



# Sulfur Dioxide: An Emerging Signaling Molecule in Plants

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Sulfur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>) has long been viewed as toxic gas and air pollutant, but now is being verified as a signaling molecule in mammalian cells. SO<sub>2</sub> can be endogenously produced and rapidly transformed into sulfur-containing compounds (e.g., hydrogen sulfide, cysteine, methionine, glutathione, glucosinolate, and phytochelatin) to maintain its homeostasis in plant cells. Exogenous application of SO<sub>2</sub> in the form of gas or solution can trigger the expression of thousands of genes. The physiological functions of these genes are involved in the antioxidant defense, osmotic adjustment, and synthesis of stress proteins, secondary metabolites, and plant hormones, thus modulating numerous plant physiological processes. The modulated physiological processes by SO<sub>2</sub> are implicated in seed germination, stomatal action, postharvest physiology, and plant response to environmental stresses. However, the review on the signaling role of SO<sub>2</sub> in plants is little. In this review, the anabolism and catabolism of SO<sub>2</sub> in plants were summarized. In addition, the signaling role of SO<sub>2</sub> in seed germination, stomatal movement, fruit fresh-keeping, and plant response to environmental stresses (including drought, cold, heavy metal, and pathogen stresses) was discussed. Finally, the research direction of SO<sub>2</sub> in plants is also proposed.

**Keywords:** sulfur dioxide, signaling molecule, seed germination, fruit fresh-keeping, stomatal movement, stress response

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### Specialty section:

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

**Received:** 08 March 2022

**Accepted:** 25 April 2022

**Published:** 09 May 2022

### Citation:

Li Z-G, Li X-E and Chen H-Y (2022)  
Sulfur Dioxide: An Emerging Signaling  
Molecule in Plants.  
Front. Plant Sci. 13:891626.  
doi: 10.3389/fpls.2022.891626

## INTRODUCTION

For so long, sulfur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>) has been viewed as a harmful gas and air pollutant. SO<sub>2</sub> can dissolve in water and form sulfurous acid (H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>3</sub>), which in turn dissociates into sulfite (SO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup>), bisulfite (HSO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>), and hydrogen ion (H<sup>+</sup>). In neutral solution, the ratio of SO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup> / HSO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> is 3/1 (M/M; Singh et al., 2012). Therefore, the toxicity of SO<sub>2</sub> mainly roots in three derivants, that is, SO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup>, HSO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, and H<sup>+</sup>. SO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup> and HSO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> are strong nucleophiles, which can deleteriously react with the sulfhydryl groups (-SH)-containing proteins (including enzymes) and then alter their functions and activities, thus disturbing physiological and biochemical metabolism (e.g., photosynthesis, respiration, and ion balance), and even leading to cell death. H<sup>+</sup> can lower the pH value of the cells and their compartmentations, followed by affecting the activities of the enzymes and interfering with the cellular metabolism (Huang et al., 2021). In addition, SO<sub>2</sub> can induce the accumulation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) by oxidizing sulfite into sulfate and/or activating NADPH oxidase (NOX), which in turn cause biomembrane damage, protein disintegration, DNA damage, chromosome aberration, gene mutation, Golgi body destruction, and programmed cell death (PCD) (Okpodu et al., 1996). Therefore, high

concentration of SO<sub>2</sub> can damage plant at morphological, physiological, biochemical, and molecular levels. For example, SO<sub>2</sub> can reduce photosynthesis by disrupting thylakoid function, interfering with electron transport chain and membrane permeability, destroying pigments, and affecting carbon allocation, leads to leaf damage (e.g., yellow spots, discoloration, and necrosis), growth inhibition, and even plant death (Lee et al., 2017; Huang et al., 2021; Li and Yi, 2022).

SO<sub>2</sub>, as a signaling molecule, can endogenously produce by the catalysis of aspartate aminotransferase (AAT) and NOX using hydrogen sulfide (H<sub>2</sub>S) as substrate in animal system (Huang et al., 2021). Endogenous SO<sub>2</sub> executes a positive role in reducing brain injury, lung injury, myocardial injury, and hypertension; regulating vascular remodeling, myocardial remodeling, collagen remodeling, ion channels, cell proliferation, endoplasmic reticulum stress, and protein posttranslational modification (mainly sulfenylation by H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>). Therefore, the abnormal production of endogenous SO<sub>2</sub> commonly leads to colitis, hypertension, atherosclerosis, neuronal damage, vascular calcification, myocardial hypertrophy, myocardial injury, pulmonary hypertension, and acute lung injury (Huang et al., 2021). These studies indicate that SO<sub>2</sub>, as signaling molecule, plays an essential role in many physiological and pathological processes.

In general, signaling molecules, such as calcium ion (Ca<sup>2+</sup>), ROS, nitric oxide (NO), and H<sub>2</sub>S, exhibit the common characteristics: small molecule, fast dispersal, dual effects, controllability of generation and elimination, biological activity, reprogramming gene expression, and so forth (Chen et al., 2011; Khan et al., 2019). Small molecules are easy to be quickly biosynthesized/released to initiate signaling, and then immediately eliminated to terminate signaling. In addition, signaling molecules can be rapidly spread from production sites to effect sites to exert their biological effects by their receptors/sensors. Dual effects of signaling molecules refer to their toxicity at high concentration and signaling role at low concentration. Therefore, they must be maintained homeostasis in cells (Khan et al., 2019). Finally, signaling molecules can specially bind to their receptors/sensors and then reprogram gene expression, further regulating cellular metabolism (Chen et al., 2011). It is quite clear that small molecule SO<sub>2</sub> meets these criteria, indicating its signaling role in organisms.

In plants, SO<sub>2</sub> can be generated in the form of SO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup> during sulfate (SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>) reduction (Li et al., 2020). Recently, exogenous application of SO<sub>2</sub> in the form of gas (mgm<sup>-3</sup>) or solution (Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>3</sub>/NaHSO<sub>3</sub>, 3/1, M/M), at low concentrations, has been found to exert a positive role in seed germination (Wang et al., 2017; Sun et al., 2018; Guo et al., 2021), stomatal movement (Taylor et al., 1981; Wei et al., 2013; Hu et al., 2014; Yi et al., 2017), fruit fresh-keeping (Joradol et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2022), and plant response to adverse environments (Hu et al., 2015; Zhu et al., 2015; Han et al., 2018, 2019; Xue and Yi, 2018; Li et al., 2021; Ma, 2021). These studies indicate that SO<sub>2</sub> is emerging as a signaling molecule in plants. However, the review on SO<sub>2</sub> signaling in plants is little summarized. In this review, SO<sub>2</sub> homeostasis in plants and its signaling role in seed germination, stomatal action, fruit fresh-keeping, and plant response to environmental stress (including drought, cold,

heavy metal, and pathogen infection) were concluded. The aim of this paper highlighted that SO<sub>2</sub> is an emerging signaling molecule in plants.

