



Managing arsenic (V) toxicity by phosphate supplementation in rice seedlings: modulations in AsA-GSH cycle and other antioxidant enzymes

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Abstract

The toxic and non-essential metalloid arsenic (As) is ubiquitous in the environment with its absorption from the soil into the plants' roots posing detrimental effects on the crop plants and hence the food availability and food security are also threatened. The present study was intended to reduce the As-induced toxicity in rice seedlings (*Oryza sativa* L.) by phosphate (PO_4^{3-}). For this, three concentrations of potassium phosphate (KH_2PO_4), 50, 100 and 150 μM were supplemented along with 50 μM As exposure to hydroponically grown 7-day-old rice seedlings. Supplementation of PO_4^{3-} significantly recovered arsenic-induced diminutions in growth parameters and photosynthetic pigment contents which were due to the significant increase in superoxide radical (SOR , $\text{O}_2^{\cdot-}$) and hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2). Supplementation of 50 μM PO_4^{3-} could significantly increase the activity of APX (ascorbate peroxidase) and GR (glutathione reductase) while 100 μM PO_4^{3-} could increase the activity of DHAR (dehydroascorbate reductase) and monodehydroascorbate reductase (MDHAR). As the amount of PO_4^{3-} was increased, the ratio of AsA/DHA (reduced to oxidized ascorbate) and GSH/GSSG (reduced to oxidized glutathione) was increased significantly due to increase in the reduced form of the non-enzymes i.e. AsA and GSH. The activity of SOD (superoxide dismutase) and GPX (guaiacol peroxidase) decreased significantly after a substantive increase in their activities due to As stress while the CAT (catalase) activity further enhanced after the supplementation of 50 and 100 μM PO_4^{3-} . Thus, the As-induced oxidative stress in the rice seedlings was managed by concerted modulations in the activities of SOD, GPX, CAT and AsA-GSH cycle enzymes and metabolites.

Keywords Arsenic toxicity · Ascorbate-glutathione cycle · Oxidative stress · Phosphate · Rice seedlings

Highlights

- Arsenic stress induces diminutions in growth attributes and photosynthetic pigments.
- Arsenic stress provokes oxidative burst in rice seedlings.
- The histochemical analysis of ROS proves the severe oxidative stress experienced by rice seedlings.
- The supplementation of PO_4^{3-} strengthened the compatibility of ascorbate-glutathione(AsA-GSH) cycle.
- The application of PO_4^{3-} fortified the antioxidative defence system against ROS.

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Introduction

Arsenic (As) has long been viewed as the synonymous of toxicity, not only for human beings but for other animals and plants too. In recent decades, As has fascinated plant biologists since As-contaminated natural water is now a worldwide problem (Argos et al. 2010). Arsenic-loaded groundwater used for agricultural purpose is considered the major source of As penetration into the food chain (Adomako et al. 2009). Arsenic-induced toxicity has been reported in many plants (Jin and Huang 2010; Talukdar 2013; Ahmad et al. 2020; Singh et al. 2020). Arsenic severely intoxicates plants by reducing their biomass and plant height i.e. root and shoot length. Wilting and necrosis on leaves decrease leaf area and photosynthesis culminating into decrease in plant productivity and total death of the plant may occur (Garg and Singla 2011; Bhattacharya et al. 2012; Imran et al. 2013; Ahmad et al. 2020). The As-induced inhibitory effects on seed germination and degradation of enzymes have been well recognized in many plant species like tall fescue (Jin and Huang 2010), bean (Talukdar 2013) and *Vicia faba* (Ahmad et al. 2020).

There are two mineral forms of As in natural water: arsenite (AsO_3^{3-}) and arsenate (AsO_4^{3-}), denoted as As (III) (trivalent) and As (V) (pentavalent), respectively (Rai et al. 2011). They are considered to be the phytoavailable forms (Neidhardt et al. 2015). As (V) is dominant and stable in aerobic environments while As (III) dominates in O_2 deficient or reducing environments as in groundwater. Organic forms of As in soil may include its monomethyl and dimethyl acid derivatives (MMAA and DMAA) and trimethylarsine oxide (TMAO) (Zakhar et al. 2018).

Arsenic (III) and As (V) are inter-convertible to each other (Fuhua et al. 1994). Arsenic (III) has the same fate inside the cell, whether it comes from outside or converted from pentavalent arsenic. It has been demonstrated that the expression of more genes and proteins takes place when plants come into the contact of As (V) in comparison to As (III). As (V) is the main phytoavailable form of As in O_2 -rich environment. It competes with PO_4^{3-} during many cellular functions due to its analogy with PO_4^{3-} . It may replace PO_4^{3-} in ATP to form a weak compound ADP-As (Wu et al. 2011). As (V) is also responsible for the PO_4^{3-} starvation and thus, hampers the PO_4^{3-} signaling mechanism. Besides, As (V) has much affinity to the PO_4^{3-} transporters as compared to PO_4^{3-} itself (Zvobgo et al. 2018) and thus, As (V) will easily get entry into the cell whenever the outer concentration As (V) becomes high. It can easily be absorbed by roots and transported to the aboveground parts of plants through xylem where it is readily reduced to As (III) or other forms (Su et al. 2008).

As is a redox metalloid. There are significant experimental evidence that the exposure of plants to inorganic arsenic (Asi) does result in the over-production of active oxygen species

(like singlet oxygen, $^1\text{O}_2$; superoxide radical, $\text{O}_2^{\cdot-}$; and hydrogen peroxide, H_2O_2) which is concerned with the valance change from As (V) to As (III) (Talukdar 2013). A certain amount of ROS is always needed for the cell signaling process but when they are present in greater amount, they damage various components of cells, and the situation is termed as oxidative stress (Saed-Moucheshi et al. 2014b). Higher concentration of ROS than the certain threshold level breaks photosynthetic pigments, organic components of membrane system and nucleic acids. Therefore, usual cellular metabolism is disturbed (Talukdar 2013; Saed-Moucheshi et al. 2014a; Hossain et al. 2015). The equilibrium between the rate of ROS generation and their quenching decides the successful survival of an organism. Quenching of ROS is performed by a pervasive antioxidant system having several enzymes such as superoxide dismutase (SOD) and guaiacol peroxidase (GPX), catalase (CAT), ascorbate peroxidase (APX), glutathione reductase (GR), and non-enzymes such as ascorbate (AsA), glutathione (GSH) and proline, and thus the redox status of the cells is retained (Shakeri et al. 2019; Singh et al. 2020).

