Hydrogen peroxide induces apoptotic-like cell death in *Microcystis aeruginosa* (Chroococcales, Cyanobacteria) in a dose-dependent manner

YI DING^{1,2}, NANQIN GAN¹, JIE LI³, BOJAN SEDMAK⁴ AND LIRONG SONG¹*

¹State Key Laboratory of Freshwater Ecology and Biotechnology, Institute of Hydrobiology, the Chinese Academy of Sciences, Wuhan 430072, China

²Graduate School of Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100049, China
³School of Biological Science and Technology, Central South University, Changsha 410083, China
⁴National Institute of Biology, Ljubljana, Slovenia

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We investigated the capability of Microcystis aeruginosa to cause apoptosis by pursuing morphological, molecular and physiological characteristics after exposure to H2O2. Microcystis proliferation was only weakly affected after exposure to 150 μM H₂O₂ but cell numbers decreased dramatically after exposures of 250 and 325 μM H₂O₂. Cells exposed to 250 and 325 μM H₂O₂ were examined using transmission electron microscopy, and they exhibited membrane deformation and partial disintegration of thylakoids. Correspondingly, fluorescence imaging of DNA by Hoechst 33342 staining revealed the condensation of nucleoid chromatin. Moreover, cellular injury was concomitant with dramatic decreases in photosynthetic efficiency (ratio of variable fluorescence to maximum fluorescence [Fv/Fm], maximum electron transport rate [ETRmax]) and elevated caspase-3-like activity after exposure of 250 and 325 μM H₂O₂. Terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase Deoxyuridine 5-triphosphate nick end labelling (TUNEL) positive staining appeared in cells exposed to 250 μM and 325 μM H₂O₂, and the percentage staining increased with increasing H₂O₂ concentration. These data suggested that M. aeruginosa exposed to H₂O₂ underwent an apoptotic event. Additionally, cells exposed to H₂O₂ had increased cytoplasmic vacuolation and nontypical DNA laddering. Increased caspase-3-like activity was not inhibited in the presence of the synthetic caspase inhibitor carbobenzoxy-valyl-alanyl-aspartyl-[O-methyl]-fluoromethylketone. Therefore, H₂O₂ induced apoptotic-like cell death in a dose-dependent manner. Taken together, our results provided a novel mechanism for explaining cyanobacterial bloom dynamics in response to environmental stress. The results also contributed to the understanding of the origin and evolution of programmed cell death.

KEY WORDS: Hydrogen peroxide, *Microcystis*, Apoptotic-like cell death, Hoechst 33342, Caspase-3-like activity, TUNEL

INTRODUCTION

Traditionally, phytoplankton were considered immortal unless eaten by predators or sank irreversibly (Kirchman 1999). There is recent evidence, for both marine and freshwater species, that phytoplankton can undergo programmed cell death (PCD) in response to environmental stress (Bidle & Falkowski 2004). PCD is an irreversible, genetically controlled form of cell suicide that is essential for the proper development, function and ultimate survival of multicellular organisms (Ameisen 2002). A well-known form of PCD is apoptosis, which is accompanied by plasma membrane blebbing, chromatin condensation, involvement of cysteine proteases (caspases) and fragmentation of DNA (Kerr et al. 1972). Under diverse environmental stresses, the filamentous marine cyanobacterium Trichodesmium sp. IMS101 initiates PCD with an increase in caspase activity (Berman-Frank et al. 2004). DNA fragmentation occurs in the unicellular Microcystis aeruginosa (Kützing) Kützing when it is placed in darkness or is exposed to elevated temperatures (Bouchard & Purdie 2011). Various types of PCD, with overlapping morphological and physiological