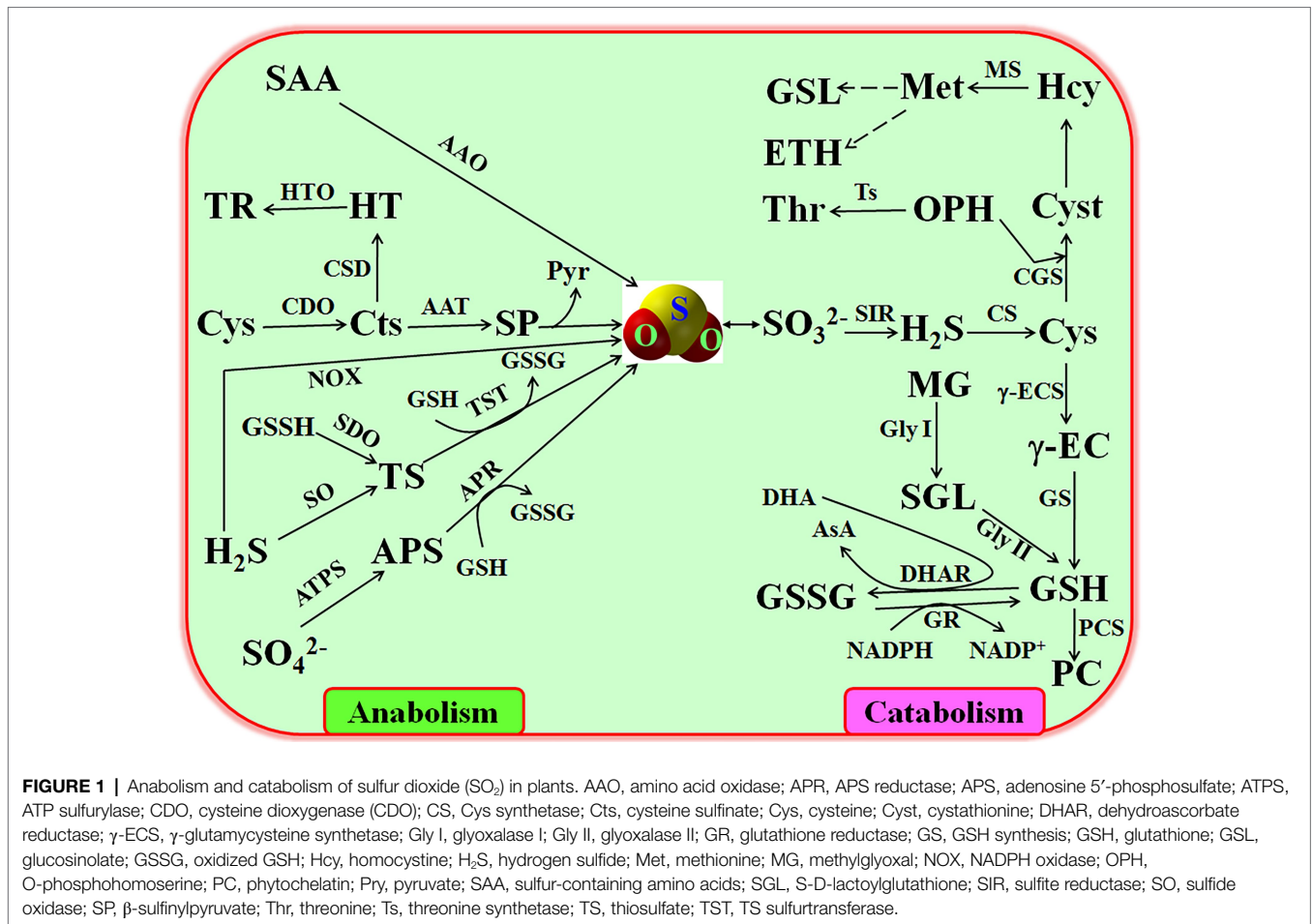
## METABOLISM OF SO<sub>2</sub>

### Anabolism of SO<sub>2</sub>

Similar to other signaling molecules, SO<sub>2</sub> homeostasis in plants is maintained by its production (i.e., anabolism) and elimination (i.e., catabolism; **Figure 1**). In plants, the endogenous production of SO<sub>2</sub> mainly roots in the reduction of SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>. SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> absorbed by roots is activated by ATP sulfurylase (ATPS), producing adenosine 5'-phosphosulfate (APS), which is transformed into SO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup> (main form of SO<sub>2</sub> in solution) by APS reductase (APR) using glutathione (GSH) as reducing agent (Li et al., 2020). In addition, cysteine (Cys) can change into cysteine sulfinate (Cts) by the catalysis of cysteine dioxygenase (CDO), and then produce β-sulfinylpyruvate (SP), which automatically form SO<sub>2</sub> without any enzyme catalysis and release pyruvate (Pyr; Yu et al., 2020; Huang et al., 2022). Also, SO<sub>2</sub> can be released from hydrogen sulfide (H<sub>2</sub>S) and its derivant thiosulfate (TS) under the catalysis of NOX, sulfide oxidase (SO), and TS sulfurtransferase (TST), respectively (Li et al., 2009). Similarly, sulfur-containing amino acids (SAA) also can generate SO<sub>2</sub> by the catalysis of amino acid oxidase (AAO; Rausch and Wachter, 2005). However, the detailed mechanisms of SO<sub>2</sub>-producing pathways in plant growth, development, and response to environmental stress need to be further dissected in the coming days.

