



Research paper

Regulation of sulfur metabolism in seedlings of the C₄ plant maize upon sulfate deprivation and atmospheric H₂S exposure

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ABSTRACT

The increased cultivation of highly productive C₄ crop plants may contribute to a second green revolution in agriculture. However, the regulation of mineral nutrition is rather poorly understood in C₄ plants. To understand the impact of C₄ photosynthesis on the regulation of sulfate uptake by the root and sulfate assimilation into cysteine at the whole plant level, seedlings of the monocot C₄ plant maize (*Zea mays*) were exposed to a non-toxic level of 1.0 μl l⁻¹ atmospheric H₂S at sulfate-sufficient and sulfate-deprived conditions. Sulfate deprivation not only affected growth and the levels of sulfur- and nitrogen-containing compounds, but it also enhanced the expression and activity of the sulfate transporters in the root and the expression and activity of APS reductase (APR) in the root and shoot. H₂S exposure alleviated the establishment of sulfur deprivation symptoms and seedlings switched, at least partly, from sulfate to H₂S as sulfur source. Moreover, H₂S exposure resulted in a downregulation of the expression and activity of APR in both shoot and root, though it hardly affected that of the sulfate transporters in the root. These results indicate that maize seedlings respond similarly to sulfate deprivation and atmospheric H₂S exposure as C₃ monocots, implying that C₄ photosynthesis in maize is not associated with a distinct whole plant regulation of sulfate uptake and assimilation into cysteine.

1. Introduction

In the upcoming century, agricultural practices will be aimed at sustainably enhancing crop yields. C₄ crop plants are particularly suited for achieving this aim, because C₄ plants can achieve high growth rates, while using water and nitrogen efficiently (Brown, 1978; Jobe et al., 2019, 2020). C₄ plants are characterized by a spatial separation of photosynthetic processes between the leaf's mesophyll and bundle sheath cells (Hatch and Slack, 1966). Whereas the initial assimilation of CO₂ in C₄ acids is located in the mesophyll, CO₂ assimilation in the Calvin cycle is restricted to the bundle sheath (Hatch and Slack, 1966). This spatial separation is supported by a Kranz anatomy, with an

enlargement of the bundle sheath cells (Bräutigam et al., 2011; Gowik and Westhoff, 2011). The cellular differentiation of photosynthesis and the Kranz anatomy are absent in C₃ plants (Bräutigam et al., 2011; Gowik and Westhoff, 2011).

The regulation of mineral nutrient metabolism has hardly been studied in C₄ plants. Although it is known that C₄ plants feature a higher nitrogen (N) use efficiency than C₃ plants, mineral nutrient research focused on C₃ plants. Nevertheless, it is particularly relevant to understand how C₄ photosynthesis affects the regulation of the metabolism of the macronutrient sulfur (S), for S deficiency frequently limits the growth and reproduction of crops and other plants (Johnson, 1984; Schnug and Haneklaus, 2005; Ausma et al., 2021). For instance, S

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limitation undermines the development of flowers and particularly the color of yellow, carotenoid-based flowers, which will decrease plant reproductive success and crop yield (Ausma et al., 2021). This effect may cascade to pollinators, thus causing S deficiency to potentially hamper (agro-)ecosystem functioning (Ausma et al., 2021). Understanding the regulation of S metabolism in C₄ plants helps to optimally grow C₄ crops, e.g., by identifying breeding targets for the efficient use of S fertilizers (Takahashi et al., 2011).

Sulfur is generally acquired by plants as sulfate taken up by the root and distinct transporters are involved in its uptake and distribution across the plant (Takahashi et al., 2011). Whereas Sultr1;1 and Sultr1;2 are involved in the primary uptake of sulfate by the root, Sultr2;1 mediates sulfate distribution across the plant via the xylem (Buchner et al., 2004; Takahashi, 2019). After its activation to APS by ATP sulfurylase (ATPS), sulfate is reduced to sulfite by APS reductase (APR). Sulfite is subsequently reduced by sulfite reductase (SiR) to sulfide, which is finally assimilated into cysteine via a reaction with O-acetylserine (OAS), catalyzed by the enzyme OAS-(thiol)lyase (OAS-TL). Cysteine is the precursor and/or reduced S donor for several organic S compounds. For instance, cysteine is used for methionine synthesis and both amino acids are essential for protein synthesis (Bergmann and Rennenberg, 1993; Hawkesford and De Kok, 2006; Ausma and De Kok, 2019).

C₄ photosynthesis might affect the regulation of S metabolism. In maize (*Zea mays*) and other C₄ monocots the foliar metabolism of sulfate into cysteine is exclusively located in bundle sheath cells (Gerwick et al., 1980; Passera and Ghisi, 1982; Schmutz and Brunold, 1984; Kopriva et al., 2001). However, in C₄ species from the dicot genus *Flaveria* this metabolism is located in all leaf cells (Koprivova et al., 2001). Thus, C₄ photosynthesis is not universally associated with a cellular compartmentalization of foliar sulfate metabolism. Nevertheless, C₄ photosynthesis might still affect the regulation of sulfate uptake and assimilation. C₃ and C₄ plants have a highly different leaf biochemistry and anatomy and, moreover, the evolution of C₄ photosynthesis occurred under specific abiotic conditions, such as heat and drought (Jobe et al., 2019, 2020). These environmental conditions are known to impact the regulation of sulfate metabolism (De Kok et al., 1991; Ahmad et al., 2016; Batool et al., 2018).

The fumigation of plants with non-toxic atmospheric H₂S levels represents a powerful tool to obtain insights into the regulatory aspects of sulfate uptake and assimilation at the whole plant level (Ausma and De Kok, 2019). Plants may use atmospheric H₂S as S source for growth, since upon its foliar absorbance, H₂S may directly be used for cysteine synthesis (Ausma and De Kok, 2019). Plants may also switch from sulfate to H₂S as S source and grow with H₂S as sole S source (Ausma and De Kok, 2019). A previous study, on the impact of H₂S on stomatal aperture in maize seedlings, suggested that atmospheric H₂S levels ≤ 1 ppm were non-toxic to maize (Ausma et al., 2020). Maize seedlings were able to utilize atmospheric H₂S as S source for growth, and exposure to 1.0 $\mu\text{l l}^{-1}$ fully prevented the development of S deficiency symptoms upon sulfate deprivation (Ausma et al., 2020).

