



# NRT1.1 Regulates Nitrate Allocation and Cadmium Tolerance in Arabidopsis

Shaofen Jian<sup>1</sup>, Jingsong Luo<sup>1</sup>, Qiong Liao<sup>1</sup>, Qiang Liu<sup>1</sup>, Chunyun Guan<sup>2</sup> and Zhenhua Zhang<sup>1\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Southern Regional Collaborative Innovation Centre for Grain and Oil Crops in China, College of Resources and Environmental Sciences, Hunan Agricultural University, Changsha, China, <sup>2</sup> National Centre of Oilseed Crops Improvement, Hunan Branch, Changsha, China

## OPEN ACCESS

### Edited by:

Eric Ruelland,  
Centre National de la Recherche  
Scientifique (CNRS), France

### Reviewed by:

Abdellah Chaoui,  
University of Carthage, Tunisia  
Ko Noguchi,  
Tokyo University of Pharmacy and Life  
Sciences, Japan

### \*Correspondence:

Zhenhua Zhang  
zhzh1468@163.com

### Specialty section:

This article was submitted to  
Plant Abiotic Stress,  
a section of the journal  
Frontiers in Plant Science

Received: 22 December 2018

Accepted: 13 March 2019

Published: 27 March 2019

### Citation:

Jian S, Luo J, Liao Q, Liu Q,  
Guan C and Zhang Z (2019) NRT1.1  
Regulates Nitrate Allocation  
and Cadmium Tolerance  
in Arabidopsis.  
Front. Plant Sci. 10:384.  
doi: 10.3389/fpls.2019.00384

Abiotic stress induces nitrate ( $\text{NO}_3^-$ ) allocation to roots, which increases stress tolerance in plants. NRT1.1 is broadly involved in abiotic stress tolerance in plants, but the relationship between NRT1.1 and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  allocation under stress conditions is unclear. In this study, we found that Arabidopsis wild-type Col-0 was more cadmium ( $\text{Cd}^{2+}$ )-tolerant than the *nrt1.1* mutant at 20  $\mu\text{M}$   $\text{CdCl}_2$ .  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  exposure repressed *NRT1.5* but upregulated *NRT1.8* in roots of Col-0 plants, resulting in increased  $\text{NO}_3^-$  allocation to roots and higher  $[\text{NO}_3^-]$  root-to-shoot (R:S) ratios. Interestingly, *NITRATE REGULATORY GENE2* (*NRG2*) was upregulated by  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress in Col-0 but not in *nrt1.1*. Under  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress, *nrg2* and *nrg2-3chl1-13* mutants exhibited similar phenotypes and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  allocation patterns as observed in the *nrt1.1* mutant, but overexpression of *NRG2* in Col-0 and *nrt1.1* increased the  $[\text{NO}_3^-]$  R:S ratio and restored  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress tolerance. Our results indicated that *NRT1.1* and *NRG2* regulated  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress-induced  $\text{NO}_3^-$  allocation to roots and that *NRG2* functioned downstream of *NRT1.1*.  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  uptake did not differ between Col-0 and *nrt1.1*, but  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  allocation to roots was higher in Col-0 than in *nrt1.1*. Stressed Col-0 plants increased  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  allocation to root vacuoles, which reduced their cytosolic allocation and transport to the shoots. Our results suggest that NRT1.1 regulates  $\text{NO}_3^-$  allocation to roots by coordinating  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  accumulation in root vacuoles, which facilitates  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  detoxification.

**Keywords:** *CHL1/NRT1.1/NPF6.3*, *NITRATE REGULATORY GENE 2*, nitrate allocation, cadmium stress, vacuole, Arabidopsis

## INTRODUCTION

Heavy metal pollution in soil is an important environmental issue worldwide, which gives rise to agricultural and public health concerns (Bertin and Averbeck, 2006; Mohammed et al., 2011; Åkesson et al., 2014). In China, for example, approximately 7% of the soil is cadmium (Cd) contaminated, 0.5% of which is severely polluted (Zhang et al., 2015). Cd can be released to the

**Abbreviations:**  $J_{\text{max}}$ , maximum electron transport rate; MDA, malondialdehyde; NR, nitrate reductase; *NRG2*, *NITRATE REGULATORY GENE2*; PPFD, photosynthetic photon flux intensity; R:S, root-to-shoot; SINAR, stress-initiated nitrate allocation in roots; SOD, superoxide dismutase; TPU, triose phosphate utilization;  $V_{\text{c,max}}$ , maximum carboxylation rate of Rubisco.

soil by excessive use of chemical fertilizers and pesticides, utilization of industrial wastewater and sludge, and atmospheric deposition (Woodis et al., 1977; He and Singh, 1994; Wong et al., 2003; Ottosen et al., 2007; Roberts, 2014). Thus, people are being exposed to Cd-associated toxicity via the consumption of cereals and vegetables grown in Cd-contaminated soils (Chaney, 2015). Susceptibility to Cd<sup>2+</sup> stress is species-specific in plants (Chen, 1996), which provides opportunities to select and breed Cd<sup>2+</sup>-tolerant species/varieties. However, this requires a complete understanding of the underlying mechanisms of Cd<sup>2+</sup> tolerance in plants.

Nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) is one of the two forms of inorganic nitrogen nutrient taken up by terrestrial plants. It also acts as a signal molecule regulating a wide range of genes and biological processes involved in nitrogen utilization, general plant lateral root development, and response to environmental fluctuations (Gowri et al., 1992; Redinbaugh and Campbell, 1993; Gutiérrez et al., 2007; Hirel et al., 2007; Miller et al., 2007; Krouk et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2012; Ruffel et al., 2014; Vidal et al., 2014; Bouguyon et al., 2016). Under normal conditions, most of the absorbed NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> is transported to the shoots for reduction by NR or as a temporary nitrogen pool stored in vacuoles, which is driven by the H<sup>+</sup> transport energized by the tonoplast H<sup>+</sup>-ATPase and H<sup>+</sup>-PPase (Martinoia et al., 1981, 2007; Han et al., 2016). NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> allocation between the roots and the shoots in plants is important for nitrogen utilization and adaptation to abiotic stresses (Fan et al., 2007; Li et al., 2010; Han et al., 2016). The long-distance transport of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> is mediated by two nitrate transporters, NRT1.5 and NRT1.8. The former is found in pericycle cells where it is responsible for loading the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> to the xylem, whereas the latter is found in xylem parenchyma cells, where it contributes to NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> unloading from xylem (Lin et al., 2008; Li et al., 2010; Chen et al., 2012). Under adverse environmental conditions, NRT1.5 expression is downregulated and NRT1.8 expression is upregulated in roots. As a result, more NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> allocates to roots, which subsequently increases plant stress tolerance (Li et al., 2010; Chen et al., 2012). This phenomenon, known as SINAR, has been widely observed under several abiotic stresses, including the Cd<sup>2+</sup> stress (Chen et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2014). Ethylene and jasmonic acid are involved in the regulation of NRT1.5 and NRT1.8 under stress (Zhang et al., 2014).

NRT1.1, which was first cloned in 1993 (Tsay et al., 1993), is essential for NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> uptake and signaling (Ho et al., 2009). In addition to its function as NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> transporter, NRT1.1 also plays important roles in vegetative and reproductive growth (Guo et al., 2001), stomatal opening (Guo et al., 2003), root architecture (Remans et al., 2006; Mounier et al., 2014), and transport of chloride and phytohormones (IAA/ABA/jasmonic acid/GAs) (Tsay et al., 1993; Guo et al., 2002; Krouk, 2016; Corratgé-Faillie and Lacombe, 2017). Moreover, it induces tolerance in plants to abiotic stresses, such as proton stress, salt stress, Cd<sup>2+</sup> stress, and iron deficiency (Mao et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2015; Abouelsaad et al., 2016; Fang et al., 2016). NRT1.1-mediated plant stress tolerance is closely associated with NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> uptake, assimilation, and accumulation. It has been reported that NRT1.1 mediates the expression of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> regulatory genes such as NRG2

(Ho et al., 2009; Hu et al., 2009; Xu et al., 2016) and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> assimilation genes such as NIAs and NiR, as well as some other NRTs (Ho et al., 2009; Undurraga et al., 2017). However, the relationship between NRT1.1 and SINAR, including the control mechanisms, is not well understood.

In this study, we found that NRT1.1 regulated the expression of NRT1.5 and NRT1.8 under Cd<sup>2+</sup> stress, which increased NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> allocation to roots as a mechanism to resist Cd<sup>2+</sup> stress. Furthermore, we demonstrated that NRG2 functioned downstream of NRT1.1 in regulating NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> allocation. NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> was required to facilitate Cd<sup>2+</sup> allocation to the roots, where it was mainly stored in the vacuoles for detoxification. Our results provide insights into the effects of the nitrate regulatory gene network on the regulation of plant stress tolerance.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### Plant Materials and Growth Conditions

*Arabidopsis thaliana* wild-type (Col-0), *nrt1.1*, *nrg2* single and double mutants (*chl1-1*, *chl1-5*, *chl1-13*, *nrg2-1*, *nrt2-2*, *nrg2-3chl1-13*), and NRG2 overexpression lines (35S::NRG2/Col-0, 35S::NRG2/*chl1-5*) were used in this study. Seeds were sown in nutrition soil and placed in a growth chamber (300 μmol photons·m<sup>-2</sup>·s<sup>-1</sup>, 16-h photoperiod, 22°C) to germinate and grow. Ten days after sowing, seedlings with two true leaves were transplanted to 600-ml pots and cultivated hydroponically in nutrient medium. The growth medium contained 1.25 mM KNO<sub>3</sub>, 0.625 mM KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, 0.5 mM MgSO<sub>4</sub>, 0.5 mM Ca(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>, 1.25 μM Fe-EDTA, 17.5 μM H<sub>3</sub>BO<sub>3</sub>, 3.5 μM MnCl<sub>2</sub>, 0.25 μM ZnSO<sub>4</sub>, 0.05 μM NaMoO<sub>4</sub>, and 0.125 μM CuSO<sub>4</sub>. The MES buffer (2.5 mM) was used to maintain the pH of the growth medium at pH 5.8. The growth medium was refreshed every 4 days, and the position of the pots was interchanged when refreshing the solution to eliminate any edge effects. Four weeks after sowing, plants were exposed to Cd stress by adding 20 μM CdCl<sub>2</sub> to the growth medium for 3 days. Control plants were grown without CdCl<sub>2</sub>.

### <sup>15</sup>N Tracer Assay

Plants of Col-0, *chl1-1*, *chl1-5* were grown in the normal nutrient medium for 4 weeks, followed by a 12-h treatment with 200 μM CdCl<sub>2</sub>. Then, roots were washed with 0.1 mM CaSO<sub>4</sub> for 1 min and labeled with 20% atom abundance of Ca(<sup>15</sup>NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> (pH = 5.8) for 40 min. The roots were washed with 0.1 mM CaSO<sub>4</sub> and deionized water. Shoots and roots were sampled separately and oven-dried at 70°C for 48 h. Then the samples were pulverized using a TissuLyser (Tissuelyer-48, Jingxin Co. Ltd., China), and <sup>15</sup>N abundance in samples was measured using a continuous-flow isotope ratio mass spectrometer coupled with a carbon-nitrogen elemental analyzer (ANCA-MS; PDZ Europa).