### Catabolism of SO<sub>2</sub>

Analogue to its production, the scavenging of excessive SO<sub>2</sub> is primarily achieved by the enzyme-catalysis pathways (**Figure 1**). Endogenous SO<sub>2</sub> is easy to dissolve in water and produce SO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup>, which is in turn reduced into H<sub>2</sub>S by SO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup> reductase (SIR), followed by synthesizing Cys under the catalysis of Cys synthetase (CS; Hasanuzzaman et al., 2018; Li et al., 2020). Cys is a common precursor for biosynthesis of numerous biological molecules such as GSH, phytochelatin (PC), phytoalexins (PA), cystathionine (Cyst), homocysteine (Hcy), methionine (Met), ethylene (ETH), and glucosinolate (GSL; **Figure 1**). GSH, as an important reducing agent in plant cells, which can be synthesized from Cys under the successive catalysis of γ-glutamylcysteine synthetase (γ-ES) and GSH synthesis (GS; Yu et al., 2020; Huang et al., 2022). GSH and its oxidized form (GSSG) can mutually convert by dehydroascorbate reductase (DHAR) and glutathione reductase (GR) using dehydroascorbate and NADPH as electron acceptor and electron donor, respectively (Bartoli et al., 2017). Also, GSH can further synthesize PC to chelate heavy metal in plant cells, thus reducing the toxicity of heavy metal (Li et al., 2020). In addition to these, Cys can transform into other amino acids such as Cyst, Hcy, and Met (Li et al., 2009), further regulating the metabolism of amino acids in plants. These metabolic pathways are closely associated with the acquisition of stress tolerance in plants, also indicating the signaling role of SO<sub>2</sub>.



## SIGNALING ROLE OF SO<sub>2</sub>

Increasing evidences show that exogenous application of SO<sub>2</sub> in a gas (mg m<sup>-3</sup>, fumigation) or solution (Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>3</sub>/NaHSO<sub>3</sub>, 3/1, irrigation) form could reprogramme the expression of thousands of genes. The physiological functions of these genes include antioxidant defense, osmotic adjustment, cell wall modification, and the synthesis of stress proteins (including heat shock proteins, HSP; and pathogen-related proteins, PR), secondary metabolites, and plant hormones (Li and Yi, 2012a,b, 2020; Zhao and Yi, 2014), which in turn modulated several physiological processes, such as seed germination, stomatal action, postharvest physiology, and plant response to environmental stresses, including drought, cold, heavy metal, and pathogen stresses (Table 1). In addition, the modulation of these physiological processes is involved in the interaction of SO<sub>2</sub> and other signaling molecules, such as H<sub>2</sub>S, NO, ROS, cyclic guanosine monophosphate (cGMP), and plant hormones (Figure 2). In this section, the signaling role of SO<sub>2</sub> in plants will be stated in detail.

### Seed Germination

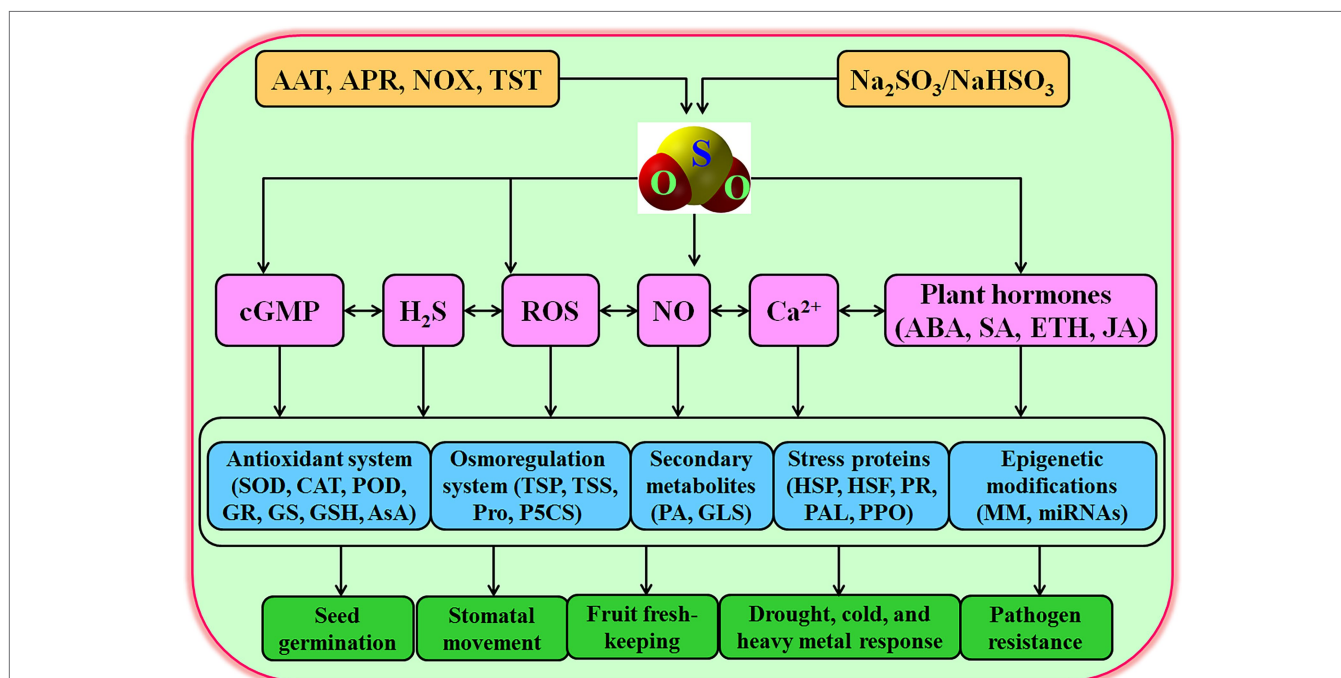
Seed germination is the first and key stage of plant life cycle, which is sensitive to environmental stress, especially soil environment stress. Therefore, seed germination is the basis

for crop production and vegetation recovery. In general, seed priming, especially chemical priming, can improve seed vigor, seed germination, and seedling viability, as well as the resistance of seedlings to adverse environments (Paul et al., 2022). In maize seeds, pretreatment with SO<sub>2</sub> (1 mM) facilitated seed germination and increased seed vigor. In addition, the SO<sub>2</sub>-pretreated germinating seeds had higher NOX activity and ROS level, while NOX inhibitor, diphenyleneiodinium, inhibited ROS accumulation and germination and vigor of maize seeds pretreated with SO<sub>2</sub> (Guo et al., 2021). Also, SO<sub>2</sub> pretreatment up-regulated the expression and activity of  $\alpha$ -amylase in germinating maize seeds (Guo et al., 2021). These data imply that SO<sub>2</sub> might function as signaling molecule in facilitating the germination of maize seeds by mobilizing reserves *via* activating NOX-dependent ROS production.

