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# Cytosolic alkalization in guard cells: an intriguing but interesting event during stomatal closure that merits further validation of its importance

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Stomatal closure is essential to conserve water and prevent microbial entry into leaves. Alkalinization of guard cells is common during closure by factors such as abscisic acid, methyl jasmonate, and even darkness. Despite reports pointing at the role of cytosolic pH, there have been doubts about whether the guard cell pH change is a cause for stomatal closure or an associated event, as changes in membrane potential or ion flux can modulate the pH. However, the importance of cytosolic alkalization is strongly supported by the ability of externally added weak acids to restrict stomatal closure. Using genetically encoded pH sensors has confirmed the rise in pH to precede the elevation of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  levels. Yet some reports claim that the rise in pH follows the increase in ROS or  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ . We propose a feedback interaction among the rise in pH or ROS or  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  to explain the contrasting opinions on the positioning of pH rise. Stomatal closure and guard cell pH changes are compromised in mutants deficient in vacuolar  $\text{H}^{+}$ -ATPase (V-ATPase), indicating the importance of V-ATPase in promoting stomatal closure. Thus, cytosolic pH change in guard cells can be related to the rise in ROS and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ , leading to stomatal closure. We emphasize that cytosolic pH in stomatal guard cells deserves further attention and evaluation.

## KEYWORDS

alkalinization, ATPases, ion efflux, secondary messenger, signal transduction, V-ATPase, stomatal closure

## Introduction

The cytosolic pH in plant cells is believed to be relatively stable. However, the available evidences suggest that transient changes in intracellular pH can exert short- and long-term effects. Alkalinization or acidification is often a pre-requisite for plant processes like root hair growth (Monshausen et al., 2007), gravitropism (Felle, 2001), defense responses (Mathieu

et al., 1996), phytohormone signaling (Hager, 2003; Li et al., 2022a), and pollen tube elongation (Behera et al., 2018) and stomatal movement (Li et al., 2021; Raghavendra et al., 2023). Changes in intracellular pH are crucial for regulating plant metabolism (Felle, 2001; Zhou et al., 2021; Trinh and Masuda, 2022). As a result, it is debated if cellular pH could be considered a secondary messenger or signaling component, either by itself or along with ROS and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  (Gilroy and Trewavas, 1994; Felle, 2001; Roos et al., 2006).

Stomata regulate the transpirational water loss and restrict the entry of microbial pathogens into leaves. Stomatal opening is induced when guard cells swell due to turgor. Flaccid guard cells shrink and causes stomatal closure. Changes in guard cell turgidity are due to either the loss or accumulation of  $\text{K}^+$ , anions (chloride/malate), and organic solutes such as sucrose (Agurla et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2024). Whether for opening or closure, guard cell signal transduction ensures ion channels and ion flux modulation, leading to turgor changes. A typical stress hormone, such as abscisic acid (ABA), is sensed and transduced through several signaling components, including receptors, reactive oxygen species (ROS), and cytosolic  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ . Modulation of these signaling components: ROS,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ , and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -dependent protein kinases (CDPK), converge to modulate ion channels and promote ion efflux from guard cells (Kim et al., 2010; Murata et al., 2015; Cotellet and Leonhardt, 2019; Chen et al., 2020; Bharath et al., 2021; Hsu et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2022).

Stomatal movements are associated with pH changes in guard cells (Gonugunta et al., 2009; Islam et al., 2010). However, there has been a debate over the primary importance of cytosolic pH change among the intracellular events leading to stomatal closure. The most intriguing aspect is the relative positioning of pH change with ROS or  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  production. Several authors have demonstrated that the pH change preceded ROS or  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  production (Irving et al., 1992; Suhita et al., 2004; Islam et al., 2010; Li et al., 2021; Pei et al., 2022; Huang et al., 2023). In contrast, a few reports suggest that cytosolic pH changes were due to elevated ROS/ $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  (Zhang et al., 2001; Rhaman et al., 2020). In other words, the alkalization may not always be an early event.

We advocate that the cytosolic pH change can be important in guard cells. While agreeing that cytosolic alkalization may not be the primary event, we argue that the rise in cytosolic pH in guard cells can promote stomatal closure. We propose an interactive mechanism to explain the argument that pH changes occur either downstream or upstream of ROS or  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  rise. Changes in guard cell pH occur during stomatal opening, too, but this aspect has not been much considered in the present article. Similarly, the possible interrelationship of guard cell pH and NO is also not discussed due to the ambiguity of the essentiality of NO for stomatal closure (Ribeiro et al., 2009; Lozano-Juste and León, 2010; van Meeteren et al., 2020).