hallmarks, have been described in unicellular organisms (Madeo et al. 2002; Herker et al. 2004; Kroemer et al. 2009; Reape & McCabe 2010). Other cell death types termed 'paraptosis', 'aponecrosis' and 'autophagy', which are fundamentally different from apoptosis, have also been described (Jimenez et al. 2008, 2009). However, few studies have dealt with PCD in cyanobacteria. PCD may be ecologically relevant for unicellular algae because it may control massive cell lysis of phytoplankton in nature. Furthermore, PCD investigations can contribute to our understanding of the evolutionary origin of cell death processes. Among the toxic cyanobacteria, M. aeruginosa commonly occurs in highly eutrophic lakes, and it often dominates the phytoplankton in eutrophic lakes and ponds (Yamamoto & Nakahara 2009). Microcystis aeruginosa produces the hepatotoxin microcystin, which is a threat to human and environmental health (Babica et al. 2006). Recently, it has been reported that *M. aeruginosa* NIES 843 and PCC 7806 harbour genes for PCD that may be related to the rapid collapse of *Microcystis* blooms (Kaneko et al. 2007; Frangeul et al. 2008). Therefore, M. aeruginosa is an ideal organism for investigating cellular mechanisms under specific environmental conditions involved in PCD.

^{*} Corresponding author (lrsong@ihb.ac.cn).

PCD is induced by various stresses, such as viral infection, heat, ultraviolet (UV) irradiation, nutrient deprivation, salt stress, extreme temperature or oxidative stress (Bidle & Falkowski 2004; Bidle et al. 2007). Oxidative stress is among the most frequent causes of PCD induction. For example, UV-B radiation generates high amounts of reactive oxygen species (ROS) in phytoplankton (Chen et al. 2009). ROS are inevitably generated in processes such as respiration and photosynthesis (Apel & Hirt 2004) when the production of reactive oxidants exceeds the cellular antioxidants. Cyanobacteria are often exposed to changing conditions, including drastic fluctuations in light intensity and temperature, and therefore ROS are easily produced. Common ROS include singlet oxygen (1O2), superoxide radical (O₂⁻), hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) and hydroxyl radicals (OH). The production of H₂O₂ within the cells is a key element in both biotic and abiotic stresses and PCD (Tsanko & Jacques 2005). For example, the production of ROS in Microcystis aeruginosa is significantly increased under exogenous H₂O₂ conditions (Bouchard & Purdie 2011). On the other hand, H₂O₂ may act as an algicide because of its rapid decomposition into oxygen and water. Qian et al. (2010) reported that H₂O₂ inhibited algal growth by blocking transcription of photosynthesis-related genes or by destroying photosynthetic pigments. Ross et al. (2006) established that the addition of H₂O₂ elicited caspase activity in M. aeruginosa in the environment but they did not provide detailed descriptions of other biochemical and cellular parameters. Therefore, we asked the question: Does an apoptotic form of PCD exist in cyanobacteria and can H_2O_2 induce this type of PCD? We investigated whether M. aeruginosa is capable of executing apoptosis when exposed to H₂O₂ by studying the morphological, molecular and physiological features associated with this process.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Unicellular *Microcystis aeruginosa* strain FACHB-905 was cultured in BG-11 medium at 25°C under 20–25 µmol photons m $^{-2}$ s $^{-1}$ illumination (Li-Cor LI-185B, USA) with a 12:12 h light:dark cycle. Cultures were grown for 7 to 12 days after inoculation into 250 ml flasks. Cells were harvested by centrifugation and washed three times with sterilized distilled water; the pellets were inoculated into 50 ml flasks. The cell concentration was approximately 8.0 \times 10^6 cells ml $^{-1}$. The effects of $\rm H_2O_2$ were tested at concentrations 150, 200, 250 and 325 $\rm \mu M$.

Methylthiazolyldiphenyl-tetrazolium bromide (MTT; Sigma, USA) was prepared in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS; pH 6.8) at a concentration of 0.5 mg ml⁻¹ with 0.1 mol 1⁻¹ sodium succinate. The stock MTT solution was stored at 4°C. A 250 μ l sample was used for MTT staining. Samples were washed and suspended in 250 ml BG-11 medium before staining. After incubation, the dye was removed by centrifugation at 5,939 \times g for 3 min. The pellets were resuspended in 250 ml distilled water. The 250 ml samples were combined with 100 μ l MTT stock solution and incubated at 35 \pm 1°C for 1.5 h; 8 μ l of suspension was examined with a hemacytometer using light

microscopy (Olympus CX41, Japan). From each sample at least 300 cells were analyzed.