### Determination of Photosynthetic Parameters

Photosynthesis of fully expanded rosette leaves was measured between 09:00 and 15:00 with a LI-6400 portable photosynthesis

system (Li-Cor Inc., Lincoln, NE, United States). The air temperature in the cuvette was 22°C, the PPFD was 200  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ , the  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration ( $C_a$ ) was 500  $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$  (controlled with a  $\text{CO}_2$  mixer), and the VPD was between 1.0 and 1.5 kPa. Before measurement, leaves were placed in the cuvette to adjust for 10 min. Data were recorded after equilibration to a steady state.

Photosynthetic  $\text{CO}_2$ -response curves ( $A-C_i$  curves) were measured with a PPFD of 200  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  at nine points of  $C_a$  (800, 600, 500, 400, 300, 200, 150, 100, 50  $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ ). Prior to the measurement, leaves were placed in the cuvette to equilibrate for 30 min under a PPFD of 200  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$  and  $C_a$  of 400  $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$ . Temperature and VPD in the cuvette during measurement were maintained as described above. Data were recorded after equilibration to a steady state.  $V_{c,\text{max}}$ ,  $J_{\text{max}}$ , and TPU were calculated according to Sharkey et al. (2007). The parameters  $K_c$ ,  $K_o$ ,  $R_d$ , and  $I^*$ , which were used to calculate  $V_{c,\text{max}}$ ,  $J_{\text{max}}$ , and TPU, were estimated as 27.24 Pa, 16.58 Pa, 1  $\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ , and 3.74 Pa, respectively.

### Determination of Proline, Malondialdehyde (MDA) Concentration, and Superoxide Dismutase (SOD) Activity

Plants were grown in the normal nutrient medium for 4 weeks and then treated with 20  $\mu\text{M}$   $\text{CdCl}_2$  for 3 days. Fresh leaves were collected to measure proline and MDA concentrations and SOD activity. Proline concentration was measured using the ninhydrin colorimetry method (Bates et al., 1973; Sharma and Dubey, 2005). Briefly, fresh samples (0.5 g) were homogenized in 5 ml of 3% aqueous sulfosalicylic acid using a mortar and a pestle. Homogenates were centrifuged at  $10,000 \times g$  for 10 min at 4°C, and the supernatants were collected and used for proline analysis. In a test tube, 2 ml of supernatant was added to 2 ml of acidic ninhydrin and 2 ml of glacial acetic acid; then, the mixture was placed in a boiling water bath for 15 min. The processed mixture was extracted with 4 ml toluene by thoroughly vigorous stirring. After keeping the tube at room temperature for 30 min, the absorption of the toluene solution was measured spectrophotometrically at 520 nm. A standard curve was created using L-proline.

Malondialdehyde concentration was measured using the thiobarbituric acid method (Kramer et al., 1991). Fresh samples (0.5 g) were homogenized in 5 ml 5% (w/v) trichloroacetic acid (TCA) with a mortar and a pestle and centrifuged at  $10,000 \times g$  for 10 min at 4°C. Then, 2 ml supernatant were combined with 2.5 ml TBA reagent [0.6% (w/v) TBA in 10% (w/v) TCA], heated at 100°C for 10 min, cooled, and centrifuged at  $4000 \times g$  for 10 min. The concentration of MDA was calculated from the absorbance at 600, 532, and 450 nm.

Superoxide dismutase activity was determined according to the method described by Giannopolitis and Ries (1977). The shoot tissues were thoroughly ground with a mortar and a pestle in liquid nitrogen. Then, the samples were homogenized in 0.1 M phosphate buffer containing 0.1 mM EDTA (pH 7.8) and centrifuged at  $13,000 \times g$  and 4°C for 10 min. The supernatants

were used for determining the SOD activity. The SOD reaction mixture contained 50 mM phosphate buffer (pH 7.8), 13 mM methionine, 75  $\mu\text{M}$  nitro blue tetrazolium (NBT), 10  $\mu\text{M}$  EDTA- $\text{Na}_2$ , 2.0  $\mu\text{M}$  riboflavin, and modest volume of extract. Ultrapure water was added to a final volume of 3 ml. The mixtures in the glass test tubes were illuminated for 20 min and the absorbance at 560 nm was measured spectrophotometrically. Identical mixtures that were not illuminated served as blank controls (background).

### Determination of Chlorophyll Concentration

Chlorophyll concentration in rosette leaves was determined by extraction with 80% acetone for 24 h at room temperature in the dark (Wellburn and Lichtenthaler, 1984). The absorbance of the extract was measured at 663 and 645 nm to calculate chlorophyll *a*, *b*, and total chlorophyll concentrations.

### Measurements of Biomass, Nitrate, and $\text{Cd}^{2+}$ Concentration

Four-week-old plants treated with  $\text{CdCl}_2$  for 3 days were sampled and separated into shoots and roots. The samples were oven-dried at 70°C until the weight remained constant (dry weight).

$\text{NO}_3^-$  was extracted from the samples using deionized water in a boiling water bath for 15 min and determined spectrophotometrically at 410 nm by nitration of salicylic acid (Cataldo et al., 1975).

Four-week-old plants exposed to  $\text{CdCl}_2$  for 3 days were harvested and washed with 0.1 mM  $\text{CaCl}_2$  for 1 min, followed by rinsing with deionized water for four times. Shoots and roots were separately collected and oven-dried at 70°C until the weight remained constant (dry weight). Samples were digested thoroughly with  $\text{HNO}_3$  at 180°C and the  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  concentration was determined with an ICP Mass Spectrometer (NexION 350X, PerkinElmer).

### Determination of V-ATPase and V-PPase Activities

Root tissues (0.5 g) of four-week-old plants were used for V-ATPase and V-PPase activities determination according to Krebs et al. (2010) with some modifications. V-ATPase and V-PPase activities in 100  $\mu\text{l}$  microsomal membranes were determined calorimetrically by measuring the release of inorganic phosphate (Pi) after an incubation of 30 min at 37°C. The V-ATPase assay medium contained 25 mM Tris-Hepes (pH 7.6), 3 mM  $\text{MgSO}_4\cdot 7 \text{H}_2\text{O}$ , 50 mM KCl, 0.5 mM  $\text{NaN}_3$ , 0.1 mM  $\text{NaVO}_4\cdot 12 \text{H}_2\text{O}$ , and 3 mM ATP-Tris. V-PPase activity was assayed in a reaction medium containing 25 mM Tris-Hepes (pH 7.6), 3 mM  $\text{MgSO}_4\cdot 7 \text{H}_2\text{O}$ , 50 mM KCl, 0.5 mM  $\text{NaN}_3$ , 0.1 mM  $\text{NaVO}_4\cdot 12 \text{H}_2\text{O}$ , and 3 mM  $\text{Na}_4\text{P}_2\text{O}_7$ .

### Isolation of Intact Protoplasts and Vacuoles for Determination of $\text{Cd}^{2+}$ and $\text{NO}_3^-$ Levels

Root tissues (0.3 g) of four-week-old plants were used to isolate intact protoplasts and vacuoles according to Robert et al. (2007).

The purified protoplasts were divided into two fractions, one of which was used for the releases of vacuoles according to the method described in Dürr et al. (1975). The purified protoplasts and vacuoles were used for the determination of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  concentrations (Vögeli-Lange and Wagner, 1990; Han et al., 2016).  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentrations in protoplasts and vacuoles were measured by a continuous-flow auto-analyzer (Auto Analyzer 3, Bran and Luebbe) as described previously by Han et al. (2016).  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  concentrations in the protoplasts and vacuole were determined with an ICP Mass Spectrometer (NexION 350X, PerkinElmer) as described in Huang et al. (2012).

## RNA Extraction and Transcript Analysis

Four-week-old plants were treated with 200  $\mu\text{M}$   $\text{CdCl}_2$  for 6 h and the roots were harvested for total RNA analysis. Total RNA was extracted with TRIzol (Invitrogen, United States), precipitated with an equal volume of isopropanol, washed with 75% ethanol, and dissolved with RNase-free water. The cDNA templates were synthesized using the PrimeScript<sup>TM</sup> RT Kit with gDNA Eraser (Perfect Real Time) (TAKARA, Japan) following the manufacturer's protocol. The relative expression of genes in roots was determined by quantitative RT-PCR performed in an Applied Biosystems StepOne<sup>TM</sup> Real-Time PCR System using SYBR Premix Ex-Taq (TAKARA) according to the manufacturer's protocol. Primers used in the assays are listed in **Supplementary Table S1**. The expression data were normalized to *Actin2* or *sand*.