Studies have shown that PO_4^{3-} prevents As uptake and reduces its translocation in wheat plants. Inorganic phosphate upregulated arsenate reductase in wheat (*Triticum durum* L.) (Pigna et al. 2009). This is an important mechanism in As reduction and its consequent sequestration in vacuoles in the form of an As (III)-PC complex.

In India, many rice-producing regions fall under severely As-polluted areas. Therefore, an approach must be developed to reduce As toxicity in rice plants. Furthermore, very few reports are available about the effects of PO_4^{3-} on As-stressed rice seedlings. Therefore, it becomes plausible to assess that if exogenous PO_4^{3-} could reduce As uptake in rice plants via competitive interaction. Simultaneously, amelioration by PO_4^{3-} in As-stressed rice plants via changes in photosynthetic pigment contents and biochemical and antioxidant enzyme parameters would be other dimensions to know the mechanism of As toxicity. Keeping above facts into consideration, rice plant was taken as a plant material.

Material and methods

Experimental conditions

Rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) seeds cv. PAN 814-Swadesh obtained from Pan Seeds Pvt. Ltd., Suite No. 15, 2nd Floor, 2, N. C. Dutta Sarani, Kolkata, India were screened in hydroponics. Seeds were subjected to HgCl_2 (0.1%, w/v) for surface sterilization and washed thoroughly for 30 s and soaked in deionized water for 24 h. These seeds were now transferred to culture room keeping them in Petri plates for 3–4 days at 25 ± 2 °C in dark to allow their proper germination. Then,

uniform germinated seedlings were selected and transferred to plastic tray having fixed PVC cups (6.25 cm diameter and 8.5 cm height, 5 seedlings per pot) and grown in modified 1/3 strength Hewitt nutrient medium (Hewitt 1966) under hydroponic conditions for 7 days. They were further exposed to 50 μM As (V) (henceforth abbreviated as As^V) (source: sodium arsenate, Na₂HAsO₄) and three PO₄³⁻ concentrations (50, 100 and 150 μM (henceforth abbreviated as P₁, P₂ and P₃, respectively) (source: potassium dihydrogen phosphate, KH₂PO₄) for 10 days. P and As have similar hybridization state (*sp*³) in KH₂PO₄ and Na₂HAsO₄, respectively. Furthermore, the K content in KH₂PO₄ is lesser than K₂HPO₄, so KH₂PO₄ was preferred over K₂HPO₄. Furthermore, to investigate the PO₄³⁻-mediated biochemical changes, the experimental design consisted of a total of five samples i.e. control (no added As^V and PO₄³⁻) and treatments, As 50 μM , As 50 μM + PO₄³⁻ 50 μM , As 50 μM + PO₄³⁻ 100 μM and As 50 μM + PO₄³⁻ 150 μM abbreviated as As^V, As^V+P₁, As^V+P₂ and As^V+P₃, respectively. The arsenate concentration studied is equivalent to soil conditions and is environmentally relevant (please see review by Singh et al. 2015). KCl was added to the nutrient medium of control to compensate the reduction in K concentrations. They were arranged in a randomized block designed with three replicates. Now the plastic tray was placed inside the growth chamber (CDR Model GRW-300 DGe, Athens) under photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) of 350 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ with 16:8 h day-night regime and 60% relative humidity maintained by humidifier at 25 \pm 2 °C for a period until the secondary leaves emerged. During growth, seedlings were sprayed with water whenever required. All the nutrient solutions were changed twice per week (but not either As or PO₄³⁻), and the pH was adjusted to 5.5 using 0.1 KOH or HCl. After that, the uniform sized rice seedlings having secondary leaves were harvested, washed with deionized water, and used for the study of various biochemical and enzymatic parameters. All the physiological and biochemical experiments were done on the secondary leaves.

Measurement of morphological characters

Untreated and treated seedlings were uprooted and washed with distilled water and water was removed by smooth blotting. A meter scale was used to measure root and shoot lengths. Digital electronic balance (Model CA 223, Contech, India) was used to measure fresh mass of the seedling samples. For this, 17-day-old rice seedlings were used.

Estimation of chlorophylls and carotenoid contents

For the estimation of chlorophyll (Chl), 20 mg fresh leaves from each seedling sample was crushed in acetone having 80% (V/V) concentration. They were centrifuged at 10,000g

for 10 min. Optical density of the supernatant was recorded at 663, 645, 510 and 480 nm. Lichtenthaler (1987) formula was used to calculate Chl *a*, *b* and carotenoid (Car) contents.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Chl } a \text{ } (\mu\text{g/ml}) &= 12.25 (A_{663.2}) - 2.79 (A_{646.5}) \\ \text{Chl } b \text{ } (\mu\text{g/ml}) &= 21.50 (A_{646.5}) - 5.10 (A_{663.2}) \\ \text{Car } (\mu\text{g/ml}) &= [(1000 A_{470} - 1.82 (\text{Chl } a) - 85.02 (\text{Chl } b))] / 198 \end{aligned}$$

Determination of protein content

Protein content was determined according to the method of Bradford (1976) where Coomassie Blue G250 is used in the blue ionic form. The O.D. was read at 595 nm and bovine serum albumin was used to prepare the standard curve.

Determination of whole-cell O₂ evolution

Whole-cell O₂ evolution was measured in terms of oxygen evolution from the leaf discs in the presence of light using a Clark-type oxygen electrode (Digital Oxygen System, Model-10, Rank Brothers, UK) and was expressed as $\mu\text{mol O}_2 \text{ evolved g}^{-1} \text{ FW h}^{-1}$.

Measurement of hydrogen peroxide and lipid peroxidation

Measurement of H₂O₂ was done by the method of Velikova et al. (2000) while lipid peroxidation (in terms of malondialdehyde, MDA content) was determined by the method of Heath and Packer (1968).

Histochemical staining of ROS and indices of damage

Histochemical staining of O₂^{•-} was performed by the method of Castro-Mercado et al. (2009). Similarly, histochemical staining of H₂O₂ in the leaves of treated and untreated seedlings was performed by the method of Thordal-Christensen et al. (1997). For more details, our group's previously published paper Mishra et al. (2016) can be consulted.

