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2 **Hydrogen sulfide in horticulture: Emerging roles in the Era of climate change**

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Short title: Hydrogen sulfide and abiotic stresses in horticulture

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18 **Highlights**

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Hydrogen sulfide (H<sub>2</sub>S) is an endogenous molecule having vital roles in cell

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signaling pathways

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Climate change may cause many environmental stresses, including drought,

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temperature, heavy metals and salt stress, whilst H<sub>2</sub>S may mediate responses

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H<sub>2</sub>S regulates enzyme activities and gene expressions for the alteration in the

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cellular activities

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In horticulture, H<sub>2</sub>S also mitigates oxidative stress during post-harvest

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H<sub>2</sub>S is mooted as a focus for future agricultural treatments for better food

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security, especially during future climate changes

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31 **Abstract**

32 Future climate change will present many plants with environmental challenges,  
33 including extreme temperatures and drought. Hydrogen sulfide (H<sub>2</sub>S) has emerged as  
34 an important signal transmitting molecule in plants, especially important in many stress  
35 responses and it is known to regulate numerous physiological and developmental  
36 processes. Being recently suggested as a signaling molecule, research exploring the  
37 regulatory functions is continuously progressing regarding the role of H<sub>2</sub>S in plant  
38 science, agriculture and horticulture. Biosynthesis of H<sub>2</sub>S occurs in different cellular  
39 compartments from where it can freely translocate via membranes to where needed or  
40 be excluded where not required. H<sub>2</sub>S interacts with related signaling molecules which  
41 together mediate stress tolerance against a plethora of harsh conditions. The H<sub>2</sub>S  
42 induced tolerance against stresses occurs via regulation of antioxidants activities,  
43 endogenous levels of GSH, osmoregulator accumulation, cell signaling proteins, and  
44 stress-related gene expression. Overall this efficiently eliminates excessive reactive  
45 oxygen species (ROS) and maintains the intracellular redox balance. The current review  
46 summarizes the recent progress on H<sub>2</sub>S or H<sub>2</sub>S donor-mediated abiotic stress tolerance  
47 with special reference to climate change and horticulture crops, pre- and post-harvest.  
48 Elucidating the role of H<sub>2</sub>S in cell signaling pathways may open new horizons towards  
49 understanding how exogenous treatments with H<sub>2</sub>S in horticulture plants may aid in the

50 tolerance to stress, especially as environmental conditions change, and can secure  
51 better crop yields and avoid post-harvest losses.

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53 **Keywords:** antioxidants; climate change; hydrogen sulfide; nitric oxide; plant stress;  
54 reactive oxygen species; oxidative damage

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## 57 **1. Introduction**

58 There seems to be little doubt that the world has an ongoing climate change crisis, and  
59 this is only likely to get worse (Nolan et al., 2018). One of the main causes of such  
60 climate change is thought to be anthropogenic activities, which are not likely to cease in  
61 the near future. Therefore, ways to mitigate against its effects are increasingly important  
62 to find, and here it is suggested that treatments based on hydrogen sulfide (H<sub>2</sub>S) may  
63 be useful.

64 Industrialization has increased the global carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) level from 270 to  
65 401 μL L<sup>-1</sup> within the duration of approximately 200 years. Along with this change, the  
66 global temperature has also risen by 0.85°C, having most obvious effects near the poles  
67 (IPPC, 2013). It is expected, extrapolated from greenhouse gas scenarios, that CO<sub>2</sub>  
68 levels and global temperatures will rise by at least 700 μL L<sup>-1</sup> and 4°C, respectively, by  
69 the end of this century (IPCC, 2013). Furthermore, there will be a regional scale shift in  
70 the normal precipitation regimes resulting in extremes of dry and wet conditions due to  
71 intensification in the hydrological cycle (Medvigy and Beaulieu, 2012). These climatic

72 changes are associated with the increase in greenhouse gases such as nitrogen oxides  
73 (NO<sub>x</sub>), CO<sub>2</sub>, methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) and ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) (Min et al., 2011; Pall et al., 2011).

74 Under the scenario of growing climate fluctuations, there is a continuous threat  
75 for plants due to their sessile nature, as they are more prone to adverse environmental  
76 conditions. Events such as higher average and maximum temperatures, drought or  
77 flooding stress, beyond their physiological and adaptation limits (Pall et al., 2011; Shaw  
78 and Etterson, 2012), are likely to have an impact. In this regard, how plants adapt to  
79 climate fluctuations is one of the hot research topics globally. Although the tolerance  
80 range varies among plants, and many have evolved physiological plasticity to withstand  
81 stressful environments, the predicted severity of climate change could be so high that it  
82 can beat the tolerance ranges even in the plastic genotypes (Anderson et al., 2012).  
83 Such alteration are having profound impacts on the functioning of plants, having a  
84 significant influence on their food production capacity. Thus, there is a continuous need  
85 to boost the crop potential to cope with the climatic fluctuations stress. In this regard,  
86 understanding the potential for physiological changes under climate change scenario is  
87 a key challenge that must be met for achieving the target of food security under climate  
88 change induced harsh environmental conditions. Additionally, biotic stress, together with  
89 these increasing abiotic stresses, further increases the challenge of food security  
90 research to search for the novel strategies regarding the introduction of climate resilient  
91 crops to meet the food demands of continuously increasing population (Dhankher and  
92 Foyer, 2018; Zulfiqar et al., 2020). Many abiotic stress conditions such as drought or  
93 flooding, and the presence of harmful chemicals such as heavy metals and salt, are  
94 likely to be increased as the climate changes (Table 1). Therefore, it is timely to focus

95 on plant physiological and signaling pathways which respond to environmental stress  
96 conditions.

97 Environmental stress responses in plants are often mediated by the generation of  
98 reactive oxygen species (ROS), including the superoxide anion ( $O_2^{\cdot-}$ ), hydrogen  
99 peroxide ( $H_2O_2$ ), and the hydroxyl radical ( $\cdot OH$ ) (Cassia et al., 2018). There are several  
100 ROS sources in the different cellular compartments, such as the NADPH oxidases  
101 (RBOHs) and electron leakage from mitochondria and chloroplasts, as well as  
102 peroxidase- dependent ROS production in the apoplast (Mittler, 2017; Chapman et al.,  
103 2019). ROS, especially  $H_2O_2$  (Černý et al., 2018), are needed by the plants at very low  
104 concentrations to perform intracellular signal transduction processes. However, their  
105 excessive production inhibits plant root growth. Stress conditions induce drastic  
106 increases in the production of ROS, with what has been dubbed an oxidative burst  
107 leading to oxidative stress. This can lead to the inactivation of crucial enzyme activities,  
108 protein degradation, alteration in gene expression and various metabolic pathways,  
109 resulting in overall cellular damage (Foyer, 2018; Singh et al., 2019). Plants have  
110 evolved several mechanisms to cope with the excessive ROS production, oxidative  
111 imbalance or for maintaining cell redox homeostasis. One of these mechanisms is a  
112 multifaceted and efficient antioxidant system comprising of enzymatic (eg superoxide  
113 dismutase and catalase) and non-enzymatic (e.g. glutathione, ascorbic acid, phenolics  
114 and proline) components which play crucial roles in sensing, elimination, detoxification  
115 or neutralizing toxic levels of ROS (Liebthal et al., 2018).