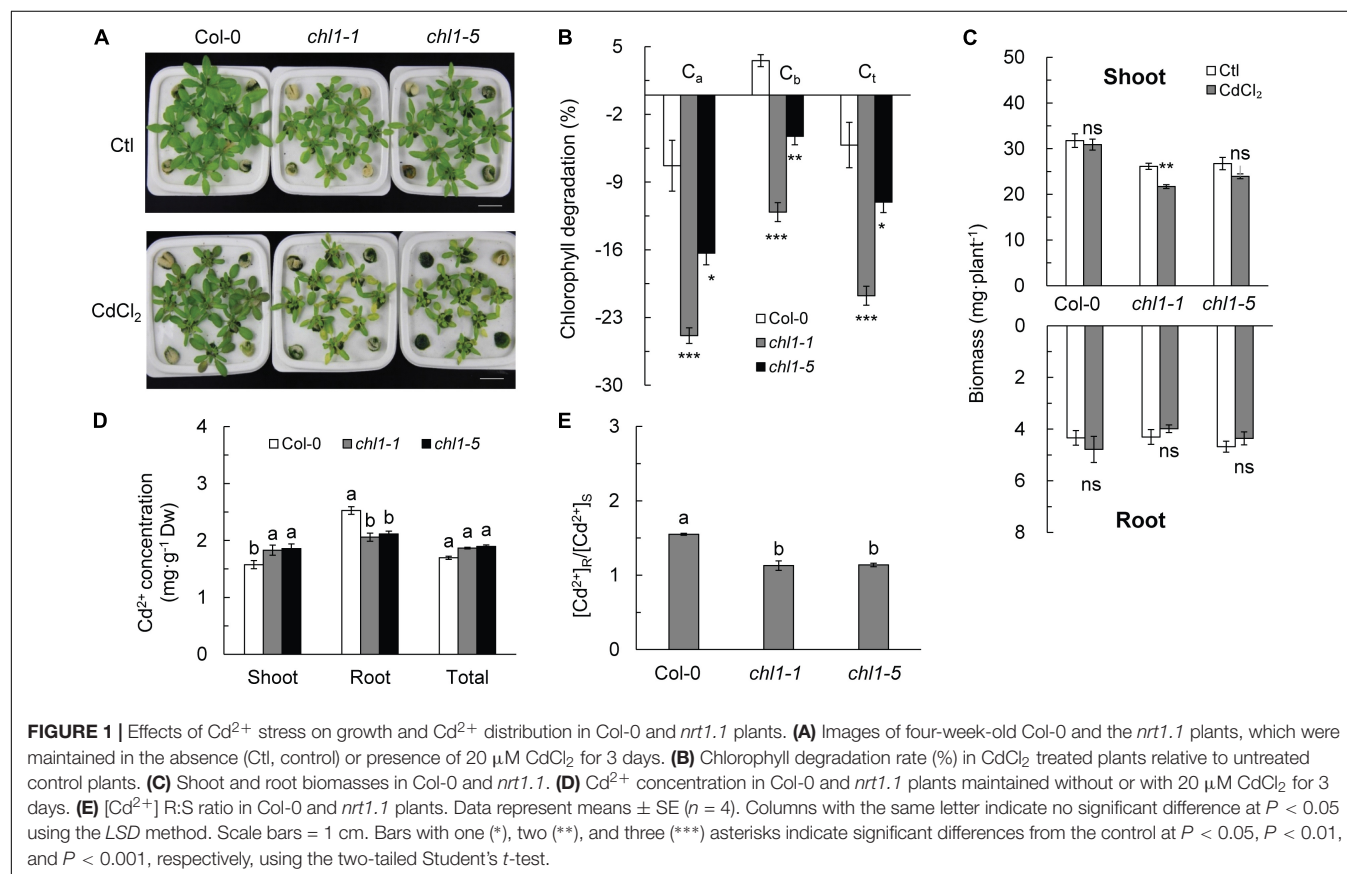
## Statistical Analysis

A completely randomized design was applied in the experiments by having four biological replicates in each treatment. The comparisons of the means between  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress treatments and controls were performed using the two-tailed Student's *t*-test. The effects of  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress treatment, along with the genotypes and their interactions, were evaluated using two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). Multiple comparisons were performed using the least significant difference (LSD) multiple range test. Differences were considered statistically significant at  $P < 0.05$ .

## RESULTS

### Nrt1.1 Improves $\text{Cd}^{2+}$ Stress Tolerance in Plants

$\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress degraded chlorophyll *a*, *b*, and total chlorophyll in *nrt1.1* mutants (*chl1-1* and *chl1-5*) by 16.35–24.87, 4.26–12.10, and 11.07–20.75%, respectively, as compared with those in the controls, resulting in more severe chlorosis in *nrt1.1* than in Col-0 (**Figures 1A,B** and **Supplementary Figures S1A–C**).  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress significantly reduced shoot biomass of *nrt1.1*, but had no effect on Col-0;  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  exposure did not affect the root biomass in any genotype (**Figure 1C**).  $P_n$ ,  $V_{c,max}$ ,  $J_{max}$ , and TPU in *nrt1.1* were strongly decreased under  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress, with significantly lower values than those in Col-0. Photosynthesis in Col-0 was



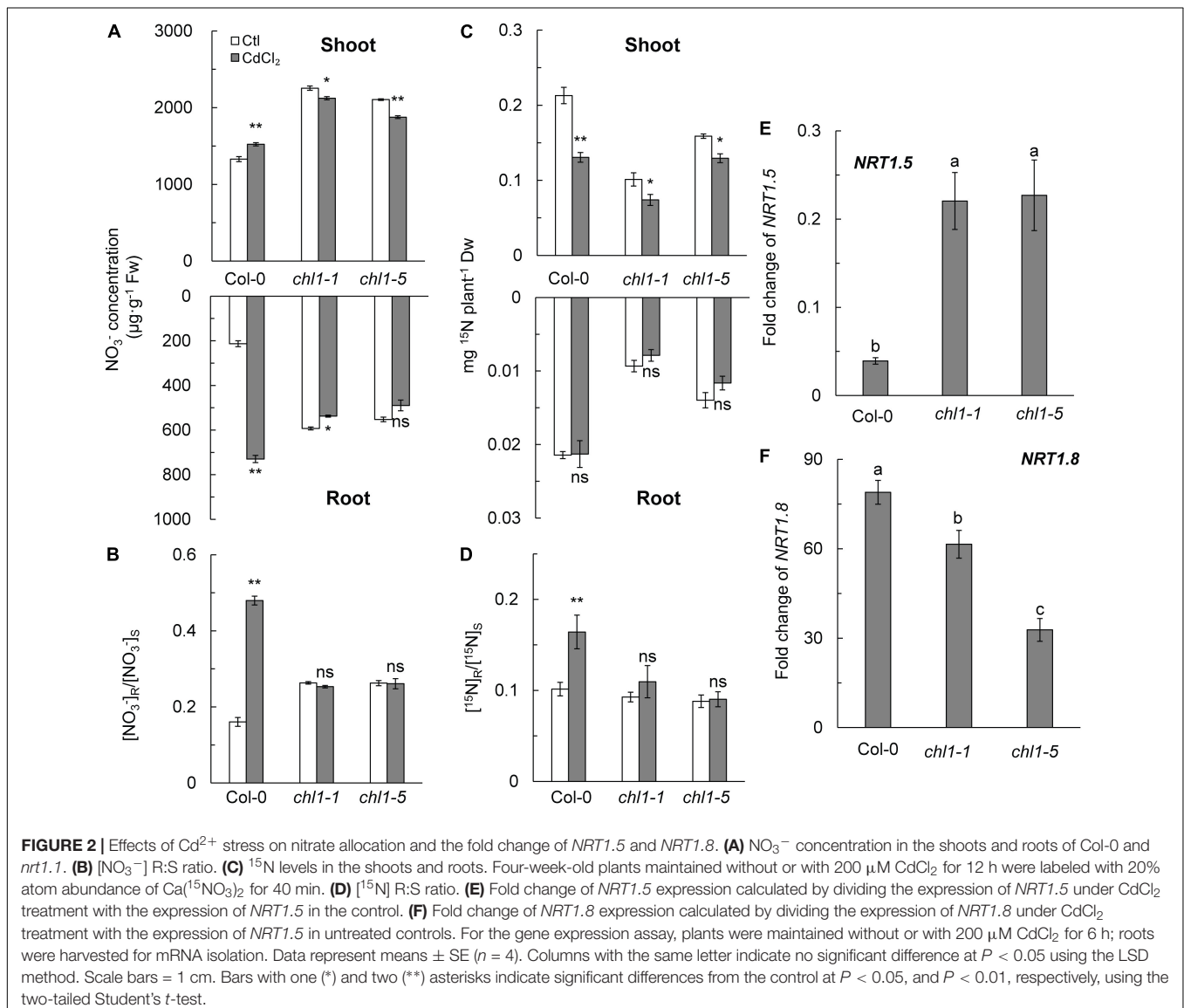


not affected by  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress (Supplementary Figures S2A–D). The *chl1-9* mutant is defective in nitrate uptake but shows a normal primary nitrate response (Ho et al., 2009). In the presence of  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$ , *chl1-9* had chlorosis similar to *chl1-1* and *chl1-5* (Supplementary Figure S3), indicating that the nitrate signaling function of *NRT1.1* is independent of the underlying mechanism of  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress tolerance in Arabidopsis.

$\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress strongly increased the MDA concentration in *nrt1.1*, especially in the roots, where it increased by 310.4% in *chl1-1* and 481.4% in *chl1-5* as compared to that in the corresponding controls. However, the MDA concentration in Col-0 was not affected in the shoots and only increased by 41.8% in the roots (Supplementary Figure S4A).  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress significantly increased the proline concentration in all genotypes, with increases of 84.5 and 59.8%, 54.7 and 55.1%, and 35.4 and 43.3% observed in the shoots and roots of Col-0, *chl1-1*, and *chl1-5*, respectively, as compared to the proline

concentration in the corresponding controls (Supplementary Figure S4B).  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress significantly increased the SOD activity in the shoots of Col-0 but reduced it in the *nrt1.1* mutant, which had a significantly lower SOD activity than Col-0 (Supplementary Figure S4C).

We compared the concentration and distribution of  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  in plants exposed to  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress and found that the  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  concentration was significantly lower in the shoots of Col-0 plants than in those of the *nrt1.1* plants. In contrast, the  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  concentration in the roots of Col-0 plants was markedly higher than that of the *nrt1.1* plants (Figure 1D). However, the whole-plant  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  concentration did not vary significantly between Col-0 and *nrt1.1* (Figure 1D). Therefore, the  $[\text{Cd}^{2+}]$  R:S ratio was significantly higher in Col-0 than in *nrt1.1* (Figure 1E). These results indicated that Col-0 plants allocated more  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  to the roots during  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress, whereas *nrt1.1* plants distributed more  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$



to shoots, which was consistent with the observed  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  toxicity in the shoots.

Since the iron (Fe) status of plants is critical for  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  uptake and tolerance (He et al., 2017), we measured the Fe concentration but did not detect any genotype-dependent differences, neither under control nor  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress conditions (Supplementary Figure S5). This observation suggested that the chlorosis in *nrt1.1* leaves under  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress did not affect the Fe status.

## NRT1.1 Mediates Nitrate Allocation in Roots Under $\text{Cd}^{2+}$ Stress

NRT1.1 is a nitrate transporter. To determine whether the phenotype of  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress-induced chlorosis is nitrate-dependent, we used ammonium succinate as the sole nitrogen source during  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  treatment and found that the phenotype of  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  toxicity disappeared (Supplementary Figure S6). The results suggested that NRT1.1-mediated  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  tolerance is nitrate-dependent.