Determination of antioxidant enzymes

For the measurement of antioxidant enzyme activities, shoots and roots were homogenized in 3 ml of 100 mM potassium phosphate buffer (pH 7.5) containing 1 Mm EDTA and 1% (W/V) polyvinylpyrrolidone in a pre-chilled mortar and pestle and then centrifuged at 12000g for 15 min at 4 °C. Superoxide dismutase (SOD) activity was determined spectrophotometrically according to the method of Beyer and Fridovich (1987) at 560 nm and 1 unit (U) of SOD activity is defined as the quantity of protein required to cause 50% inhibition in reduction of NBT and shown as U mg⁻¹ protein. Guaiacol

peroxidase (GPX; EC 1.11.1.7) activity was determined according to the method of Kato and Shimizu (1987) at 470 nm and shown as $\mu\text{mole of guaiacol oxidized min}^{-1} \text{mg}^{-1} \text{protein}$. Catalase (CAT; EC 1.11.1.6) activity was determined by the method of Aebi (1974) and the absorbance was recorded at 240 nm. Enzyme activity was shown as $\mu\text{mole min}^{-1} \text{mg}^{-1} \text{protein}$.

The ascorbate peroxidase (APX) activity was ascertained according to the method of Nakano and Asada (1981). Monodehydroascorbate reductase (MDHAR) activity was determined by the method of Drzakiewicz et al. (2003) by monitoring NADPH oxidation at 340 nm ($\epsilon = 6.2 \text{ mM}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$) in a 3 ml of reaction mixture containing 0.1 mM NADPH, 2.5 mM ASC, 50 mM Na-phosphate buffer (pH 7.6) and 100 μg protein. The rate of enzyme activity was showed as $\mu\text{mole MDHA reduced min}^{-1} \text{mg}^{-1} \text{protein}$. DHAR (EC 1.8.5.1) activity was measured by the method of Tullio et al. (1998). The enzyme activity was calculated by using an extinction coefficient of $\epsilon = 14 \text{ mM}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ at 265 nm. The rate of enzyme activity was showed as $\mu\text{moles DHA reduced min}^{-1} \text{mg}^{-1} \text{protein}$.

Estimation of total ascorbate (AsA+DHA), reduced ascorbate (AsA) and dehydroascorbate (DHA) contents

Reduced ascorbate (AsA), dehydroascorbate (DHA) and total ascorbate (AsA+DHA) contents were determined by the method of Gossett et al. (1994).

Estimation of total glutathione (GSH+GGSG), reduced glutathione (GSH) and oxidized glutathione (GSSG) contents

Rice leaves (500 mg) were homogenized in 3 ml ice-cold 5% *m*-phosphoric acid containing 1 mM EDTA using a mortar and pestle. The homogenates were centrifuged at 11500g for 15 min at 4 °C and the collected supernatants were used according to the method of Brehe and Burch (1976) with some modifications.

For the details of methodologies pertinent to the estimation of H_2O_2 , lipid peroxidation, ascorbate peroxidase, total, reduced and oxidized ascorbate, and total, reduced and oxidized glutathione contents, our group's previous published paper Srivastava et al. (2012) can be consulted.

Statistical analysis

The results shown are means \pm standard error of three independent experiments with three replicates in each experiment. Two-way ANOVA was carried out to compare control and treatment's means by using Duncan's multiple range test (DMRT) at $P < 0.05$. For this, the SPSS-16 software was used.

Results

Growth

The toxic expression of 50 $\mu\text{M As (V)}$ on the growth of plants resulted in significant reduction in the fresh mass (31%), root length (30%) and shoot length (19%) as compared to the control (Table 1; Fig. 1a). Conversely, simultaneous exposures of 50, 100 and 150 $\mu\text{M PO}_4^{3-}$ (P_1 , P_2 and P_3) along with 50 $\mu\text{M As}^{\text{V}}$ significantly enhanced ($P < 0.05$) the fresh mass by 5, 14 and 9%, length of the roots by 8, 14 and 9%, and that of shoots by 7, 12 and 9%, respectively as compared to the seedlings grown under As^{V} 50 μM alone. Protein content also showed the similar trend, which was 16% decline after As^{V} treatment and recovered by the percentages of 7, 12 and 9% after the supplementation of P_1 , P_2 and P_3 doses PO_4^{3-} . Thus, the decline in protein content was the least decline among the four parameters of growth.

Photosynthetic pigments

The 50 $\mu\text{M As}^{\text{V}}$ -treated seedlings showed significant reduction of 27 and 26 % in Chl *a* and *b*, respectively while Car contents attained an increase of 26% as compared to control (Table 2). Moreover, under the combined treatments of As^{V} + P_2 , seedlings showed the maximum enhancement of 25% in the level of Chl *a* while 46 % in the level of Chl *b*. However, Car contents showed a maximum enhancement of 17% after the As^{V} + P_2 treatment as compared to As^{V} alone treatment.

Whole-cell O_2 evolution

Results pertaining to the whole-cell O_2 evolution have been presented in Table 1. Rice seedlings showed a decline of 32% in photosynthesis when treated with As, while after supplementation with P_1 , P_2 and P_3 doses, the recoveries in photosynthesis were 15, 26 and 27%, respectively in the test rice seedlings.

H_2O_2 and MDA content

In the present study, the level of H_2O_2 and MDA content increased significantly i.e. 32% and 33%, respectively in the seedlings receiving 50 $\mu\text{M As}^{\text{V}}$ as compared to those in control (Table 2). Conversely, only the simultaneous exposure of P_1 and P_3 along with 50 $\mu\text{M As}^{\text{V}}$ to rice seedlings, H_2O_2 , was decreased by a significant percentage of 10 and 13% while MDA content was decreased by 12 and 14% in comparison to the seedlings exposed with 50 $\mu\text{M As}^{\text{V}}$ only.