116 Acquisition of tolerance against oxidative damage via regulating antioxidant  
117 activities comprises signal crosstalk among vital signaling molecules including growth

118 regulators and signaling proteins, such as kinases and phosphatases. Of the molecules  
119 with which ROS interact, gaseous signaling molecules, commonly known as  
120 gasotransmitters are particularly important owing to their vital roles. These include nitric  
121 oxide (NO) (León et al., 2020), hydrogen sulfide (H<sub>2</sub>S) (Hancock, 2019), ethylene (C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>)  
122 (Merchante et al., 2013), carbon monoxide (CO) (Wang and Liao, 2016) and methane  
123 (CH<sub>4</sub>) (Li et al., 2019). Among the gasotransmitters (Wang, 2010), H<sub>2</sub>S has recently  
124 gained momentum to be considered as a signaling molecule (Lisjak et al., 2013) since  
125 its recognition as a vital biomolecule, having potential for regulation of important cellular  
126 processes including plant development and stress tolerance (Hancock, 2019a). It is  
127 reported to be involved in signal transduction cascades, and therefore can alter cellular  
128 activity. It is a water soluble (partially), inorganic, colorless and rotten egg smelling  
129 gaseous molecule. It is generated endogenously but is inherently toxic, being a potent  
130 inhibitor of mitochondrial cytochrome oxidase (Complex IV), for example (Cooper and  
131 Brown, 2008). Despite this, it is now known to be instrumental in signaling events in a  
132 range of organisms including plants (Ma et al., 2019). In recent years, extensive  
133 research reports have revealed that H<sub>2</sub>S plays a vital role in plant growth and  
134 development including seed germination, root organogenesis, stomatal movement (Ma  
135 et al., 2019), and photosynthesis (Chen et al., 2011). Besides this, H<sub>2</sub>S is reported to be  
136 involved in the defense strategies against a diverse range of harsh environmental  
137 conditions (e.g., salinity, drought, heavy metal stress etc.) via crosstalk with other plant  
138 regulators, gene expression regulation and protein posttranslational modifications, the  
139 latter primarily through persulfidation of cysteine residues (Aroca et al., 2018; Jia et al.,  
140 2018). Furthermore, H<sub>2</sub>S can act as a strong inducer of different cellular osmolytes,

141 enzymatic and non-enzymatic antioxidants, and cell signaling proteins (e.g. mitogen  
142 activated protein kinases). H<sub>2</sub>S leads to increases in cellular GSH (de Kok et al., 1985)  
143 and hence protects intracellular redox, and plant cell health (Figure 1). H<sub>2</sub>S is produced  
144 by plant cells, but also can shift into plant cells from one to other cell, so can arrive or  
145 leave cells. Due to its small size and being uncharged it is easily diffusible through  
146 hydrophobic membranes (plasma membrane or membranes of organelles) without the  
147 aid of transport proteins such as aquaporins (Mathai et al., 2009). As shown in Figure 1,  
148 once in the cell, as well as potentially increasing glutathione (de Kok et al., 1985), H<sub>2</sub>S  
149 can interact with NO metabolism, for example through the creation of nitrosothiol  
150 (HSNO) (Whiteman et al., 2006), and alter ROS metabolism, for example through  
151 alterations of antioxidant levels (Kaya et al., 2018), or through altering ROS synthesis  
152 (Christou et al., 2013). Often such alterations of cellular activity will lead to alterations of  
153 gene expression (Christou et al., 2013), perhaps through the action of microRNAs  
154 (Shen et al., 2013). Therefore, H<sub>2</sub>S might have both short-term and long-term effects in  
155 plant cells.

156 Under the influence of stress, H<sub>2</sub>S can act as a quality enhancer and nutrient of  
157 horticultural crops such as *Capsicum annum* (Kaya et al., 2018). Furthermore, a  
158 growing body of research also reveals that H<sub>2</sub>S possesses the potential to delay  
159 senescence of various horticultural products during postharvest storage (Hu et al.,  
160 2015; Li et al., 2016; Aghdam et al., 2018a; Geng et al., 2019).

161 In the quest for sustainable horticulture crop production, in the face of future  
162 changes in climatic conditions (Tirado et al., 2010), here is discussed the possible roles  
163 of H<sub>2</sub>S in horticultural crops. Focusing on the current knowledge on H<sub>2</sub>S in horticulture

164 sector, the regulation of physiological mechanisms, oxidative stress and abiotic stress  
165 are addressed. The discussion also focuses the mechanisms of responses to  
166 exogenous fumigation or applications of H<sub>2</sub>S donor (sodium hydrosulfide (NaHS))  
167 related to horticultural crops. Other review papers in this area includes: (Fotopoulos et  
168 al., 2015; Huo et al., 2018; Gong et al. 2018; Corpas and Palma, 2020; Xuan et al.  
169 2020).