## Elevation of guard cell pH is typical during stomatal closure

Cytosolic alkalization precedes the increase in ROS or  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  of guard cells during stomatal closure induced by several factors, including hormones, elicitors, and others. Examples are ABA,

methyl jasmonate (MeJA), pyrabactin (an analog of ABA), ethylene, sphingosine-1-phosphate (S1P), chitosan,  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ , UV-B, and even external  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  (Table 1). However, the mechanism of how alkalization could raise ROS or  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  levels is not entirely understood. Also, the origin of such pH changes in guard cells too is under debate.

The changes in cytosolic pH may depend on the vacuolar and other intracellular components. There have been very few reports on the status and pH changes in the vacuole, chloroplast, or other internal membranes of guard cells. The acidic pH of apoplast facilitated stomatal opening, while apoplast alkalization triggered stomatal closure (Blatt and Armstrong, 1993; Felle et al., 2004; Geilfus, 2017; Inoue and Kinoshita, 2017). The extent of pH change in the cytosol has also been substantial (Ye et al., 2021).

The occurrence of cytosolic pH changes is endorsed by at least three experimental approaches: Modulation of cellular pH by external agents, the use of optimized genetically encoded pH sensors and finally, overexpression/suppression of ATPases. Methylamine and benzylamine (alkalinizing agents) induce stomatal closure in a way similar to ABA or  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ , by inducing cytosolic alkalization followed by  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  production in guard cells (Zhang et al., 2001; Ma et al., 2013; Zhu et al., 2014). In contrast, butyrate or acetate (weak acidifiers), suppress stomatal closure (due to ABA, MeJA, UV-B,  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  or darkness) by reducing cytosolic pH and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  production in guard cells (Suhita et al., 2004; Islam et al., 2010; Ma et al., 2013; Huang et al., 2014; Zhu et al., 2014).

Most of the pH measurements in plant cells, including guard cells, are made with the pH-sensitive fluorescent dye, 2',7'-bis-(2-carboxyethyl)-5,(6)-carboxyfluorescein (BCECF) or its membrane-permeant acetoxymethyl ester (BCECF-AM). Recently developed genetically encoded sensors (such as ClopHensor and CapHensor) provide strong evidence that cytosolic pH changes occur along with those of  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  in guard cells (Arosio et al., 2010; Demes et al., 2020; Li et al., 2021, 2024; Mirasole et al., 2023). Other genetically encoded green fluorescent proteins, including Pt-GFP, pHluorins and At-pHluorins, have demonstrated changes in the cytosolic pH of plant cells (Gao et al., 2004; Schulte et al., 2006; Martinière et al., 2018; Pecherina et al., 2021) but are yet to be tested on guard cells. These recent pH sensors can monitor cytosolic pH and ions such as  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  or chloride in real time, thus providing an advantage in measuring pH and ion dynamics.

External agents such as methylamine/benzylamine provide indirect evidence of pH changes. So far most of the pH changes in guard cells are monitored by using fluorescence dye, BCECF-AM. However, doubts are expressed about the preciseness of BCECF-AM. Recent studies with advanced pH sensors indicate that elevation of pH changes can occur as early as 2 mins followed by  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ /ROS changes (Li et al., 2024). Arabidopsis mutants deficient in  $\text{H}^+$ -ATPases (PM-/V) also could be important for asserting their involvement during stomatal closure. Among these, advanced pH sensors and the use of ATPase mutants can provide convincing evidence of cytosolic pH changes during stomatal closure.

Changes in guard cell pH can occur when ATPases are modulated. This aspect is discussed in the next section.

TABLE 1 Elevation of cytosolic pH in guard cells and its consequences on the ROS and Ca<sup>2+</sup> levels during stomatal closure.