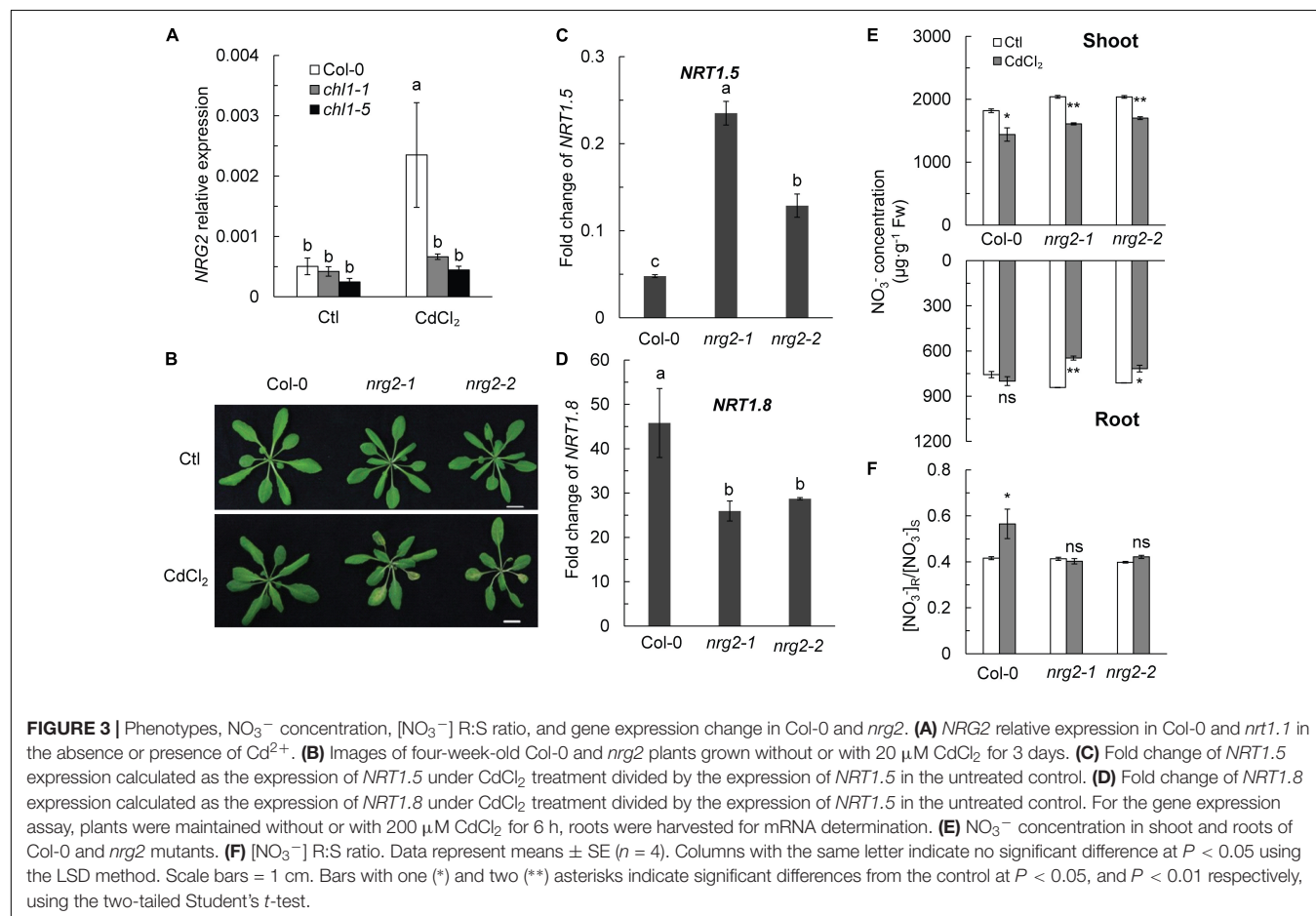
A previous study reported that nitrate allocation in plants is correlated with  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress tolerance (Li et al., 2010). Thus, we measured the  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentration and allocation in roots and shoots. The results showed that  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress significantly reduced the  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentration in roots and shoots of *nrt1.1*, whereas the  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentration in roots and shoots of Col-0 was significantly increased by 2.43-fold and 0.13-fold as compared

with those in control plants, respectively (Figure 2A). As a result, the  $[\text{NO}_3^-]$  R:S ratio in Col-0 was significantly increased by  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  treatment, whereas this ratio remained constant in *nrt1.1* at approximately 0.26 (Figure 2B). The short-term  $^{15}\text{N}$  trace experiment further confirmed that allocation of absorbed nitrate to the roots was higher in Col-0 (14.00%) than in *chl1-1* (9.66%) or *chl1-5* (8.25%) under  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress (Figures 2C,D).

The expression of nitrate long-distance transport genes *NRT1.5* and *NRT1.8* were also assayed in this study. As shown in Figure 2E and Supplementary Figure S7A, *NRT1.5* expression was strongly inhibited in Col-0 roots during  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  exposure, whereas its expression was only slightly downregulated in *nrt1.1* mutants exposed to the same stress. In contrast,  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress strongly upregulated the expression of *NRT1.8* in roots of all genotypes, with the highest expression levels measured in Col-0 (Figure 2F and Supplementary Figure S7B). The expression of *NRT1.5* and *NRT1.8* resulted in a higher  $[\text{NO}_3^-]$  R:S ratio under  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress.

## NRG2 Participates in NRT1.1-Mediated Nitrate Allocation

Surprisingly, *NRG2* expression in Col-0 roots was also significantly upregulated by  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress, whereas the expression of *NRG2* in *chl1-1* and *chl1-5* was not significantly affected



(Figure 3A). Therefore, we hypothesized that *NRG2* is involved in *NRT1.1*-mediated  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  tolerance in Arabidopsis. Interestingly, we observed the  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  toxicity phenotype in two *NRG2* single mutants, *nrg2-1* and *nrg2-2*, after a 3-day treatment with 20  $\mu\text{M}$   $\text{CdCl}_2$  (Figure 3B).

The expression profile of *NRT1.5* and *NRT1.8* in *nrg2* mutants was similar to that in *chl1-1* and *chl1-5*. *NRT1.5* was more significantly downregulated in Col-0 than in *nrg2*, and *NRT1.8* was also more markedly upregulated in Col-0 than in the mutant (Figures 3C,D and Supplementary Figures S7C,D). Accordingly, Col-0 allocated more  $\text{NO}_3^-$  to the roots and had an increased  $[\text{NO}_3^-]$  R:S ratio under  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress (Figures 3E,F). In contrast, the  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentration was lower in *nrg2* shoots and roots than in control plant shoots and roots; thus, the *nrg2* mutant maintained a constant  $[\text{NO}_3^-]$  R:S ratio during the  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  exposure (Figures 3E,F). These results indicated that the  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress response in plants with depleted *NRG2* gene was similar to that in the *nrt1.1* mutant.

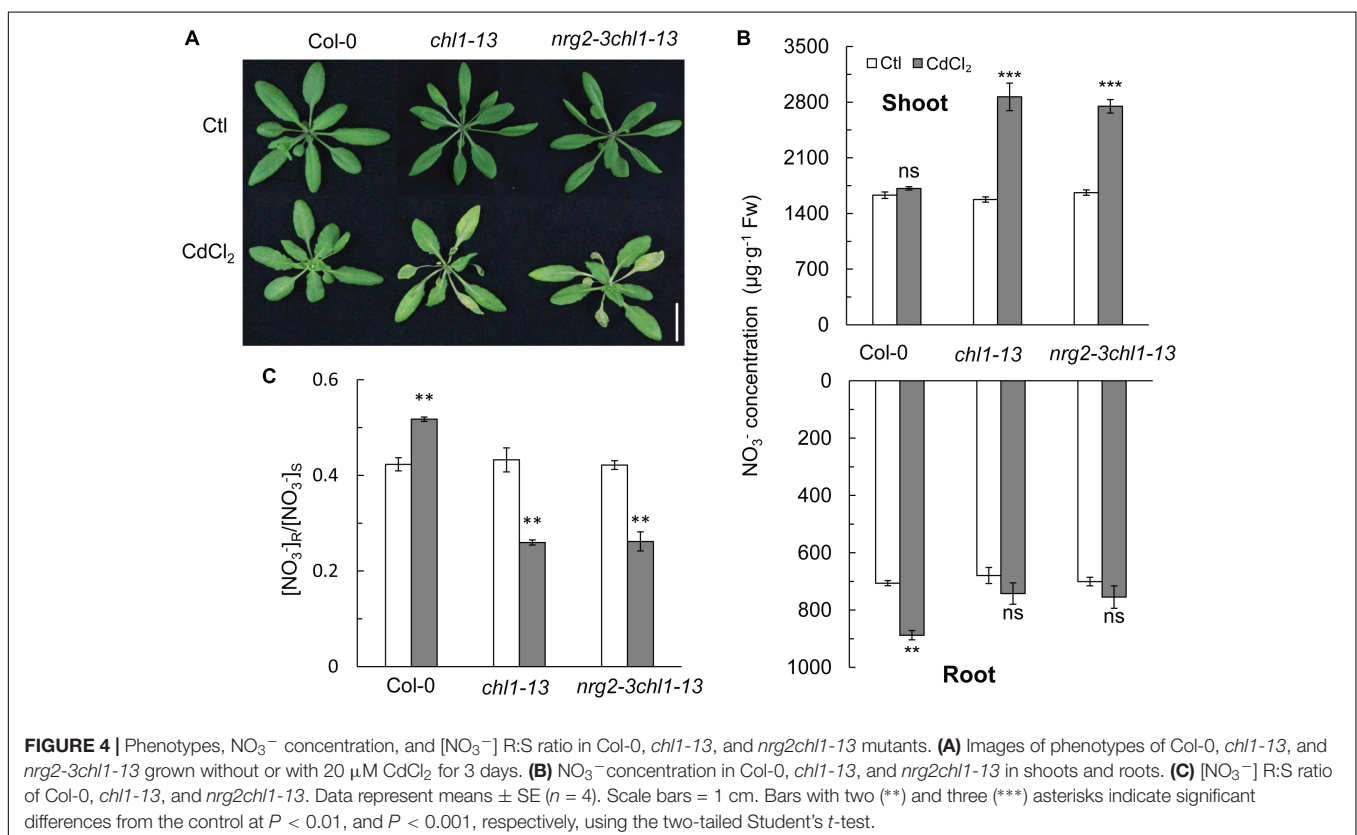
An *nrg2-3chl1-13* double mutant line was also used in this study. By exposing the double mutant plants to 20  $\mu\text{M}$   $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  for 3 days, we observed a  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  toxicity phenotype that was similar to that of the *chl1-13* single mutant (Figure 4A). In the presence of  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$ , the *nrg2-3chl1-13* mutant had an increased  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentration in the shoots and a decreased  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentration in the roots, which lowered the  $[\text{NO}_3^-]$  R:S ratio under  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress (Figures 4B,C). The results indicated that *NRG2* and *NRT1.1* are involved in the same pathway regulating the expression of *NRT1.5* and *NRT1.8*,

