Sublethal Heavy Metal Stress Stimulates Innate Immunity in Tomato

Nilanjan Chakraborty, Swarnendu Chandra, and Krishnendu Acharya

Molecular and Applied Mycology and Plant Pathology Laboratory, Department of Botany, University of Calcutta, Kolkata 700019, India

Correspondence should be addressed to Krishnendu Acharya; krish_paper@yahoo.com

Received 31 July 2014; Accepted 21 September 2014

Academic Editor: Aryadeep Roychoudhury

Copyright © 2015 Nilanjan Chakraborty et al. This is an open access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Effect of sublethal heavy metal stress as plant biotic elicitor for triggering innate immunity in tomato plant was investigated. Copper in vivo condition induced accumulation of defense enzymes like peroxidase (PO), polyphenol oxidase (PPO), phenylalanine ammonia-lyase (PAL), and β-1,3 glucanase along with higher accumulation of total phenol, antioxidative enzymes (catalase and ascorbate peroxidase), and total chlorophyll content. Furthermore, the treatment also induced nitric oxide (NO) production which was confirmed by realtime visualization of NO burst using a fluorescent probe 4,5-diaminofluorescein diacetate (DAF-2DA) and spectrophotometric analysis. The result suggested that the sublethal dose of heavy metal can induce an array of plant defense responses that lead to the improvement of innate immunity in plants.

1. Introduction

The productivity of crops is decreasing rapidly due to the negative impact of various environmental stresses such as exposure to salinity, heavy metals, wounding, drought, cold, air pollution, and ultraviolet rays. Exposure to stress can lead to the disruption of physiological, cellular, and molecular processes via oxidative damage [1]. However, sometimes some sublethal stresses can also boost certain other stress tolerances of plants indirectly, through an array of morphological, physiological, and biochemical responses. This process ultimately reduces the stress-exposed damage and facilitates damage repair system [2]. Heavy metals have become one of the major abiotic stress agents for living organisms. Excess of heavy metals causes growth inhibition, senescence stimulation, and shortening and thickening of roots along with many other physiological and biochemical disorders [3]. In recent times, metal ions are being utilized to improve the innate immunity in various plants [4–6]. Acharya et al. [5] and Aziz et al. [4] have shown that the application of salt of heavy metals like cupric chloride (CuCl₂) and copper sulphate (CuSO₄) can induce defense response in Raphanus leaf and in grapevine against mold and powdery mildew. This induction of resistance was related with the overexpression of different defense gene products including PO, PAL, β-1,3 glucanase, and polyphenol oxidase and also with higher accumulation of phenolic compounds. In recent days NO is emerging as a potent bioactive signal molecule that participates in various pathophysiological and developmental processes including abiotic and biotic stresses [7–10].

In this context, an attempt has been made to find out the relative changes in the levels of different plant defense enzymes and other abiotic stress markers as well as the production of NO that is activated by sublethal copper stress in a model plant tomato.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Plant Material. The experiments were carried out with the tomato (Lycopersicon esculentum Mill.) plants raised from seed in pots (6 × 6 × 10 cm) with a potting mixture (clay/coco pit/sand, 3:2:1, v/v) in greenhouse conditions. Plants were maintained at 25 ± 2°C under a photoperiod of 14 h light and 10 h dark.
2.2. Treatment. One-month-old tomato plants were sprayed with cupric chloride (CuCl₂) at three different concentrations (1, 2.5, and 5 mM), on the basis of the findings of Kaplan [II]. Each concentration of CuCl₂ was prepared separately in sterile distilled water. Treatment of same-aged plants with distilled water served as control. Each experiment was carried out with three replications.