Trigger	Consequence of cytosolic alkalization	Plant	References
<b>Hormones</b>			
Abscisic acid (ABA)	Increase in ROS Increase in ROS followed by Ca <sup>2+</sup>	<i>Pisum sativum</i> <i>Nicotiana tabacum</i> , <i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>	Gonugunta et al., 2009; Li et al., 2021; Pei et al., 2022
Methyl jasmonate	Elevated ROS	<i>A. thaliana</i>	Suhita et al., 2004; Gonugunta et al., 2009
Pyrabactin (ABA analogue)	Increase in ROS	<i>P. sativum</i>	Puli and Raghavendra, 2012
<b>Elicitors</b>			
Chitosan	Increased ROS	<i>P. sativum</i>	Gonugunta et al., 2009
Yeast Elicitor (YEL)	ROS accumulation	<i>A. thaliana</i>	Salam et al., 2013
<b>Others</b>			
Allyl isothiocyanate	Elevated ROS, led to rise in cytosolic Ca <sup>2+</sup>	<i>A. thaliana</i>	Sobahan et al., 2015; Afrin et al., 2020
Phytosphingosine-1-Phosphate (PhytoS1P)	ROS production and ion channel modulation	<i>Vicia faba</i>	Ma and Niu, 2017
Sphingosine-1-phosphate (S1P)	H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> production	<i>Vicia faba</i>	Ma et al., 2012
Darkness	Induced ROS production	<i>Vicia faba</i>	Ma et al., 2013
UV-B	Rise in the levels of H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	<i>A. thaliana</i>	Zhu et al., 2014
High SO <sub>2</sub>	Increased Ca <sup>2+</sup> levels	<i>Tagetes erecta</i>	Wei et al., 2015
Chloride	Transient alkalization followed by elevation of cytosolic ABA	<i>V. faba</i>	Geilfus et al., 2015
<b>pH modulators</b>			
Methylamine	Induction of H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> production	<i>A. thaliana</i>	Zhu et al., 2014
Benzylamine	Mimicked H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> and promoted cytosolic alkalizations	<i>V. faba</i>	Zhang et al., 2001

## The origin of pH-rise in guard cells: Involvement of vacuolar-ATPases

Stomatal opening is restricted when plasma membrane-ATPase (PM-ATPase) is inhibited (Takemiya and Shimazaki, 2010). Upregulation of PM H<sup>+</sup>-ATPase activity appears to be necessary for stomatal opening. However, the role of PM-ATPase during stomatal closure is ambiguous. Two dominant mutations in the *open stomata 2* (*OST2*) gene result in constitutive activation of AHA1 (gene encoding PM-ATPase), abolishing ABA-induced closure and keeping stomata open (Merlot et al., 2007). Stomatal closure by ABA is compromised in loss-of-function mutants of *aha2-6* and *aha2-6 bak1-4* double mutants (Pei et al., 2022). Thus, the role of PM-ATPase during stomatal closure is confusing, and a question arises if the two forms of AHA1 and AHA2 act differently. Further work is needed to establish if PM-ATPase has a dual role during stomatal opening or closure.

On the other hand, there is strong evidence for the role of vacuolar H<sup>+</sup>-ATPase (V-ATPase) mediated vacuolar acidification

and cytosolic alkalization during stomatal closure. Alkalinization of guard cells by H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> or phosphatidylinositol 3,5 biphosphate [PI(3,5)P<sub>2</sub>] is due to H<sup>+</sup>-efflux from the cytosol into the vacuole involving V-ATPase (Zhang et al., 2001; Bak et al., 2013). Suppression of V-ATPase (as in *vha-a* mutant) results in enhanced stomatal aperture (Zhang et al., 2013). Arabidopsis V-ATPase double mutant (*vha-a2 vha-a3*) has no vacuolar H<sup>+</sup>-pumping activity and exhibits delayed vacuolar acidification and annulled stomatal closure in response to ABA (Bak et al., 2013). Down-regulation of phosphatidylinositol3-kinase (*pi3k*), a protein kinase that activates V-ATPase, results in low vacuolar acidification and limited stomatal closure in response to MeJA (Liu et al., 2016). A deficiency of V-ATPase (as in *de-etiolated-3/det3* mutant) or RNAi interference, results in enhanced opening (Allen et al., 2000; Zhang et al., 2013; Seidel, 2022). Thus, vacuolar acidification was closely associated with cytosolic alkalization.

5-aminolevulinic acid, a potential plant growth regulator, promotes stomatal opening and reverses ABA-induced closure

by downregulating V-ATPase and restricting guard cell pH and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> levels in apple leaves (Hu et al., 2019). Cytosolic pH and ROS levels are low in several of these instances. An active V-ATPase can cause cytosolic alkalinization and raise H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> levels in guard cells during stomatal closure. Besides V-ATPase, vacuolar-PPase (V-PPase) can cause rapid acidification of vacuoles during stomatal closure induced by ABA (Eisenach and De Angeli, 2017). But, the specific role of V-PPase needs to be examined in detail.