For transmission electron microscopy (TEM), cells were harvested 24 h after exposure to 250 and 325 μ M H₂O₂. Cells were washed three times with PBS, fixed with 2.5% glutaraldehyde and then placed in 1% OsO₄ for 2 h at room temperature. After graded ethanol dehydration, samples were embedded in Epoxy epon-812 and polymerized at 70°C for 8 h. Sections were cut, stained with uranyl acetate and lead citrate and examined with a Hitachi H-600 electron microscope.

For Hoechst staining, cells were harvested after 24 h exposure to 250 and 325 μ M H_2O_2 . Cells were washed three times with PBS and fixed by addition of formaldehyde (final concentration 4% vol/vol), and then drops of the cell suspension were placed on polylysine-coated slides for 90 min. Slides were washed in PBS to remove formaldehyde. To stain DNA with the fluorescent DNA binding probe, cells were incubated with Hoechst 33342 at $10 \, \mu g \, ml^{-1}$ for 1 h. Cells were photographed with a digital camera and a fluorescence microscope (Olympus BX51).

Chlorophyll fluorescence parameters were measured with a pulse-amplitude-modulated fluorescence monitoring system (PAM, Walz, Effeltrich, Germany). The values of Fv/Fm (ratio of variable fluorescence to maximum fluorescence; the maximum effective quantum yield of photosystem II) and ETRmax (the maximum electron transport rate) were recorded.

The CaspGlow Fluorescein Active Caspase-3 Staining Kit (BioVision, USA) was used to quantify caspase-3like activity in cells. The assay utilized the fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC)-labelled Benzyloxycarbonyl-Asp(OMe)-Glu(OMe)-Val-Asp(OMe)-fluoromethylketone, which was cell permeable and irreversibly bound to activated caspase-3 in apoptotic cells. The kit was used according to the manufacturer's instructions. After labelling, cells were washed twice in buffer to remove background fluorescence. For analysis with a fluorescence plate reader, each cell sample was resuspended in 100 µl wash buffer and then transferred into a well of a black microtiter plate. The fluorescence intensity was measured at 485 nm (excitation) and 535 nm (emission). We used nontreated cells that were exposed to FITC-DEVD-FMK as the control. The protein content was estimated by the Bradford Method (Bradford 1976). The caspase activity was expressed as the percentage enzyme activity compared to the control group.

DNA was extracted according to a previously described method (LoSchiavo *et al.* 2000), with the following modifications. Briefly, after exposure to $\rm H_2O_2$ for 24 or 48 h, the cells were collected, washed once with PBS and lysed in the buffer (10 mM Tris; 1 mM ethylenediamine-tetraacetic acid [EDTA]; 100 mM NaCl; 100 µg ml⁻¹ lysozyme, pH 9.0) at 37°C for 30 min. Thereafter, 20 mg ml⁻¹ proteinase K and 10% sodium dodecyl sulfate were added. After incubation at 55°C for 90 min, DNA was extracted with phenol-chloroform and centrifuged at $13,362 \times g$ for 8 min at room temperature. The upper aqueous phase was mixed with cold ethanol and 10 M ammonium acetate (1/10), precipitated at -20°C for at least for 1 h and centrifuged at $13,362 \times g$ for 20 min. The nucleic acid pellet was washed with 70% vol/vol ethanol, air