Table 1 Effect of As^V alone and in combination with three different doses of PO₄³⁻ on fresh mass, root and shoot lengths, protein and whole-cell O₂ evolution in rice seedlings. All the values are means ± standard error of three independent experiments. Values with different letter(s)

Treatments	Fresh mass (g)	Root length (cm)	Shoot length (cm)	Protein (mg g ⁻¹ FM)	Whole-cell O ₂ evolution μmol O ₂ g ⁻¹ FW h ⁻¹
Control	3.85 ± 0.11 ^d	8.10 ± 0.23 ^c	18.33 ± 0.52 ^c	4.68 ± 0.13 ^d	51.67 ± 1.49 ^c
As ^V	2.65 ± 0.07 ^a	5.66 ± 0.16 ^a	14.76 ± 0.41 ^a	3.92 ± 0.11 ^b	35.33 ± 1.02 ^a
As ^V +P ₁	2.85 ± 0.08 ^{ab}	6.27 ± 0.18 ^b	15.96 ± 0.46 ^{ab}	4.24 ± 0.12 ^{bc}	43.00 ± 1.24 ^b
As ^V +P ₂	3.20 ± 0.09 ^c	6.83 ± 0.19 ^b	16.96 ± 0.48 ^{bc}	4.50 ± 0.12 ^{cd}	48.78 ± 1.41 ^c
As ^V +P ₃	3.00 ± 0.08 ^{bc}	6.40 ± 0.18 ^b	16.33 ± 0.42 ^b	3.34 ± 0.12 ^a	49.24 ± 1.42 ^c

within the same column show significant differences at $P \leq 0.05$ level between treatments according to the Duncan's multiple range test (DMRT)

Histochemical staining of ROS and indices of damage

Results of ROS were verified by the histochemical staining of O₂^{•-} and H₂O₂ in the leaves of the rice seedlings. A dense blue formazan formed due to the reduction of NBT by O₂^{•-} and a significant accumulation of H₂O₂-mediated brown spot appeared and spread throughout the leaf after 50 μM As^V exposure to the test seedlings. Applying PO₄³⁻ to the As^V-treated seedlings considerably reduced the spots of O₂^{•-} and H₂O₂ in comparison to As^V alone treated seedlings and maximum reduction was observed in 50 μM As^V+P₃(Fig. 1b).

Response of SOD, GPX and CAT in rice seedlings

The rice seedlings revealed boosts in responses for SOD, GPX and CAT when exposed to 50 μM As^V(Fig. 2). The SOD, GPX and CAT activities increased significantly by 33, 43, and 24%, respectively in 50 μM As^V-treated seedlings as compared to the control. The activities of SOD, GPX and CAT were decreased by 10% each by As^V+P₁ treatment in comparison to those of only As-treated values. Moreover, in As^V+P₂-treated rice seedlings, the SOD, GPX and CAT activities were 26, 28 and 18% lesser than those of the singly As-treated seedlings. Similarly, in As^V+P₃-treated rice seedlings, the SOD, GPX and CAT activities were 14, 15 and 5% lesser than those of the singly As-treated seedlings.

Responses of APX, GR, DHAR and MDHAR in rice seedlings

Pentavalent arsenic at its 50 μM concentration increased the activity of APX, GR, DHAR and MDHAR by 27, 28, 19 and 21%, respectively when they were compared with the control seedlings (Fig. 3). The activity of APX was calculated 7% lesser in As^V+P₁-treated plants; however, 3% and 12% enhancements were recorded in its activity after the exposures of P₂ and P₃ simultaneously with As^V in comparison to those of As^V alone treated seedlings. In the case of DHAR and

MDHAR, As^V+P₂ brought about 9 and 15% decline in their activities in comparison to those of As alone treated seedlings. In the case of GR, As^V+P₁ and As^V+P₂ had the similar normalizing effect as on the activities of DHAR and MDHAR, whereas As^V+P₃ had caused 18% decline in GR, and 7 and 9% decline in DHAR and MDHAR in comparison to those of As^V alone treated seedlings.

Responses of AsA and GSH

The 50 μM As^V alone increased the amount of AsA+DHA and DHA by 84% and 16%, respectively. However, under the combined treatment, AsA+DHA content was declined by 4% in As^V+P₂ and by 24% in As^V+P₃-treated seedlings as compared to those of As^V alone treated seedlings. Moreover, the values of AsA/DHA were substantially declined by As^V alone, respectively; however, a gradual increase was seen in the ratio of AsA/DHA as the amount of PO₄³⁻ was increased in successive treatments (Table 3). The 50 μM As^V alone treated seedlings caused 8% decline in GSH+GSSG in comparison to that of the control seedlings. Similar to AsA/DHA ratio, the values of GSH/GSSG were substantially declined by As^V alone, respectively; furthermore, a gradual increase was seen in the ratio of GSH/GSSG as the amount of PO₄³⁻ was increased in successive treatments.

Discussion

In the present study, arsenic-exposed rice seedlings showed a significant ($p < 0.05$) decline in fresh weight, root length and shoot length, which is in conformity with few previous studies (Shri et al. 2009; Sinha et al. 2010). In our experiments too, As^V toxicity was lessened in rice seedlings under the combined exposure of As^V and PO₄³⁻ in the terms of fresh mass of root and shoot, pigment contents, indices of oxidative stress, antioxidants and metabolites (Tables 1, 2 and 3, Figs. 1, 2 and 3) and provided better compatibility to tolerate As^V