In the current paper, the hypothesis was tested that C₄ photosynthesis is associated, at the whole plant level, with a distinct regulation of sulfate uptake and assimilation into cysteine (primary sulfate metabolism). The impact of 1.0 $\mu\text{l l}^{-1}$ H₂S, in the presence and absence of a sulfate supply to the root, on this regulation was studied in maize seedlings. This impact was compared with that previously observed in C₃ monocots. From this comparison, it was concluded that C₄ metabolism in maize, at the whole plant level, was not associated with a distinct regulation of sulfate uptake and assimilation into cysteine.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Plant material and growth conditions

Maize (*Zea mays*, cv. 669, van der Wal, Hoogeveen, The Netherlands) was germinated between moistened filter paper in closed germination

trays for 3 days. Subsequently, the germinated seedlings were grown on containers, holding 15 l aerated tap water. After 7 days, the seedlings were transferred to stainless-steel containers (60 plants per container) holding a 13 l aerated 50 % Hoagland nutrient solution at either 0 or 1 mM sulfate (for details on solution composition, see Ausma et al., 2020). Containers with plants were placed in 150 l cylindrical stainless-steel cabinets (0.6 m diameter) with a polymethyl methacrylate top (for an impression of the experimental design, see Fig. 1). Day and night air temperatures were 21 and 18 °C (± 1 °C), respectively, relative humidity was 30–40 %, and the photoperiod was 16 h at a photon fluency rate of $300 \pm 20 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ (within the 400–700 nm range) at plant height, supplied by Philips GreenPower LED (deep red/white 120) production modules. Air exchange inside the cabinets was 40 l min^{-1} and the air inside the cabinets was stirred continuously by a ventilator. Plants were exposed to 0 or 1.0 $\mu\text{l l}^{-1}$ atmospheric H₂S (for details see Ausma et al., 2020). Sealing of the lid of the boxes and plant sets prevented absorption of H₂S by the nutrient solutions. In $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ signature experiments plants were grown on 25 % Hoagland nutrient solutions that were enriched with ³⁴S-sulfate at 2.5 atom% excess (Abdallah et al., 2010) and plants were exposed to 0 or 1.0 $\mu\text{l l}^{-1}$ atmospheric H₂S. The ³⁴S-sulfate was a kind gift from Jean-Christophe Avicé (Université de Caen Normandie). The plants were harvested after 10 days and the shoot and root were separated and weighted. Biomass production was calculated by subtracting the weight at the start of the experiment from the weight at harvest. The plants that were exposed to ³⁴S-sulfate were lyophilized at -60 °C for 96 h for the determination of the S isotope signature. The plants that were not exposed to ³⁴S-sulfate were either dried at 80 °C for 24 h (to determine dry matter content) or frozen at -80 °C for the determination of other physiological parameters.

2.2. S and N metabolite content and $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ signature

S isotope signatures ($\delta^{34}\text{S}$ values) were determined in pulverized lyophilized plant material with a continuous flow isotope-ratio mass spectrometer (IRMS, Isoprime, GV Instruments, Manchester, UK) coupled to an elemental analyzer (EA3000, EuroVector, Milan, Italy, Abdallah et al., 2010). The $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ signatures of the shoot and root were expressed as permille (‰) difference compared to the ratio in the Vienna-CDT isotope standard (Dubouset et al., 2010). Additionally, tissue ³⁴S concentrations were calculated following the formulas in Dubouset et al. (2010). Total S and N levels were determined from pulverized dried material. Total S was measured with inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS) with an Agilent 7700 ICP-MS (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA) (Almario et al., 2017). Total N was determined via the Dumas procedure, using an automated elemental analyzer (model EA 1110; Interscience, New York, NY, USA) with Eager 200 for Windows (van Klink et al., 2020). Sulfate and nitrate were extracted from frozen plant material, according to Aghajanzadeh et al. (2016), and their contents were determined via ion chromatography (IC), following Huang et al. (2016). Water-soluble non-protein thiols were isolated from fresh plant material, according to Aghajanzadeh et al. (2016), and their total level was determined via a reaction with the Ellman's reagents, following De Kok et al. (1988). Moreover, cysteine levels were measured by quantifying the difference in thiol content before and after the reaction of cysteine's sulfhydryl group with methylglyoxal (De Kok et al., 1988). Free amino acids were extracted similarly as sulfate and nitrate and their total level was determined with the ninhydrin reagent (Rosen, 1957). Soluble proteins were extracted in a 0.1 M K₂PO₄ buffer (pH 7.5) and subsequently quantified with the Bradford reagents (Bradford, 1976).

2.3. Expression and activity of APR and sulfate transporters

RNA was extracted from frozen plant material using the procedure of Verwoerd et al. (1989) with an additional phenol-chloroform



Fig. 1. The experimental set-up used in the outlined experiments.