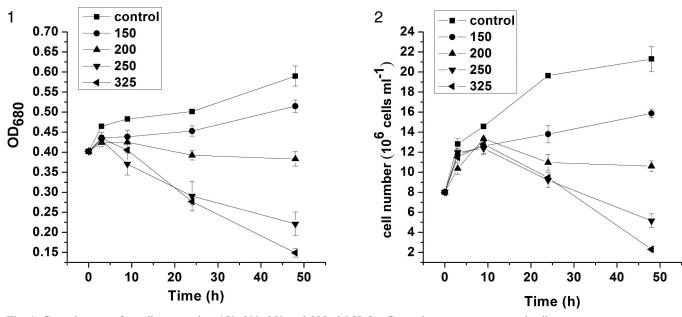


Fig. 1. Growth curves for cells exposed to 150, 200, 250 and 325 μM H₂O₂. Control represents untreated cells. Fig. 2. Changes in cell number for cells exposed to 150, 200, 250 and 325 μM H₂O₂. Control represents untreated cells.

dried, resuspended in Tris EDTA buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 1 mM EDTA) and incubated with RNase A (20 μg ml⁻¹) at 37°C for 30 min. DNA fragmentation and standard DNA markers were analyzed by electrophoresis using 1.6% agarose gel at 100 V for 55 min, and the bands were stained with ethidium bromide (0.5 mg l⁻¹) in preparation for UV light visualization using the BioSpectrum Imaging System (UVP, CA, USA).

Terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase labelling (TU-NEL) assays were carried out with the In Situ Cell Death Detection Kit, Fluorescein (Roche Diagnostics, Cat. No. 11 684 795 910, Mannheim, Germany). The samples were harvested after 24 h and 48 h exposure to H₂O₂. Cells were fixed at room temperature for 1.5 h with 2% paraformal-dehyde in PBS and then washed with PBS. Cells were permeabilised for 20 min at 4°C in solution containing 0.1% Triton X-100 and 0.1% sodium citrate. The labelling and

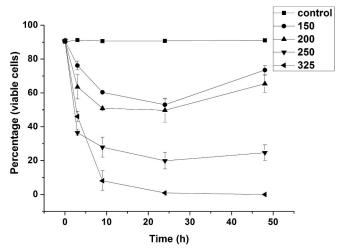


Fig. 3. Cell viability determined by MTT assay after exposure to 150, 200, 250 and 325 μ M H₂O₂. Control represents untreated cells.

signal conversions were carried out according to the manufacturer's instructions. Finally, samples were analyzed under a fluorescence microscope (Olympus BX51) using an excitation wavelength in the range of 450–500 nm, and results were processed using the Image-Pro Express 6.0 software program. Representative images were taken after analysis of at least 500 cells per sample.

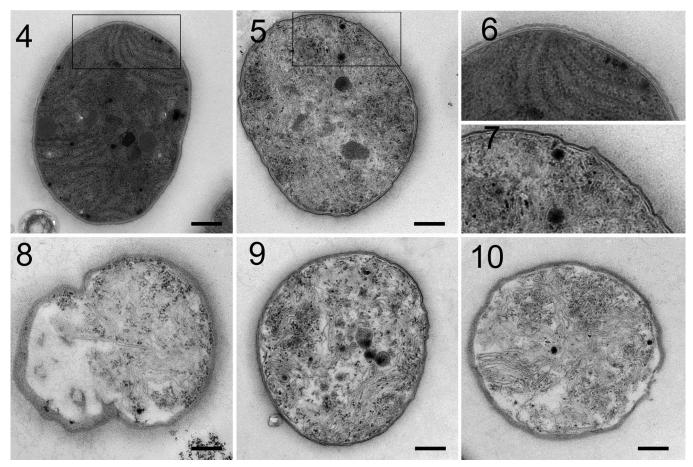
All experiments were performed in triplicate; data were presented as means \pm standard deviations (*s*) and analyzed using Microcal Origin Software (Version 8.0, Microcal Software Inc. Northampton, MA, USA).

RESULTS

The effects of H_2O_2 on the growth of *Microcystis aeruginosa* within a period of 48 h were shown in Figs 1, 2. Compared to the control, cells exposed to 150 μ M H_2O_2 were only weakly affected. However, the optical density₆₈₀ of the sample exposed to 325 μ M H_2O_2 decreased from 0.402 to 0.149 within 48 h, while the cell number decreased from 8×10^6 cells ml⁻¹ to 2.3×10^6 cells ml⁻¹.