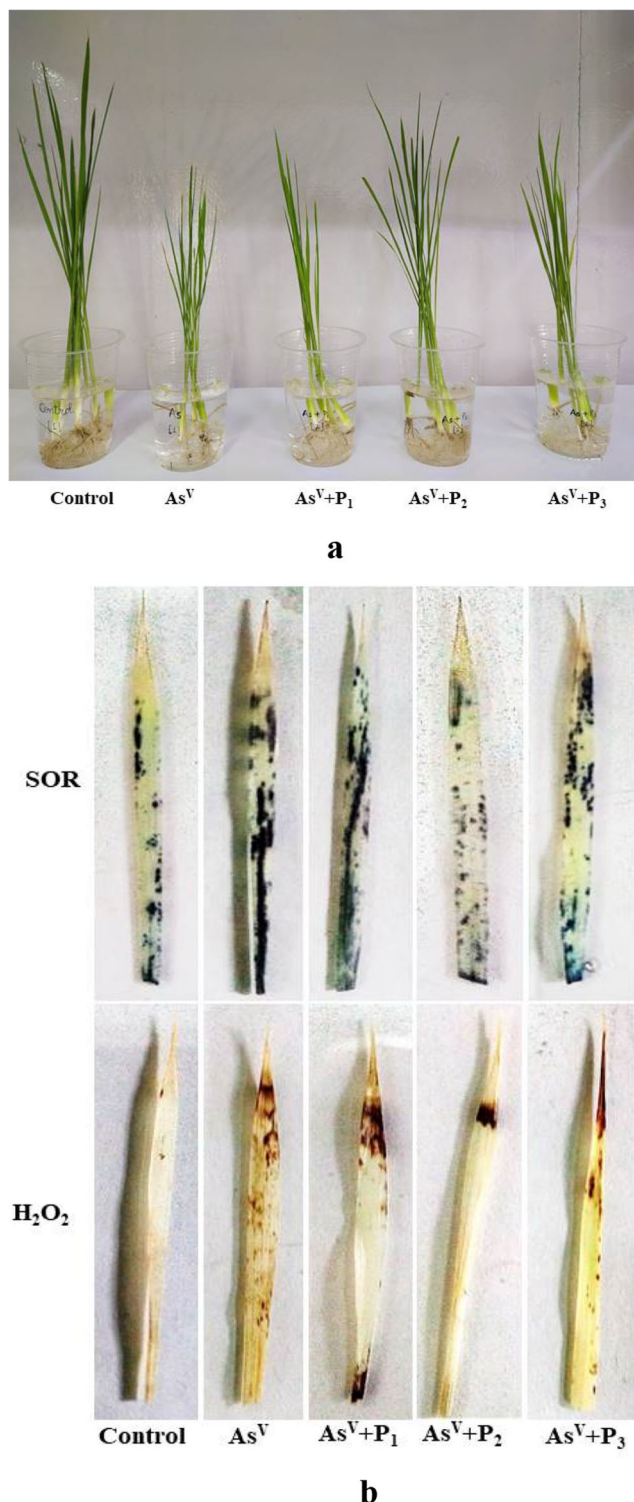


Fig. 1 Photograph of 17-day-old experimental set-up of rice seedlings treated with As^V alone and in combination with three different doses of PO_4^{3-} (a), histochemical staining of $O_2^{\cdot -}$ and H_2O_2 in the leaves of treated and untreated seedlings (b)

toxicity (Table 4). Identical physical and chemical properties endow As^V the ability to compete with PO_4^{3-} (i.e., similar electronic configuration, valence shells and atomic radii) and

whenever the concentration of As^V increases than a threshold limit, it overpowers PO_4^{3-} (Zhao et al. 2010; Saifullah et al. 2018). Another reason is being the competitive inhibition in the uptake of PO_4^{3-} by As^V across the same kind of transporter *OsPT1* and *OsPT13* (Muehe et al. 2014). Consequently, the absorption of PO_4^{3-} through tissues and membranes of different organelles would have been depressed by As^V . PO_4^{3-} has certain role in cellular metabolism, comprising methylation, reduction uptake and conjugation with reduced glutathione (GSH). The observed recovery with 100 μM PO_4^{3-} (P_2) in growth parameters is a noteworthy finding, which substantiates the above notion.

Another dimension of As^V toxicity is decline in Chl *a*, *b* and Car contents (Table 2). This is in agreement with some of the earlier studies on rice seedlings (Shri et al. 2009; Sinha et al. 2010; Kumar et al. 2013; Muehe et al. 2014), duckweed (Duman et al. 2010) and black gram (Srivastava and Sharma 2013). Stoeva and Bineva (2003) opined that the decline in Chl *a*, *b* and Car under the As exposure is due to the disruption of the chloroplast structure, while according to Jain and Gadre (2004), this decrease is due to alteration in the action of sulfhydryl requiring enzymes, viz. ALA (δ -aminolevulinic synthase) and ALA dehydratase (important for tetrapyrrole biosynthesis which is required for chlorophyll formation) and RuBisCO. Furthermore, recovery in Chl *a* and *b* by PO_4^{3-} in As^V -intoxicated rice seedlings is in harmony with the findings of Naeem and Khan (2009) in coffee senna and Shri et al. (2009) and Li-gang et al. (2012) on rice seedlings. Improvement in Chl *a* and *b* by the addition of PO_4^{3-} is synchronized by enhancement in plant growth and decline in the levels of TBARS. Therefore, our results emphasize the crucial role of PO_4^{3-} . The significant fall in O_2 evolution by As^V could be due to the change in the configuration of chlorophyll molecules by the replacement of the central atom (Mg) of chlorophyll by As (Yadav et al. 2014). Similar results were also observed by Sanglard et al. (2016) who also reported a decreased net photosynthetic rate in rice seedlings under As stress. In another findings, Ahsan et al. (2010) reported a significant fall in RuBisCO and chloroplast 29-kDa ribonucleoproteins in rice plants after As treatment. Since the RuBisCO and chloroplast 29-kDa ribonucleoproteins constitute a major portion, the decline in their level significantly suppressed the photosynthetic activity. Recovery in photosynthesis might be due to the improvement in carbon sink and higher efficiency in the use of nutrients in photosynthetic events. Phosphate molecules must have stimulated Calvin cycle; thereby, the rate of CO_2 fixation in the leaves has increased. Apart from this, phosphate supplementation might have resulted into higher gas exchange and photochemical and non-photochemical efficiencies, improving the photosynthetic capacity of the leaves, which is due to the improved electron transport, thereby improving the efficiency of PS II photochemistry.

Table 2 Effect of As^V alone and in combination with three different doses of PO₄³⁻ on Chl *a*, Chl *b* and Car, and oxidative stress indices, H₂O₂ and MDA in rice seedlings. All the values are means ± standard error of three independent experiments. Values with different letter(s) within the same column show significant differences at *P* ≤ 0.05 level between treatments according to the Duncan's multiple range test (DMRT)

Treatments	Photosynthetic pigment contents (mg g ⁻¹ FM)			Oxidative stress indices (nmol g ⁻¹ FM)	
	Chl <i>a</i>	Chl <i>b</i>	Car	H ₂ O ₂	MDA
Control	2.18 ± 0.06 ^b	0.74 ± 0.02 ^b	0.53 ± 0.01 ^a	272.06 ± 7.85 ^a	5.09 ± 0.14 ^a
As^V	1.60 ± 0.04 ^a	0.55 ± 0.01 ^a	0.67 ± 0.01 ^c	359.29 ± 10.37 ^c	6.77 ± 0.19 ^c
As^V+P₁	1.77 ± 0.05 ^a	0.82 ± 0.02 ^c	0.48 ± 0.01 ^{bc}	332.45 ± 9.59 ^{bc}	6.15 ± 0.17 ^b
As^V+P₂	2.15 ± 0.06 ^b	0.89 ± 0.02 ^d	0.43 ± 0.01 ^{ab}	346.48 ± 10.01 ^{bc}	6.52 ± 0.18 ^{bc}
As^V+P₃	2.01 ± 0.05 ^b	0.79 ± 0.02 ^{bc}	0.49 ± 0.01 ^b	323.91 ± 9.35 ^b	6.07 ± 0.17 ^b

