



Priority report

The GABA shunt contributes to ROS homeostasis in guard cells of **Arabidopsis**

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Summary

- γ-Aminobutyric acid (GABA) accumulates rapidly under stress via the GABA shunt pathway, which has been implicated in reducing the accumulation of stress-induced reactive oxygen species (ROS) in plants.
- γ-Aminobutyric acid has been demonstrated to act as a guard-cell signal in Arabidopsis thaliana, modulating stomatal opening. Knockout of the major GABA synthesis enzyme Glutamate Decarboxylase 2 (GAD2) increases the aperture of gad2 mutants, which results in greater stomatal conductance and reduces water-use efficiency compared with wild-type plants.
- Here, we found that the additional loss of GAD1, GAD4, and GAD5 in gad2 leaves increased GABA deficiency but abolished the more open stomatal pore phenotype of gad2, which we link to increased cytosolic calcium (Ca2+) and ROS accumulation in gad1/2/4/5 guard cells. Compared with wild-type and gad2 plants, glutamate was ineffective in closing gad1/2/4/5 stomatal pores, whereas lowering apoplastic calcium, applying ROS inhibitors or complementation with GAD2 reduced gad1/2/4/5 guard-cell ROS, restored the gad2-like greater stomatal apertures of gad1/2/4/5 beyond that of wild-type.
- We conclude that GADs are important contributors to ROS homeostasis in guard cells likely via a Ca²⁺-mediated pathway. As such, this study reveals greater complexity in GABA's role as a guard-cell signal and the interactions it has with other established signals.

Introduction

γ-Aminobutyric acid (GABA) is a nonproteinogenic amino acid predominantly synthesized from glutamate (Glu) by glutamate decarboxylase (GAD) in the cytosol. y-Aminobutyric acid synthesis constitutes the first step of a three-step pathway known as the GABA shunt that provides an alternative route for the production of succinate from α-ketoglutarate via the mitochondrial-based tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle (Bouché et al., 2003). Critically, the GABA shunt bypasses two reactive oxygen species (ROS)-inhibited reactions of the TCA cycle during stress events (Bouché et al., 2003; Bown & Shelp, 2016). The GABA shunt has been traditionally proposed to have a role in pH regulation, carbon-nitrogen balance, and modulating ROS under stress, although the mechanics of how GABA confers its influence on these processes is not well-understood (Ramesh et al., 2017; Fromm, 2020; Xu et al., 2021b).

In Arabidopsis thaliana, there are five GAD isoforms (GAD1–5), all with distinct expression patterns (Scholz et al., 2015). GAD1 and GAD2 are the most highly expressed, predominantly in the roots and shoots, respectively (Scholz et al., 2015). GAD1 controls GABA accumulation in roots particularly under heat stress (Bouché et al., 2004), whilst GAD2 catalyses GABA synthesis in leaves (Xu et al., 2021a). The other three GAD genes normally have very low,

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barely detectable, transcription (Scholz et al., 2015), but are stimulated to catalyse GABA production under certain stresses, such as bacterial infection (Deng et al., 2020) or combined high light and heat (Balfagón et al., 2022). γ-Aminobutyric acid deficiency in leaves following the simultaneous loss of GAD1 and GAD2 was observed to result in higher stomatal conductance in gad1/2 plants (Mekonnen et al., 2016). Xu et al. (2021a) found that the loss of just GAD2 led to more open stomatal pores and greater transpiration rates, and that wild-type-like stomatal phenotypes in gad2 leaves could be restored by guard-cell-specific complementation with GAD2. GAD mutants have also been shown to be more susceptible to stress, for instance, gad1/2 double mutants exhibited enhanced salt- and hypoxia-sensitivity (Mekonnen, 2017; Su et al., 2019; Wu et al., 2021), and whilst gad2 mutants are less drought-tolerant than wild-type (WT) plants, GAD2 overexpression in a WT background improved drought tolerance (Xu et al., 2021a,b). Alongside other evidence this added significant weight to the proposal that, in guard cells at least, GABA has a signalling role (Bouché et al., 2003; Ramesh et al., 2015; Bown & Shelp, 2016; Fromm, 2020; Xu et al., 2021a,b).