170

## 171 **2. H<sub>2</sub>S application to plants**

172 If treatments based in H<sub>2</sub>S are to be used in the environment to mitigate against climate  
173 change, the application of any relevant bio-active molecules has to be both beneficial  
174 and safe. It is known that gaseous H<sub>2</sub>S is a toxin to many organisms owing to its  
175 inhibition of mitochondrial activity (Cooper and Brown, 2008). However, owing to its vital  
176 roles in plant key physiological processes, as well its potential as a therapeutic for  
177 human disease (Powell et al., 2018), different contemporary methods have been  
178 developed to deliver H<sub>2</sub>S, including to plants (Hancock, 2019b). The easiest method to  
179 apply H<sub>2</sub>S is as a gas, but outside of the laboratory this becomes impractical, especially  
180 on safety grounds as non-plant organisms may be affected, including humans (Rubright  
181 et al., 2017). Therefore, a range of donor molecules have been employed to deliver H<sub>2</sub>S.  
182 Many experiments use sodium hydrosulfide (NaHS), or sodium sulfide (Na<sub>2</sub>S) as H<sub>2</sub>S  
183 donors, but these release H<sub>2</sub>S very rapidly in solution and therefore give a short, not-  
184 sustained burst, and are not physiological. Much of the H<sub>2</sub>S would be rapidly lost to the  
185 atmosphere and such compounds would have limited use in the environment. To  
186 overcome this, compounds such as GYY4137 have been developed (Li et al., 2009)



187 that release H<sub>2</sub>S at a much slower rate. Such compounds would give a longer treatment  
188 of plants in the environment, and may therefore may be a better option for agricultural  
189 use Further compounds have been developed too, which will release H<sub>2</sub>S at particular  
190 intracellular locations. One such donor is the molecule AP39, which targets the  
191 mitochondria (Karwi et al., 2017). Although at present limited in their use, such  
192 compounds will be extremely useful for the delivery of H<sub>2</sub>S to plant tissues in the future,  
193 especially in a laboratory or under controlled conditions (such as in a glasshouse).  
194 However, as well as the direct toxicity of H<sub>2</sub>S to the environment (and to people in the  
195 vicinity of its use), donor compounds also leave behind a by-product, and often such  
196 residual molecules are also bioactive, and therefore any future widespread use would  
197 need to ensure that the safety of the treatment is considered, especially as by-products  
198 may enter environments not immediately treated, such as rivers and water courses.

199

### 200 **3. H<sub>2</sub>S production and its effects**

201 At this stage, information regarding the exact endogenous production of H<sub>2</sub>S in plant  
202 cells and its interaction of with other molecules is still scarce. However, it is thought that  
203 H<sub>2</sub>S is primarily produced in subcellular compartments such as the chloroplast, cytosol,  
204 mitochondria and peroxisomes, which are linked with sulfur metabolism (Goter et al.,  
205 2015; Hancock and Whiteman, 2016; Corpas et al. 2019). Among these, chloroplast is  
206 thought to be a major production site of H<sub>2</sub>S due to reduction of sulfite into sulfide via a  
207 chloroplast specific catalyst sulfite reductase during the sulfate assimilation pathway.  
208 Besides this, H<sub>2</sub>S can be produced in the cytosol through the action of L-cysteine  
209 desulphydrase (LCD) (García-Mata, and Lamattina, 2010; Corpas and Palma, 2020),

210 with the accompanying formation of ammonia and pyruvate. While in mitochondria, H<sub>2</sub>S  
211 can be produced via the action of β-cyanoalanine synthase, which catalyzes the  
212 conversion of cyanide to β-cyanoalanine at the cost of cysteine (Gotor et al., 2019). In a  
213 recent study with Arabidopsis, Corpas et al. (2019) reported the existence of H<sub>2</sub>S in the  
214 peroxisomes. Furthermore, the expression of plant cellular proteins (L-cysteine  
215 desulfurase such as O-acetylserine thiol lyase (OAS-TL) and Nifs-like proteins) in  
216 different cellular organelles also possess the production potential of H<sub>2</sub>S (Gotor et al.,  
217 2019). Besides its production in these organelles, H<sub>2</sub>S due to its highly lipophilic nature,  
218 can easily translocate in the lipid bilayer of cell membranes (Cuevasanta et al., 2017) so  
219 may arrive from the cell's environment, which may include anthropogenic activity, such  
220 as the petroleum industry (Habeeb et al., 2017) Additionally, the exposure to different  
221 environmental conditions and interactions with nitric oxide and plant hormones induces  
222 the production of H<sub>2</sub>S in plant tissues (Fang et al., 2017; Jia et al., 2018). Alternatively  
223 NO may remove H<sub>2</sub>S from cells. For example, H<sub>2</sub>S and NO can react together to create  
224 the nitrosothiol, HSNO (Whiteman et al., 2006). This molecule is not inert and therefore  
225 the reaction of NO and H<sub>2</sub>S potentially creates a new bio-active molecule which can  
226 partake in the cell signaling events in plant cells, as previously suggested for animal  
227 cells (Whiteman et al., 2006).

228

### 229 **H<sub>2</sub>S and photosynthesis**

230 The relationship between the photosynthetic rate of plants and climate change is  
231 complex. On the one hand the photosynthetic activity of plants has an immensely  
232 important role in the sequestration of carbon (Raven and Carley, 2006), so removing

233 CO<sub>2</sub> from the atmosphere and potentially reducing the effects of anthropogenic activity.  
234 On the other hand, as environmental conditions change, plants may be exposed to  
235 increased or decreased amount of light (brightness or duration) and light levels will have  
236 a profound effect on photosynthetic activity (Rascher and Nedbal, 2006) as well as  
237 potentially causing a stress to plant cells (Reddy and Raghavendra, 2006).

238 An increase of photosynthetic activity may depend on the activity of ribulose-1, 5-  
239 bisphosphate carboxylase (RuBISCO). So increasing the RuBISCO activity is  
240 immensely important for enhancing photosynthesis. Exogenous NaHS, and hence H<sub>2</sub>S,  
241 enhanced photosynthesis via elevating chloroplast biogenesis, endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S  
242 concentration, RuBISCO enzyme activity, thiol redox modification and photosynthetic  
243 enzyme expression (Chen et al., 2011). Under stress condition such as overnight frost  
244 and day high light that negatively effect photosynthesis, foliar application of NaHS  
245 resulted in an improved photosynthetic response, including inhibition of CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation, a  
246 lower accumulation of hydrogen peroxide as well as lower photoinhibition, and a higher  
247 nonphotochemical quenching (Joshi et al. 2020). Further, it was reported that H<sub>2</sub>S  
248 application can alleviate the degradation of chlorophyll, carotenoids and reduce the  
249 photoinhibition of PSII and PSI via promoting the electron transfer from QA to QB on  
250 PSII acceptor side under low temperature stress (Tang et al., 2020). Such increases in  
251 photosynthetic potential may enhance plant growth, increasing carbon sequestration as  
252 well as increasing crops, and hence H<sub>2</sub>S may be useful as a treatment to mediate such  
253 effects.

254

255 **H<sub>2</sub>S and post-harvest of horticultural produce**

256 As climate change has a greater impact on the world and the production of food for a  
257 growing population (Cohen, 2005) will become more important, getting crops to the  
258 table will be critical. As part of this, the need for better transportation and storage of  
259 crops will be vital. Treatment with H<sub>2</sub>S gas or H<sub>2</sub>S-based molecules may be part of a  
260 suite of strategies to ensure post-harvest management of crops is improved.