2.3. Enzyme Assays. The leaf tissues were collected from different treated sets after 24 h incubation and were homogenized with liquid nitrogen. Five hundred milligrams of powdered sample was extracted with 2 mL of extraction buffer specific for different enzymes, containing 0.1% polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP) and 20 mL of 1 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF): 0.1 M of sodium acetate buffer (pH 5.0) for β-1,3 glucanase; 0.1 M sodium borate buffer (pH 8.7) for PAL; and 0.1 M of sodium phosphate buffer (pH 7.0) for PO, catalase (CAT), ascorbate peroxidase (APX), and PPO. All the extraction procedures were conducted at 4°C. The homogenate was centrifuged at 12,000 rpm for 20 min at 4°C. The supernatants were used as the crude enzyme source for the enzymatic assay. Then it was transferred to a 2 mL eppendorf tube and stored at −80°C for further use.

β-1,3 Glucanase activity was assayed according to the method of Pan et al. [12] with minor modification. The reaction mixture was prepared with crude enzyme extract (50 μL) mixed with equal amount of the substrate 1% laminarin and was incubated for 1 hr at room temperature. Then the reaction was stopped by adding 300 μL of dinitrosalicylic acid reagent followed by boiling for 10 min on a boiling water bath. The resulting colored solution was diluted with the addition of distilled water to make the total volume up to 2 mL and vortexed and the absorption was measured at 520 nm. The blank set was prepared with equal amounts of crude enzyme and laminarin without incubation. The enzyme activity was expressed as μmol of glucose released min⁻¹ g⁻¹ protein.

PO activity was carried out, following the method of Hemeda and Klein [13]. The substrate was prepared by addition of 1% guaiacol (5 mL) and 0.3% H₂O₂ (5 mL) to 50 mL of 0.05 M sodium phosphate buffer (pH 6.5). The reaction mixture was prepared with 2.95 mL of substrate and 0.05 mL of enzyme extract and the absorption change was measured at 470 nm for 3 min. PO activity was determined by the increase in the absorbance due to guaiacol oxidation and was expressed as change in the absorption of the reaction mixture min⁻¹ g⁻¹ of protein (E = 26.6 mM⁻¹ cm⁻1).

PPO activity was estimated using the method of Kumar and Khan [14]. The reaction mixture consisted of 2 mL of 0.1 M sodium phosphate buffer (pH 6.5), 0.5 mL of crude enzyme extract, and 1 mL of 0.1 M catechol. The assay mixture was incubated for 10 min at room temperature. Reaction was stopped by adding 1 mL of 2.5 N H₂SO₄. The absorption of purpurogallin formed was read at 495 nm. The blank was prepared by adding 2.5 N H₂SO₄ at zero time for the same assay mixture. PPO activity was expressed in U mg⁻¹ protein (U = change in 0.1 absorbance min⁻¹ mg⁻¹ protein).

PAL activity was determined as the rate of conversion of L-phenylalanine to trans-cinnamic acid at 290 nm [15]. Assay mixture consisted of 200 μL of enzyme extract that was incubated with 1.3 mL of 0.1 M borate buffer (pH 8.7) and 0.5 mL of 12 mM L-phenyl alanine for 30 min at 30°C. The amount of trans-cinnamic acid synthesized was calculated by measuring absorbance at 290 nm after 1 hour of incubation. Enzyme activity was expressed as synthesis of trans-cinnamic acid (in nmol quantities) min⁻¹ g⁻¹ protein.

APX activity was determined according to Nakano and Asada [16]. The reaction mixture contained 50 mM potassium phosphate (pH 7.0), 0.2 mM EDTA, 0.5 mM ascorbic acid, 2% H₂O₂, and 0.1 mL enzyme extract in a final volume of 3 mL. The decrease in absorbance at 290 nm for 1 min was recorded and the amount of ascorbate oxidized was calculated using extinction coefficient (E = 2.8 mM⁻¹) APX was defined as 1 mmol mL⁻¹ per min cm⁻¹. One unit of ascorbate oxidized as 1 mmol mL⁻¹ ascorbate oxidized per min.