It is a well-accepted fact that the oxidative stress causes lipid peroxidation as well as damage to various biomolecules (Patra et al. 2004; Saed-Moucheshi et al. 2014a). The extent of cell membrane disintegration (in terms of lipid peroxidation) is enhanced when plants are exposed to different biotic and abiotic stresses, including As (Meharg and Hartley-Whitaker 2002). In current study too, As^V-exposed seedlings showed increased level of MDA content. This is the proof that scavenging mechanism of plant is not properly functioning and can easily be related to the excess formation of free radical

i.e. H₂O₂. It may start uncontrolled oxidation and free radical chain reactions which ultimately result in more stressful environment to the plant. Results of this study are in conformity with earlier studies on mung bean and *Pteris* sp. (Srivastava et al. 2005).

However, whenever calibrated amount of PO₄³⁻ was given to As^V-stressed rice seedlings, the H₂O₂ and hence MDA content were significantly decreased. It clearly points out that PO₄³⁻ is able to lower the As^V-induced toxicity. This could be interrelated to the significant increment in the activity of GPX,

Fig. 2 Changes in the level of SOD (A), CAT (B) and GPX (C) in response to As^V alone and in combination with three different doses of PO₄³⁻ in the rice seedlings. All the values are means ± standard error of three independent experiments. Bars having the same letter(s) are not significantly different according to DMRT at *P* ≤ 0.05 significance level

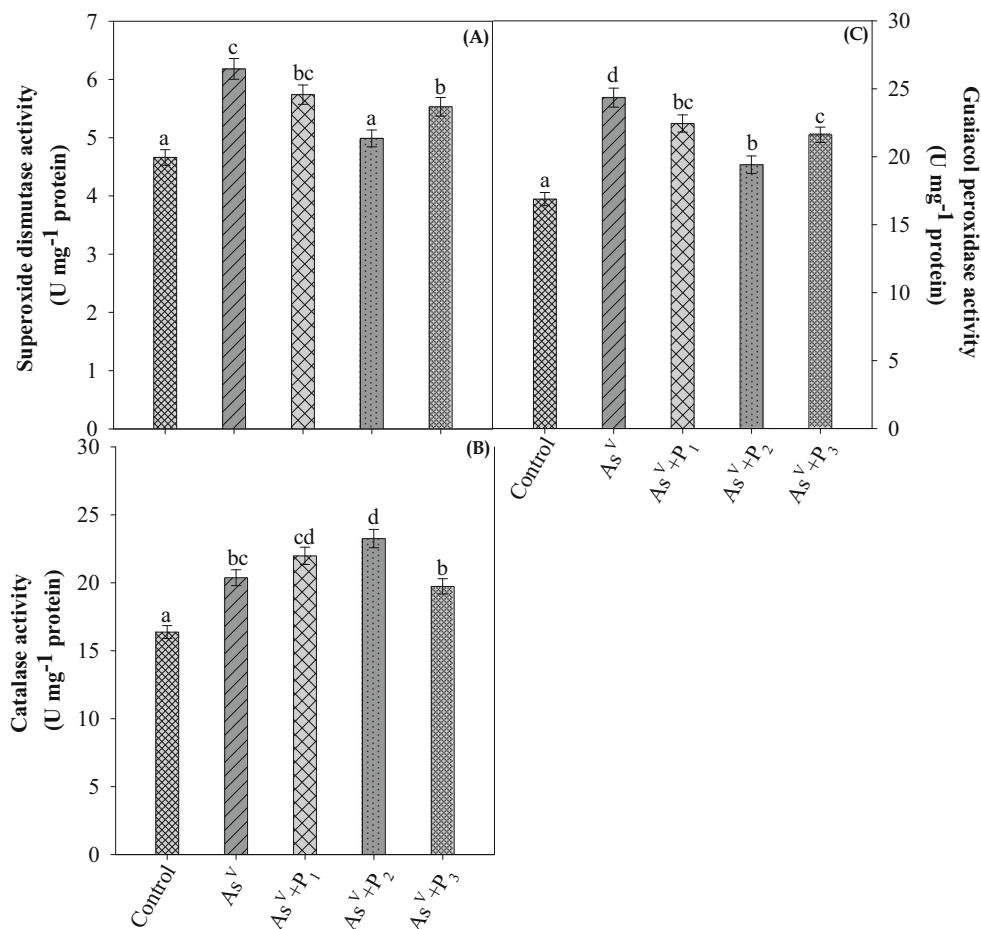
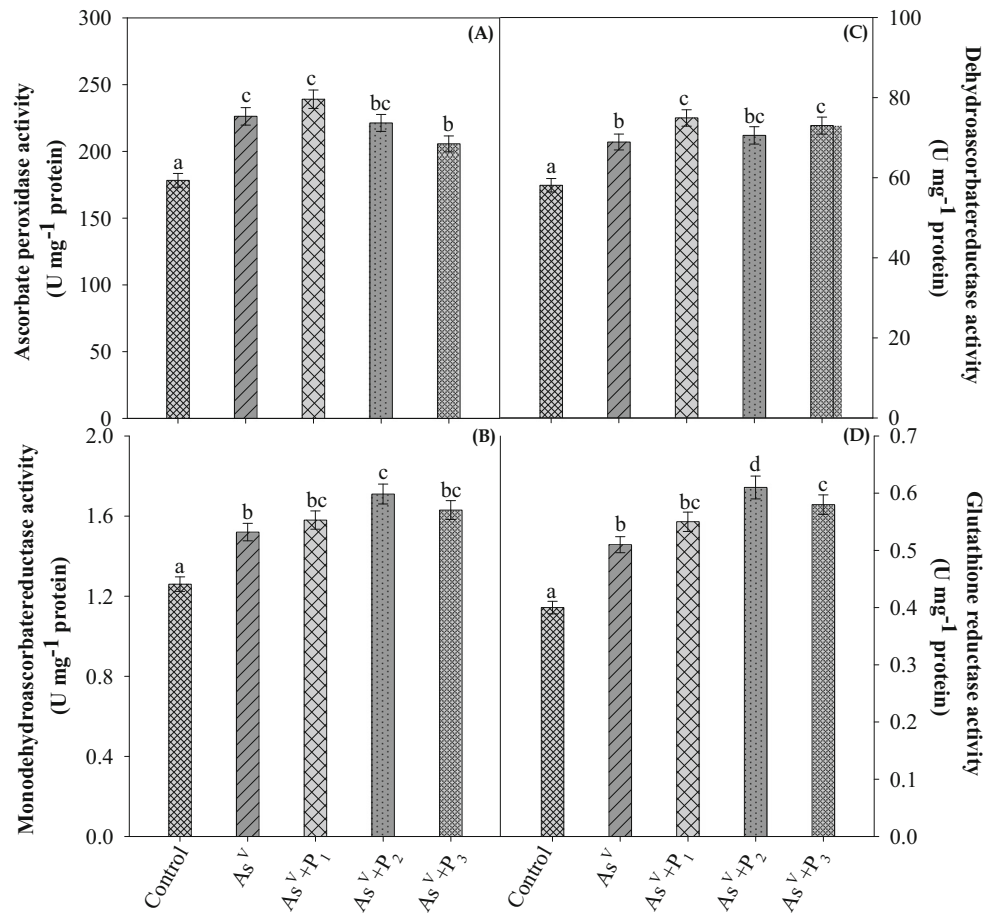