isoamylalcohol extraction of the aqueous phase after the first centrifugation step. After removing possible gDNA contaminations using DNase I (Thermo-Fisher, Waltham, MA, USA), RNA was converted to cDNA with the RevertAid H Minus First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (Thermo-Fisher). Gene expression levels were quantified via quantitative PCR (qPCR), using elongation factor 1 α (*EF1 α*) as reference gene, because its expression level is comparable in the shoot and root, and unaffected by several environmental factors (see the maize eFP browser, Winter et al., 2007; Sekhon et al., 2011; Lin et al., 2014). Primers for *EF1 α* were retrieved from Lin et al. (2014) and primers for *Sultr1;1* and *Sultr1;2* from Huang et al. (2018). Primers for *Sultr2;1* and *APR2* were designed on the coding sequence of the gene with NCBI's Primer BLAST. For primer sequences, see Table 1. The qPCR reaction mixtures contained 2 μ l 1:50 diluted cDNA, 12.5 μ l 2x Bio-Star qPCR-Mastermix SYBR Blue (GeneON, Ludwigshafen, Germany), 0.75 μ l ROX (GeneON), 0.75 μ l of the forward and reverse primer (10 μ M stock) and 8.25 μ l deionized water. Reactions were run in triplicate on an Applied Biosystems 7300 Real Time PCR system (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA). After an initial denaturation of 5 min at 95 $^{\circ}$ C, 50 cycles followed of 15 s denaturation at 95 $^{\circ}$ C, 15 s annealing at 60 $^{\circ}$ C or 64 $^{\circ}$ C (in the case of *Sultr2;1*), and 30 s elongation at 72 $^{\circ}$ C. The program was finished by denaturation from 65 to 95 $^{\circ}$ C to generate melting curves for the verification of the primers' gene specificity. Obtained qPCR data were baseline-corrected using the LinRegPCR software (version 2014.2, Heart Failure Research Centre, Amsterdam, The Netherlands) and, subsequently, the initial number of gene transcripts (N_0) in each sample was

determined with the mean PCR efficiency per primer set (Ramakers et al., 2003; Ruijter et al., 2009; Dalla Benetta et al., 2019). For the calculation of the relative expression level of a gene, the N_0 value of the gene-of-interest was divided by the N_0 value of *EF1 α* . APR activity was quantified from pulverized frozen plant material that was homogenized in a 50 mM K_2HPO_4 buffer (pH 8.0) containing 30 mM Na_2SO_4 , 500 μ M AMP and 10 mM DTE. After adding ^{35}S -APS to the homogenates, APR activity was quantified as the production of ^{35}S -sulfite (according to Brunold and Suter, 1990). The sulfate uptake capacity was assessed by incubated plants for 1 h on a 25 % Hoagland nutrient solution, containing 0.5 mM sulfate that was labeled with ^{35}S -sulfate (2 MBq l^{-1}), as detailed by Zuidersma et al. (2020).

2.4. Statistical analyses

Statistical analyses were performed with GraphPad Prism (version 8.4.2, GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA, USA). Treatment means were analyzed for statistically significant differences with either an unpaired Student's *t*-test (in case of comparing two groups) or a two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with a Tukey's HSD post-hoc test (in case of comparing more than two groups) at the $P \leq 0.05$ level.

Table 1

Oligonucleotide primers used in the quantitative PCR (qPCR) assays. Locus IDs have been retrieved from the Maize Genome Database (version 5.0).

Gene name	Locus ID	Primer sequences (forward+reverse)	PCR efficiency (%)
<i>EF1α</i>	Zm00001eb385900	F: TGGGCCTACTGGTCTTACTACTGA R: ACATACCCACGCTTCAGATCCT	96
<i>Sultr1;1</i>	Zm00001eb008160	F: ATCAACCCACCTTCAGTAGTCT R: TCTTTGTTCCCATCTATCTGGTAATC	94
<i>Sultr1;2</i>	Zm00001eb178810	F: TGGTAGCACTTGGGACGATGAA R: AACAGCGGCGTGATGAGCAG	88
<i>Sultr2;1</i>	Zm00001eb008170	F: GCGAGGGAGAGGATACAAGC R: TCCAGTCCTGTCCTACCCTG	94
<i>APR2</i>	Zm00001eb105800	F: CAGGTGCCCAAACACGT R: CCAATCCTCGCAGCTTTGAC	93

3. Results

3.1. Atmospheric H₂S as sulfur source for growth

In this study maize seedlings were exposed to sulfate deprivation and H₂S fumigation. When maize seedlings were sulfate-deprived for 10 days, biomass production was reduced by approximately 20 % (Fig. 2). Shoot and root biomass production were equally reduced, implying that upon sulfate deprivation the shoot-to-root ratio was unaffected. Sulfate deprivation additionally enhanced shoot and root dry matter content (DMC) by 1.1- and 1.3-fold, respectively (Fig. 2). At sulfate-sufficient conditions, the fumigation with 1.0 μl l⁻¹ H₂S did not affect biomass production and DMC (Fig. 2), but at sulfate-deprived conditions it alleviated the negative impacts of sulfate deprivation on biomass production and DMC. This means that, upon sulfate deprivation, sulfide absorbed in the foliage could replace sulfate taken up by the root as S source for growth (Fig. 2).

When maize seedlings were grown on a Hoagland nutrient solution that was enriched with ³⁴S-sulfate at 2.5 atom% excess, H₂S fumigation of sulfate-sufficient maize seedlings resulted in a 60 % and 10 % lower shoot and root δ³⁴S value, respectively (Fig. 3). This demonstrated that also at sulfate-sufficient conditions seedlings switched from sulfate to H₂S as sulfur source.

3.2. Impact of sulfate deprivation and H₂S fumigation on S and N metabolite content

Both sulfate deprivation and H₂S fumigation had a significant impact on the sulfate content of maize. Sulfate deprivation resulted in an 80 % and 85 % reduction in shoot and root sulfate content, respectively (Table 2). Consequently, the shoot and root total S contents decreased by 60 % and 55 %, respectively (Table 2). H₂S fumigation at sulfate-sufficient conditions resulted in a 1.2-fold to 1.6-fold increase in shoot total S content, because sulfate contents increased 1.7-fold (Table 2). Whereas H₂S fumigation at sulfate-deprived conditions alleviated the

sulfate-deprived decreases in shoot sulfate and total S content, it did not alleviate these decreases in the root (Table 2).