After GABA synthesis by GAD, cytosolic GABA is shuttled into the mitochondria and degraded by GABA transaminase (GABA-T) into succinic semialdehyde (SSA), and into succinate by succinic semialdehyde dehydrogenase (SSADH). The A. thaliana genome has a single GABA-T gene; its knockout in the gaba-t mutant (a.k.a. pop2) completely disrupts GABA degradation via the GABA shunt and results in GABA overaccumulation, impairing pollen tube growth and reducing plant fertility (Palanivelu et al., 2003). gaba-tl pop2 plants do not have any obvious vegetative growth defects, but the resulting GABA overaccumulation improves salt and hypoxia tolerance, which has been linked to ROS reduction (Su et al., 2019; Wu et al., 2021). Knockout of the last step of the GABA shunt, SSADH, results in increased ROS production, necrotic lesions, and dwarfism (Fait et al., 2005). Exogenous GABA treatment has also been proposed to reduce ROS via upregulation of antioxidant enzymes through an unknown mechanism (Shi et al., 2010).

Here, we use the quadruple gad1/2/4/5 mutant to further examine the role of the GABA shunt in ROS homeostasis. We find that the gad1/2/4/5 mutant, which maintains very low GABA accumulation (Deng et al., 2020), is found to reverse the large stomatal pore phenotype seen in gad2 plants due to significantly greater ROS accumulation in its guard cells. To further summarize, despite their minor role in GABA accumulation in leaves, ablation of either GAD4 and/or GAD5 in addition to GAD1 and GAD2 was sufficient to result in the elevation of guard-cell ROS production and was associated with a higher resting cytosolic Ca²⁺ in the guard cells of gad1/2/4/5. The addition of ROS inhibitors, apoplastic calcium chelation, or introducing an active GAD2 (via GAD2\Delta) reduced ROS accumulation in gad1/2/4/5 guard cells and revealed the clear negative relationship between GABA accumulation and stomatal conductance that exists when ROS is low. Our data show the importance of the GABA shunt in regulating ROS production in guard cells and introduces new interaction points for GABA as a plant signalling molecule.

Materials and Methods

Plant materials and growth conditions

All experiments were performed on Arabidopsis thaliana (L. Heynh) WT and mutant plants in the Col-0 background, grown in soil containing coco peat/Irish peat (1:1 ratio) under short day conditions $(100-120 \,\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}\,\text{s}^{-1},\ 10\,\text{h}:14\,\text{h},\ \text{light:dark})$ at 22°C and 50-60% relative humidity for 5-6 wk. The T-DNA insertional mutants, gad1 (SALK 017931), (GABI 474 E05), and gad2-2 (SALK 028819), were obtained from the Arabidopsis Biological Resource Centre (ABRC). The gad1/ 2/4/5 mutant was made for Deng et al. (2020). The gad1/2, gad1/2/4, and gad1/2/5 mutants were segregated following the cross of gad2- $1 \times gad1/2/4/5$ and selected using PCR with primers described in Supporting Information Table S1. The vector of pCAMBIA3300 carrying a Ca²⁺ (R-GECO1) and pH (PRpHluorin) dual sensor (CapHensor) (Li et al., 2021) and the vector containing GAD21 driven by a guard cell promoter (GCI) (Xu et al., 2021a) were stably expressed in Arabidopsis WT and mutant plants via Agrobacterium tumefaciens floral dip-mediated transformation.