CAT was determined spectrophotometrically following the method Cakmak and Horst [17] with minor modifications. The reaction mixture contains 100 μL of the crude enzyme extract and 50 μL of hydrogen peroxide (0.3%) and volume was made up to 3 mL by addition of phosphate buffer (50 mM, pH-7.0). The reaction is initiated by the addition of hydrogen peroxide. The decrease in absorbance was recorded for three minutes for a wavelength of 240 nm. CAT activity was expressed as mmol min⁻¹ g⁻¹ of protein with help of a molar extinction coefficient E = 39400 M⁻¹ cm⁻¹.

2.4. Estimation of Total Protein Content. The standard Bradford assay [18] was employed, using bovine serum albumin as a standard, to test the protein concentration of each extract.

2.5. Estimation of Total Phenol. Estimation of total phenol was determined as described in [19] with some modification. 250 mg of fresh leaf tissue was homogenized in 2 mL of 80% methanol and the material was kept and maintained in 65°C for 15 minutes. The material was then centrifuged at 10,000 rpm for 10 minutes at room temperature and the supernatant was used for total phenol estimation. The reaction mixture was prepared by adding 1 mL of crude extract to the mixture of 5 mL distilled water and 250 μL of 1 M Folin Ciocalteu reagent. The reaction mixture was incubated for 30 min at room temperature. Total phenol content was measured spectrophotometrically at 725 nm using gallic acid as standard. The amount of total phenol was expressed as μg gallic acid produced g⁻¹ tissue.

2.6. Estimation of Total Flavonoid Content. Total flavonoid content was determined by following the method of Chang et al. [20] with slight modification. 150 mg of fresh leaf tissue was ground in 2 mL of 80% ethanol and the material was kept in dark place for 30 min. After that it was then centrifuged at 10,000 rpm for 5 min at room temperature. The reaction mixture was prepared with 1 mL of crude extract (supernatant) mixed with 4.3 mL of 80% aqueous ethanol, 0.1 mL of 10% aluminum nitrate, and 0.1 mL of 1M aqueous sodium acetate. The reaction mixture was then kept in dark place for 30 min. After incubation, the absorption
was measured at 415 nm. The amount of total flavonoid was expressed as μg of quercetin g⁻¹ of the tissue sample.

2.7. Estimation of Chlorophyll Content. Total chlorophyll was estimated following Arnon’s method [21]. 500 mg of fresh leaf sample was ground in 4 mL of 80% alkaline acetone (20 mL of 0.1 N NaOH) and the extract was centrifuged at 7,000 rpm for 10 min at room temperature. The supernatant was collected and absorbance of the solution was read at 645 and 663 for total chlorophyll and was calculated by following formula:

\[
\text{total chlorophyll (mg g}^{-1}\text{)} = 20.2(D645) + 8.02(D663) \times \frac{V}{1000} \times \mu,
\]

where \( D \) is the optical density; \( V \) is the final volume of 80% acetone (mL); and \( \mu \) is the dry weight of sample taken (g).

2.8. Estimation Nitric Oxide. Production of NO was estimated by haemoglobin assay [22] during the pick time of blister blight severity period after 24 h of treatment cycle. Leaf tissues of control and treated set were incubated in a reaction mixture containing 10 mM L-arginine and 10 mM haemoglobin in a total volume of 5 mL of 0.1 M phosphate buffer (pH 7.4). Production of NO was measured spectrophotometrically at 401 nm and NO levels were calculated using an extinction coefficient of 38,600 M⁻¹ cm⁻¹ [23] after 2 h of incubation; NO content in the mixture reaction was measured as nmol of NO produced g⁻¹ tissue h⁻¹ and was compared with appropriate control set.

Real time NO production was visualised using membrane permeable fluorochrome DAF-2DA dye [24]. Thin transverse section of leaf petiole was placed in a brown bottle containing 1 mL of loading buffer, 10 mM KCl, and 10 mM Tris HCl (pH 7.2) with DAF-2DA at a final concentration of 10 mM for 20 min in dark. Fluorescence was observed with Leica DMLS microscope at excitation wavelength 480 nm and emission wavelength 500–600 nm.