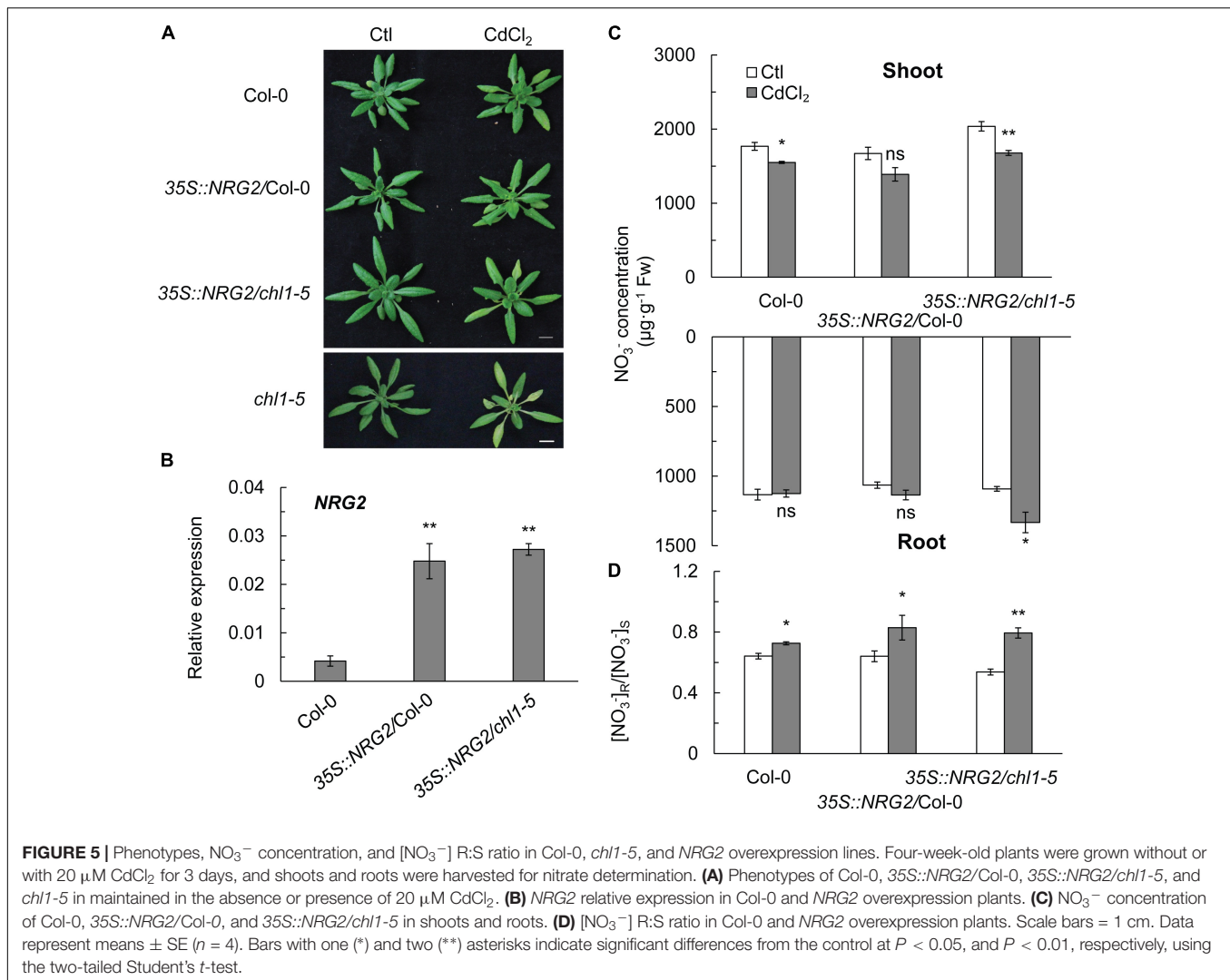
and, consequently, controlling  $\text{NO}_3^-$  allocation and  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress tolerance.

To further elucidate the relationship between *NRG2* and *NRT1.1* in regulating  $\text{NO}_3^-$  allocation as a major response to  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress, we constitutively overexpressed *NRG2* in Col-0 and *chl1-5* under the control of the 35S promoter. We found that  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress did not induce the  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  toxicity phenotype in *35S::NRG2/Col-0* or *35S::NRG2/chl1-5*, both of which with an *NRG2* expression that was significantly higher than that in Col-0 (Figures 5A,B). Overexpression of *NRG2* in Col-0 and *chl1-5* reduced the  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentration in shoots but increased (or maintained) the  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentration in roots under  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress (Figure 5C). Hence, the  $[\text{NO}_3^-]$  R:S ratio under  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress in *35S::NRG2/Col-0* and *35S::NRG2/chl1-5* was significantly increased as compared to that in Col-0 (Figure 5D). These data indicated that *NRG2* acted as a downstream element of *NRT1.1* to regulate  $\text{NO}_3^-$  allocation under  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress.

## Coordination of $\text{Cd}^{2+}$ and $\text{NO}_3^-$ Allocation in Root Tissues

$\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress triggered both  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  allocation in roots of Col-0 plants (Figures 1D,E, 2A,B, 3E,F). Previous studies showed that the cellular vacuoles function in nitrogen storage and heavy metal sequestration (Andreev, 2001; Sharma et al., 2016). In our study, we measured the distribution of  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  in the vacuole and protoplast, along with the





proton pump activity of the tonoplast, which promotes ion accumulation in the vacuole.

As shown in **Figure 6**, the activities of the V-ATPase and V-PPase in roots tissues of Col-0 were increased under  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress, whereas the activities of those two enzymes were significantly decreased in *chl1-1* and *chl1-5* roots (**Figures 6A,B**).  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress reduced the  $\text{NO}_3^-$  content in both protoplasts and vacuoles, with a greater reduction in the vacuole  $\text{NO}_3^-$  content in *chl1-1* and *chl1-5* mutant plants, resulting in a lower proportion of vacuole  $\text{NO}_3^-$  as compared to the total  $\text{NO}_3^-$  in *nrt1.1* protoplasts (**Figure 6C**).  $\text{NO}_3^-$  accumulation in the cytosol (P-V) was significantly increased in *nrt1.1* mutant plants and was markedly higher than that in Col-0 plants (**Figure 6D**).

Under  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress, the proportion of vacuole  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  relative to the total  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  in root protoplasts was lower in *nrt1.1* than in Col-0 (**Figure 6E**), indicating that substantial amounts of  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  accumulated in the cytosol of those *nrt1.1* root protoplasts (**Figure 6F**). Thus, we concluded that the increased allocation of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  to the root vacuoles is an

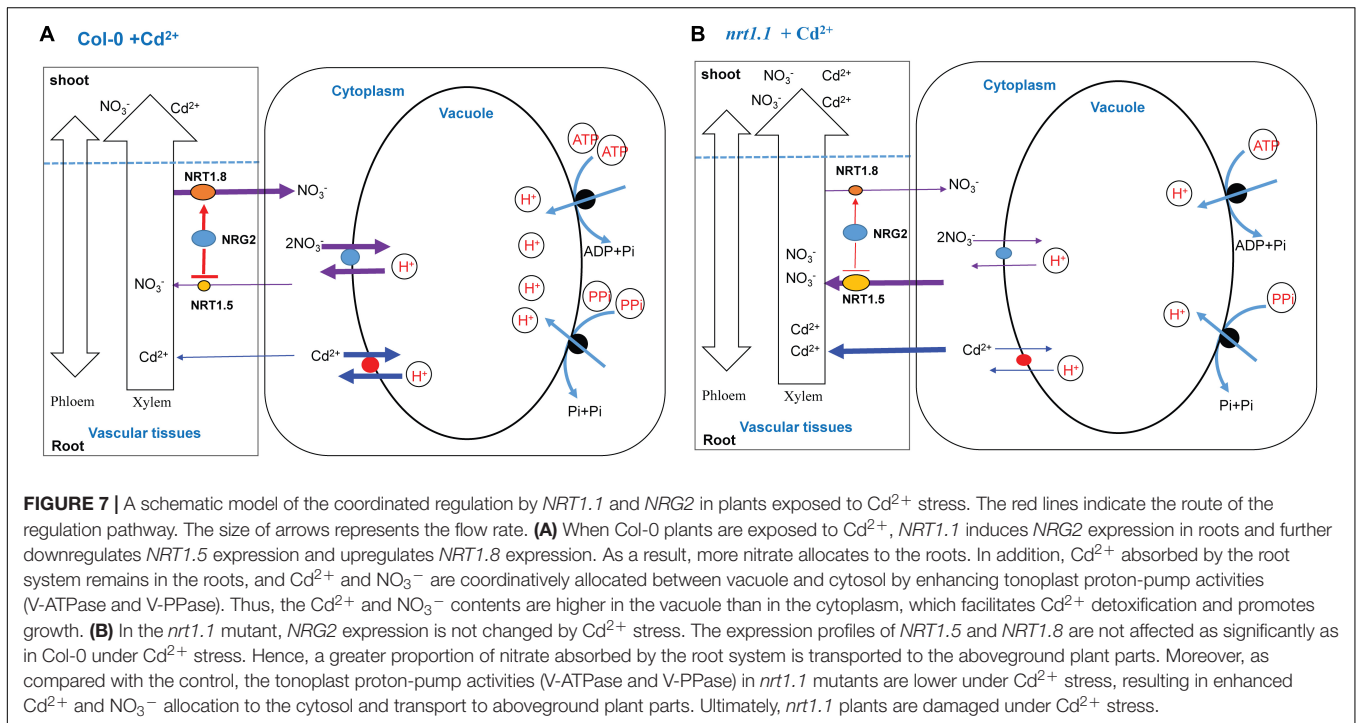
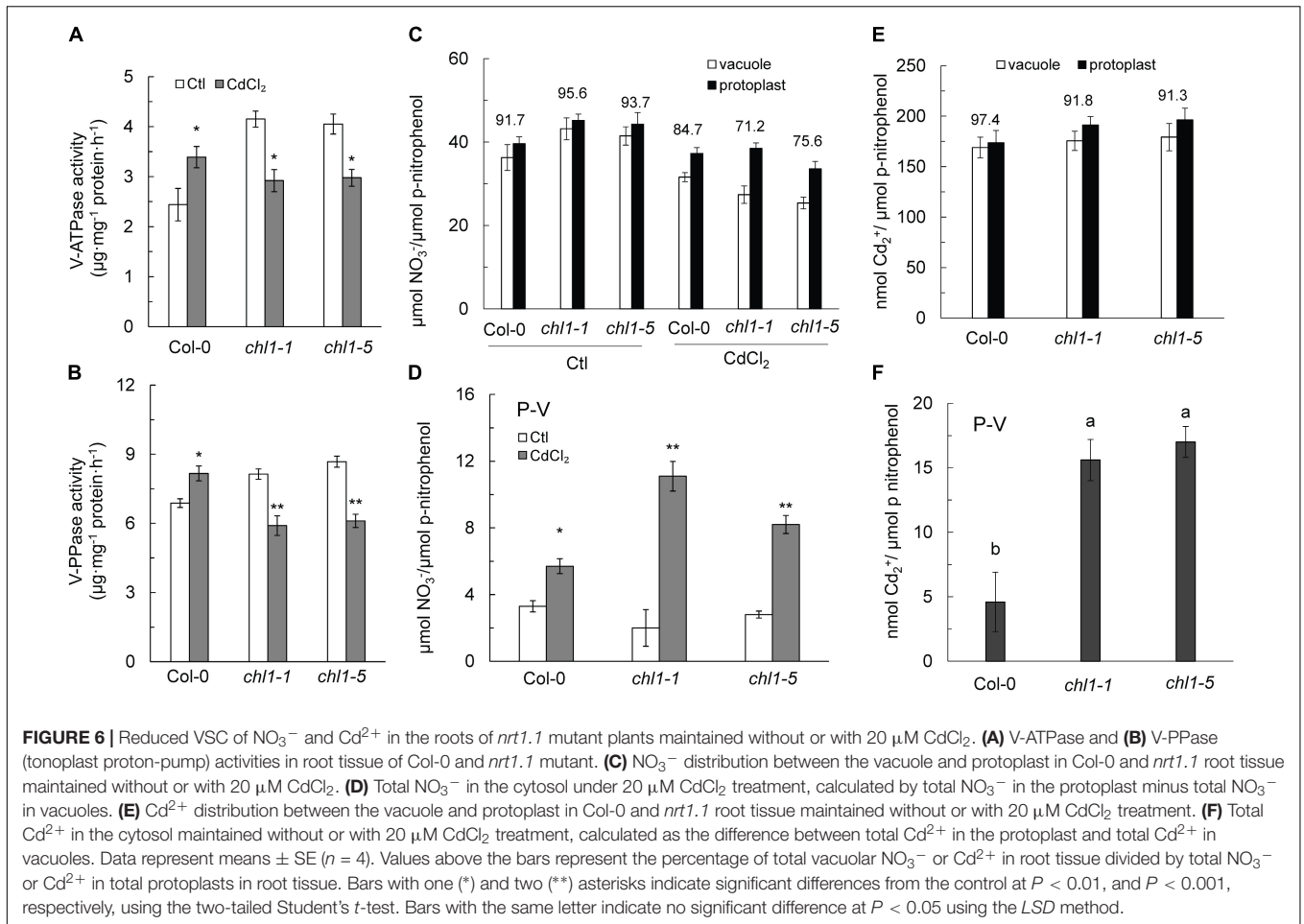
effective strategy for Col-0 to increase the tolerance to  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress.