In wheat seeds, pretreatment with 100  $\mu$ M SO<sub>2</sub> donor (NaHSO<sub>3</sub>/Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>3</sub>, 1/3 M/M) postponed PCD, restrained the coalescence of small protein storage vacuoles, and reduced the accumulation of ROS (e.g., hydrogen peroxide, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>; and superoxide anion, O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>) in aleurone cells pretreated with gibberellin (Sun et al., 2018). In addition, SO<sub>2</sub>-pretreated germinating seeds, compared to treatment with gibberellin alone, sustained higher activities of catalase (CAT), guaiacol peroxidase (POD), ascorbate peroxidase (APX), and superoxide dismutase (SOD),

**TABLE 1** | Examples of the role of SO<sub>2</sub> signaling in plant growth and response to environmental stress.

Species	Response	SO <sub>2</sub> donor	Role	References
Maize	Seed germination	0~5 mM Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>3</sub> /NaHSO <sub>3</sub>	Triggering NOX-dependent ROS signaling and elevating amylase activity	Guo et al., 2021
Wheat		0.1 mM Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>3</sub> /NaHSO <sub>3</sub>	Delaying programmed cell death (PCD) and triggering H <sub>2</sub> S/NO/ROS signaling	Sun et al., 2018
Barley		0.05 mM Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>3</sub> /NaHSO <sub>3</sub>	Delaying PCD and triggering H <sub>2</sub> S/NO/ROS signaling	Wang et al., 2017
Potato	Stomatal movement	0~5 mM Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>3</sub> /NaHSO <sub>3</sub>	Triggering H <sub>2</sub> S/NO signaling	Hu et al., 2014
<i>H. fulva</i>		0~5 mM Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>3</sub> /NaHSO <sub>3</sub>	Triggering PCD and NO/ROS/Ca <sup>2+</sup> signaling	Wei et al., 2013
<i>Vicia faba</i>		0.25~6 mM Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>3</sub> /NaHSO <sub>3</sub>	Triggering NO/ROS/Ca <sup>2+</sup> signaling	Yi et al., 2017
Longan	Fruit fresh-keeping	500~2,500 mg/L SO <sub>2</sub>	Triggering NOX-dependent ROS signaling	Joradol et al., 2019
Grape		200 µl/L	Driving AsA-GSH cycle and regulating sulfur metabolism	Zhang et al., 2022
Wheat	Drought	0~20 mg/m <sup>3</sup> SO <sub>2</sub>	Triggering H <sub>2</sub> S signaling, synthesizing osmolyte, and activating antioxidant system	Li et al., 2021
Foxtail		30 mg/m <sup>3</sup> SO <sub>2</sub>	Synthesizing osmolyte, triggering stomatal closure, and activating antioxidant system	Han et al., 2019
Arabidopsis	Cold	50 µM Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>3</sub> /NaHSO <sub>3</sub> 30 mg/m <sup>3</sup> SO <sub>2</sub>	Activating C-repeated binding factor (CBF) pathway and antioxidant system, synthesizing anthocyanin	Ma (2021)
Wheat	Cadmium	1 and 2 mM Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>3</sub> /NaHSO <sub>3</sub>	Triggering H <sub>2</sub> S signaling, synthesizing osmolyte, and activating antioxidant system	Hu et al., 2015
Foxtail		0.5 mM Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>3</sub> /NaHSO <sub>3</sub>	Triggering PCD, activating antioxidant system, and reducing metal transporters	Han et al., 2018
Wheat	Aluminium	1.2 mM Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>3</sub> /NaHSO <sub>3</sub>	Triggering H <sub>2</sub> S signaling, activating antioxidant system, and reducing aluminium accumulation	Zhu et al., 2015



**FIGURE 2** | Signaling role of sulfur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>) in plants. AAT, aspartate aminotransferase; ABA, abscisic acid; APR, adenosine 5'-phosphosulfate reductase; AsA, ascorbic acid; CAT, catalase; cGMP, cyclic guanosine monophosphate; ETH, ethylene; GR, glutathione reductase; GS, glutathione synthetase; GSH, glutathione; GSL, glucosinolate; H<sub>2</sub>S, hydrogen sulfide; HSF, heat shock factor; HSP, heat shock proteins; JA, jasmonic acid; MM, methylation modification; NO, nitric oxide; NOX, NADPH oxidase; PA, phytoalexins; PAL, phenylalanine ammonia-lyase; P5CS,  $\Delta^1$ -pyrroline-5-carboxylate synthetase; POD, peroxidase; PPO, polyphenol oxidase; PR, pathogenesis-related proteins; Pro, proline; ROS, reactive oxygen species; SA, salicylic acid; SOD, superoxide dismutase; TSP, total soluble proteins; TSS, total soluble sugars; TST, thiosulfate sulfurtransferase.

while had lower activities of lipoxygenase (LOX) and polyphenol oxidase (PPO; Sun et al., 2018). Also, SO<sub>2</sub>-pretreated aleurone layers induced the production of endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S and NO, whereas the supplement of cPTIO (NO scavenger) accelerated

PCD in both SO<sub>2</sub>- and H<sub>2</sub>S-pretreated aleurone cells (Sun et al., 2018). These results indicate that SO<sub>2</sub> can trigger H<sub>2</sub>S/NO signaling to delay PCD in wheat aleurone layers pretreated with gibberellin *via* activating antioxidant enzyme system.

Similarly, in barley (*Hordeum vulgare* L.) seeds, pretreatment with SO<sub>2</sub> donor (NaHSO<sub>3</sub>/Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>3</sub>, 50 μM) alleviated PCD induced by gibberelin in aleurone layers in a concentration-dependent fashion (Wang et al., 2017). Additionally, SO<sub>2</sub> pretreatment increased the activities of SOD, CAT, APX, POD, and glutathione reductase (GR), while weakened that of LOX, reduced the levels of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>, and malondialdehyde (MDA) in aleurone layers (Wang et al., 2017). Furthermore, SO<sub>2</sub> pretreatment triggered the accumulation of endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S and NO in aleurone layers (Wang et al., 2017), similar to the results reported by Sun et al. (2018) in wheat. These data suggest that SO<sub>2</sub> might regulate the germination of barley seeds by attenuating PCD via the interaction among H<sub>2</sub>S, NO, and ROS signaling.