S supply also profoundly impacted the (water-soluble non-protein) thiol content of maize. Sulfate deprivation resulted in a 70 % and 65 % decreased thiol content in the shoot and root, respectively (Table 2). Generally, glutathione is the major water-soluble non-protein thiol in plant tissues, though cysteine constitutes a minor thiol (Bergmann and Rennenberg, 1993). In maize, cysteine accounted for 8 % and 15 % of the thiol content of sulfate-sufficient shoots and roots, respectively (Table 2). The sulfate-deprived decrease in thiol levels could only partly be attributed to decreased cysteine contents, which indicated that sulfate deprivation also resulted in a decreased glutathione content (Table 2). H₂S fumigation resulted in a 1.8- and 1.9-fold increased thiol content in sulfate-sufficient and sulfate-deprived shoots, respectively (Table 2). The enhancements could be ascribed to both increased cysteine and glutathione contents, though cysteine contents were relatively more enhanced than glutathione contents (Table 2). Potentially, H₂S is metabolized into cysteine and glutathione in another subcellular compartment than sulfate. Consequently, the H₂S metabolism could be beyond control of existing regulatory feedback mechanisms, resulting in increased thiol levels (Hesse et al., 1997).

S and N metabolism are metabolically linked to each other, and S supply thus affected maize's N metabolism (Stulen and De Kok, 2012). Sulfate deprivation resulted in a 15 % and 40 % decreased shoot and root nitrate content and a 50 % decreased shoot (water-soluble) protein content (Table 2). Sulfate deprivation further enhanced shoot and root free amino acid contents with 4.9- and 3.9-fold, respectively (Table 2). Additionally, it slightly enhanced shoot and root N contents with 1.1-fold (Table 2). These phenomena are characteristic for sulfate-deprived plants. Sulfate deprivation results in a decreased availability of cysteine, which depresses protein synthesis. This causes the accumulation of non-S-containing amino acids as well as carbohydrates (Stuiver et al., 1997). The accumulation of these compounds contributes to the increased dry matter content upon sulfate deprivation. Whereas H₂S fumigation at sulfate sufficient conditions did not affect

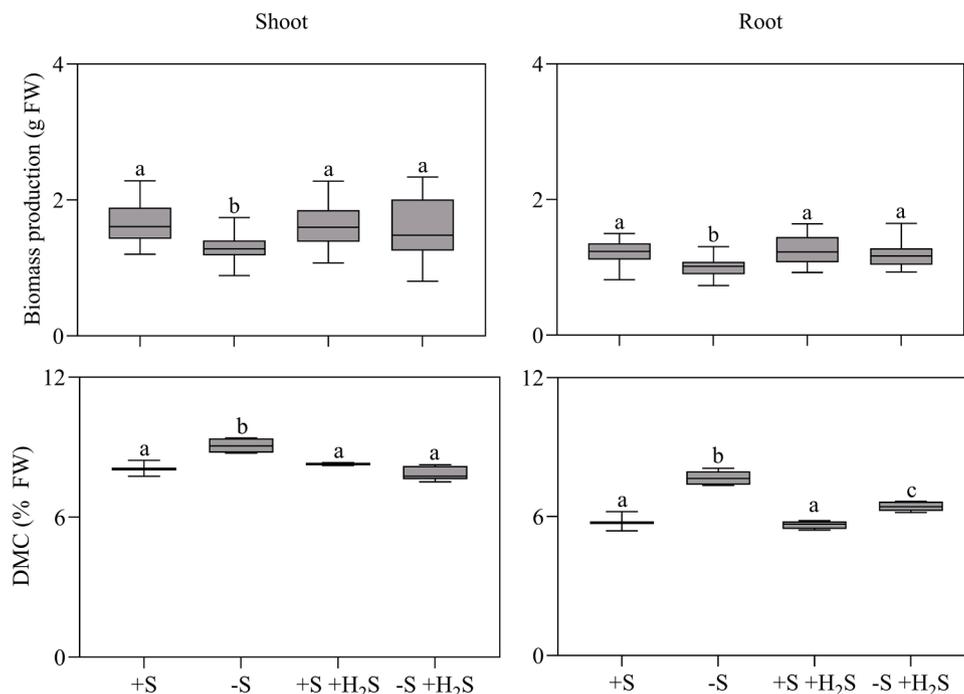


Fig. 2. Impact of sulfate deprivation and H₂S fumigation on the biomass production and dry matter content (DMC) of maize seedlings. The initial shoot and root weight were 0.21 ± 0.03 and 0.17 ± 0.03 g FW, respectively. Data on biomass production represent 2 experiments with 12–14 measurements with 2–3 plants in each. Data on DMC represent 3–5 measurements with 3 plants in each. Data are presented as boxes with a 5–95 percentile and whiskers. Different letters indicate significant differences between treatments ($P \leq 0.05$, Two-way ANOVA, Tukey's HSD test as a post-hoc test).