As shown in Fig. 3, the exposure to H_2O_2 for 0, 3, 9, 24 and 48 h resulted in a dose-dependent decrease in viability compared with control cells. More than 60% of the cells were alive after 3 h of exposure to 150 and 200 μ M H_2O_2 . After 24 h, 50% of the cells were dead at both concentrations. However, only 20% of cells were alive after 24 h when the cells were exposed to 250 μ M H_2O_2 , and only 1% were alive after 48 h when exposed to 325 μ M H_2O_2 . Therefore, control cells and cells exposed to 250 and 325 μ M H_2O_2 were used for TEM examination and Hoechst 33342 staining experiments.

The control cells showed normal nucleoid zone, dense cytoplasm, well-defined thylakoid and intact plasma membranes (Fig. 4). Cells exposed to H_2O_2 had less dense



Figs 4-10. Various stages of the ultrastructural changes induced by H_2O_2 . Scale bars = 500 nm.

Fig. 4. Ultrastructure of a control cells.

Figs 5, 8. Ultrastructural changes of cells after exposure to 250 μM H₂O₂ for 24 h.

Figs 6, 7. Enlarged views of designated windows in 4 and 5, respectively.

Figs 9, 10. Ultrastructural changes of cells after exposure to 325 μ M H_2O_2 for 24 h.

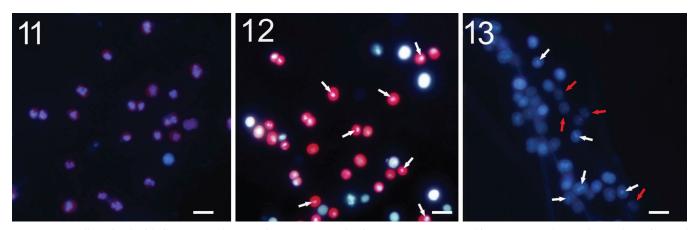
stroma, and membrane deformation was observed (Figs 5, 8–10). And Figs 6, 7 clearly showed that the wavy folds of outer cells became irregular. Deformation, partial disintegration of thylakoids and cytoplasmic vacuolation were observed after exposure. Figs 8–10 show a progressive amplification of these changes, especially the increasing cytoplasmic vacuolation.

Control cells exhibited more diffuse chromatin and an intact cell membrane (Fig. 11). Cells exposed to $\rm H_2O_2$ showed highly condensed chromatin, an early apoptotic character (Figs 12, 13 white arrows). The loss of chromatin architecture or even a completely lysed nucleoid zone, characteristic of late apoptosis, was observed in cells exposed to 325 μM $\rm H_2O_2$ (Fig. 13, red arrows). Moreover, apoptotic-like cells were more permeable to Hoechst 33342, causing a brighter blue fluorescence.

To determine the effect of H_2O_2 on photosynthesis, the maximum photochemical yield (Fv/Fm) and the maximum ETR (ETRmax) of photosystem II were measured (Figs 14, 15). Within 3 h of exposure, the Fv/Fm values of cells exposed to H_2O_2 were all rapidly decreased comparable to control cells. The ETRmax of cells exposed to 250 and 325 μ M H_2O_2 decreased nearly to zero at 9 h, while the Fv/Fm value decreased to zero at 24 h.

After exposure to 250 and 325 μ M H_2O_2 , the caspase-3–like activity increased gradually from 2 h to 8 h compared to controls (Fig. 16). At 8 h, the caspase-3–like activity of cells exposed to 325 μ M H_2O_2 reached the peak, 33-fold compared with the control. Caspase-3–like activity showed a statistically significant decrease after 24 h exposure (P < 0.05). Caspase-3–like activity of cells exposed to 250 μ M H_2O_2 for 24 h was not statistically significantly different from the activity detected at 8 h, and activity was still on average six times higher than that of the control cells (P < 0.05). When the cells were preincubated with the caspase inhibitor Z-VAD-FMK, caspase-3–like activity was not inhibited (data not shown).