2.9. In Vivo Detection of H₂O₂. The in vivo detection of H₂O₂ in control and treated tomato leaves was carried out using DAB by following the method of Thordal-Christensen et al. [25]. After treatment as mentioned earlier, the cut ends of the leaves were then immersed in a solution containing 1 mg/mL diaminobenzidine (DAB) solution (pH-3.8) and incubated for 8 h. After incubation a central 3 square cm segment of leaves was excised and laid adaxial surface up on filter paper moistened with an ethanol and glacial acetic acid mixture (3:1, v/v) until the chlorophyll had been removed. After bleaching tissues were transferred to water soaked filter paper for at least 4 h to relax and finally to paper soaked with lactoglycerol (1:1:1, lactic acid:glycerol:water, v/v) for another 24 h. The cleared leaf segments were then observed under light microscope.

2.10. Statistics. All data presented were means ± one standard error (SE) of three replicates. Statistical analyses were performed by analysis of variance (ANOVA) using SPSS software version 20. Differences between treatments were separated by the least significant difference (LSD) test at a 0.05 probability level.

3. Results

3.1. Effects of CuCl₂ on Defense Enzyme Activity. Foliar application of CuCl₂ at three different concentrations was effective in inducing defense enzymes like PO, PPO, PAL, and β-1,3 glucanase and other antioxidative enzymes like CAT and APX in tomato plant (Table 1). However, 2.5 mM concentration of CuCl₂ showed the most promising response in inducing defense enzymes. After 24 h of treatment CuCl₂ at a concentration 2.5 mM showed 1.77-, 1.86-, 2.03-, and 1.7-fold higher accumulation of PPO, PO, β-1,3 glucanase, and other antioxidative enzymes like CAT and APX in in APX activity and gradually becomes lower. However, increasing trend towards the higher concentrations of CuCl₂ was observed for CAT enzyme.
3.2. Effects of CuCl$_2$ on Total Phenol and Flavonoid Content in Tomato Plant. All concentrations of CuCl$_2$ influence total phenolic content in tomato plant (Figure 1). However, CuCl$_2$ at a concentration 2.5 mM was found to be the most effective to induce 1.79-fold increase compared to control. Moderate level of increase in flavonoid content was also observed under sublethal dose of CuCl$_2$ (Figure 1). Like phenolic content at 2.5 mM concentration of CuCl$_2$ showed higher flavonoid production (23%) in tomato plant.

3.3. Effects of CuCl$_2$ on NO Production in Tomato Plant. A significant increase of NO production was observed at all concentrations of CuCl$_2$ (Figure 1). However, highest increase (2.9-fold) was observed in the plant treated with 2.5 mM of CuCl$_2$. NO production was further justified by using DAF-2DA, a fluorophore widely used for the detection and imaging of NO. Similar kind of change in NO production was observed as monitored by spectrophotometry (Figure 2).

3.4. Effects of CuCl$_2$ on $H_2O_2$ Production in Tomato Plant. Reactive oxygen species (ROS) production was monitored by using DAB, a dye widely used for the detection and imaging of $H_2O_2$. From Figure 3 it was clearly observed that amount of ROS production was varied according to the concentrations of CuCl$_2$. Highest ROS generation was noticed in the plant treated with 5 mM of CuCl$_2$.

3.5. Effects of CuCl$_2$ on Chlorophyll Contents. Total leaf chlorophyll was decreased with increasing concentrations of CuCl$_2$ stress (Figure 1). At lower concentrations of CuCl$_2$ like 1 mM and 2.5 mM treatment showed slight enhancement of total chlorophyll content. However, CuCl$_2$ at 5 mM concentration showed negative effect on the synthesis of chlorophyll.
Figure 2: Nitric oxide visualization in the leaf petiole sections of tomato by DAF-2DA stain, 24 h after CuCl$_2$ treatment. Generation of NO was detected by green fluorescence. (a) Control; (b) treatment with 1 mM CuCl$_2$; (c) treatment with 2.5 mM CuCl$_2$; and (d) treatment with 5 mM CuCl$_2$.