261 Information regarding endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S metabolism in horticulture produce is  
262 limited and not well understood. Even so, increasing research evidence demonstrate  
263 that H<sub>2</sub>S significantly influences the post-harvest of horticultural produce. In a recent  
264 study it was reported that endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S content in sweet pepper fruits was  
265 upregulated during ripening (Muñoz-Vargas et al., 2018). In peach fruit during cold  
266 storage H<sub>2</sub>S content is regulated by NO, for modulating the chilling injury response  
267 (Geng et al., 2019). ATP normally decreases under senescence or stress occurring  
268 during post-harvest storage and hence adversely affects post-harvest longevity  
269 (Aghdam et al., 2018a). H<sub>2</sub>S application maintains this intracellular energy, ie ATP, via  
270 increasing related enzymes, such as H<sup>+</sup>-ATPase or Ca<sup>2+</sup>-ATPase, during post-harvest  
271 and helps in increasing post-harvest life of horticultural produce (Hu et al., 2015; Li et  
272 al., 2016). Maintenance of freshness, as depicted by the green color, especially in leafy  
273 vegetables during post-harvest, is critical to fetch good prices with consumer  
274 satisfaction, vital factor to allow some producers and suppliers to financially survive  
275 (Wognum et al., 2010) Application of NaHS (and hence H<sub>2</sub>S) to cut broccoli during post-  
276 harvest regulated chlorophyll gene expression and thus slowed senescence leading to a  
277 longer shelf life compared to an untreated control (Li et al., 2015). Another factor  
278 affecting the post-harvest life of horticulture produce is the maintenance of cell

279 structure. In kiwi fruit, application of H<sub>2</sub>S delayed the ripening and senescence via  
280 regulating the cell-wall degrading enzyme genes and ethylene signal transduction  
281 pathway genes (Lin et al., 2020). Oxidative stress, as a result of excessive ROS  
282 production during post-harvest storage, is detrimental for horticulture produce. Various  
283 research reports have demonstrated that H<sub>2</sub>S aids in lowering ROS via improving the  
284 activities of antioxidants (Zhang et al., 2011; Zheng et al., 2016; Ge et al., 2017; UI  
285 Ubeed et al., 2017; Aghdam et al., 2018b; Liu et al., 2019; Mukhrjee et al., 2019), and  
286 may have effects through the maintenance of GSH (de Kok et al., 1985).

287         Clearly enhanced post-storage has massive commercial potential, as movement  
288 of crops around the globe is such an important aspect of today's society. However, the  
289 produce has to remain safe and desirable. H<sub>2</sub>S is both toxic and smelly, so clearly work  
290 needs to be carried out to make sure there are no undesirable after effects. However,  
291 other redox compounds, such as nitric oxide (Huang et al., 2020; Qi et al., 2020; Zhang  
292 et al., 2020), have been mooted as useful for controlling post-harvest conditions, and  
293 therefore it is possible that H<sub>2</sub>S-based compounds may be useful, perhaps at lower  
294 concentrations, as part of a suite of molecules used in food storage in the future. As  
295 climate changes and land use alters the movement of crop produce may become more  
296 important, and new strategies and formulations may be needed to be developed, with  
297 H<sub>2</sub>S being part of this.

298

### 299         **H<sub>2</sub>S and drought/osmotic stress**

300 As climate change has increasing effects on the environment in many areas of the  
301 globe, weather patterns will change with precipitation altering (Dore, 2005). On this

302 background, some areas will become wetter and some drier, so plants may have to be  
303 able to survive, or adapt to both floods (Hirabayashi et al., 2013) and drought (Strzepek  
304 et al. 2010). This will, of course, have a major impact on agricultural practices when this  
305 happens. Therefore, treatments to help mitigate these effects are needed. Along with  
306 other strategies, such as the use of NO-based compounds (Tian and Lei, 2006), H<sub>2</sub>S-  
307 based treatments may be a useful adjunct for consideration in the future (Table 1).

308         Sensitivity of horticultural crops to osmotic/drought stress has been considered  
309 as a major hindrance towards achieving the target of increased production efficiency  
310 (Kopta et al., 2020). On the other hand, low rainfall and high evaporation rates due to  
311 elevated temperature associated with climate change, is predicted to increase the  
312 drought stress severity. Thus, under osmotic or drought stress, there can be a dramatic  
313 decline in the horticulture production (Zulfiqar et al., 2019). Additionally, if coinciding with  
314 the crop sensitive stage of development, drought not only lowers the yield but also  
315 affects the quality of horticulture produce. Plants have adaptation to survive under  
316 unfavorable conditions such as drought stress and the first reaction towards drought  
317 stress is stomatal closure as a way to reduce transpirational water loss that allows plant  
318 to retain sufficient amount of water for the regulation of key physiological processes.

319         H<sub>2</sub>S acts upstream or downstream of NO signaling cascades, depending on  
320 processes such as stomatal closure or in response to abiotic stress (Corpas et al.,  
321 2019). The role of H<sub>2</sub>S as a stomatal control agent is still under debate. For instance  
322 under some instances H<sub>2</sub>S may cause stomatal opening but closure in other conditions  
323 (Garcia-Mata and Lamattina, 2010; Lisjak et al., 2010; 2011; Hou et al., 2013; Jin et al.,  
324 2013; Papanatsiou et al., 2015). In another report, it has been shown that H<sub>2</sub>S short-

325 term exposure induced stomatal closure while long term caused enhanced stomatal  
326 apertures and the H<sub>2</sub>S impact was mediated by 8-mercapto-cGMP (Honda et al., 2015)  
327 cGMP was thought to be a downstream mediator of NO effects in plants, but this has  
328 recently been thrown into doubt (Astier et al., 2019), and therefore its role in mediating  
329 H<sub>2</sub>S effects should also be thrown into doubt.