To discern whether the degradation of chromatin was accompanied by characteristic DNA fragmentation associated with PCD, we analyzed the DNA by adopting classical methods, i.e. with detection of DNA laddering in agarose gels and with the TUNEL assay. Agarose gel analysis of genomic DNA isolated from control cells and from cells exposed to increasing amounts of H_2O_2 at 24 h and 48 h was used to determine whether H_2O_2 stress could induce DNA fragmentation (Fig. 17). DNA was extracted from the cells after 24 h of H_2O_2 exposure, when caspase-3–like activity was increased (Fig. 16). The DNA was slightly



Figs 11–13. Cells stained with fluorescent dye Hoechst 33342 at 24 h after H_2O_2 exposure. White arrows = chromatin condensation; red arrows = loss of chromatin architecture. Scale bar = 5 μ m.

Fig. 11. Untreated cells.

Fig. 12. Cells exposed to 250 μ M H₂O₂.

Fig. 13. Cells exposed to 325 μ M H₂O₂.

degraded and appeared as a faint smear on the gel (Fig. 17, lane 3). However, at 48 h of 250 μ M H_2O_2 exposure, diffuse low molecular weight bands were visible (Fig. 17, lane 4). Such fragmentation was not observed in the cells exposed to 325 μ M H_2O_2 , and only a smear was detectable on the gel after 24 h (Fig. 17, lane 5). No DNA laddering was detected in the controls.

The TUNEL assay was performed to corroborate the DNA fragmentation (Figs 18–24). Free 3'OH ends of DNA, generated by activation of endonuclease activity in dying cells, were fluorescently labelled in the TUNEL assay. The percentage of TUNEL-positive cells after exposure to $\rm H_2O_2$ increased gradually from 2 h to 48 h (Fig. 18). In negative controls without the terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase enzyme, no TUNEL-positive cells were observed (Fig. 19). The TUNEL-positive signal was only found in $\rm H_2O_2$ treated cells, while the control cells showed no positive signal, apparently because of the

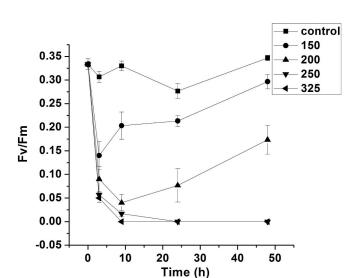


Fig. 14. Ratio of variable fluorescence to maximum fluorescence (Fv/Fm) for cells exposed to 150, 200, 250 and 325 μ M H₂O₂. Control represents untreated cells.

absence of DNA free ends that allow the incorporation of fluorescein labelled dUTP (Fig. 20). When cells were treated with 250 μ M H₂O₂ at 24 h, 51% of the cells were TUNEL-positive (Fig. 21). When cells were treated with 325 μ M H₂O₂ at 48 h, 92% of cells were TUNEL-positive (Fig. 24).

DISCUSSION

We found several classic parameters associated with apoptosis in *Microcystis aeruginosa* cells exposed to 250 and 325 µM H₂O₂, e.g. membrane deformation, cytoplasmic vacuolation, chromatin condensation, DNA fragmentation and increasing caspase-3–like activity. Caspases have only been isolated from multicellular animals (sponges to

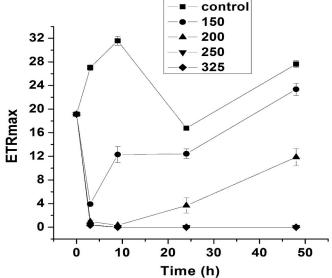


Fig. 15. Electron transport rate maximum (ETRmax) for cells exposed to 150, 200, 250 and 325 μM H₂O₂. Control represents untreated cells.