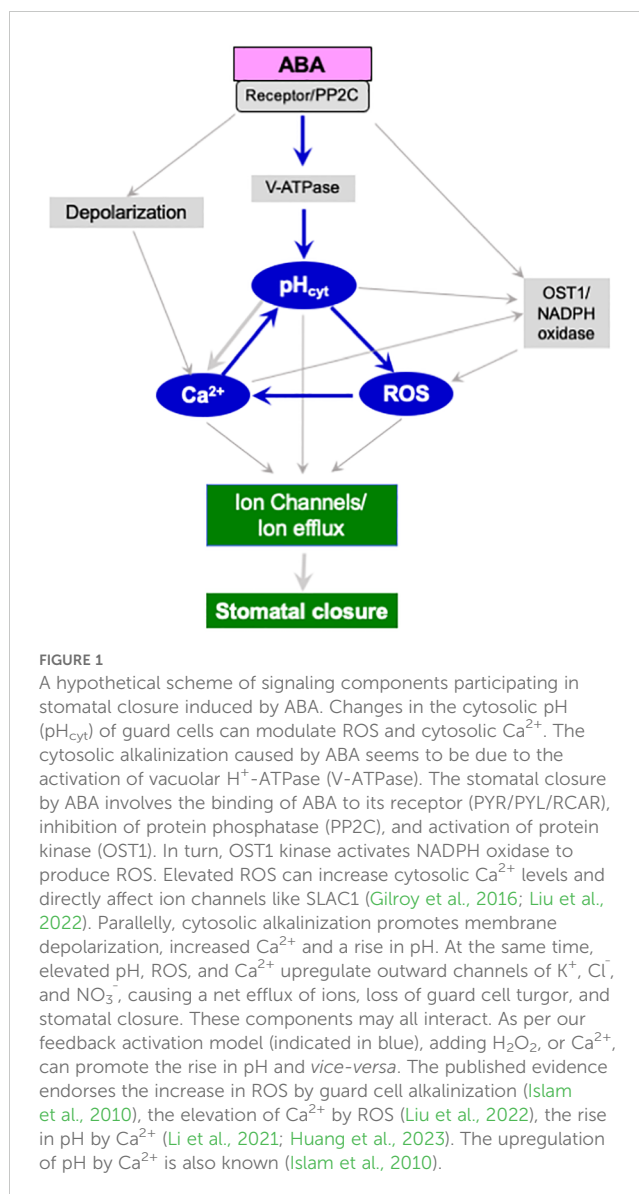
## Discussion

### Cytosolic alkalinization in relation to the scheme of signaling events during stomatal closure

Stomata close when guard cells lose their K<sup>+</sup>/Cl<sup>-</sup> triggered by an increase in intracellular Ca<sup>2+</sup> of guard cells. Whenever the stomata are exposed to biotic/abiotic stress signals, the levels of two major secondary messengers, ROS and Ca<sup>2+</sup>, increase in guard cells. The perception of a signal such as ABA (a plant hormone), or flagellin (microbial elicitor) activates OST1 kinase and NADPH oxidase to promote H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> production. The elevated ROS initiates the efflux Ca<sup>2+</sup> from endo-cytomembranes, an influx of external Ca<sup>2+</sup>, or both. This scheme of signaling events during stomatal closure is well accepted (Bharath et al., 2021; Hsu et al., 2021; Meddya et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2024).

The temporal studies indicate that the increase in guard cell pH is the earliest, followed by ROS or Ca<sup>2+</sup> (Suhita et al., 2004; Ma et al., 2012; 2013; lozanoZhu et al., 2014). Using genetically encoded pH/Ca<sup>2+</sup> sensor, Li et al. (2021) have observed that ABA elevated cytosolic pH by ~2 min, followed by Ca<sup>2+</sup> in >5 min. However, the mechanism of pH-induced ROS production in guard cells has yet to be elucidated. One of the possibilities is that alkalinization and subsequent release of Ca<sup>2+</sup> (from endo-cytomembranes) could facilitate the activation of NADPH oxidase through the Ca<sup>2+</sup>-dependent phosphorylation of SnRK-type OST kinase (Han et al., 2019; Kimura et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2022).

The secondary messengers, ROS and Ca<sup>2+</sup>, may act either upstream or downstream of cytosolic alkalinization in an interactive manner to promote ion efflux and stomatal closure (Figure 1). In addition to ROS or Ca<sup>2+</sup>, other signaling molecules that can induce cytosolic pH changes include ethylene, S-1-P/phyto S-1-P (Table 1) and PI(3,5)P2 (Bak et al., 2013). However, their action seems to converge at ROS or Ca<sup>2+</sup> or both. Further studies are needed to identify the exact conditions when alkalinization precedes or co-occurs with ROS generation. Parallely, the cytosolic pH can directly modulate the outward K<sup>+</sup>-channels and promote K<sup>+</sup> efflux from guard cells (Blatt, 1990; Blatt and Armstrong, 1993; Grabov and Blatt, 1997). In addition, the modulation of OST1 kinase/NADPH oxidase/ROS/ion channels and increased ion flux leading to stomatal closure can also occur independent of cytosolic pH change.