Stomatal aperture and density measurements

All chemicals were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich. Epidermal strips were peeled from abaxial sides of leaves (Xu et al., 2021a), preincubated in stomatal measurement buffer containing 10 mM KCl, 5 mM L-malic acid, 10 mM 2-ethanesulfonic acid (MES), adjusted to pH 6.0 with 2-amino-2-(hydroxymethyl)-1,3propanediol (Tris) under light (200 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹) for 1 h, then were transferred to the same buffer +/- supplementation with 50 μM CaCl₂, 1 mM GABA, 1 mM glutamate, 5 mM LaCl₃, 200 µM (or 1 mM) ethylene glycol tetraacetic acid (EGTA), 20 µM diphenyleneiodonium chloride (DPI), 2 mM salicylhydroxamic acid (SHAM), and/or 100 U ml⁻¹ catalase as indicated in figure legends, and incubated under light for another 2 h before measurement. Stomata on epidermal peels were imaged using an Axiophot Pol Photomicroscope (Carl Zeiss), and stomatal aperture was analysed using IMAGEJ (http://rsbweb.nih.gov/ij/; Schneider et al., 2012). All stomatal aperture measurement were taken as blind treatments and repeated at least twice from different batches of plants and the whole experimental procedure was performed between 2 h after lights on and 3 h before lights off. The stomatal conductance was determined using the AP4 Porometer (Delta-T Devices, Cambridge, UK) and calculated based on the mean value from 2 to 3 leaf recordings per plant, as described in Xu et al. (2021a). For Arabidopsis stomatal density measurement, epidermal strips were peeled from abaxial sides of mature leaves, three leaves per plants using three plants for each genotype and imaged using an Axiophot Pol Photomicroscope (Carl Zeiss).

Quantification of ROS and NO production in guard cells

Reactive oxygen species and NO measurement in guard cells followed modified methods previously described by Zhu et al. (2016) and Agurla et al. (2016), respectively. Briefly, epidermal

strips were peeled from the abaxial sides of leaves, following the same treatment and process as for the stomatal aperture assay, before ROS staining in a stomatal measurement buffer containing 30 μ M 2′,7′-dichlorofluorescin diacetate (H₂DCF-DA) for 20 min, or NO staining in the stomatal measurement buffer containing 20 μ M 4,5-diaminofluorescein diacetate (DAF-2DA) for 30 min in dark. The fluorescence of H₂DCF-DA or DAF-2DA dye in guard cells of epidermal strips was captured using a Nikon A1R laser scanning confocal microscope with a laser power of 1% (excitation = 488 nm and emission = 525–575 nm). The mean ROS and NO fluorescence intensity of guard cell pair regions of interest (ROI) was analysed by IMAGEJ (http://rsbweb.nih.gov/ij/; Schneider *et al.*, 2012), following image processing guidelines as described in Zhu *et al.* (2016) and Agurla *et al.* (2016).

GABA and glutamate quantification

Rosette leaves were excised, snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen, and homogenized in liquid nitrogen. Approximately 50 mg fresh tissue was used to analyse GABA and Glu content using the Acquity Ultra Performance Liquid Chromatography (UPLC) System (Waters) with a Cortecs or Phenomenex UPLC C18 column (1.6 μ m, 2.1 \times 100 mm) as described previously in Xu *et al.* (2021a), or using 100 mg fresh tissue for GABA quantification with the GABase enzyme assay, as described previously in Ramesh *et al.* (2018).

Guard-cell Ca²⁺ and pH imaging

Approximately 5-wk-old Arabidopsis seedlings stably expressing the CapHensor driven by a 35S promoter (Li et al., 2021) were used to determine the relative cytosolic Ca²⁺ ([Ca²⁺]_{cyt}) and H⁺ ([H⁺]_{cvt}) concentration ratio in guard cells. Leaf 8 was detached, placed on MilliQ water-soaked 3MM Whatman filter paper, and covered in a Petri dish for 10 min to rest cytosolic Ca²⁺ and pH at room temperature. Then, the leaf abaxial surface was placed and adhered to a glass-bottom culture dish (Ø35 mm petri dish, Ø14 mm microwell; MatTek, Ashland, MA, USA) using siliconebased medical adhesive (NFS Adhesive B-531, Factor II), and topped with 2 ml of stomatal buffer (5 mM KCl, 2.5 mM L-malic acid and 5 mM MES/Tris, pH 6.0) before imaging. For pH and Ca²⁺ imaging, the fluorescence of PRpHluorin was excited sequentially at 400 nm, 415 nm (isosbestic point), and 470 nm using a High-Power LED Collimator Source (Mightex, Pleasanton, CA, USA) and captured by an inverted Nikon Ti E Live Cell Microscope (Nikon, Rhodes, NSW, Australia) with a 515-555 nm filter, followed by the fluorescence of R-GECO1 excited at 540 nm and captured with a 590-650 nm filter by the same light source and microscope. Fluorescence intensity of PRpHluorin and R-GECO1 from guard cells was analysed by NIS-Elements Advanced Research (Nikon) and further used to calculate relative H⁺ ratio and Ca²⁺ ratio as described in Li et al. (2021) using the equations:

$$[H^{+}]_{cyt}$$
 ratio 470 nm/400 nm
$$= \frac{PRpHlurion fluorescence at 470 nm}{PRpHlurion fluorescence at 400 nm}$$

 $\begin{aligned} &\left[\text{Ca}^{2+}\right]_{\text{cyt}} \text{ ratio 540 nm}/415 \text{ nm} \\ &= \frac{\text{R-GECO1 fluorescence at 540 nm}}{\text{PRpHlurion fluorescence at 415 nm}} \end{aligned}$

Results and Discussion

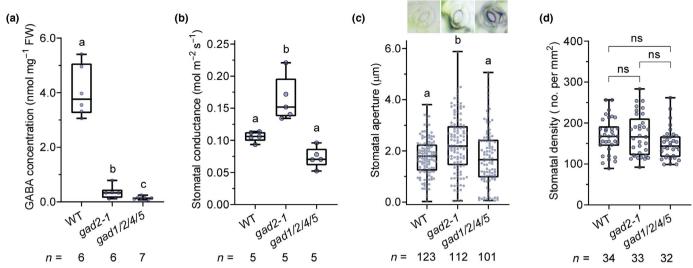
Glutamate Decarboxylase 2 is the major GAD isoform expressed in leaves and its ablation results in greatly reduced leaf GABA accumulation, more open stomata than for WT seedlings, greater stomatal conductance, and drought susceptibility (Xu et al., 2021a). Here, we observe that the loss of GAD1, GAD4, and GAD5 in gad2-1 plants further reduced GABA content in the leaves of the quadruple gad1/2/4/5 mutant (Fig. 1a; Deng et al., 2020). Surprisingly, gad1/2/4/5 had WT-like stomatal conductance and stomatal aperture, and not the greater conductance and aperture of gad2 (Fig. 1b,c; Xu et al., 2021a); all three genotypes had the same stomatal density (Fig. 1d), indicating the differences in stomatal conductance were likely due to differences in stomatal apertures.

Both gad2-1 and gad1/2/4/5 possess the same T-DNA insertion within the GAD2 (At1g65960) gene, derived from the GABI-Kat (GABI_474_E05) seed collection (Deng et al., 2020; Xu et al., 2021a). To investigate the individual impact of additional gad mutations, we crossed gad2-1 with gad1/2/4/5. The first generation F_1 gad2-1 × gad1/2/4/5 progeny exhibited greater stomatal conductance than gad1/2/4/5 and WT plants, similar to gad2-1 plants, as could be expected as it is homozygous for gad2-1 but heterozygous for all other gad mutations (Fig. 2a). We continued segregation of F₁ plants to produce double and triple gad knockout mutants to determine whether we could identify the gad mutations that compromised the gad2-1 phenotype. Consistent with the previous research (Mekonnen et al., 2016; Xu et al., 2021a), the gad1/2 double mutant had similarly high stomatal conductance and aperture to gad2-1, whilst gad1, gad1/2/ 4, and gad1/2/5 had WT-like stomatal phenotypes (Figs 2b, S1a). Note that gad1 was the mother line of the original gad1/2/4/5 mutant and was analysed alongside our cross, not derived from it. Furthermore, we suspect that the variation in stomatal conductance for gad1/2 (unlike previously detected; Mekonnen et al., 2016) was due to this genotype being measured over a series of days due to the scale of the experiment. All the generated gad mutants significantly reduced GABA accumulation in leaf tissue, unlike *gad1* (Fig. S1b). Consistent with GAD1 being predominantly expressed in the roots and previous reports of its mutation affecting GABA accumulation mainly in roots (Bouché et al., 2004; Scholz et al., 2015; Mekonnen et al., 2016), gad1 mutants did not have altered stomatal apertures. Collectively, these data suggest that the loss of GAD4 and/or GAD5 in addition to GAD2 is the likely foundational cause for abolishing the gad2 stomatal phenotype of gad1/2/4/5 plants.