330 NaHS, and hence H<sub>2</sub>S, treated plants maintain higher relative water content  
331 under drought stress than control plants (Chen et al., 2016). NaHS as an exogenous  
332 H<sub>2</sub>S donor application to spinach plants grown under drought stress imparted drought  
333 tolerance via increasing proline, polyamine and endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S biosynthesis (Chen et  
334 al., 2016). Further, it was reported that several genes related to soluble sugars,  
335 polyamines, aquaporin (*SoPIP1;2*), choline monooxygenase (*SoCMO*) and betaine  
336 aldehyde dehydrogenase (*SoBADH*) were upregulated following H<sub>2</sub>S application under  
337 drought stress (Chen et al., 2016). NaHS treated plants also showed decreases in MDA  
338 and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> content, leading to a reduction in drought-induced oxidative stress (Chen et  
339 al., 2016). Shi et al. (2013) reported enhanced tolerance against salt, osmotic and low  
340 temperature stress in Bermuda grass following treatment with H<sub>2</sub>S. They concluded that  
341 H<sub>2</sub>S decreased oxidative stress via increasing both enzymatic and non-enzymatic  
342 antioxidants, together with an increase in osmolytes. In citrus plants, Ziogas et al.  
343 (2014) used a proteomic approach to evaluate the H<sub>2</sub>S induced drought tolerance. They  
344 observed regulation of different proteins, especially S-nitrosated proteins and  
345 photosynthesis related proteins, following H<sub>2</sub>S treatment.

346 Therefore, the control of water movements in plants may be a suitable target for  
347 H<sub>2</sub>S modulation of physiological responses when crops are being grown in suboptimal

348 conditions. As discussed above, H<sub>2</sub>S-based formulations and treatments may need to  
349 be combined with the action of other molecules, and once again, NO-based signaling  
350 may be an interesting adjunct to any sulfur-based compounds.

351

### 352 **H<sub>2</sub>S and salt stress**

353 Salt (i.e. NaCl) stress has an adverse impact on horticultural crops and thus decreases  
354 plant growth and productivity (Safdar et al., 2019; Zelm et al., 2020). Climate change  
355 may alter land use and hence agriculture may be affected by higher salt levels,  
356 especially in coastal regions (Hadley, 2009). Recent work, discussed below, suggests  
357 that H<sub>2</sub>S may be part of the suite of cellular responses to elevated salt and hence may  
358 be a useful focus for future agricultural interventions (Table 1).

359 In cucumber plants, exogenous H<sub>2</sub>S application induced salt tolerance via  
360 regulating Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup> balance, regulating the H<sub>2</sub>S endogenous level, and enhancing  
361 antioxidant activities (Jiang et al., 2019). Kaya et al. (2019) demonstrated that the  
362 melatonin induced salt and iron deficiency tolerance in pepper plants was via increasing  
363 H<sub>2</sub>S and the activities of other antioxidants. In cabbage plants, application of NaHS  
364 increased tolerance to salt stress through elevating the antioxidant activities and  
365 improving processes involved in glutathione homeostasis and the enzymes related to  
366 AsA-GSH cycle (Montesinos-Pereira et al., 2020).

367 In another study, Christou et al. (2013) reported NaHS induced both salt stress  
368 tolerance and non-ionic osmotic stress tolerance in strawberry plants. They observed  
369 increases in the activities of antioxidants and maintenance of high ascorbate and  
370 glutathione redox states, thus minimization of oxidative and nitrosative stress (the latter



371 being from increased NO accumulation (Corpas et al., 2007)). Additionally, quantitative  
372 real-time RT-PCR gene expression analysis revealed that H<sub>2</sub>S plays a vital role in the  
373 regulation of antioxidants, transcription factors (e.g. dehydration-responsive element  
374 binding factor), ascorbate and glutathione biosynthesis, and salt overly sensitive (SOS)  
375 pathway genes (Christou et al. 2013). Application of NO and H<sub>2</sub>S donors to tomato  
376 plants alleviated the oxidative damage induced by NaCl toxicity (da Silva et al., 2018).  
377 The authors also suggest that H<sub>2</sub>S acts downstream of NO in this signaling cascade.

378         It is clear, therefore, that the generation and accumulation of H<sub>2</sub>S has an  
379 influence on stress-induced signaling pathways in response to high NaCl, and can help  
380 mitigate the effects of high salt (Table 1).

381

### 382         **H<sub>2</sub>S and temperature stress**

383 Climate change has long been dubbed global warming (Leiserowitz et al., 2019), mainly  
384 because the average temperature of Earth is increasing. However, many areas are  
385 seeing extreme temperature changes, both warming and cooling, and as such,  
386 agriculture in many global regions may be affected. As with the other stress conditions  
387 discussed here, there will be a future need to put in place mitigating regimes, and H<sub>2</sub>S-  
388 based compounds may have a part to play in combating future novel temperature  
389 changes.

390         Being sessile organisms, plants have to endure the temperature that their  
391 surrounding environment dictates and often this is not ambient (Bita and Gerats, 2013).  
392 H<sub>2</sub>S has been suggested to play a vital role in the induction of tolerance to both low and  
393 high temperatures in several horticultural crops. For instance, in a recent study, Tang et

394 al. (2020) evaluated the influence of exogenous applied H<sub>2</sub>S and hypotaurine (a H<sub>2</sub>S  
395 scavenger) on blueberry seedlings for their role in low temperature stress tolerance.  
396 They observed improvement in tolerance following application of H<sub>2</sub>S (supplied as  
397 NaHS) via regulating leaf gas exchange, reducing the photoinhibition of PSII and PSI  
398 and increasing proline content. They also measured oxidative stress indicators, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>  
399 and MDA, and found that these reduced following H<sub>2</sub>S application, while hypotaurine  
400 aggravated the negative effects of low temperature stress. In another study, Zhang et al.  
401 (2020) reported exogenous applied NaHS induced enhanced chilling tolerance in  
402 cucumber seedlings. The authors reported crosstalk between H<sub>2</sub>S and indole acetic acid  
403 (IAA) in low temperature stress responses, as an enhancement of the activity of flavin  
404 monooxygenase (FMO) and relative expression of FMO-like proteins (*YUCCA2*), which  
405 in turn elevated endogenous IAA. The elevated IAA production decreased the low  
406 temperature stress-induced electrolyte leakage (EL) and ROS accumulation, and  
407 increased the gene expression and enzyme activities related to photosynthesis. The  
408 authors concluded that IAA acts as a downstream signaling molecule involved in the  
409 H<sub>2</sub>S-induced low temperature tolerance in cucumber (Zhang et al., 2020). Liu et al.  
410 (2020) reported enhanced low temperature stress tolerance in response to H<sub>2</sub>S. In the  
411 same study H<sub>2</sub>S enhanced Cucurbitacin C (CuC), a triterpenoid secondary metabolite,  
412 that enhanced stress tolerance but it imparted a bitter taste in H<sub>2</sub>S treated cucumber  
413 (not a desired feature for commercial production).