## DISCUSSION

### *NRT1.1* Improves $\text{Cd}^{2+}$ Stress Tolerance by Nitrate Allocation in Roots

We found that Col-0 plants were more tolerant to  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress than *nrt1-1* and *nrt1-5* plants. Interestingly, Col-0 also allocated more nitrate to roots, which was not observed in the *nrt1.1* mutant. It is well known that nitrate is reallocated to the roots under abiotic stress, including heavy metal stress (Hernandez et al., 1997). Nitrate reallocation to plant roots has been characterized as a typical mechanism that increases the stress tolerance in plants (Li et al., 2010; Chen et al., 2012). Our results suggested that the difference in nitrate allocation between Col-0 and *nrt1.1* is linked to their difference in  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  tolerance. In this study, the data indicated that the enhanced nitrate allocation to the roots is correlated with transcript level changes of *NRT1.5*





and *NRT1.8*, which corroborated earlier reports by Li et al. (2010) and Chen et al. (2012) using *nrt1.5* and *nrt1.8* mutants. Our results, along with the earlier reports, indicated that nitrate plays an essential role in the tolerance to  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress via the regulatory function of *NRT1.1*.

Although nitrate allocation to roots improves stress tolerance in plants, the relevant physiological and molecular mechanisms are not well characterized.  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  induces oxidative stress in plants (Mendoza-Cózatl et al., 2005; Hayat et al., 2007; Cuypers et al., 2010). Our results revealed that nitrate accumulation in roots is correlated with increases in antioxidant capacity, as indicated by less membrane lipid peroxidation, higher proline level, and stronger SOD activity (**Supplementary Figures S2A–C**), suggesting that the anti-oxidative system protected the plants from  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  damage. As predicted, Col-0 maintained a higher photosynthetic rate (**Supplementary Figure S1A**). Nitrate reduction is an energy-intensive process (Sunil et al., 2013). Assimilation of nitrate in the leaves directly involves reducing compounds such as NADH, NADPH, reduced ferredoxin, and ATP derived from photosynthesis (Gonzalez-Dugo et al., 2010). Storage of nitrate in the roots can reduce the energy competition between nitrate reduction and photosynthesis, thus, reducing the adverse effect of  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  on photosynthesis.

## NRG2 Works Together With NRT1.1 in the Regulation of Nitrate Allocation

*NRG2* is an important nitrate regulatory gene that has been reported to regulate nitrate signaling in Arabidopsis in part by modulating *NRT1.1* expression (Xu et al., 2016). The *nrg2* mutant showed lower nitrate accumulation in the roots than the wild-type due to reduced expression of *NRT1.1* and upregulation of *NRT1.8* (Xu et al., 2016). However, the relationship between these genes in regulating nitrate allocation remained unknown. Our results showed distinct expression patterns of *NRT1.5* and *NRT1.8* in Col-0 and the *nrt1.1* mutant, indicating that *NRT1.1* regulates the expression of *NRT1.5* and *NRT1.8*. Interestingly, we observed a significant upregulation of *NRG2* in Col-0 plants when grown under  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress (**Figure 3A**), indicating that *NRG2* is involved in the response of nitrate-dependent  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress.

By testing the *nrg2* single mutant, we observed a  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress phenotype, and the expression patterns of *NRT1.5* and *NRT1.8* were similar to that in the *nrt1.1* mutant (**Figures 3B–D**). The *nrg2-3chl1-13* double mutant also had chlorosis similar to the *nrt1.1* plants and a reduced  $[\text{NO}_3^-]$  R:S ratio under  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress (**Figures 4A–C**). The results indicated that *NRG2* and *NRT1.1* are involved in the same regulatory pathway for nitrate allocation under  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress. Xu et al. (2016) reported that *NRG2* functions upstream of *NRT1.1* in nitrate signaling. By overexpressing the *NRG2* gene in *chl1-5* plants, we found that both  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress induced chlorosis and nitrate allocation to the roots were restored in *35S::NRG2/chl1-5* plants (**Figures 5A–D**). The results demonstrated that *NRG2* functions downstream of *NRT1.1* to regulate  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress-induced nitrate allocation. Our results also suggested that *NRG2* can cooperate with *NRT1.1* in nitrate signaling, depending on the growth conditions.

## $\text{Cd}^{2+}$ Coordinates $\text{NO}_3^-$ Allocation to Root Vacuoles to Improve $\text{Cd}^{2+}$ Stress Tolerance in Plant

Previous studies have demonstrated that stress-induced alterations of the expression of *NRT1.5* and *NRT1.8* depend on the presence of nitrate in the growth medium (Chen et al., 2012). Interestingly, the phenomenon of  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  toxicity disappeared, as was also observed in previous studies, when the plants were supplied with ammonium as the sole nitrogen nutrient (**Supplementary Figure S5**). It indicated that  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  toxicity is closely correlated with  $\text{NO}_3^-$  allocation in plants. This observation was corroborated by studies performed in Arabidopsis, which showed that  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  uptake increase simultaneously (Mao et al., 2014). Studies in rice showed that an excess of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  increases the uptake and accumulation of  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  (Yang et al., 2016). In this study, however, the uptake of  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  in Col-0 was not different from that in *nrt1.1* mutants, but Col-0 plants allocated more  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  to the roots (**Figures 1D,E**), which was consistent with the  $\text{NO}_3^-$  allocation pattern (**Figures 2A,B**). These results suggest that the presence of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  facilitates the allocation of  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  to the roots, which increases the tolerance to  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress.

The cellular vacuole plays important roles in maintaining the ion homeostasis in the plant cell and in regulating the responses to several abiotic and biotic stresses (Andreev, 2001). It acts as a storage pool of  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , in which the  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentration is an order of magnitude higher than that in the cytoplasm (Martinoia et al., 1981, 2000). Sequestration into the vacuole is one of the key mechanisms of heavy metal detoxification in plants (Sharma et al., 2016). The transfer of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  into the vacuole depends on a set of different transporters (De Angeli et al., 2006; Korenkov et al., 2006, 2007, 2009; Morel et al., 2009; Ueno et al., 2011). Nevertheless, both processes are mediated by V-ATPase and V-PPase energy pumps located on the membrane of tonoplast (Krebs et al., 2010; Sharma et al., 2016). We found that the activities of V-ATPase and V-PPase in Col-0 plants exposed to  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress were significantly higher than those in the *nrt1.1* mutants (**Figures 6A,B**), leading to higher  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  levels in root vacuoles (**Figures 6C,E**) and a stronger reduction of cytosolic  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  levels in Col-0 plants as compared with those in *nrt1.1* plants (**Figures 6D,F**). Thus, there was less  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  transport from the roots to the shoots, diminishing  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress-induced injuries in the leaves. However, further studies are required to elucidate how the distribution of  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  between root vacuoles and cytosol is regulated.

## CONCLUSION

Our results indicate that  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress-initiated nitrate allocation to roots (SINAR) is associated with the antioxidant system to diminish stress-induced chlorosis. Furthermore, we found that root vacuoles are involved in the coordinated accumulation of  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  under  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress.

In Col-0 plants, *NRG2* acted as a downstream element of *NRT1.1* in the regulation of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  allocation to the

roots by downregulating *NRT1.5* and upregulating *NRT1.8* under  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress. Moreover, a larger proportion of absorbed  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  remained in the roots, where  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  were allocated from the cytosol to the vacuole by increasing the tonoplast proton-pump activities (V-ATPase and V-PPase). Thus, intracellular sequestration reduced the transport of  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  from roots to shoot, which is beneficial for  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  detoxification and growth (Figure 7A).

In the *nrt1.1* mutant, *NRG2* expression was not changed by  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress. Furthermore, the expression patterns of *NRT1.5* and *NRT1.8* in *nrt1.1* were not affected as significantly as those in Col-0 under  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress. Hence, a larger proportion of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  absorbed by the root system was transported to the aboveground parts. Moreover, as compared to those in the controls, the tonoplast proton-pump activities (V-ATPase and V-PPase) in the *nrt1.1* mutant were lower under  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress, resulting in enhanced  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  allocation to the cytosol and transport to aboveground parts. Ultimately, the *nrt1.1* mutant was more seriously injured under  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress (Figure 7B). Our findings provide an insight into the underlying mechanism of the network of *NRT1.1* and *NRG2* in regulating  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  stress tolerance in plants.

## AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

SJ and ZZ conceived the original screening and research plans and supervised the experiments. SJ performed most of the experiments and agreed to serve as the author responsible for contact and ensured communication. JL and QLiao provided technical assistance to SJ. SJ and ZZ designed the experiments and analyzed the data. QLiu and CG interpreted the result. ZZ

conceived the project and wrote the article with contributions of all the authors and supervised and completed the writing.

## FUNDING

This study was financially supported in part by the National Key R&D Program of China (2017YFD0200100), National Natural Science Foundation of China (Grant No. 31101596, 31372130), Hunan Provincial Recruitment Program of Foreign Experts, the National Oilseed Rape Production Technology System of China; “2011 Plan” supported by The Chinese Ministry of Education, and Research and Innovation Project of Postgraduates in Hunan Province (CX2015B242).