Fig. 3 Changes in the level of APX (A), MDHAR (B), DHAR (C) and GR (D) in response to As^V alone and in combination with three different doses of PO₄³⁻ in the rice seedlings. All the values are means ± standard error of three independent experiments. Bars having the same letter(s) are not significantly different according to DMRT at P ≤ 0.05 significance level



the enzyme responsible for the degradation of H₂O₂. GPX protects plants against oxidative stress and acts as a substrate in H₂O₂ scavenging and lipid hydroperoxides (Arthur 2000). On the other hand, there are indications that ROS might have directly been scavenged by PO₄³⁻ and changed to lesser toxic products and thus the oxidative damage was effectively prevented. These results are synchronous with the findings of Choudhury et al. (2011), Kumar et al. (2013) and Mi et al. (2014) on rice seedlings. These results suggest that As^V toxicity can be ameliorated, in general in plants and specifically in rice by the supplementation of PO₄³⁻.

Along with GPX, SOD is the major antioxidant enzyme, which scavenges ROS and plays a pivotal role in defense against oxidative stress (Ighodaro and Akinloye 2017). In the present study, the synchronized action of SOD and GPX constituted the frontline enzymatic picket by converting O₂⁻ and H₂O₂ consecutively into H₂O in As-stressed rice seedlings (Table 2; Fig. 1b). Our results are in agreement with those of Shri et al. (2009) where As-stressed rice seedlings showed increase in the activities of SOD and GPX. These results were further confirmed by in vivo staining of O₂⁻ and H₂O₂(Fig. 1b).

Table 3 Effect of As^V alone and in combination with three different doses of PO₄³⁻ on AsA+DHA, AsA/DHA, GSH+GSSG and GSH/GSSG in rice seedlings. All the values are means ± standard error of three independent experiments. Values with different letter(s) within the same column show significant differences at P ≤ 0.05 level between treatments according to the Duncan’s multiple range test (DMRT)

Treatments	Contents (μmol g ⁻¹ FW) AsA+DHA	GSH+GSSG	Ratio AsA/ DHA	GSH/ GSSG
Control	11.26 ± 0.15 ^d	8.25 ± 0.23 ^b	3.16	5.26
As^V	9.93 ± 0.13 ^c	7.56 ± 0.23 ^{ab}	0.90	3.72
As^V+P₁	6.56 ± 0.09 ^a	7.35 ± 0.21 ^a	1.35	4.34
As^V+P₂	8.34 ± 0.11 ^b	6.77 ± 0.22 ^{ab}	2.51	4.62
As^V+P₃	6.72 ± 0.09 ^a	5.50 ± 0.21 ^{ab}	1.67	4.78

Table 4 Pearson correlation coefficient (r^2) values showing effect of As^V and along with three different doses of PO₄³⁻ on growth and some other parameters. Positive correlation (+) shows that the values for a selected parameter increase while negative correlation (–) shows that the values decrease

Treatments	Growth	H ₂ O ₂	APX	GR	DHAR	MDHAR	AsA	GSH
As ^V	$r^2 = -0.982^{***}$ $P < 0.001$	$r^2 = 0.967^{***}$ $P < 0.002$	$r^2 = 0.956^{***}$ $P < 0.003$	$r^2 = 0.958^{***}$ $P < 0.003$	$r^2 = 0.921^{***}$ $P < 0.009$	$r^2 = 0.933^{***}$ $P < 0.007$	$r^2 = -0.922^{***}$ $P < 0.009$	$r^2 = -0.774^{ns}$ $P < 0.071$
As ^V +P ₁	$r^2 = -0.761^{**}$ $P < 0.017$	$r^2 = 0.646^{ns}$ $P < 0.060$	$r^2 = 0.912^{***}$ $P < 0.001$	$r^2 = 0.933^{***}$ $P < 0.001$	$r^2 = 0.850^{***}$ $P < 0.004$	$r^2 = 0.884^{***}$ $P < 0.002$	$r^2 = -0.811^*$ $P < 0.008$	$r^2 = -0.783^{**}$ $P < 0.013$
As ^V +P ₂	$r^2 = -0.527^{ns}$ $P < 0.145$	$r^2 = 0.758^{**}$ $P < 0.018$	$r^2 = 0.773^{**}$ $P < 0.015$	$r^2 = 0.979^{***}$ $P < 0.001$	$r^2 = 0.924^{***}$ $P < 0.001$	$r^2 = 0.959^{***}$ $P < 0.001$	$r^2 = -0.894^*$ $P < 0.001$	$r^2 = -0.917^*$ $P < 0.001$
As ^V +P ₃	$r^2 = -0.673^*$ $P < 0.047$	$r^2 = 0.565^{ns}$ $P < 0.113$	$r^2 = 0.535^{ns}$ $P < 0.138$	$r^2 = 0.966^{***}$ $P < 0.001$	$r^2 = 0.909^{***}$ $P < 0.001$	$r^2 = 0.926^{***}$ $P < 0.001$	$r^2 = -0.977^{***}$ $P < 0.001$	$r^2 = -0.940^{***}$ $P < 0.002$