Figure 3: H$_2$O$_2$ detection in tomato leaves by DAB stain, 24 h after CuCl$_2$ treatment. (a) Control; (b) treatment with 1 mM CuCl$_2$; (c) treatment with 2.5 mM CuCl$_2$; and (d) treatment with 5 mM CuCl$_2$.

4. Discussion

In this study changes in biochemical defense responses in tomato plants upon foliar application of CuCl$_2$ were investigated. Copper is an essential micronutrient in plants, but in excess it can adversely affect plant growth and metabolism. Exposure to high levels of copper stress significantly decreases plant biomass [26]. Our investigation demonstrated that the application of low concentration of CuCl$_2$ salt showed significant increase in defense-related enzyme accumulation like PO, PPO, PAL, $\beta$-1,3 glucanases, and total phenol. This observation supports our previous findings where Raphanus leaves showed higher induction of various defense enzymes and total phenol upon treatment with several elicitors including CuCl$_2$ [5]. Also, the higher level of total flavonoid accumulation in tomato plants might be an indication of enhanced resistance against pathogens.

The defense enzymes PO and PPO play an important role in the biosynthesis of lignin and other oxidative phenols [27, 28], and PO is involved in the production or modulation of reactive oxygen species, which may play an important role in reducing pathogen viability and spread [28]. PAL is the first enzyme of the phenylpropanoid pathway and is involved in the biosynthesis of phenolics, phytoalexins, and lignins [29]. Therefore, the increase in PAL activity might have a contribution in improvement of plant defense. Induction of defense enzymes like PAL is one of the responses of the host to treatment with elicitors [6]. PR protein like $\beta$-1,3 glucanase is a host-coded protein having direct action against fungal cell wall compounds like glucan. Earlier our group [6] demonstrated that protection of Camellia sinensis plants against blister blight disease by CaCl$_2$ treatment was accompanied by increased activities of $\beta$-1,3 glucanases. Phenols are involved in several physiological roles like phytoalexin accumulation, biosynthesis of lignin, and formation of structural barriers [6]. Higher accumulation of phenol produces greater resistance to pathogen attack. The accumulation of phenol by the phenyl propanoid pathway due to various elicitor treatments.
has already been documented earlier [30, 31]. Previously our
work showed that upon treatment with Alternaria, to
Rauvolfia serpentina group also showed that upon treatment with
toxin, as an inducer, to Rauvolfia serpentina callus higher amount of
phenols over untreated controls were produced [32].

Plants possess a range of potential cellular mechanisms
that may be involved in heavy metal detoxification giving
tolerance towards metal stress [33]. Over the last 15 years or so
NO has emerged as an important signaling molecule behind
several physiological events including biotic and abiotic
stresses. We reported previously that the level of NO in plant
is the key determinant of resistance and susceptibility [34].
Elevation in NO level was observed in R. sativus by elicitors
[5] and in tea plants by CaCl$_2$ [6], showing its involvement in
the signal transduction process leading to induced defense
responses. Gaupe et al. [35] showed NO as a transducer of
stress signal in plants. It has also been reported that H$_2$O$_2$
acts together with NO during programmed cell death [36].
Thus, NO appears as an early signaling component, possibly
orchestrating a number of downstream signaling pathways
[37]. In this study, sublethal dose of CuCl$_2$ (2.5 mM) showed
greater NO production than the untreated control set. This
result signifies that higher accumulation of NO might have
played a role in the upregulation of defense enzyme activity
in tomato plants. Furthermore, NO signaling is related to its
crosstalk with ROS. Almost all the abiotic stressors responses
generate free radicals and other oxidants, in different cellular
organelles [38], which produce oxidative stress in terms of
an increased level of ROS in plant cells [1]. In the present
investigation, relatively low amounts of ROS generation were
observed by DAB staining in tomato plants treated with
CuCl$_2$. Simultaneous increase in antioxidant enzymes like
CAT and APX in the treated plants was also noticed. Our
results indicate that NO signaling is involved in ROS
detoxification process.