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Dr. Ji-Ming Gong, Shanghai Institute of Plant Physiology and Ecology, Shanghai Institutes for Biological Sciences, for providing *A. thaliana* mutant materials (*chl1-1*, *chl1-5*), Dr. Yi-Fang Tsay, Institute of Molecular Biology, Academia Sinica, Tai Wan District, for providing the *A. thaliana* mutant lines *chl1-9*, and Dr. Yong Wang, Shan Dong Agricultural University, for providing *NRG2* mutant lines.

## SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

The Supplementary Material for this article can be found online at: <https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fpls.2019.00384/full#supplementary-material>

## REFERENCES

- Abouelsaad, I., Weihrauch, D., and Renault, S. (2016). Effects of salt stress on the expression of key genes related to nitrogen assimilation and transport in the roots of the cultivated tomato and its wild salt-tolerant relative. *Sci. Hortic.* 211, 70–78. doi: 10.1016/j.scienta.2016.08.005
- Åkesson, A., Barregard, L., Bergdahl, I. A., Nordberg, G. F., Nordberg, M., and Skerfving, S. (2014). Non-renal effects and the risk assessment of environmental cadmium exposure. *Environ. Health Persp.* 122, 431–438. doi: 10.1289/ehp.1307110
- Andreev, M. (2001). Functions of the vacuole in higher plant cells. *Russ. J. Plant Physiol.* 48, 777–787. doi: 10.1023/a:1016776523371
- Bates, L. S., Waldren, R. P., and Teare, I. D. (1973). Rapid determination of free proline for water-stress studies. *Plant Soil* 39, 205–207. doi: 10.1007/BF00018060
- Bertin, G., and Averbeck, D. (2006). Cadmium: cellular effects, modifications of biomolecules, modulation of DNA repair and genotoxic consequences. *Biochimie* 88, 1549–1559. doi: 10.1016/j.biochi.2006.10.001
- Bouguyon, E., Perrine-Walker, F., Pervent, M., Rochette, J., Cuesta, C., Benkova, E., et al. (2016). Nitrate controls root development through post-transcriptional regulation of the NRT1.1/NPF6.3 transporter/sensor. *Plant Physiol.* 172, 1237–1248. doi: 10.1104/pp.16.01047
- Cataldo, D. A., Maroon, M., Schrader, L. E., and Youngs, V. L. (1975). Rapid colorimetric determination of nitrate in plant tissue by nitration of salicylic acid. *Commun. Soil Sci. Plant Anal.* 6, 71–80. doi: 10.1080/00103627509366547
- Chaney, R. L. (2015). How does contamination of rice soils with Cd and Zn cause high incidence of human Cd disease in subsistence rice farmers. *Curr. Pollut. Rep.* 1, 13–22. doi: 10.1007/s40726-015-0002-4
- Chen, C. Z., Lv, X. F., Li, J. Y., Yi, H. Y., and Gong, J. M. (2012). *Arabidopsis* NRT1.5 is another essential component in the regulation of nitrate reallocation and stress tolerance. *Plant Physiol.* 159, 1582–1590. doi: 10.1104/pp.112.199257
- Chen, H. M. (1996). *Heavy Metal Pollution in Soil-Plant System*. Beijing: Science Press.
- Corratgé-Faillie, C., and Lacombe, B. (2017). Substrate (un)specificity of *Arabidopsis* NRT1/PTR FAMILY (NPF) proteins. *J. Exp. Bot.* 68, 3107–3113. doi: 10.1093/jxb/erw499
- Cuypers, A., Plusquin, M., Remans, T., Jozefczak, M., Keunen, E., Gielen, H., et al. (2010). Cadmium stress: an oxidative challenge. *Biometals* 23, 927–940. doi: 10.1007/s10534-010-9329-x
- De Angeli, A., Monachello, D., Ephritikhine, G., Frachisse, J. M., Thomine, S., Gambale, F., et al. (2006). The nitrate/proton antiporter AtCLCa mediates nitrate accumulation in plant vacuoles. *Nature* 442, 939–942. doi: 10.1038/nature05013
- Dürr, M., Boller, T., and Wiemken, A. (1975). Polybase induced lysis of yeast spheroplasts. A new gentle method for preparation of vacuoles. *Arch. Microbiol.* 105, 319–327. doi: 10.1007/BF00447152
- Fan, X., Jia, L., Li, Y., Smith, S. J., Miller, A. J., and Shen, Q. (2007). Comparing nitrate storage and remobilization in two rice cultivars that differ in their nitrogen use efficiency. *J. Exp. Bot.* 58, 1729–1740. doi: 10.1093/jxb/erm033
- Fang, X. Z., Tian, W. H., Liu, X. X., Lin, X. Y., Jin, C. W., and Zheng, S. J. (2016). Alleviation of proton toxicity by nitrate uptake specifically depends on nitrate

- transporter 1.1 in *Arabidopsis*. *New Phytol.* 211, 149–158. doi: 10.1111/nph.13892
- Giannopolitis, C. N., and Ries, S. K. (1977). Superoxide dismutases I. occurrence in higher plants. *Plant Physiol.* 59, 309–314. doi: 10.2307/4264724
- Gonzalez-Dugo, V., Durand, J. L., and Gastal, F. (2010). Water deficit and nitrogen nutrition of crops. A review. *Agron. Sustain. Dev.* 30, 529–544. doi: 10.1051/agro/2009059
- Gowri, G., Kenis, J. D., Ingemarsson, B., Redinbaugh, M. G., and Campbell, W. H. (1992). Nitrate reductase transcript is expressed in the primary response of maize to environmental nitrate. *Plant Mol. Biol.* 18, 55–64. doi: 10.1007/bf00018456
- Guo, F. Q., Wang, R., Chen, M., and Crawford, N. M. (2001). The *Arabidopsis* dual-affinity nitrate transporter gene AtNRT1.1 (CHL1) is activated and functions in nascent organ development during vegetative and reproductive growth. *Plant Cell* 13, 1761–1777. doi: 10.2307/3871317
- Guo, F. Q., Wang, R., and Crawford, N. M. (2002). The *Arabidopsis* dual-affinity nitrate transporter gene AtNRT1.1 (CHL1) is regulated by auxin in both shoots and roots. *J. Exp. Bot.* 53, 835–844. doi: 10.1093/jxb/53.370.835
- Guo, F. Q., Young, J., and Crawford, N. M. (2003). The nitrate transporter AtNRT1.1 (CHL1) functions in stomatal opening and contributes to drought susceptibility in *Arabidopsis*. *Plant Cell* 15, 1–11. doi: 10.1105/tpc.006312
- Gutiérrez, R. A., Gifford, M. L., Poultney, C., Wang, R., Shasha, D. E., Coruzzi, G. M., et al. (2007). Insights into the genomic nitrate response using genetics and the sungear software system. *J. Exp. Bot.* 58, 2359–2367. doi: 10.1093/jxb/erm079
- Han, Y. L., Song, H. X., Liao, Q., Yu, Y., Jian, S. F., Lepo, J. E., et al. (2016). Nitrogen use efficiency is mediated by vacuolar nitrate sequestration capacity in roots of *Brassica napus*. *Plant Physiol.* 170, 1684–1698. doi: 10.1104/pp.15.01377
- Hayat, S., Ali, B., Hasan, S. A., and Ahmad, A. (2007). Brassinosteroid enhanced the level of antioxidants under cadmium stress in *Brassica juncea*. *Environ. Exp. Bot.* 60, 33–41. doi: 10.1016/j.envexpbot.2006.06.002
- He, Q. B., and Singh, B. R. (1994). Crop uptake of cadmium from phosphorus fertilizers: I. Yield and cadmium content. *Water Air Soil Pollut.* 74, 251–265. doi: 10.1007/BF00479793
- He, X. L., Fan, S. K., Zhu, J., Guan, M. Y., Liu, X. X., Zhang, Y. S., et al. (2017). Iron supply prevents Cd uptake in *Arabidopsis* by inhibiting IRT1 expression and favoring competition between Fe and Cd uptake. *Plant Soil* 416, 453–462. doi: 10.1007/s11104-017-3232-y
- Hernandez, L. E., Gárate, A., and Carpena-Ruiz, R. (1997). Effects of cadmium on the uptake, distribution and assimilation of nitrate in *Pisum sativum*. *Plant Soil* 189, 97–106. doi: 10.1023/a:1004252816355
- Hirel, B., Le Gouis, J., Ney, B., and Gallais, A. (2007). The challenge of improving nitrogen use efficiency in crop plants: towards a more central role for genetic variability and quantitative genetics within integrated approaches. *J. Exp. Bot.* 58, 2369–2387. doi: 10.1093/jxb/erm097
- Ho, C. H., Lin, S. H., Hu, H. C., and Tsay, Y. F. (2009). CHL1 functions as a nitrate sensor in plants. *Cell* 138, 1184–1194. doi: 10.1016/j.cell.2009.07.004
- Hu, H. C., Wang, Y. Y., and Tsay, Y. F. (2009). AtCIPK8, a CBL-interacting protein kinase, regulates the low-affinity phase of the primary nitrate response. *Plant J.* 57, 264–278. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-3113X.2008.03685.x
- Huang, J., Zhang, Y., Peng, J. S., Zhong, C., Yi, H. Y., Ow, D. W., et al. (2012). Fission yeast HMT1 lowers seed cadmium through phytochelatin-dependent vacuolar sequestration in *Arabidopsis*. *Plant Physiol.* 158, 1779–1788. doi: 10.1104/pp.111.192872
- Korenkov, V., Hirschi, K., Crutchfield, J. D., and Wagner, G. J. (2007). Enhancing tonoplast Cd/H antiport activity increases Cd, Zn, and Mn tolerance, and impacts root/shoot Cd partitioning in *Nicotiana tabacum* L. *Planta* 226, 1379–1387. doi: 10.2307/23389824
- Korenkov, V., King, B., Hirschi, K., and Wagner, G. J. (2009). Root-selective expression of AtCAX4 and AtCAX2 results in reduced lamina cadmium in field-grown *Nicotiana tabacum* L. *Plant Biotechnol. J.* 7, 219–226. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-7652.2008.00390.x
- Korenkov, V., Park, S., Cheng, N. H., Sreevidya, C., Lachmansingh, J., Morris, J., et al. (2006). Enhanced Cd<sup>2+</sup>-selective root-tonoplast-transport in tobacco expressing *Arabidopsis* cation exchangers. *Planta* 225, 403–411. doi: 10.2307/23389558
- Kramer, G. F., Norman, H. A., Krizek, D. T., and Mirecki, R. M. (1991). Influence of UV-B radiation on polyamines, lipid peroxidation and membrane lipids in cucumber. *Phytochemistry* 30, 2101–2108. doi: 10.1016/0031-9422(91)83595-C
- Krebs, M., Beyhl, D., Görlich, E., Al-Rasheid, K. A., Marten, I., Stierhof, Y. D., et al. (2010). *Arabidopsis* V-ATPase activity at the tonoplast is required for efficient nutrient storage but not for sodium accumulation. *PNAS* 107, 3251–3256. doi: 10.1073/pnas.0913035107
- Krouk, G. (2016). Hormones and nitrate: a two-way connection. *Plant Mol. Biol.* 91, 599–606. doi: 10.1007/s11103-016-0463-x
- Krouk, G., Crawford, N. M., Coruzzi, G. M., and Tsay, Y. F. (2010). Nitrate signaling: adaptation to fluctuating environments. *Curr. Opin. Plant Biol.* 13, 265–272. doi: 10.1016/j.pbi.2009.12.003
- Li, J. Y., Fu, Y. L., Pike, S. M., Bao, J., Tian, W., Zhang, Y., et al. (2010). The *Arabidopsis* nitrate transporter NRT1.8 functions in nitrate removal from the xylem sap and mediates cadmium tolerance. *Plant Cell* 22, 1633–1646. doi: 10.1105/tpc.110.075242
- Lin, S. H., Kuo, H. F., Canivenc, G., Lin, C. S., Lepetit, M., and Hsu, P. K. (2008). Mutation of the *Arabidopsis* NRT1.5 nitrate transporter causes defective root-to-shoot nitrate transport. *Plant Cell* 20, 2514–2528. doi: 10.1105/tpc.108.060244
- Liu, X., Cui, H., Li, A., Zhang, M., and Teng, Y. (2015). The nitrate transporter NRT1.1 is involved in iron deficiency responses in *Arabidopsis*. *J. Plant Nutr. Soil Sci.* 178, 601–608. doi: 10.1002/jpln.201400480
- Mao, Q. Q., Guan, M. Y., Lu, K. X., Du, S. T., Fan, S. K., Ye, Y. Q., et al. (2014). Inhibition of nitrate transporter 1.1-controlled nitrate uptake reduces cadmium uptake in *Arabidopsis*. *Plant Physiol.* 166, 934–944. doi: 10.1104/pp.114.243766
- Martinoia, E., Heck, U., and Wiemken, A. (1981). Vacuoles as storage compartments of nitrate in barley leaves. *Nature* 289, 292–294. doi: 10.1038/289292a0
- Martinoia, E., Maeshima, M., and Neuhaus, H. E. (2007). Vacuolar transporters and their essential role in plant metabolism. *J. Exp. Bot.* 58, 83–102. doi: 10.1093/jxb/erl183
- Martinoia, E., Massonneau, A., and Frangne, N. (2000). Transport processes of solutes across the vacuolar membrane of higher plants. *Plant Cell Physiol.* 41, 1175–1186. doi: 10.1093/pcp/pcd059
- Mendoza-Cózatl, D., Loza-Tavera, H., Hernández-Navarro, A., and Moreno-Sánchez, R. (2005). Sulfur assimilation and glutathione metabolism under cadmium stress in yeast, protists and plants. *FEMS Microbiol. Rev.* 29, 653–671. doi: 10.1016/j.femsre.2004.09.004
- Miller, A. J., Fan, X., Orsel, M., Smith, S. J., and Wells, D. M. (2007). Nitrate transport and signalling. *J. Exp. Bot.* 58, 2297–2306. doi: 10.1093/jxb/erm066
- Mohammed, A. S., Kapri, A., and Goel, R. (2011). Heavy metal pollution: source, impact, and remedies. *Environ. Pollut.* 20, 1–28. doi: 10.1007/978-94-007-1914-9\_1
- Morel, M., Crouzet, J., Gravot, A., Auroy, P., Leonhardt, N., Vavasseur, A., et al. (2009). ATHMA3, a P1B-ATPase allowing Cd/Zn/Co/Pb vacuolar storage in *Arabidopsis*. *Plant Physiol.* 149, 894–904. doi: 10.1104/pp.108.130294
- Mounier, E., Pervent, M., Ljung, K., Gojon, A., and Nacry, P. (2014). Auxin-mediated nitrate signalling by NRT1.1 participates in the adaptive response of *Arabidopsis* root architecture to the spatial heterogeneity of nitrate availability. *Plant Cell Environ.* 37, 162–174. doi: 10.1111/pce.12143
- Ottosen, L. M., Pedersen, A. J., Hansen, H. K., and Ribeiro, A. B. (2007). Screening the possibility for removing cadmium and other heavy metals from wastewater sludge and bio-ashes by an electro-dialytic method. *Electrochim. Acta* 52, 3420–3426. doi: 10.1016/j.electacta.2006.06.048
- Redinbaugh, M. G., and Campbell, W. H. (1993). Glutamine synthetase and ferredoxin-dependent glutamate synthase expression in the maize (*Zea mays*) root primary response to nitrate (evidence for an organ-specific response). *Plant Physiol.* 101, 1249–1255. doi: 10.1104/pp.101.4.1249
- Remans, T., Nacry, P., Pervent, M., Filleur, S., Diatloff, E., Mounier, E., et al. (2006). The *Arabidopsis* nrt1.1 transporter participates in the signaling pathway triggering root colonization of nitrate-rich patches. *PNAS* 103, 19206–19211. doi: 10.1073/pnas.0605275103
- Robert, S., Zouhar, J., Carter, C., and Raikhel, N. (2007). Isolation of intact vacuoles from *Arabidopsis* rosette leaf-derived protoplasts. *Nat. Protoc.* 2, 259–262. doi: 10.1038/nprot.2007.26
- Roberts, T. L. (2014). Cadmium and phosphorus fertilizers: the issues and the science. *Procedia Eng.* 83, 52–59. doi: 10.1016/j.proeng.2014.09.012