## Ambiguities to be resolved

Changes in guard cell pH can be mediated by the membrane potential and ion fluxes and *vice versa*. During stomatal closure, the cytosolic pH increases, followed by membrane depolarization and increased K<sup>+</sup>/Cl<sup>-</sup> efflux from guard cells (Blatt and Armstrong, 1993; Miedema and Assmann, 1996; Pandey et al., 2007; Chen et al., 2020). Membrane depolarization and Ca<sup>2+</sup> influx can modulate pH in plant cells, including guard cells (Brault et al., 2004; Meimoun et al., 2009; Pottosin et al., 2014). As per Roelfsema et al. (2004), ABA can cause membrane depolarization and activation of outward ion channels. Such a situation still does not decrease the importance of cytosolic alkalinization during stomatal closure.

ATPases, particularly PM-ATPase and V-ATPase are among the most important proteins that can modulate intracellular pH (Roelfsema and Hedrich, 2005; Kim et al., 2010). Ion-transporters (particularly Ca<sup>2+</sup>, Cl<sup>-</sup> or NO<sub>3</sub>) and CONSTITUTIVE

PHOTOMORPHO-GENIC 1 (COP1, a light-sensitive, negative regulator of stomatal opening) can also drive pH-changes in guard cells to modulate stomatal movement (Eisenach and De Angeli, 2017; Demes et al., 2020; Dreyer et al., 2022; Li et al., 2024; Cha et al., 2024). A few other proteins, such as cation/H<sup>+</sup> transporters and transcription factors (PacC, a dominant transcription factor), are known to modify the cellular pH, but their role in guard cells is uncertain (Pittman and Hirschi, 2016; Li et al., 2022b). However, ion-transporters' role in modulating guard cell pH is unclear and needs further study.

Another criticism is that the rise in pH may not all be cytoplasmic. The dye BCECF-AM, with a pKa value of 6.98, is expected to stay within the cytosol (Boyer and Hedley, 1994; Paradiso et al., 1984). Further, BCECF-AM has been widely used to detect the pH changes in root hairs and pollen tissues besides guard cells (Gehring et al., 1990; Kosegarten et al., 1997; Han and Burgess, 2010; Wilkins et al., 2015; Yemelyanov et al., 2020). We, therefore, believe that the elevated fluorescence by BCECF-AM upon ABA or MeJa treatment originates mainly from the cytosol of guard cells. An additional confusion arises when the buffer strength of cellular components is considered. The buffer strength of cytosol is expected to be several times that of apoplast. However, Oja et al. (1999) have suggested that fast cytoplasmic pH changes can occur due to the pumping of protons into the vacuole. Using genetically encoded sensors that are much more robust than the fluorescent dyes also validates the cytosolic alkalinization in guard cells during closure (see Section 2).

## Future perspectives

The importance of guard cell pH in mediating stomatal closure cannot be ignored. We emphasize that the guard cell pH can be an important event that modulates stomatal movements, even if the pH change in guard cells is not necessarily the primary cause. Other aspects that need critical re-evaluation in guard cells are pH changes in different intracellular compartments, the exact values of cytosolic pH and time-dependent dynamics of pH change. The relationship between changes in pH, ROS and Ca<sup>2+</sup> can vary depending on the trigger, for e.g. ABA or flagellin (Li et al., 2021). The availability of genetically encoded dual pH, Ca<sup>2+</sup> or K<sup>+</sup> sensors would be extremely useful in resolving some of these issues.

It is quite fascinating to consider the possible mechanism of “pH-sensing” in guard cells. The occurrence of pH sensors in plant cells is often discussed, but the mechanism of pH sensing is still unclear (Li and Yang, 2023). Among the possible molecules that could be relevant to guard cells are phosphatidic acid (Li et al., 2019), PP2C D-clade proteins (Wong et al., 2019) and vacuolar transporters (Demes et al., 2020). We expect our article on guard cell pH will trigger further research into this intriguing but fascinating topic of cytosolic pH as a key event. Stomatal guard cells are promising model systems for examining pH's role in plant tissues.

## Author contributions

PB: Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Validation, Software, Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, Data curation. SG: Writing – review & editing, Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, Data curation. AR: Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Visualization, Validation, Supervision, Resources, Project administration, Methodology, Investigation, Funding acquisition, Formal analysis, Conceptualization.

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## Conflict of interest

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