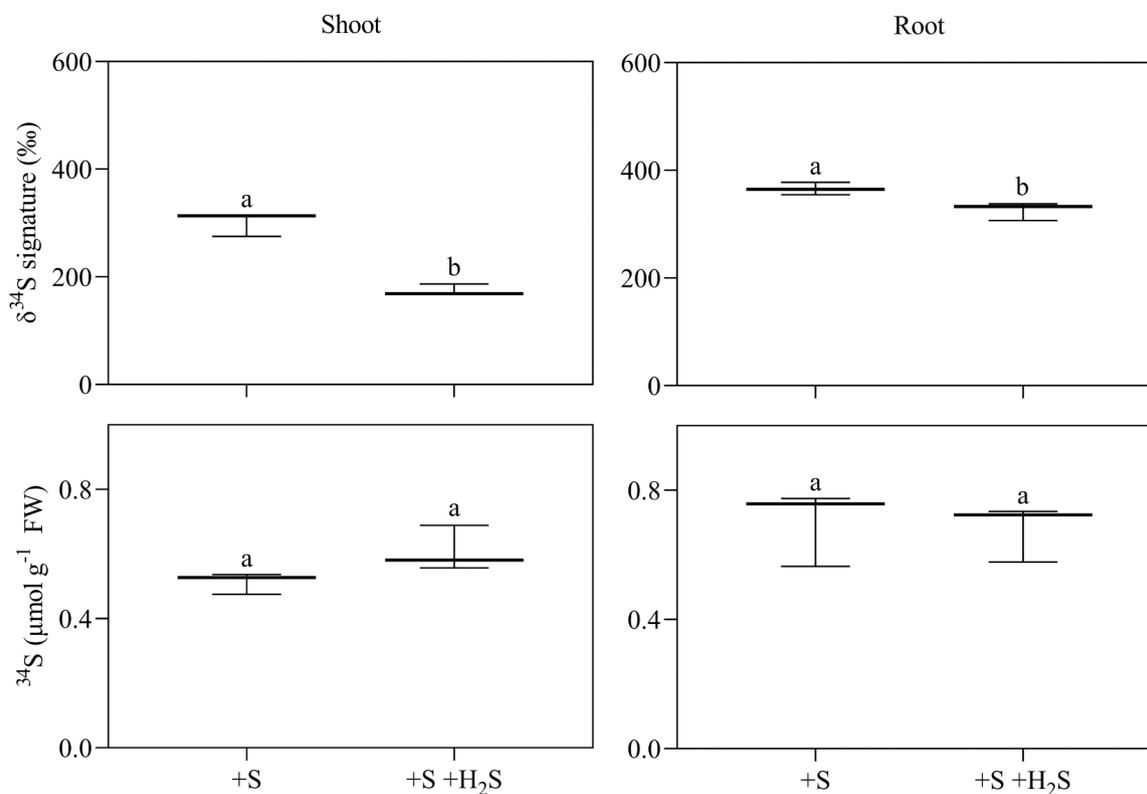


Fig. 3. Impact of H₂S fumigation on the S isotope signature of maize seedlings. Data, representing 3 measurements with 11–16 plants in each, are presented as boxes with a 5–95 percentile and whiskers. Different letters indicate significant differences between treatments ($P \leq 0.05$, Student's *t*-test).

total N, nitrate, amino acid, and soluble protein levels, at sulfate-deprived conditions it largely alleviated the impacts of sulfate deprivation on the levels of these N metabolites (Table 2).

3.3. Impact of sulfate deprivation and H₂S fumigation on the activity and expression of APR and sulfate transporters

APR is the key regulating enzyme in the sulfate reduction pathway (Kopriva and Koprivova, 2004; Hawkesford and De Kok, 2006; Ausma and De Kok, 2019) and hence its regulation was assessed. Sulfate deprivation resulted in a 1.8- and 3.4-fold enhanced APR activity in the shoot and root, respectively (Fig. 4). H₂S fumigation of sulfate-sufficient plants, however, resulted in a downregulation of the APR activity in the shoot and root by 50 % and 85 %, respectively (Fig. 4). In H₂S-fumigated sulfate-deprived plants, the enhanced APR activity was partially alleviated, though APR activity was still higher than in sulfate-sufficient plants (Fig. 4). Sulfate deprivation and H₂S fumigation had similar impacts on the expression of *APR2* (major APR isoform in maize; Chorianopoulou et al., 2020), with the exception that H₂S fumigation did not alleviate the sulfate-deprived increased expression of *APR2* in the root (Fig. 4). These data indicate that upon H₂S fumigation the reduction and hence assimilation of sulfate was, at least partly, downregulated and that maize seedlings transferred to sulfide, absorbed by the leaf, as S source for growth. The latter was supported by the experiments where the Hoagland nutrient solution was enriched with ³⁴S-sulfate (at 2.5 atom% excess). H₂S fumigation resulted in a 60 % and 10 % lower shoot and root $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ value, respectively (Fig. 3).

Despite the decreased $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ value in H₂S-fumigated plants that were grown on a ³⁴S-sulfate-enriched Hoagland nutrient solution, the total content of the ³⁴S isotope in the shoot and root remained unaffected by H₂S fumigation (Fig. 3). This indicated that the sulfate uptake rate was unaffected upon H₂S fumigation. Analogously, the sulfate uptake capacity of the root of sulfate-sufficient plants, which represents the

activity of the sulfate transporters at an optimal sulfate supply, was also not affected by H₂S fumigation (Fig. 5). Nevertheless, sulfate deprivation resulted in an enhanced sulfate uptake capacity of the roots by 8.4-fold and this increase was partly alleviated by H₂S fumigation (Fig. 5).

The transcript levels of *Sultr1;1*, *Sultr1;2* and *Sultr2;1* were also determined. The first two transporters together facilitate sulfate uptake by the root (Buchner et al., 2004; Takahashi, 2019). In sulfate-sufficient roots the expression of *Sultr1;1* was 4.0-fold higher than that of *Sultr1;2* (Fig. 6). Sulfate deprivation enhanced the expression of *Sultr1;1* and *Sultr1;2* in the root by 5.8- and 3.0-fold, respectively (Fig. 6). H₂S fumigation did not affect the expression of these transporters (Fig. 6). The expression of *Sultr2;1*, which facilitates the xylem loading of sulfate (Takahashi, 2019), was enhanced by sulfate deprivation (Fig. 6). H₂S fumigation partly alleviated the increased *Sultr2;1* expression in sulfate-deprived roots (Fig. 6). From the above data it can be deduced that there generally is a poor shoot-to-root interaction between the metabolism of foliar absorbed atmospheric H₂S in the shoot and the uptake of sulfate by the root in maize seedlings.

4. Discussion

Cultivating more C₄ crops is part of the strategy to sustainably enhance agricultural yields (Jobe et al., 2019, 2020). However, crop yield is frequently limited by S deficiency (Johnson, 1984; Schnug and Haneklaus, 2005; Ausma et al., 2021). Therefore, to optimally grow C₄ plants and to sustainably enhance agricultural yields, the regulation of S metabolism in C₄ plants should be understood. This understanding is fundamental to identifying breeding targets for the efficient use of S fertilizers (Takahashi et al., 2011). Our research shows that at the whole plant level the regulation of sulfate metabolism does not differ between C₃ and C₄ plants.