In conclusion, the data presented in this study showed
that CAT and APX were involved in ROS detoxification to
protect the plant from oxidative stress and enhancement of
defense molecules to protect the plant from pathogenic
threat, and also increased production of NO might act as a
signal for defense gene expression and other physiological
functions that can be efficiently used for phytostabilization
process.

**Abbreviations**

- PO: Peroxidase
- PPO: Polyphenol oxidase
- PAL: Phenylalanine ammonia-lyase
- NO: Nitric oxide
- CuCl$_2$: Cupric chloride
- CuSO$_4$: Copper sulphate
- PVP: Polyvinylpyrrolidone
- PMSF: Phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride
- CAT: Catalase
- APX: Ascorbate peroxidase
- DAB: Diaminobenzidine
- ROS: Reactive oxygen species.

**Conflict of Interests**

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interests
regarding the publication of this paper.

**References**

[1] R. Mittler, “Oxidative stress, antioxidants and stress tolerance,”
_Trends in Plant Science_, vol. 7, no. 9, pp. 405–410, 2002.
[2] G. Potters, T. P. Pasternak, Y. Guisez, K. J. Palme, and M. A. K.
Jansen, “Stress-induced morphogenic responses: growing out of
trouble?” _Trends in Plant Science_, vol. 12, no. 3, pp. 98–105, 2007.
[3] W. Maksymiec, “Signaling responses in plants to heavy metal
stress,” _Acta Physiologiae Plantarum_, vol. 29, no. 3, pp. 177–187,
2007.
[4] A. Aziz, P. Trotel-Aziz, L. Dhuiq, P. Jeanedet, M. Coulardchet, and G.
Vernet, “Chitosan oligomers and copper sulfate induce grapevine
defense reactions and resistance to gray mold and downy mildew,”
_Physiopathology_, vol. 96, no. 11, pp. 1188–1194, 2006.
[5] K. Acharya, N. Chakraborty, A. K. Dutta, S. Sarkar, and R.
Acharya, “Signaling role of nitric oxide in the induction of plant
defense by exogenous application of abiotic inducers,” _Archives
of Phytopathology and Plant Protection_, vol. 44, no. 15, pp. 1501–
1511, 2011.
[6] S. Chandra, N. Chakraborty, A. Chakraborty, R. Rai, B. Bera, and K.
Acharya, “Abiotic elicitor-mediated improvement of innate immunity in
_Camellia sinensis; Journal of Plant Growth Regulation_, 2014.
[7] L. Lamattina, C. García-Mata, M. Graziano, and G. Pagnussat,
“Nitric oxide: the versatility of an extensive signal molecule,”
_Annual Review of Plant Biology_, vol. 54, pp. 109–136, 2003.
[8] L. A. J. Mur, T. L. W. Carver, and E. Prats, “NO way to live; the
various roles of nitric oxide in plant-pathogen interactions,”
_Journal of Experimental Botany_, vol. 57, no. 3, pp. 489–505, 2006.
[9] J. K. Hong, B. W. Yun, J. G. Kang et al., “Nitric oxide function
and signalling in plant disease resistance,” _Journal of Experimen-
tal Botany_, vol. 59, no. 2, pp. 147–154, 2008.
[10] S. Neill, R. Barros, J. Bright et al., “Nitric oxide, stomatal closure,
and abiotic stress,” _Journal of Experimental Botany_, vol. 59, no.
2, pp. 165–176, 2008.
[11] M. Kaplan, “Accumulation of copper in soils and leaves of
tomato plants in greenhouses in Turkey,” _Journal of Plant
Nutrition_, vol. 22, no. 2, pp. 237–244, 1999.
[12] S. Q. Pan, X. S. Ye, and J. Kuć, “Association of β-1,3-glucanase
activity and isoform pattern with systemic resistance to blue
mould in tobacco induced by stem injection with _Peronospora
tabacina_ or leaf inoculation with tobacco mosaic virus,” _Physi-
ological and Molecular Plant Pathology_, vol. 39, no. 1, pp. 25–39,
1991.
[13] H. M. Hemeda and B. P. Klein, “Effects of naturally occurring
antioxidants on peroxidase activity of vegetable extracts; _Jour-
nal of Food Science_, vol. 55, no. 1, pp. 184–185, 1990.
[14] K. B. Kumar and P. A. Khan, “Peroxidase and polyphenol
oxidase in excised ragi (Eleusine coracana cv PR 202) leaves
during senescence; _Indian Journal of Experimental Biology_,
vol. 20, no. 5, pp. 412–416, 1982.
[15] D. P. Dickerson, S. F. Pascholati, A. E. Hagerman, L. G.
Butler, and R. L. Nicholson, “Phenylalanine ammonia-lyase
and hydroxycinnamate: CoA ligase in maize mesocotyls inoc-
ulated with _Helminthosporium maydis_ or _Helminthosporium_
carbonum,” *Physiological Plant Pathology*, vol. 25, no. 2, pp. 111–123, 1984.