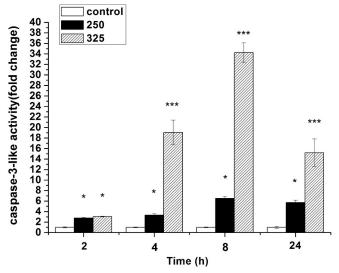


Fig. 16. Caspase-3–like activity measured by fluorescence intensity at 485 nm (excitation) and 535 nm (emission). * P < 0.05, *** P < 0.001.

humans) but their activity has also been reported for vascular plants, yeast and bacteria (De-Jong et al. 2002; Madeo et al. 2002; Herker et al. 2004; Jimenez et al. 2008, 2009; Chen & He 2009). Within the caspase family, caspase-3 is believed to be the final executor of apoptotic cell death; it elicits organized degradation of many cellular proteins, and it changes the nuclear morphology (Fischer et al. 2003; Rice & Bayles 2008). We found caspase-3-like activity increased over time after exposure to 250 and 325 µM H₂O₂. Similar results have also been reported during PCD for the green algae Micrasterias denticulata Brébisson & Godey ex Ralfs (Darehshouri et al. 2008), Dunaliella tertiolecta Butcher (Segovia et al. 2003) and Chlorella saccharophila (Krüger) Migula (Zuppini et al. 2007) as well as the cyanobacterium Trichodesmium sp. IMS101 (Berman-Frank et al. 2004). However, our findings show that increased caspase-3-like activity was not inhibited in the presence of the caspase inhibitor Z-VAD-FMK. Therefore, we cannot claim that H₂O₂ triggers a caspase-dependent cell death. The broad-spectrum caspase inhibitor Z-VAD-

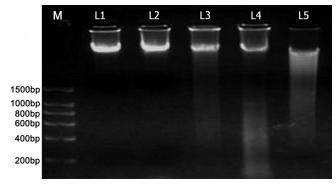


Fig. 17. DNA degradation shown by agarose gel electrophoresis. L1 = control cells for 24 h; L2 = control cells for 48 h; L3 = 250 μ M H₂O₂ for 24 h; L4 = 250 μ M H₂O₂ for 48 h; L5 = 325 μ M H₂O₂ for 24 h; M = molecular markers.

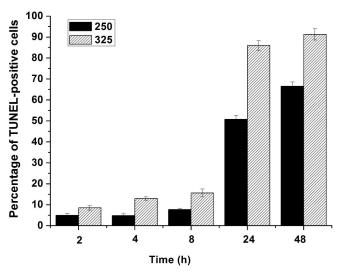
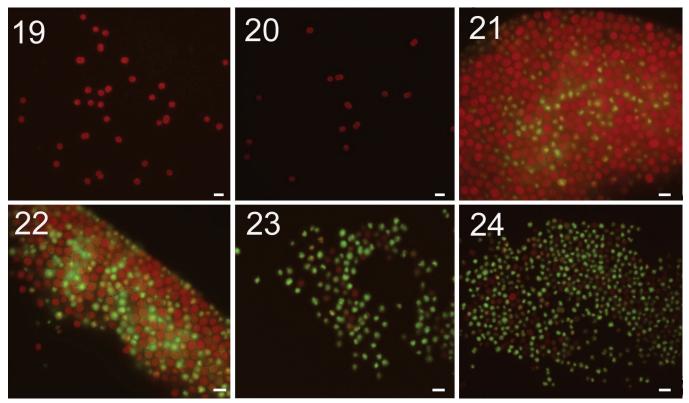


Fig. 18. The percentage of TUNEL-positive cells exposed to 250 and 325 μM H₂O₂ for 2, 4, 8, 24 and 48 h.

FMK inhibits caspase-3 in animals and is commonly used in elucidating apoptotic pathways; however, it does not inhibit all caspases in plants (Equils *et al.* 2009; Elodie *et al.* 2010). *Microcystis* is a prokaryote, and Z-VAD-FMK might not bind to the catalytic site of its caspase-3–like proteins. Cyanobacterial caspase-like proteins form several distinct clusters in phylogenetic analyses, showing considerable diversity (Bidle & Falkowski 2004). Perhaps cyanobacterial caspase-like orthologues represent an ancestral core of caspase-like proteins, different from caspases in metazoans.