## Stomatal Movement

Stomata is a major gate that plants exchange with carbon dioxide, oxygen, and water, its movement (i.e., opening and closure) influences photosynthesis, respiration, and transpiration, as well as plant resistance to environmental stress, especially drought stress (Jia and Zhang, 2008). Stomatal movement is strictly controlled by a signaling network composed of many second messengers, such as Ca<sup>2+</sup>, NO, ROS (mainly H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>), H<sub>2</sub>S, and plant hormones (especially abscisic acid, ABA; ethylene, ETH; and cytokinin, CTK; Qi et al., 2018). Therefore, priming with signaling molecules can alter stomatal aperture and enhance the tolerance of plants to environmental stress. In sweet potato (*Ipomoea batatas*), treatment of epidermal strips with the different concentrations (0~5 mM) of Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>3</sub>/NaHSO<sub>3</sub> solutions (SO<sub>2</sub> donor) rapidly increased the levels of endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S and NO, and then induced stomatal closure in a dose-dependent manner (Hu et al., 2014). In addition, the stomatal closure induced by SO<sub>2</sub> was reversed by hypotaurine (H<sub>2</sub>S scavenger) and cPTIO (NO scavenger; Hu et al., 2014), indicating that the SO<sub>2</sub>-triggered stomatal closure might be mediated by the H<sub>2</sub>S and NO signaling pathways. Also, in broad bean (*Vicia faba* L.), low concentrations (0.0001~0.1 μM) of sulfurous acid (H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>3</sub>, as SO<sub>2</sub> donor) facilitated stomatal opening by reducing the level of endogenous ABA to antagonize its action (Taylor et al., 1981). Adversely, a high concentration (10 μM) of H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>3</sub> inhibited stomatal opening by increasing the level of endogenous ABA (Taylor et al., 1981).

In *Hemerocallis fulva*, the epidermal strips treated with the different concentrations (1~5 mM) of SO<sub>2</sub> donor (Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>3</sub>/NaHSO<sub>3</sub>) were found to reduce the guard cells vigor and induce cell death in a concentration-dependent manner (Wei et al., 2013). The SO<sub>2</sub>-induced death cells exhibited the features of apoptosis (i.e., nuclear condensation, nuclear elongation, and DNA fragmentation), indicating SO<sub>2</sub> could trigger PCD in guard cells. Additionally, the levels of endogenous NO, ROS, and Ca<sup>2+</sup> were increased by SO<sub>2</sub>, while reduced by NO scavenger (cPTIO), nitrate reductase (NO-producing enzyme) inhibitor (NaN<sub>3</sub>), ROS scavengers (ascorbic acid, AsA; and CAT), Ca<sup>2+</sup> chelating agent (EGTA), and plasma membrane Ca<sup>2+</sup> channel blocker (LaCl<sub>3</sub>), thus decreasing cell death (Wei et al., 2013). Also, AsA treatment decreased the levels of NO and Ca<sup>2+</sup> compared with the SO<sub>2</sub> treatment alone, whereas NaN<sub>3</sub> treatment

decreased ROS and Ca<sup>2+</sup> levels, but LaCl<sub>3</sub> treatment had no significant effect on NO and ROS levels (Wei et al., 2013). These data imply that SO<sub>2</sub> could induce PCD in guard cells by intertwining NO, ROS, and Ca<sup>2+</sup> signaling pathways in *H. fulva*, which might be a major cause for SO<sub>2</sub>-induced stomatal closure.

Similarly, in *Vicia faba*, SO<sub>2</sub> hydrates (Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>3</sub>/NaHSO<sub>3</sub>) induced guard cell death in a dose-dependent fashion (ranging from 0.25 to 6 mM; Yi et al., 2017). Meanwhile, SO<sub>2</sub> induced an increase in the level of endogenous NO, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, and Ca<sup>2+</sup> in guard cells of *Vicia faba*, similar to the data reported by Wei et al. (2013) in *H. fulva*. In addition, treatment with exogenous NO donor enhanced the toxicity of SO<sub>2</sub>, whereas NO scavenger (cPTIO) and synthesis inhibitors (L-NAME and tungstate) weakened SO<sub>2</sub> toxicity (Yi et al., 2017). Likewise, the toxicity of SO<sub>2</sub> was also blocked by ROS scavenger (AsA and CAT), Ca<sup>2+</sup> chelating agent (EGTA), and Ca<sup>2+</sup> channel inhibitor (LaCl<sub>3</sub>; Yi et al., 2017). Also, treatment with both cPTIO and AsA reversed SO<sub>2</sub>-induced increase in Ca<sup>2+</sup> level in guard cells, while cPTIO and AsA treatment alone blocked SO<sub>2</sub>-induced H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and NO accumulation (Yi et al., 2017). These data suggest that SO<sub>2</sub> toxicity might be achieved by joint action of NO, ROS, and Ca<sup>2+</sup> signaling in guard cells of *Vicia faba*, further supporting the hypothesis proposed by Wei et al. (2013). In addition to stomatal movement, Haworth et al. (2012) reported that SO<sub>2</sub> could change stomatal density (SD), stomatal index (SI), and SD/SI ratio in *Lepidozamia hopei*, *Lepidozamia peroffskyana*, *Ginkgo biloba*, *Nageia nagi*, *Podocarpus macrophyllus*, *Araucaria bidwillii*, and *Agathis australis*.

## Fruit Fresh-Keeping

Shelf-life of the fruits and vegetables determines their quality and economic value. To lengthen the shelf-life, numerous physical and chemical methods are used in the process of fruits and vegetables storage (Joradol et al., 2019). The physical methods are involved in water, fertilizer, gas (e.g., oxygen and carbon dioxide), heat (temperature), and light; while chemical methods are mainly fresh-keeping agent treatments (Zhang et al., 2022). In Longan (*Dimocarpus longan* Lour. cv. Daw) fruits, SO<sub>2</sub> fumigation (500~2,500 mg L<sup>-1</sup>) reduced pericarp browning, lengthened shelf-life, and improved the quality of fruits by enhancing antioxidant capacity compared with the control without SO<sub>2</sub> fumigation (Joradol et al., 2019). In addition, the fruits fumigated with SO<sub>2</sub> had a higher content of endogenous H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, which reached a maximum within 6~12 h. Also, SO<sub>2</sub> treatment up-regulated the gene expression of NOX and SOD (Joradol et al., 2019). These data indicate that SO<sub>2</sub> fumigation can induce the NOX-dependent H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> signaling, which in turn enhance the antioxidant capacity, thereby lengthening the shelf-life of fruits.