- Ruffel, S., Gojon, A., and Lejay, L. (2014). Signal interactions in the regulation of root nitrate uptake. *J. Exp. Bot.* 65, 5509–5517. doi: 10.1093/jxb/eru321
- Sharkey, T. D., Bernacchi, C. J., Farquhar, G. D., and Singsaas, E. L. (2007). Fitting photosynthetic carbon dioxide response curves for C3 leaves. *Plant Cell Environ.* 30, 1035–1040. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-3040.2007.01710.x
- Sharma, P., and Dubey, R. S. (2005). Modulation of nitrate reductase activity in rice seedlings under aluminium toxicity and water stress: role of osmolytes as enzyme protectant. *J. Plant Physiol.* 162, 854–864. doi: 10.1016/j.jplph.2004.09.011
- Sharma, S. S., Dietz, K. J., and Mimura, T. (2016). Vacuolar compartmentalization as indispensable component of heavy metal detoxification in plants. *Plant Cell Environ.* 39, 1112–1126. doi: 10.1111/pce.12706
- Sunil, B., Talla, S. K., Aswani, V., and Raghavendra, A. S. (2013). Optimization of photosynthesis by multiple metabolic pathways involving interorganellar interactions: resource sharing and ROS maintenance as the bases. *Photosynth. Res.* 117, 61–71. doi: 10.1007/s11120-013-9889-z
- Tsay, Y. F., Schroeder, J. L., Feldmann, K. A., and Crawford, N. M. (1993). The herbicide sensitivity gene CHL1 of *Arabidopsis* encodes a nitrate-inducible nitrate transporter. *Cell* 72, 705–713. doi: 10.1016/0092-8674(93)90399-B
- Ueno, D., Milner, M. J., Yamaji, N., Yokosho, K., Koyama, E., Clemencia, Z. M., et al. (2011). Elevated expression of TcHMA3 plays a key role in the extreme Cd tolerance in a Cd hyperaccumulating ecotype of *Thlaspi caerulescens*. *Plant J.* 66, 852–862. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-3113X.2011.04548.x
- Undurraga, S. F., Ibarrahenriquez, C., Fredes, I., Álvarez, J. M., and Gutiérrez, R. A. (2017). Nitrate signaling and early responses in *Arabidopsis* roots. *J. Exp. Bot.* 68, 2541–2551. doi: 10.1093/jxb/erx041
- Vidal, E. A., Moyano, T. C., Canales, J., and Gutierrez, R. A. (2014). Nitrogen control of developmental phase transitions in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. *J. Exp. Bot.* 65, 5611–5618. doi: 10.1093/jxb/eru326
- Vögeli-Lange, R., and Wagner, G. J. (1990). Subcellular localization of cadmium and cadmium-binding peptides in tobacco leaves: implication of a transport function for cadmium-binding peptides. *Plant Physiol.* 92, 1086–1093. doi: 10.2307/4272746
- Wang, Y. Y., Hsu, P. K., and Tsay, Y. F. (2012). Uptake, allocation and signaling of nitrate. *Trends Plant Sci.* 17, 458–467. doi: 10.1016/j.tplants.2012.04.006
- Wellburn, A. R., and Lichtenthaler, H. K. (1984). Formulae and program to determine total carotenoids and chlorophylls a and b of leaf extracts in different solvents. *Adv. Photosynth. Res.* 2, 9–12. doi: 10.1007/978-94-017-6368-4\_3
- Wong, C. S. C., Li, X. D., Zhang, G., Qi, S. H., and Peng, X. Z. (2003). Atmospheric deposition of heavy metals in the pearl river delta. *China. Atmos. Environ.* 37, 767–776. doi: 10.1016/s1352-2310(02)00929-9
- Woodis, T. C., Hunter, G. B., and Johnson, F. J. (1977). Statistical studies of matrix effects on the determination of cadmium and lead in fertilizer materials and plant tissue by flameless atomic absorption spectrometry. *Anal. Chim. Acta* 90, 127–136. doi: 10.1016/S0003-2670(01)82301-1
- Xu, N., Wang, R., Zhao, L., Zhang, C., Li, Z., Lei, Z., et al. (2016). The *Arabidopsis* NRG2 protein mediates nitrate signaling and interacts with and regulates key nitrate regulators. *Plant Cell* 28, 485–504. doi: 10.1105/tpc.15.00567
- Yang, Y., Xiong, J., Chen, R., Fu, G., Chen, T., and Tao, L. (2016). Excessive nitrate enhances cadmium (Cd) uptake by up-regulating the expression of OSIRT1, in rice (*Oryza sativa*). *Environ. Expl. Bot.* 122, 141–149. doi: 10.1016/j.envexpbot.2015.10.001
- Zhang, G. B., Yi, H. Y., and Gong, J. M. (2014). The *Arabidopsis* ethylene/jasmonic acid-NRT signaling module coordinates nitrate reallocation and the trade-off between growth and environmental adaptation. *Plant Cell* 26, 3984–3998. doi: 10.1105/tpc.114.129296
- Zhang, X. Y., Zhong, T. Y., Liu, L., and Ouyang, X. Y. (2015). Impact of soil heavy metal pollution on food safety in China. *PLoS One* 8:e0135182. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0135182

**Conflict of Interest Statement:** The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

Copyright © 2019 Jian, Luo, Liao, Liu, Guan and Zhang. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (CC BY). The use, distribution or reproduction in other forums is permitted, provided the original author(s) and the copyright owner(s) are credited and that the original publication in this journal is cited, in accordance with accepted academic practice. No use, distribution or reproduction is permitted which does not comply with these terms.