DNA fragmentation has also been used to diagnose apoptosis in animals and plants (Ameisen 2002; Williams & Dickman 2008). Our TUNEL results demonstrated that Microcystis aeruginosa exposed to H₂O₂ can lead to DNA fragmentation, which indicates apoptosis. Similar results are reported for Anabaena sp. (Ning et al. 2002), Microcystis aeruginosa (Bouchard & Purdie 2011), Dunaliella viridis Teodoresco (Jimenez et al. 2009) and Skeletonema costatum (Greville) Cleve (Chung et al. 2005). However, we found only diffuse low molecular weight bands on agarose gels at 48 h following 250 µM H₂O₂ exposure, not DNA laddering. Nevertheless, the absence of typical DNA laddering does not rule out the existence of PCD because most unicellular prokaryotic organisms, and even in some eukaryotic algae, don't produce DNA laddering with PCD. For instance, programmed cell death without a DNA ladder has been observed in Thalassiosira pseudonana Hasle & Heimdal (Bidle & Bender 2008), Anabaena sp. (Ning et al. 2002) and Dictyostelium discoideum Raper (Cornillon et al. 1994). Affenzeller et al. (2009) found that DNA laddering only occurred in NaCl-stressed Micrasterias cells but not in cells undergoing other types of stress. Therefore, it appears that the mechanism of DNA laddering varies in different species or even as a result of different environmental

During cell death induced by high concentrations of H_2O_2 , there is an increase in cytoplasmic vacuolation, a feature regarded as a cytological hallmark of paraptosis. Cytoplasm vacuolation was also observed during PCD for



Figs 19-24. In situ detection of cell death using TUNEL assay; TUNEL-positive cells = green; others = red. Scale bar = 5 µm.

Fig. 19. Negative control without terminal transferase.

Fig. 20. Cells not exposed to H_2O_2 .

Fig. 21. Cells exposed to H_2O_2 250 μM H_2O_2 at 24 h.

Fig. 22. Cells exposed to H_2O_2 250 μ M H_2O_2 at 48 h.

Fig. 23. Cells exposed to H_2O_2 325 μ M H_2O_2 at 24 h.

Fig. 24. Cells exposed to H_2O_2 325 μM H_2O_2 at 48 h.

Anabaena sp. (Ning et al. 2002), Micrasterias denticulata (Darehshouri et al. 2008) and Amphidinium carterae Hulbert (Franklin & Berges 2004). However, paraptosis involves mitochondrial swelling and lacks apoptosis characters such as caspase activation and DNA fragmentation. To gain deeper insight, Microcystis aeruginosa cells were stained with Hoechst 33342. Under the fluorescence microscope, we observed chromatin condensation in cells exposed to H₂O₂, and this evidence indicates an apoptotic event. There was a complete loss of chromatin architecture or a completely lysed nucleoid zone in cells exposed to 325 µM H₂O₂; this may be due to DNA fragmentation because small DNA fragments are typical during the final stages of apoptotic-like PCD. Overall, our results clearly suggest that H₂O₂ induced apoptotic-like cell death in a dose-dependent manner.

Apoptosis has been mainly studied in metazoans, but the precise subcellular mechanisms and evolutionary drivers are still largely unknown in unicellular organisms. Our study, using a diverse suit of markers with $\rm H_2O_2$ treatments, contributes to the understanding of PCD models that occur in unicellular phytoplankton and to how PCD events are regulated. Differences between the typical animal apoptotic characteristics and our results are probably due to fundamental differences between metazoa and prokaryotes. For animals and plants, mitochondria and chloroplasts are

sources of ROS in stress situations, and the chloroplast plays an important role in plant PCD because the process is light-dependent (Doyle *et al.* 2010; Li & Xing 2011). Given the fact that cyanobacteria do not possess mitochondria, it is likely that their photosynthetic apparatus might have full control over cell death regulation.

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