The impact of sulfate deprivation and atmospheric H₂S on sulfate uptake and its assimilation into cysteine was compared between maize

Table 2

Impact of sulfate deprivation and H₂S fumigation on the sulfur and nitrogen metabolite content of maize seedlings. Data represent the mean of 3 measurements with 3 plants in each (\pm SD). Different letters indicate significant differences between treatments ($P \leq 0.05$, Two-way ANOVA, Tukey's HSD test as a post-hoc test).

	0 $\mu\text{l l}^{-1}$ H ₂ S		1.0 $\mu\text{l l}^{-1}$ H ₂ S	
	+S	-S	+S	-S
<i>Shoot</i>				
Total S ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$ DW)	72 \pm 3a	29 \pm 3b	118 \pm 11c	69 \pm 8a
Sulfate ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$ FW)	4.3 \pm 0.3a	0.9 \pm 0.3b	7.6 \pm 1.4c	3.3 \pm 0.6a
Cysteine ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$ FW)	0.03 \pm 0.01a	0.00 \pm 0.02b	0.13 \pm 0.02c	0.15 \pm 0.02c
Thiols ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$ FW)	0.33 \pm 0.04a	0.11 \pm 0.02b	0.59 \pm 0.02c	0.64 \pm 0.03c
Total N ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$ DW)	3506 \pm 68a	3771 \pm 56b	3331 \pm 92c	3333 \pm 22c
Nitrate ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$ FW)	33.3 \pm 0.3a	28.8 \pm 0.4ab	33.3 \pm 0.1a	32.9 \pm 0.7a
Amino acids ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$ FW)	4.6 \pm 0.3a	33.2 \pm 1.8b	5.4 \pm 0.3a	7.8 \pm 0.8c
Soluble proteins (mg g ⁻¹ FW)	3.83 \pm 0.23a	1.94 \pm 0.22b	3.63 \pm 0.19a	3.75 \pm 0.12a
<i>Root</i>				
Total S ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$ DW)	92 \pm 7a	36 \pm 1b	80 \pm 9a	41 \pm 3b
Sulfate ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$ FW)	6.7 \pm 0.3a	1.0 \pm 0.2b	5.0 \pm 0.6c	1.0 \pm 0.1b
Cysteine ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$ FW)	0.07 \pm 0.01a	0.00 \pm 0.02b	0.05 \pm 0.00a	0.05 \pm 0.02a
Thiols ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$ FW)	0.36 \pm 0.05a	0.12 \pm 0.01b	0.44 \pm 0.01c	0.36 \pm 0.03a
Total N ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$ DW)	3140 \pm 161ab	3314 \pm 68b	2962 \pm 58a	3017 \pm 65a
Nitrate ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$ FW)	34.3 \pm 0.7ab	21.0 \pm 2.4b	35.4 \pm 0.7a	35.6 \pm 2.0c
Amino acids ($\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$ FW)	5.5 \pm 0.2a	29.1 \pm 4.1b	6.4 \pm 0.6a	10.1 \pm 0.7a
Soluble proteins (mg g ⁻¹ FW)	2.10 \pm 0.13a	1.57 \pm 0.07b	2.13 \pm 0.35a	2.31 \pm 0.12a

and C₃ plants. Similar to C₃ plants, maize seedlings could metabolize atmospheric H₂S. In agreement with previous observations (Ausma et al., 2020), exposure of maize to 1.0 $\mu\text{l l}^{-1}$ H₂S alleviated the impacts of

sulfate deficiency on biomass production, dry matter content, and the levels of S and N metabolites (Fig. 2; Table 2). Additionally, H₂S exposure resulted in enhanced cysteine, glutathione, and sulfate levels (Ausma et al., 2020; Table 2). Finally, in plants where the S supply to the root was enriched with ³⁴S-sulfate, the $\delta^{34}\text{S}$ values of both shoot and root were lowered upon H₂S fumigation (Fig. 3). Similar H₂S-impacts have been observed in C₃ plants, such as *Brassica* species, onion (*Allium cepa*), and barley (*Hordeum vulgare*; Durenkamp et al., 2007; Durenkamp and De Kok, 2004; Ausma and De Kok, 2019, 2020; Ausma et al., 2020).

The observation that maize can use H₂S as S source provides insights into the transport of S metabolites within a C₄ leaf. In C₄ monocots, including maize, the foliar metabolism of sulfate in cysteine is restricted to the bundle sheath (Gerwick et al., 1980; Passera and Ghisi, 1982; Schmutz and Brunold, 1984; Kopriva et al., 2001). The first enzyme of sulfate metabolism, ATPS, is only located in these cells (Gerwick et al., 1980). Consequently, the highly reactive intermediates of sulfate metabolism, and thus the complete metabolism, are restricted to the bundle sheath. In maize APR is also restricted to the bundle sheath

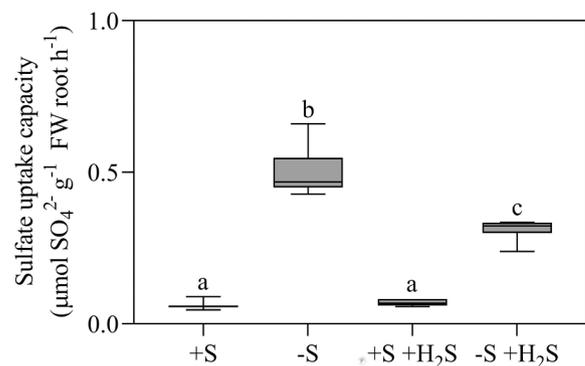


Fig. 5. Impact of sulfate deprivation and H₂S fumigation on the sulfate uptake capacity of the root of maize seedlings. Data, representing 7 measurements with 3 plants in each, are presented as boxes with a 5–95 percentile and whiskers. Different letters indicate significant differences between treatments ($P \leq 0.05$, Two-way ANOVA, Tukey's HSD test as a post-hoc test).