414 On the other hand, H<sub>2</sub>S has also been demonstrated to be a relieving agent  
415 against the high temperature stress that can be lethal to horticultural crops, a factor  
416 predicted to increase in view of climate change. In a study on strawberry grown under

417 high temperature stress, pretreatment with H<sub>2</sub>S – in the form of NaHS – was found to  
418 lower oxidative damage and induce heat shock defense. It was concluded that H<sub>2</sub>S  
419 induced heat resistance was mediated by the upregulation of antioxidants, aquaporins  
420 and heat shock protein genes and by preserving ascorbate/glutathione homeostasis  
421 (Christou et al., 2014).

422 Work such as this shows that there is potential for H<sub>2</sub>S-based treatments to be  
423 used to mitigate against temperature changes, either too high or too low, which may be  
424 seen in the future as climate changes become more significant (Table 1).

425

#### 426 **H<sub>2</sub>S and nutritional stress**

427 Horticulture crops are very sensitive to nutritional toxicity or deficiency and they often  
428 have to tolerate conditions where nutritional excess or shortages prevails. Climate  
429 change will increase atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>, but may also alter nutrient availability through  
430 effects on the microbiotic interactions of plants (Table 1).

431 Exogenous application of NaHS reduced oxidative stress in cucumber plants  
432 grown under nitrate stress condition (Qi et al., 2019). The ROS level decreased while  
433 antioxidants' activities increased via mitogen-activated protein kinase/nitric oxide  
434 (MAPK/NO) signaling and upregulation of CsNMAPK transcript levels in the roots of  
435 stressed cucumber following H<sub>2</sub>S application (Qi et al., 2019). In tomato plants,  
436 application of H<sub>2</sub>S improved germination under nitrate stress via improving the activities  
437 of antioxidants (Li et al., 2015). Kaya and Ashraf (2019) suggested that iron deficiency  
438 induced chlorosis was alleviated by NaHS and the oxidative stress decreased, so  
439 improving the health of the plants.

440 The relationship between plants, their microbiotic environment, and nutrient  
441 availability, with a view to how H<sub>2</sub>S may mediate effects, should be a focus of future  
442 work.

443

#### 444 **H<sub>2</sub>S and heavy metal tolerance**

445 Although climate change may be caused by anthropogenic activity (Trenberth et al.,  
446 2015), the manner in which societies use land may change as a result (Ouyang *et al.*  
447 2018). One of the consequences of industrialization and altered land use is that the  
448 bioavailability of heavy metals will increase, and numerous heavy metals, such as  
449 copper, lead, zine, cadmium and mercury are known to cause stress in plants (Ghori et  
450 al., 2019). As this becomes an increasing problem, mitigating regimes will need to be  
451 considered, and again, H<sub>2</sub>S-based compounds may have a place to play.

452 Valivand et al. (2019a) suggested that H<sub>2</sub>S was involved in the acquisition of the  
453 relief from nickel ions (Ni(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>) stress via seed priming with H<sub>2</sub>S and Ca<sup>2+</sup> in zucchini  
454 seedlings. Whilst in another study, Valivand et al. (2019b) confirmed that H<sub>2</sub>S either  
455 alone or in combination with Ca<sup>2+</sup> imparts nickel (Ni(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>) tolerance in zucchini  
456 seedlings.

457 In pepper, NaHS could alleviate the oxidative stress caused by high zinc (ZnSO<sub>4</sub>.  
458 7H<sub>2</sub>O) stress (Kaya et al., 2018), while endogenous level of H<sub>2</sub>S, proline and  
459 antioxidants activities increased and electrolyte leakage, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and MDA was  
460 decreased. Arsenate (Na<sub>2</sub>HAsO<sub>4</sub>.7H<sub>2</sub>O) stress in pea seedlings was alleviated by NaHS,  
461 with restoration of redox status of the ascorbate and glutathione pools together with the  
462 reduction of ROS (Singh et al., 2015). In chromium (K<sub>2</sub>Cr<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub>) stress, NaHS increased

463 the activities of antioxidants and restricted the uptake of chromium ions in stressed  
464 cauliflower seedlings (Ahmad et al., 2019). Recently, lead (provided in the form of lead  
465 acetate  $[\text{Pb}(\text{CH}_3\text{COO})_2 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}/\text{PbAc}]$  treatment of cauliflower led to inhibition in seed  
466 germination and seedling growth due to oxidative stress. However, the negative effects  
467 were alleviated by the application of NaHS (Chen et al., 2018). Expression of  
468 antioxidative enzymes and metallothioneins was noted to be important in the  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  effects  
469 observed on the cadmium/zinc hyperaccumulator *Solanum nigrum*. Exogenous NaHS  
470 decreased free cytosolic  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$  content in roots, altered antioxidant activities and  
471 decreased toxic ROS (Liu et al., 2016).

472 Heavy metal stress is one which is only likely to increase as human activity  
473 escalates, exacerbated by climate change, and therefore the exploration of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ -  
474 mediated treatments may be important.

475

#### 476 **4. Conclusion and the future use of $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ treatments**

477 Regardless whether climate change is because of anthropogenic activity or the result of  
478 natural causes (Trenberth et al., 2015), there is little doubt that weather conditions are  
479 altering around the globe. Along with higher average temperatures and more extreme  
480 temperature fluctuations, this may have other consequences such as more flooding,  
481 increased drought conditions, and greater risk of salt and heavy metal stress. Therefore,  
482 there is a growing and urgent need to find treatments of plants, particularly those  
483 instrumental to agriculture and horticulture, which may mitigate against these more  
484 harsh growing conditions. Some plants may be able to adapt, whilst other may not.  
485 Although there is a growing body of work in this area (Raza et al., 2019), it is mooted

486 here that H<sub>2</sub>S-based treatments may have a place to play, even if they are only an  
487 adjunct to other regimes.

488 H<sub>2</sub>S is a novel gasotransmitter, playing vital roles plant sulfur metabolism and  
489 sulfur-based signaling, through redox interactions with other signals (Hancock and  
490 Whiteman, 2014) and particularly through the protein post-translational modification  
491 persulfidation (Aroca et al., 2018; Jia et al., 2018). H<sub>2</sub>S has been proposed to regulate  
492 various plant developmental processes from seed germination to post-harvest in  
493 horticulture. Importantly here, it is known to mitigate the negative impact of  
494 environmental stresses such as drought, temperature extremes, salinity, and heavy  
495 metal etc. and their associated oxidative stress (Hancock, 2019a) (Figure 2: Table 1).