Similarly, in table grapes, SO<sub>2</sub> treatment (200 μL L<sup>-1</sup>) inhibited fruit decay and reduced the levels of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and MDA compared to the control without SO<sub>2</sub> treatment (Zhang et al., 2022). Additionally, SO<sub>2</sub> treatment up-regulated the expression of *VvSiR*, *VvSAT1*, *VvSAT2*, and *VvOASTL*, which in turn increased

the activities of sulfite reductase, serine acetyltransferase, and O-acetylserine (thiol)-lyase, as well as the content of Cys (Zhang et al., 2022). Likewise, the gene expression level, enzyme activity, and antioxidant content related to AsA-GSH cycle was enhanced by SO<sub>2</sub> treatment in grapes. Also, the expression of VvGS (GSH synthetase) was up-regulated by SO<sub>2</sub> treatment in table grapes, while the transcription level of VvHPCA1-4 and VvHPCA3 (evaluating the degree of oxidative damage) was down-regulated (Zhang et al., 2022). These data indicate that SO<sub>2</sub> can lengthen the shelf-life of table grapes by maintaining H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> homeostasis to reduce postharvest oxidative damage *via* driving the AsA-GSH cycle.

## Drought Response

Drought stress commonly leads to osmotic and oxidative stress due to the shortage of water and the overaccumulation of ROS in plant cells. The approaches alleviating osmotic and oxidative stresses can boost the resistance of plants to drought stress (Salehi-Lisar and Bakhshayeshan-Agdam, 2016). In wheat seedlings, under drought stress, pretreatment with SO<sub>2</sub> (0~20 mg m<sup>-3</sup>) improved the survival percentage and relative water content (Li et al., 2021), indicating that SO<sub>2</sub> could increase drought tolerance. The further experiments showed that SO<sub>2</sub> pretreatment improved the content of proline (Pro) and activities of SOD and POD, which in turn reduced the accumulation of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and MDA in drought-treated wheat seedlings. In addition, SO<sub>2</sub> pretreatment down-regulated the expression of *Ta*NAC69 (transcription factor gene), while the expression of other transcription factor genes (*Ta*ERF1 and *Ta*MYB30) insignificantly changed but maintained a higher levels in wheat seedlings under drought stress conditions (Li et al., 2021). Also, SO<sub>2</sub> pretreatment induced an increase in H<sub>2</sub>S in wheat seedlings under drought stress, while H<sub>2</sub>S scavenger hypotaurine decreased the activities of SOD and POD, as well as the expression of transcription factor genes, followed by increasing the accumulation of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and MDA, returning to the level of drought treatment alone (Li et al., 2021). These data suggest that SO<sub>2</sub> can increase the drought tolerance of wheat seedlings by accumulating osmolytes and activating antioxidant enzymes *via* H<sub>2</sub>S signaling pathway.

In like manner, in foxtail millet seedlings, SO<sub>2</sub> fumigation (30 mg m<sup>-3</sup>) decreased stomatal apertures and leaf transpiration rate, which in turn improved the relative water content in the leaves of drought-stressed seedlings (Han et al., 2019), thus improving the drought tolerance of seedlings. Additionally, SO<sub>2</sub> pretreatment increased the activity of  $\Delta^1$ -pyrroline-5-carboxylate synthetase (P5CS), reduced that of Pro dehydrogenase (ProDH), and corresponding gene expression, followed by accumulating Pro in the leaves of drought-stressed seedlings (Han et al., 2019). Moreover, application of SO<sub>2</sub> up-regulated the gene expression of CAT and POD and increased the activities of corresponding enzymes in the leaves of drought-stressed plants, which in turn alleviated drought-induced oxidative damage (i.e., decreasing MDA content) by scavenging H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (Han et al., 2019). These results imply that SO<sub>2</sub> fumigation can increase drought tolerance in foxtail millet seedlings by combined effect of stomatal closure, Pro accumulation, and antioxidant defense.

Similarly, under drought stress, SO<sub>2</sub> pre-exposure (30 mg m<sup>-3</sup>) increased SOD, POD, and O-acetylserine(thio)lyase (OASTL) activities and GSH, Cys, and nonprotein thiol (NPT) contents in Arabidopsis plants, which in turn alleviated oxidative stress (i.e., reducing H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and MDA accumulation; Li and Yi, 2022). Meanwhile, SO<sub>2</sub> increased Pro level by up-regulating gene expression and activity of P5CS and down-regulating that of ProDH, followed by reducing water loss, stomatal conductance, and transpiration rate, thus increasing net photosynthetic rate, water use efficiency, and photosynthetic pigment contents (Li and Yi, 2022), indicating that SO<sub>2</sub> can improve the tolerance of Arabidopsis plants to drought stress.

## Cold Response

Cold stress includes chilling (above freezing point, resulting in chilling injury) and freezing stress (below freezing point, leading to freezing injury). Both chilling and freezing stress can trigger osmotic and oxidative stresses (Ritonga and Chen, 2020). Therefore, the enhanced osmoregulation and antioxidant capacity by chemical priming are closely related with low temperature stress tolerance in plants. Presoaking of seeds with the different concentrations of (0, 10, 25, 50, and 100  $\mu$ M) SO<sub>2</sub> alleviated the cold-induced growth inhibition. Among concentrations, 50  $\mu$ M SO<sub>2</sub> presoaking was the most efficient (Ma, 2021). Similarly, pretreatment of *Arabidopsis thaliana* seeds with 50  $\mu$ M SO<sub>2</sub> boosted the cold resistance of *A. thaliana* seedlings. Otherwise, SO<sub>2</sub> presoaking up-regulated the expression of *At*CAT3 and *At*POD, and increased the activities of corresponding CAT and POD, which in turn reduced the level of endogenous H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (Ma, 2021). Meanwhile, 50  $\mu$ M SO<sub>2</sub> pretreatment up-regulated the expression of genes related to anthocyanin synthesis (i.e., *At*PAL2, *At*CHS, *At*CHI, and *At*F3H), followed by promoting the synthesis of anthocyanin. Interestingly, SO<sub>2</sub> pretreatment also activated the expression of genes (i.e., *At*ICE1, *At*ICE2, *At*CBF1, *At*CBF2, *At*CBF3, *At*COR15a, and *At*COR15b) involved in C-repeated binding factor (CBF) signaling pathways, mainly cold-response signaling pathways (Ma, 2021).