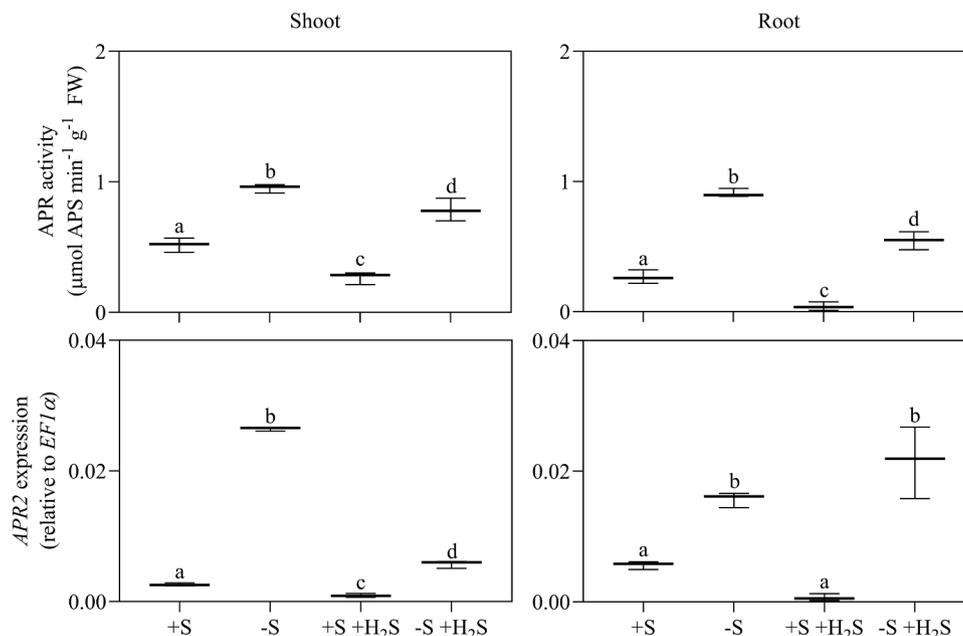


Fig. 4. Impact of sulfate deprivation and H₂S fumigation on APR2 expression and activity in maize seedlings. Data, representing 3 measurements with 3 plants in each, are presented as boxes with a 5–95 percentile and whiskers. Different letters indicate significant differences between treatments ($P \leq 0.05$, Two-way ANOVA, Tukey's HSD test as a post-hoc test).

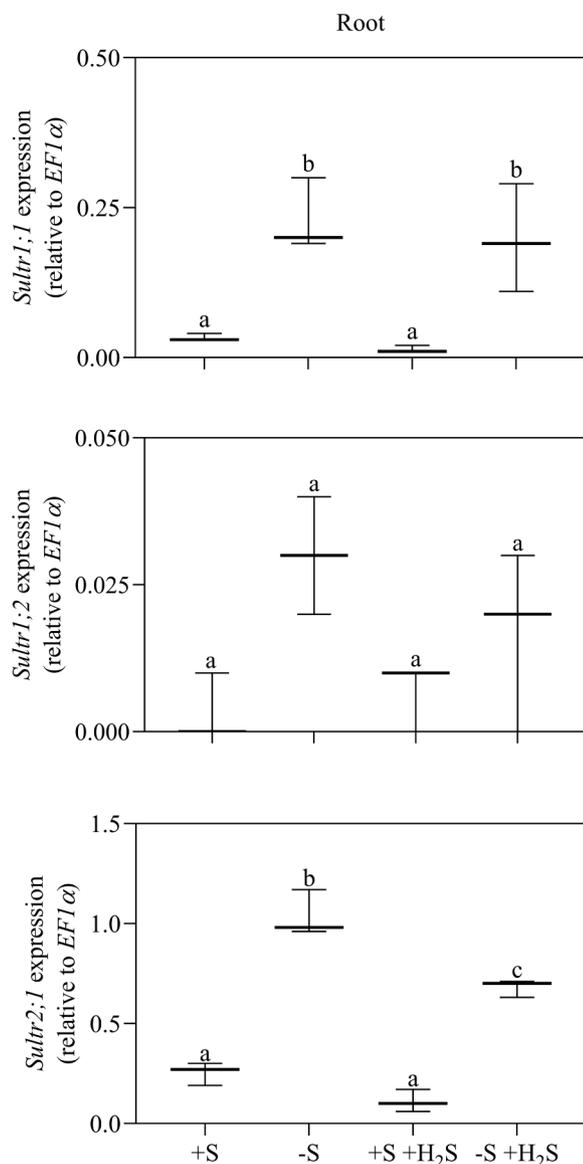


Fig. 6. Impact of sulfate deprivation and H₂S fumigation on the expression of sulfate transporters in the root of maize seedlings. Data, representing 3 measurements with 3 plants in each, are presented as boxes with a 5–95 percentile and whiskers. Different letters indicate significant differences between treatments ($P \leq 0.05$, Two-way ANOVA, Tukey's HSD test as a post-hoc test).

(Kopriva et al., 2001) though SiR and OAS-TL are located in both the bundle sheath and mesophyll (Passera and Ghisi, 1982; Schmutz and Brunold, 1984; Kopriva et al., 2001). Most likely, atmospheric H₂S, absorbed in the foliage of maize, was metabolized into cysteine by mesophilic OAS-TL, because (1) at the pH of the mesophyll the absorbed H₂S remains mostly undissociated and the bundle sheath is highly impermeable to gases and (2) H₂S cannot diffuse long distances, such as from the mesophyll to stem or root tissues, independently from the bundle sheath, as it is highly reactive (De Kok et al., 1991; Ausma and De Kok, 2019). It is thus likely that S metabolites have been transported to the leaf's bundle sheath and next to the root. Whereas in maize cysteine is transported from the bundle sheath to the mesophyll (Burgener et al., 1998), future research should elucidate the nature of the transport processes in the opposite direction.