[16] Y. Nakano and K. Asada, “Hydrogen peroxide is scavenged by ascorbate-specific peroxidase in spinach chloroplasts,” *Plant and Cell Physiology*, vol. 22, no. 5, pp. 867–880, 1981.

[17] I. Cakmak and J. Horst, “Effect of aluminium on lipid peroxidation, superoxide dismutase, catalase, and peroxidase activities in root tips of soybean (Glycine max),” *Physiologia Plantarum*, vol. 83, pp. 463–468, 1991.

[18] M. M. Bradford, “A rapid and sensitive method for the quantitation of microgram quantities of protein utilizing the principle of protein dye binding,” *Analytical Biochemistry*, vol. 72, no. 1-2, pp. 248–254, 1976.

[19] N. Zieslin and R. Ben Zaken, “Peroxidase activity and presence of phenolic substances in peduncles of rose flowers,” *Plant Physiology and Biochemistry*, vol. 31, no. 3, pp. 333–339, 1993.

[20] C.-C. Chang, M.-H. Yang, H.-M. Wen, and J.-C. Chern, “Estimation of total flavonoid content in propolis by two complementary colometric methods,” *Journal of Food and Drug Analysis*, vol. 10, no. 3, pp. 178–182, 2002.

[21] D. I. Arnon, “Copper enzymes in isolated chloroplasts. Polyphenoloxidase in Beta vulgaris,” *Plant Physiology*, vol. 24, pp. 1–15, 1949.

[22] M. Delledonne, J. Zeier, A. Marocco, and C. Lamb, “Signal interactions between nitric oxide and reactive oxygen intermediates in the plant hypersensitive disease resistance response,” *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, vol. 98, no. 23, pp. 13454–13459, 2001.

[23] M. Salter and G. R. Knowles, “Assay of NOS activity by the measurement of conversion of oxyhemoglobin to methemoglobin by NO,” in *Nitric Oxide Protocols*, M. A. Titheradge, Eds., pp. 61–65, Humana Press, Totowa, NJ, USA, 1998.

[24] B. Bartha, Z. Kolbert, and L. Erdei, “Nitric oxide production induced by heavy metals in *Brassica juncea* L. Czern. and *Pisum sativum* L,” *Acta Biologica Szegediensis*, vol. 49, no. 1-2, pp. 9–12, 2005.

[25] H. Thordal-Christensen, Z. Zhang, Y. Wei, and D. B. Collinge, “Subcellular localization of H$_2$O$_2$ in plants. H$_2$O$_2$ accumulation in papillae and hypersensitive response during the barley-powdery mildew interaction,” *Plant Journal*, vol. 11, no. 6, pp. 1187–1194, 1997.

[26] T. C. Thounaojam, P. Panda, P. Mazumdar et al., “Excess copper induced oxidative stress and response of antioxidants in rice,” *Plant Physiology and Biochemistry*, vol. 53, pp. 33–39, 2012.