Parallely, SO<sub>2</sub> (30 mg m<sup>-3</sup>) exposure reduced stomatal aperture and ROS accumulation by enhancing POD activity under cold stress (Ma, 2021). Also, SO<sub>2</sub> exposure promoted Pro accumulation by increasing P5CS activity and lowering PDH activity as well as activated the gene expression of CBF signaling pathways (Ma, 2021), thus improving the cold adaptability of *Arabidopsis thaliana*. Similarly, exposure of *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Col-0) to the different concentrations of SO<sub>2</sub> increased O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> generation rate and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> content in Arabidopsis shoots, and up-regulated the gene expression of POD, SOD, and glutathione peroxidase (GPX), as well as increased the activity of corresponding enzymes and the content of GSH. Additionally, SO<sub>2</sub> exposure increased isoenzymatic isoforms of SOD (FeSOD and Cu/ZnSOD) and POD, while decreased CAT isoforms (CAT2 and CAT3; Li and Yi, 2012b). Similarly, in Arabidopsis, SO<sub>2</sub> exposure (30 mg m<sup>-3</sup>) down-regulated the expression of miR398, which in turn increased the transcript level of its target genes Cu/Zn-SOD (*CSD1* and *CSD2*) and increased the activity of SOD (Li et al., 2017). Similarly, SO<sub>2</sub> up-regulated the expression of miR395 expression, followed by decline in the transcript level

of its target genes, ATP sulfurylases (*APS3* and *APS4*) and sulfate transporter (*SULTR2;1*), implying miR398 and miR395 participate in the resistance of Arabidopsis plants to oxidative stress induced by SO<sub>2</sub> exposure. These data suggest that SO<sub>2</sub>-induced ROS act as a signal to trigger plant defense response.

## Heavy Metal Response

Heavy metals, such as cadmium (Cd), mercury, arsenic, and aluminum, have become the major pollutants with the development of modern agriculture and industry. Heavy metals can disturb cellular metabolism, inhibit seed germination and plant growth, and even influence on human health by entering into food chain (Ghori et al., 2019). Therefore, heavy metal pollutions have become a huge challenge for crop production, food safety, and human health. How to improve the resistance of crop plants to heavy metal stress and reduce its endogenous accumulation is an urgent issue. In wheat seeds, Cd-inhibited seed germination, while the inhibiting effects were alleviated by exogenous application of SO<sub>2</sub> (Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>3</sub>/NaHSO<sub>3</sub> (3/1) solution as SO<sub>2</sub> donor) in a concentration-dependent manner and the optimal concentration was between 1 and 2 mM (Hu et al., 2015). Additionally, SO<sub>2</sub> donor pretreatment enhanced the activities of amylase and esterase, which in turn resulted in the accumulation of total soluble sugars (TSS) and total soluble protein (TSP) in germinating seeds under Cd stress (Hu et al., 2015). Also, SO<sub>2</sub> pretreatment reduced the overproduction of MDA, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, and O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>, as well as the loss of plasma membrane integrity of the radicle tips of seedlings under Cd stress (Hu et al., 2015). Further experiment data showed that SO<sub>2</sub> increased the activities of POD, APX, SOD, and CAT, lowered level of LOX in germinating wheat seeds (Hu et al., 2015). Interestingly, compared with the control, SO<sub>2</sub> pretreatment increased the level of endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S in germinating wheat seeds (Hu et al., 2015). These data suggest that SO<sub>2</sub> can promote the germination of wheat seeds under Cd stress by mobilizing reserves and activating antioxidant system *via* H<sub>2</sub>S signaling pathway.

In foxtail millet seedlings, application of SO<sub>2</sub> derivatives (0.5 mM) reduced the Cd-inhibited seedling growth and Cd-induced oxidative damage (i.e., reducing MDA accumulation) in the leaves of seedlings (Han et al., 2018). Additionally, SO<sub>2</sub> treatment enhanced the activities of CAT and SOD and drove AsA-GSH cycle, which in turn reduced the accumulation of Cd-elicited O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> in the leaves of seedlings (Han et al., 2018). Furthermore, SO<sub>2</sub> application increased the contents of GSH and phytochelatin (PC) by promoting sulfur assimilation, followed by enhancing Cd-detoxification capacity in seedlings. Further experiments showed that SO<sub>2</sub> derivatives down-regulated the expression of genes related to Cd uptake and translocation (i.e., *NRAMP1*, *NRAMP6*, *IRT1*, *IRT2*, *HMA2*, and *HMA4*; Han et al., 2018), thus reducing Cd accumulation in the shoots and roots of Cd-stressed seedlings.

Similarly, in wheat seeds, pretreatment with SO<sub>2</sub> donor (NaHSO<sub>3</sub>/Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>3</sub>, 1/3) at 1.2 mM increased the activities of POD, CAT, and APX, and lowered that of LOX, and reduced the accumulation of O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, and MDA in germinating seeds under aluminum stress (Zhu et al., 2015). As expected, SO<sub>2</sub>

pretreatment increased the level of endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S in wheat seeds, while reduced the content of ROS, which in turn maintained the integrity of biomembrane and reduced aluminum accumulation in wheat seedling radicles (Zhu et al., 2015). Also, SO<sub>2</sub> pretreatment down-regulated the expression of aluminum-responsive genes (i.e., *TaWali1*, *TaWali2*, *TaWali3*, *TaWali5*, *TaWali6*, and *TaALMT1*) in seedling radicles under aluminum stress (Zhu et al., 2015). These data indicate that SO<sub>2</sub> can improve seed germination of wheat under aluminum stress by enhancing antioxidant capacity and reducing the accumulation of aluminum *via* H<sub>2</sub>S signaling pathway.

