regulate ABA-mediated stomatal closure. The double mutant of *mpk9/12* is impaired in S-type anion channel (SLAC1) activation by both ABA and Ca²⁺. Consistent with this result, *mpk9/12* showed enhanced transpirational water loss, indicating that MPK9 and MPK12 are positive regulators of ABA signaling in guard cells.

press). Neither the upstream MAPKKKs, MAPKKs nor the downstream targets of the MAPKs of the pathogen and ABA pathways have been unraveled yet but their identification should help to understand the underlying regulatory mechanisms of guard cell movement.

4. Conclusions

ABA is a central regulator of many plant responses to environmental stresses, including drought, low temperature and salinity. The molecular mechanisms of ABA synthesis, transport, and signaling have received enormous attention and are now fairly well understood. The various physiological reactions that ABA regulates, such as stomatal closure, changes in gene expression and accumulation of osmoprotectants have also been characterized at the molecular level. Emerging evidence links ABA to another set of highly conserved environmental signaling cascades, the MAPK pathways. Although most of the links between ABA and MAPKs are only poorly understood, it is evident that these pathways are part of the complex cellular signaling network of plants to integrate various environmental cues, such as pathogen challenges, nutrient status or developmental programs. Future work will unravel the details of these signaling chains, where and how the cascades interact. Considering that ABA is a key hormone in inducing abiotic stress responses, an understanding of the molecular logic of the ABA network will considerably improve our capacity to generate plants with improved stress tolerance and many academic and industrial efforts are underway to generate such crop plants without a penalty in growth or yield.

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