496 Therefore, the role of H<sub>2</sub>S in enhancing the stress tolerance of plants in the face  
497 of global climate change is immensely important. Exogenous application of H<sub>2</sub>S seems  
498 a promising approach to help mitigate the food security problem, especially under  
499 climatic fluctuations inducing environmental stresses. The approach could further  
500 extend to promote seed germination via seed priming with H<sub>2</sub>S and plant development  
501 of horticultural crops. The impact of exogenous pre-harvest applications on post-harvest  
502 storage is also an unexplored area needing future research attention. H<sub>2</sub>S-based  
503 protocols could also be used as promising tools to prevent post-harvest diseases and  
504 extending longevity during storage of horticultural produce. Furthermore, the impact on  
505 nutritional quality of horticulture produce needs to be explored.

506 H<sub>2</sub>S application methods are being developed in the medical arena, with the  
507 creation of such H<sub>2</sub>S donors as GYY4137 and Ap39 (Karwi et al., 2017). A similar  
508 approach in agriculture-based research would enable treatments for plants to be

509 developed which would be more effective than presently available, and be easy and  
510 cheap to apply. Most evidence related to post-harvest are based on NaHS treatments,  
511 which is certainly not suitable for the food industry and therefore it is one of the main  
512 challenges of this field is to find a way to supply H<sub>2</sub>S in order to increase both crop  
513 production and post-harvest crop quality. Simply spraying H<sub>2</sub>S gas onto plants in the  
514 environment is not feasible, especially for safety reasons, but also for societal concerns  
515 – it is extremely smelly. However, H<sub>2</sub>S-donor-based treatments may be feasible if able to  
516 be made and delivered in a financially sustainable manner, perhaps in controlled  
517 conditions, where plants are grown under glass. Furthermore, using a H<sub>2</sub>S-based  
518 method of stress mitigation as an adjunct to other treatments, perhaps other redox-  
519 based treatments such as those based on NO signaling, may be a preferred way  
520 forward. However, H<sub>2</sub>S, like NO, has been seen to have numerous effects in cells, and  
521 work will need to be done not only on how multiple treatments may interfere with each  
522 other, but also on investigating whether using H<sub>2</sub>S-based treatments for one stress does  
523 not have adverse effects under a different stress. For example, if using such a regime  
524 for alleviating heavy metal stress, it will be important that it does not adversely affect the  
525 transpiration of plants, as both physiological systems are impacted by intracellular H<sub>2</sub>S  
526 accumulation.

527       Clearly, there is much to learn about how H<sub>2</sub>S integrates into cell signaling  
528 pathways, and how it mitigates against plant stress, and with the changing global  
529 climate there is much potential here to develop H<sub>2</sub>S-based treatments. With the future  
530 food requirements set to increase substantially with the human population (Zulfiqar et

531 al., 2019), H<sub>2</sub>S-based protocols may be part of a suite of solutions which could be  
532 adopted more widely in agricultural practice.

533

534

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902 **Figure Legends**



903 **Figure 1: Some of the cellular effects of H<sub>2</sub>S.** H<sub>2</sub>S may arrive from the outside of plant  
904 cells from a variety of means: from the environment; from other cells; or via  
905 treatments in agriculture. Endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S can also be increased via the action  
906 of cellular biosynthetic pathways, perhaps in response to cellular stress.  
907 Accumulated H<sub>2</sub>S may have a range of actions in cells. It can lead to increased  
908 glutathione (de Kok et al., 1985), and this, along with the fact that H<sub>2</sub>S acts as  
909 part of a redox couple (Hancock and Whiteman, 2018), may alter intracellular  
910 redox. H<sub>2</sub>S can interact with NO metabolism, for example through removal of NO  
911 in the creation of nitrosothiol (HSNO) (Whiteman et al., 2006), and alter ROS  
912 metabolism, for example through alterations of antioxidant levels (Kaya et al.,  
913 2018), or through altering ROS synthesis (Christou et al., 2013). H<sub>2</sub>S,  
914 significantly, may cause persulfidation of proteins (Aroca et al., 2018; Jia et al.,  
915 2018), which can alter their activity. Often such alterations of cellular activity will  
916 lead to alterations of gene expression (Christou et al., 2013). Therefore, H<sub>2</sub>S  
917 might have both short-term and long-term effects in plant cells, both of which  
918 may aid plants adapt to climate change.

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920 **Figure 2: Mechanisms by which H<sub>2</sub>S may mitigate environmental stresses in**  
921 **plants.** H<sub>2</sub>S may aid to combat stress by several mechanisms, but often focused  
922 on altering ROS metabolism. Here, alterations of antioxidants, changes in  
923 signaling mechanisms, and altered protein activity through cysteine persulfidation  
924 (Aroca et al., 2018; Jia et al., 2018) may be important. Long-term effects may be  
925 modulated by alterations of secondary metabolites and gene expression

926 (Christou et al., 2013). Therefore a suite of responses mediated by H<sub>2</sub>S will  
 927 potentially enable cells to combat climate change.

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938 **Table 1.** Some examples of H<sub>2</sub>S mediated alleviation of climate change related abiotic  
 939 stresses in horticultural crops

Changes to environment because of climate change	Why climate change may have this effect	Mitigating effects of H <sub>2</sub> S	References
Increased temperature	Climatic temperatures are rising and varying more substantially so high temperatures are likely (Asseng et al. 2014)	H <sub>2</sub> S helps alleviates temp stress via upregulation of antioxidants, aquaporins and heat shock protein genes and by preserving ascorbate/glutathione homeostasis	Christou et al., 201
Cooling temperatures	Temperatures are likely to fluctuate more widely, including lower temperatures in some places (Chiang and Friedman, 2010)	H <sub>2</sub> S helps alleviates chilling temperature stress via alleviating the degradation of chlorophyll and carotenoids and the photoinhibition of PSII and PSI by promoted the electron transfer from QA to QB on PSII acceptor side;	Tang et al., 2020 Zhang et al., 2020 Liu et al., 2020