Sulfate assimilation into cysteine was not distinctively regulated at the whole plant level in C₃ and C₄ plants. Maize switched, at least partly, from sulfate to H₂S as S source for growth, because H₂S fumigation of sulfate-sufficient maize downregulated APR activity – the key regulator

of the rate of sulfate metabolism into cysteine (Fig. 4; Kopriva and Koprivova, 2004). Moreover, H₂S fumigation partly alleviated the sulfate-deprived increase in APR activity (Fig. 4). Similar findings have been observed in C₃ plants from the genus *Brassica* as well as in the C₃ plants spinach (*Spinacia oleracea*), barley, and onion (Herschbach et al., 1995a,b; Durenkamp et al., 2007; Durenkamp and De Kok, 2004; Koralewska et al., 2008; Ausma and De Kok, 2020).

The uptake of sulfate was also not distinctively regulated at the whole plant level in C₃ and C₄ plants. Firstly, the impact of H₂S fumigation on sulfate-sufficient plants was not different between C₃ and C₄ plants. H₂S fumigation did not affect the sulfate uptake capacity and rate of sulfate-sufficient maize, which were measured by incubating plants on labeled nutrient solutions (Figs. 3, 5). It remains ambiguous why H₂S exposure did not affect the sulfate uptake capacity and rate of sulfate-sufficient maize. This impact is not related to C₄ metabolism, for similar impacts have been observed in C₃ plants. Although H₂S fumigation downregulated the sulfate uptake capacity in *Brassica* and barley, it did not affect onion's sulfate uptake capacity (Westerman et al., 2000a,b; Buchner et al., 2004; Koralewska et al., 2008; Durenkamp et al., 2007; Durenkamp and De Kok, 2004; Ausma and De Kok, 2020).

The impact of H₂S fumigation on sulfate-deprived plants was also not different for C₃ and C₄ plants. H₂S fumigation partly alleviated the sulfate-deprived increase in sulfate uptake capacity in maize (Fig. 5). Sulfate-deprived C₃ plants feature a range of different responses to H₂S fumigation. For instance, H₂S fumigation fully alleviated the sulfate-deprived increase in sulfate uptake capacity in barley, whereas it hardly alleviated this increase in *Brassica* (Westerman et al., 2000a; Buchner et al., 2004; Koralewska et al., 2008; Ausma and De Kok, 2020).

Although the regulation of sulfate uptake and its assimilation into cysteine are not different at the whole plant level in C₄ and C₃ plants, it remains unclear if regulatory patterns differ at the cellular level. Root sulfate uptake may in maize principally be mediated by Sultr1;1, because sulfate-sufficient maize was characterized by a significantly higher root Sultr1;1 than Sultr1;2 expression (Fig. 6; Ahmad et al., 2016; Huang et al., 2018). However, this expression pattern may be a monocot-specific trait (instead of a C₄-specific trait), because a similar expression pattern was obtained for the C₃ monocots wheat (*Triticum aestivum*) and rice (*Oryza sativa*; Buchner et al., 2010; Takahashi, 2019). By contrast, in species from the dicot C₃ genus *Brassica* Sultr1;1 was not expressed at sulfate-sufficient conditions (Buchner et al., 2004; Koralewska et al., 2007, 2008; Takahashi, 2019). In maize, sulfate uptake and assimilation were regulated via transcriptional and post-transcriptional mechanisms, which agrees with observations in barley and species from the genus *Brassica* (Ausma and De Kok, 2019, 2020). For instance, APR2 expression and APR activity in the shoot responded identically to variation in sulfate and H₂S supply, indicating regulation of shoot APR activity at the transcriptional level (Fig. 4). However, whereas H₂S fumigation partly alleviated the sulfate-deprived increase in root APR activity, it did not alleviate the sulfate-deprived increase in root APR expression (Fig. 4). Hence, root APR activity was controlled (at least partly) via a post-transcriptional mechanism.

The exact nature of the regulatory signals remains unclear. Apart from being a nutrient (*viz.* S source for growth), endogenous H₂S levels may coordinate various physiological processes (Huang and Xie, 2023; Yu et al., 2024). H₂S might function as an endogenous gaseous transmitter co-regulating cellular sulfate uptake and its reduction in the plastids (De Kok et al., 2012; Shahbaz et al., 2013; Ausma and De Kok, 2019). Cysteine has also been proposed to regulate sulfate uptake in maize (Bolchi et al., 1999). However, there was no correlation between cysteine content and sulfate uptake transporter expression and activity (Figs. 5 and 6; Table 2). Cysteine contents did also not correlate with APR expression and activity nor with Sultr2;1 expression (Figs. 4 and 6; Table 2). Although sulfate, glutathione, and metabolites from N metabolism may regulate sulfate uptake and assimilation, there were also no correlations between sulfate, nitrate, glutathione, and free amino acid contents on the one hand and the activity and expression of APR and the

sulfate transporters on the other hand (Figs. 4, 5 and 6; Table 2; Takahashi et al., 2011; Ausma and De Kok, 2019; De Jager et al., 2023). Future studies should assess the signal transduction pathways via which H₂S affects maize's sulfate utilization. Whereas these pathways are also poorly understood in C₃ plants, these remain almost entirely elusive for C₄ plants (Takahashi et al., 2011; Jobe et al., 2019; Takahashi, 2019; De Jager et al., 2023; Zenzen et al., 2024).

5. Conclusions

Our results show that C₄ metabolism is not associated with a distinct whole plant regulation of sulfate uptake and assimilation into cysteine, because sulfate metabolism responds similarly to H₂S supply and sulfate deprivation in maize as in C₃ monocots. Further studies should analyze the (molecular) signal pathways that govern sulfate metabolism at the whole plant level in C₄ plants. Insights from such studies will help to combat S deficiency problems, which is fundamental to optimally grow C₄ plants and to sustainably enhance agricultural yields.

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CRedit authorship contribution statement

Rahimzadeh Karvansara Parisa: Investigation, Formal analysis, Data curation. **van der Kooi Casper J.:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision. **Ausma Ties:** Writing – original draft, Investigation, Formal analysis, Data curation. **Riezebos Chiel-Jan:** Investigation, Formal analysis, Data curation. **De Kok Luit J.:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Conceptualization.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no affiliation with or involvement in any organization or entity with any financial interest, or non-financial interest in the subject matter or materials discussed in this manuscript.

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Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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