[27] R. Hammerschmidt, E. M. Nuckles, and J. Kuć, “Association of enhanced peroxidase activity with induced systemic resistance of cucumber to *Colletotrichum lagenarium*,” *Physiological Plant Pathology*, vol. 20, no. 1, pp. 73–82, 1982.

[28] C. Lamb and R. A. Dixon, “The oxidative burst in plant disease resistance,” *Annual Review of Plant Physiology and Plant Molecular Biology*, vol. 48, pp. 251–275, 1997.

[29] L. Pellegrini, O. Rohrfrisch, B. Fritig, and M. Legrand, “Phenylalanine ammonia-lyase in tobacco. Molecular cloning and gene expression during the hypersensitive reaction to tobacco mosaic virus and the response to a fungal elicitor,” *Plant Physiology*, vol. 106, no. 3, pp. 877–886, 1994.

[30] J. Dong, G. Wan, and Z. Liang, “Accumulation of salicylic acid-induced phenolic compounds and raised activities of secondary metabolic and antioxidative enzymes in *Salvia miltiorrhiza* cell culture,” *Journal of Biotechnology*, vol. 148, no. 2-3, pp. 99–104, 2010.

[31] C. El Modafar, M. Elgadda, R. El Boutachfai et al., “Induction of natural defence accompanied by salicylic acid-dependant systemic acquired resistance in tomato seedlings in response to bioelicitors isolated from green algae,” *Scientia Horticulturae*, vol. 138, pp. 55–63, 2012.

[32] N. S. Gupta, M. Banerjee, S. K. Basu, and K. Acharya, “Involvement of nitric oxide signal in *Alternaria alternata* toxin induced defense response in *Rauvolfia serpentina* benth. Ex kurz calli,” *Plant OMICS*, vol. 6, no. 3, pp. 157–164, 2013.

[33] J. L. Hall, “Cellular mechanisms for heavy metal detoxification and tolerance,” *Journal of Experimental Botany*, vol. 53, no. 366, pp. 1–11, 2002.

[34] R. Acharya and K. Acharya, “Evaluation of nitric oxide synthase status during disease progression in resistant and susceptible varieties of *Sesamum indicum* against *Macrophomina phaseolina*,” *Asian Australian Journal of Plant Science and Biotechnology*, vol. 1, pp. 40–44, 2007.

[35] F. Gaupels, A. C. U. Furch, T. Will, L. A. J. Mur, K.-H. Kogel, and A. J. E. van Bel, “Nitric oxide generation in *Vicia faba* phloem cells reveals them to be sensitive detectors as well as possible systemic transducers of stress signals,” *New Phytologist*, vol. 178, no. 3, pp. 634–646, 2008.

[36] E. Zago, S. Morsa, J. F. Dat et al., “Nitric oxide- and hydrogen peroxide-responsive gene regulation during cell death induction in tobacco,” *Plant Physiology*, vol. 141, no. 2, pp. 404–411, 2006.

[37] L. Perchepied, C. Balague, C. Riou et al., “Nitric oxide participates in the complex interplay of defense-related signaling pathways controlling disease resistance to *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum* in *Arabidopsis thaliana*,” *Molecular Plant-Microbe Interactions*, vol. 23, no. 7, pp. 846–860, 2010.

[38] J. Mano, “Early events in environmental stresses in plants. Induction mechanisms of oxidative stress,” in *Oxidative Stress in Plants*, D. Inzé and M. van Montagu, Eds., pp. 217–246, Taylor & Francis, New York, NY, USA, 2002.

[39] H. P. Singh, D. R. Batish, G. Kaur, K. Arora, and R. K. Kohli, “Nitric oxide (as sodium nitroprusside) supplementation ameliorates Cd toxicity in hydronically grown wheat roots,” *Environmental and Experimental Botany*, vol. 63, no. 1–3, pp. 158–167, 2008.