		alleviate membrane peroxidation; enhancing osmoprotection compounds such as proline, scavenging oxidative stress and cross talk with phytohormones such as indole acetic acid and inducing molecular changes	
Heavy metal stress	Climate change may alter land use and therefore increase heavy metal bio-availability (Ouyang et al. 2018)	H <sub>2</sub> S helps alleviates heavy metal stress via reducing H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> content, increasing the content of AsA and total thiols, osmolytes, and regulating antioxidant activities	Valivand et al. (2019a) Valivand et al. (2019b) Kaya et al., 2018 Singh et al. (2015) Ahmad et al. (2019) Chen et al. (2018) Liu et al. (2016)
Nutritional stress	Increase in eCO <sub>2</sub> as a climate change can increase the growth of plants demanding more nutrients that may cause nutritional starvation stress under low nutrient soil availability OR with climate change soil microbial communities deeply affected negatively affecting the nutrient realease from organic matter and nitrogen fixation (Soares et al. 2019)	H <sub>2</sub> S helps alleviates nutritional stress via decreasing ROS accumulation and regulating antioxidant activities, upregulating CsNMAPK transcript level	Qi et al., 2019 Li et al. (2015) Kaya and Ashraf (2019)
Salt stress	Land use will alter with climate change, especially in coastal regions, meaning that salt stress may become a greater issue for plant growth (Hadley, 2009)	H <sub>2</sub> S helps alleviates salt stress via alleviating the reduction in photosynthetic attributes, chlorophyll fluorescence and stomatal parameters. maintained Na <sup>+</sup> and K <sup>+</sup> homeostasis via regulation of the expression of PM H <sup>+</sup> -ATPase, SOS1 and SKOR at the transcriptional level under excess NaCl	Jiang et al. (2019) Kaya et al. (2019) Montesinos-Pereira et al., 2020 Christou et al. (2013) da Silva et al. (2018)

Drought stress and flooding	Climate change is likely to alter precipitation rates in many areas, either leading to drought conditions or flooding (O’Gorman, 2015)	H <sub>2</sub> S helps alleviate drought/flooding stress via increasing water and osmotic potential; increasing osmoprotectants such as pro and GB, initiating biochemical changes such as soluble sugars (trehalose), polyamines and regulating several genes such as of aquaporins and of different proteins	Ziogas et al. (2014), Shi et al. (2013), Chen et al., 2016, Honda et al., 2015
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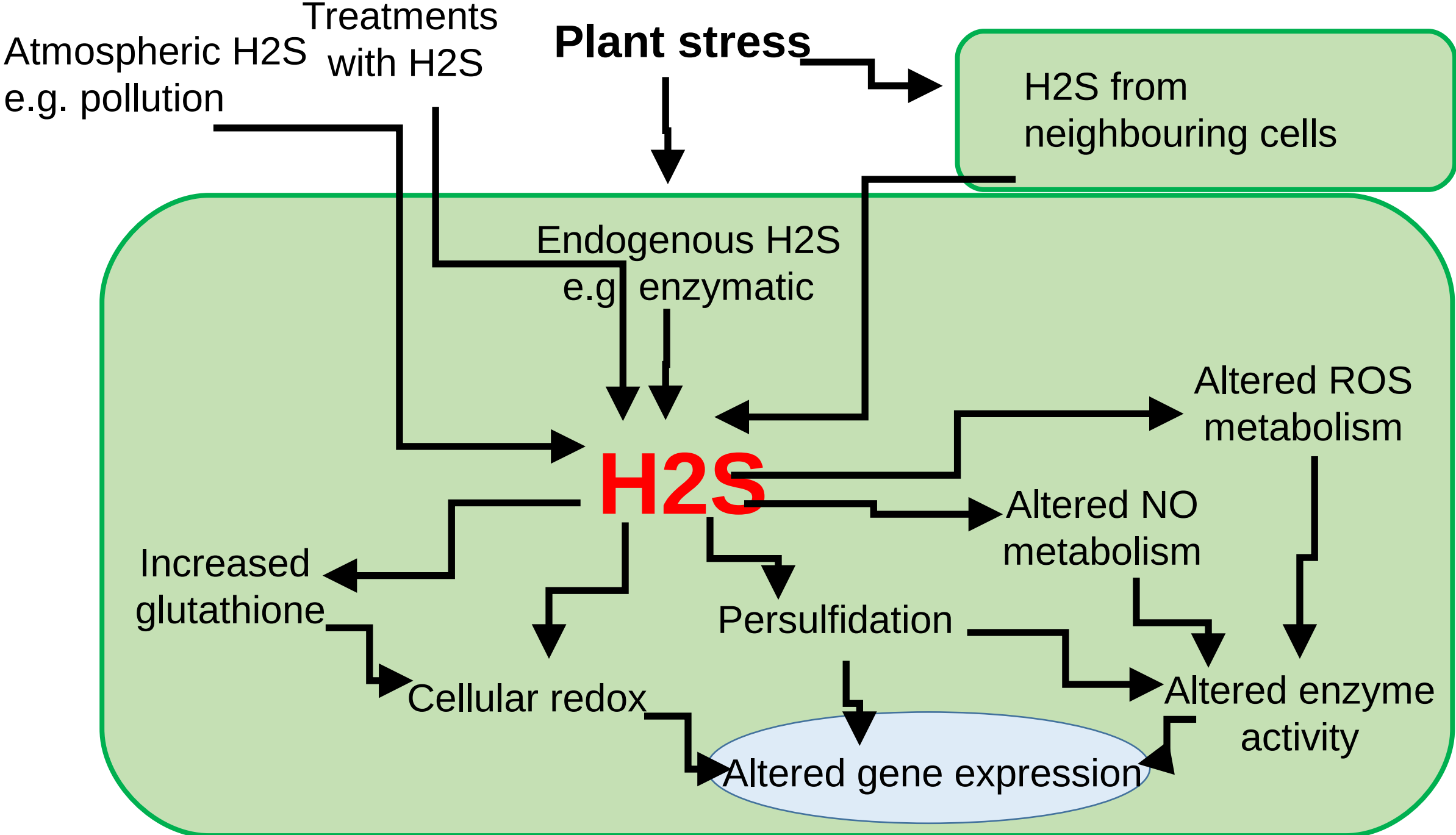
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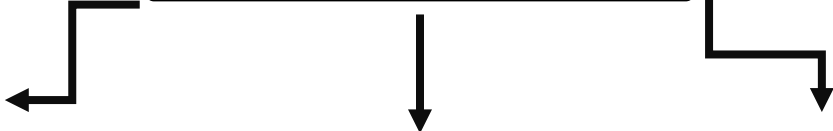


Exogenous application of Hydrogen Sulfide



Abiotic stresses

Possible mechanisms



Regulation of antioxidants

Increased biosynthesis of secondary metabolites

Interaction with signaling molecules

Persulfidation of protein thiol (s)

Expression of stress responsive genes

Regulation of physio-biochemical processes

Reduced ROS production/ROS detoxification



Improved stress response