## Pathogen Response

Besides enhancing abiotic stress tolerance, exogenously applied SO<sub>2</sub> also can improve the resistance of plants to biotic stress (Zhao and Yi, 2014). In *Arabidopsis* plants, SO<sub>2</sub> pre-exposure (30 mg m<sup>-3</sup>) increased the resistance to *Botrytis cinerea* (Xue and Yi, 2018). Further experiments showed that SO<sub>2</sub> pretreatment up-regulated the expression levels of the defense-related genes (*PAL*, *PPO*, *PR2*, and *PR3*), which encode phenylalanine ammonia-lyase (*PAL*), polyphenol oxidase (*PPO*), β-1,3-glucanase (*BGL*), and chitinase (*CHI*), and increased the activities of *PAL*, *PPO*, *BGL*, and *CHI* (Xue and Yi, 2018). Also, SO<sub>2</sub> pre-exposure increased the transcript levels of microRNAs (*MIR393*, *MIR160*, and *MIR167*), correspondingly decreased the gene expression of their targets involved in the auxin signaling pathway. Adversely, the expression levels of the primary auxin-response genes (*GH3-like*, *BDL/IAA12*, and *AXR3/IAA17*) were down-regulated by SO<sub>2</sub> pre-exposure in *Arabidopsis* plants (Xue and Yi, 2018). These data imply that SO<sub>2</sub> increases the disease resistance of Arabidopsis plants to *Botrytis cinerea* by enhancing the defense-related gene expression and enzyme activity as well as suppressing the auxin signaling pathway mediated by miRNA.

In addition, Arabidopsis plants, the transcriptome analysis identified that SO<sub>2</sub> fumigation (30 mg m<sup>-3</sup>) led to the change in the expression of 2,780 genes, the genes involved in biotic stress resistance, ROS production and scavenging, and sulfur assimilation were up-regulated (Zhao and Yi, 2014). Likewise, Li and Yi (2012b) reported that SO<sub>2</sub> (30 mg m<sup>-3</sup>) treatment triggered the different expression of 2,780 genes, the functions of which were mainly involved in signal transduction, transcription regulation, molecular structure, transport, binding, and metabolism. Many different expression genes encoding antioxidant enzymes (*POD*, *GPX*, and *SOD*), heat shock proteins (*HSP*), pathogenesis-related (*PR*) proteins, and cytochrome P450 were up-regulated by SO<sub>2</sub> in Arabidopsis shoots (Li and Yi, 2012b). In Arabidopsis, Li and Yi (2012a), using Affymetrix GeneChip technology, found that the expression of 494 genes was significantly changed by SO<sub>2</sub> exposure (30 mg m<sup>-3</sup>), they encoded antioxidant enzymes (e.g., *GST*, *POD*, and thioredoxin), *HSP*, and *PR*, as well as were involved in the *ETH* signaling pathway, phenylpropanoid pathway, and cell wall modification. Similarly, SO<sub>2</sub> exposure enhanced the production of ROS, as signaling molecule, increased the activities of *SOD*, *POD*, glutathione peroxidase (*GPX*), and *GST* in Arabidopsis plants (Li and Yi, 2012a). Also, in fresh table grapes (*V. vinifera*

L. “Crimson Seedless”), transcriptomics approaches also found that SO<sub>2</sub> treatment (140 μL<sup>-1</sup>) up-regulated the expression of enzymes genes related to sulfur-metabolizing enzymes (especially directing towards chelation and conjugation), redox homeostasis, and plant hormones (e.g., auxin, AUX; ethylene, ETH; and jasmonic acid, JA) signaling pathways (Giraud et al., 2012). Generally, salicylic acid (SA) level is closely related to plant disease resistance. In *Arabidopsis thaliana* plants, Hao et al. (2011) found that the *sncl* mutants (with high SA content) had higher tolerance to SO<sub>2</sub> than *nahG* plants (with low SA content), implying that endogenous SA and signaling might play an essential role in plant responses to SO<sub>2</sub> stress. These studies further support the fact that SO<sub>2</sub> increases disease resistance in *Arabidopsis* plants.

## CONCLUSION AND PERSPECTIVES

Mounting evidences show that SO<sub>2</sub> can not only regulate seed germination, stomatal movement, and postharvest physiology, but also plants respond to environmental stresses, such as drought, cold, and heavy metal, and pathogen stresses. Numerous studies identified that SO<sub>2</sub> meets the requirements of signaling molecules in plants, emerging as a novel signaling role in many plant physiological processes. SO<sub>2</sub> as a novel signaling molecule can exert its physiological functions either alone or interaction with other signaling molecules, such as Ca<sup>2+</sup>, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, NO, H<sub>2</sub>S, cGMP, and plant hormones (e.g., ABA, SA, ETH, and JA; **Figure 2**). SO<sub>2</sub> can enhance antioxidant system (e.g., SOD, CAT, POD, APX, GR, GSH, and AsA) and osmoregulation system (e.g., Pro, TTP, TSS, and P5CS), drive secondary metabolism (e.g., GLS and PA accumulation), synthesize stress proteins (e.g., HSP, HSE, PR, PAL, and PPO), and modulate epigenetic modifications (e.g., DNA methylation modification

(MM) and miRNAs), thus regulating several plant physiological functions (**Figure 2**). Though, the signaling role of SO<sub>2</sub> in plants has been verified in a large amount of physiological processes, numerous open questions still need to be further answered in more detail in the coming days. In mammalian cells, the AAT/SO<sub>2</sub> pathway is contributed to SO<sub>2</sub> signaling; however, in plants, besides the APR/SO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup> pathway (**Figure 1**), the detailed metabolic pathways of SO<sub>2</sub> are waiting for being further expounded. Correspondingly, the knowledge on the exact concentrations of SO<sub>2</sub> in plant cells and subcellular structures as well as its receptors/sensors remains to be found. Though SO<sub>2</sub> could improve multiple stress tolerance, whether SO<sub>2</sub> can induce the tolerance of plants to heat, salt, and flooding stresses and the underlying mechanisms requires to be further explored. In addition, the signaling interaction of SO<sub>2</sub> with Ca<sup>2+</sup>, ROS, NO, H<sub>2</sub>S, methylglyoxal, and cyclic nucleotide in plants under both physiological and stress conditions is necessary to be uncovered. With the development of omics, the effects of SO<sub>2</sub> on transcriptome, metabolome, proteome, and phenome in plants have to be settled urgently.

## AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Z-GL conceived, designed, and wrote the manuscript, while X-EL and H-YC wrote the anabolism and catabolism of SO<sub>2</sub>, respectively. All authors contributed to the article and approved the submitted version.

## FUNDING

This research was funded by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (32160065 and 31760069).

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