* Significant at $p < 0.05$ ** Significant at $p < 0.01$ *** Significant at $p < 0.001$

CAT is a heme-containing tetrameric protein and possibly one of the best known enzymes that splits H₂O₂ into H₂O and O₂. In the present study, the level of H₂O₂ was increased in As-treated seedlings which could be correlated with the lesser activity of CAT; therefore, the toxic symptoms appeared in the seedlings. On the other hand, the CAT activity became higher when PO₄³⁻ was additionally supplemented to the seedlings. Differential behavior of various antioxidants against H₂O₂ relies on the fact that different antioxidant enzymes reside in different cell organelles. The maximum CAT activity was recorded in the case of As^V+P₂-treated rice seedlings which proves the significant amelioration of the As-induced oxidative stress CAT by the P₂ concentration of PO₄³⁻ (Choudhury et al. 2011).

The coordinated functions of APX, MDHAR, DHAR and GR together with AsA and GSH in the AsA-GSH cycle split H₂O₂ into H₂O and O₂ and further recycle AsA and GSH (Singh et al. 2020). The increment in APX activity over the control indicates that the plant was responding against As^V-induced toxicity. Further rise in APX activity after P₂ addition was seen which is corroborated by the increase in biomass and decrease in MDA content. On the other hand, the APX activity was lesser in comparison to those seedlings which were additionally supplemented with PO₄³⁻ along with As^V, perhaps due to higher accumulation of As^V in the root and shoot tissues. These results are corroborated by the increase in MDA content and decrease in plant growth.

AsA is recycled by MDHAR and DHAR, which is necessary to maintain the supply of AsA and thereby the ROS scavenging process (Hasanuzzaman et al. 2017). In our experiments, the activities of GR, MDHAR and DHAR were also enhanced during the combined exposure of As^V+PO₄³⁻ as compared to those of singly As^V-treated seedlings. This observation might be due to significant decrease in the GSH content in rice seedlings as it was converted to phytochelatin. Greater demand of GSH in response to arsenic-induced

oxidative stress might be fulfilled through the increased GR, MDHAR and DHAR activity. This result suggests that GR, MDHAR and DHAR play a central role in AsA-GSH cycle in the defense against As toxicity when supplemented with PO₄³⁻. In this cycle, APX decomposes H₂O₂ via the oxidation of AsA, and then AsA is recycled from DHA by the consumption of GSH as an electron donor, followed by regeneration of GSH by GR activity. Similar results have been reported in rice and *Pteris* spp. (Abedin and Meharg 2002; Srivastava et al. 2005). Thus, the activities of AsA-GSH cycle enzymes were reduced by As^V-led oxidative stress on one hand and an enhancement in SOD activity on the other. This may result in uncontrolled cellular H₂O₂ production, whereas higher activities of MDHAR, DHAR and GR in rice seedlings under the combined treatment of As^V+PO₄³⁻ suggest that ROS could be quenched through the SOD–CAT pathway or/and by the AsA-GSH cycle. This idea of a “two-way defense system” was propounded by Mittler (2002) on the basis of differential affinities of APX and CAT for H₂O₂ and coordinated upregulation of H₂O₂-scavenging enzymes in cell which confers tolerance of rice seedlings against As stress, at least partially.

Oxidative stress caused by As^V in rice seedlings and protection by PO₄³⁻ may further be associated with the redox status of the key non-enzymatic antioxidants—ascorbate and glutathione, which are the two major non-enzymatic antioxidants that play significant roles in the quenching of ROS to maintain a redox potential inside the cell (Smith et al. 1988; Sharma et al. 2012). In the AsA-GSH cycle, AsA detoxifies ROS and makes the basis of its antioxidant action (Hasanuzzaman et al. 2017). In this study, the AsA+DHA content and the AsA/DHA ratio decreased (Table 3) with 50 μM As^V concentration. AsA/DHA ratio indicates the redox status of a cell and its high ratio is supposed to be crucial for the successful survival of the organism under the stress. Thus, it is used as an important indicator for assessing the degree of

oxidative stress. Moreover, these results were supported by Jung et al. (2019) who confirmed that the reduced ascorbate scavenges ROS directly, or indirectly by the means of APX. However, in our study, PO_4^{3-} supplementation resulted in a lower AsA+DHA content and a higher AsA/DHA ratio (Table 3) as compared to those of As^{V} treatments alone, and hence protected the rice seedlings against the oxidative damage. These results are in agreement with Kumar et al. (2013) who showed that PO_4^{3-} supplementation restored AsA content in plants with arsenic-induced damage.

Conclusion

The outcome of the present study indicates that the application of As (V) to rice seedlings interrupted the growth as well as the photosynthetic process by causing chlorophyll degradation. Yet, there is also an induced oxidative stress and deterioration of membranes through increased extent of lipid peroxidation, consequently inhibiting the growth of rice seedlings. Moreover, our study also provides strong evidence that PO_4^{3-} could successfully alleviate As (V)-induced growth inhibition, which may be attributed by (i) increased amount of photosynthetic pigments and (ii) reduced oxidative stress by redox homeostasis with the assistance of a compatible antioxidant system including AsA-GSH cycle enzymes. Alleviation of As (V) toxicity requires a coordinated action of physiological and biochemical processes. This study, therefore, prospers our understandings about the responses of rice seedlings against As (V) stress and other environmental stresses too. However, molecular studies using PO_4^{3-} mutants would be more promising to ascertain the exact role of PO_4^{3-} in modulating the crop responses against As stress.

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Author contribution Rohit Kumar Mishra designed the experiment, analyzed the data, interpreted the results and wrote the manuscript. Gitanjali Mishra sketched the graphical abstract and helped in manuscript preparation. Parul Parihar, Rachana Singh and Jitendra Kumar accomplished the experiment. Prabhat Kumar Srivastava and Sheo Mohan Prasad reviewed and improved the manuscript. The final version of the manuscript has been seen and agreed by all the authors.

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Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate Not applicable.

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