Glutamate Decarboxylase synthesizes GABA from glutamate (Glu), which, in addition to its role as a carbon–nitrogen cycle intermediate and proteinogenic amino acid (unlike GABA) is proposed to act on glutamate receptor-like (GLR) proteins to trigger calcium signalling and activate downstream responses such

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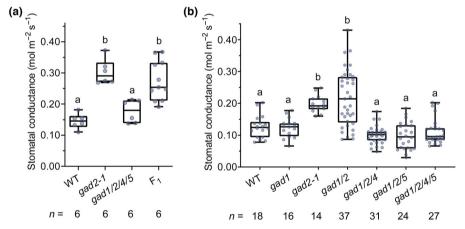


Fig. 2 Loss of GAD4 or GAD5 compromises the gad2-1 stomatal conductance. (a) Stomatal conductance of 5-6 wk-old Arabidopsis wild-type (WT), gad2-1, gad1/2/4/5 mutants and F_1 (F_1 $gad2-1 \times gad1/2/4/5$ generation crosses, equivalent to gad2-1 single mutant) as determined by AP4 Porometer. (b) Stomatal conductance of 5-6 wk-old Arabidopsis WT, gad1, gad2-1, gad1/2, gad1/2/4, gad1/2/5 and gad1/2/4/5; gad1/2, gad1/2/4 and gad1/2/5 were segregated from F_1 $gad2-1 \times gad1/2/4/5$ as indicated in (a). Replicate number as indicated within graph (n). Box plots indicate first quartile, median, and third quartile values; whiskers show minimum and maximum values. Different letters indicate significant differences at P < 0.05, following statistical analysis by one-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc test.

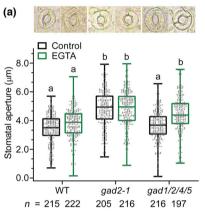
as ROS production (Kong et al., 2016; Yoshida et al., 2016; Fichman et al., 2021). Glu has also been proposed to trigger apoplastic calcium influx into guard cells and close stomata (Yoshida et al., 2016). We detected greater Glu content in leaves of gad2-1 and the higher order gad mutants than in WT, with a significantly higher Glu content in gad1/2/4/5 than in gad2-1 leaves (Fig. S1c). Therefore, we compared the stomatal sensitivity of WT, gad2-1, and gad1/2/4/5 guard cells to externally supplied Glu. Consistent with the previous research, 1 mM Glu closed the stomata of Arabidopsis WT plants under constant light in the

presence of 50 μM Ca²⁺, whilst 1 mM GABA had no effect (Fig. S2a,d; Yoshida *et al.*, 2016; Xu *et al.*, 2021a). Glu also stimulated stomatal closure in *gad2-1* (Fig. S2b,e) but not in *gad1/2/4/5* leaves (Fig. S2c,f). The additional supplement of the Ca²⁺ channel blocker lanthanum chloride (LaCl₃) (Harada & Shimazaki, 2009) antagonized Glu-induced stomatal closure in WT and *gad2-1* but had no effect on *gad1/2/4/5* stomata (Fig. S2a–c). In the presence of 50 μM Ca²⁺ supplementation with EGTA, a calcium chelator commonly used to reduce apoplast-derived cytosolic Ca²⁺ increases, not only antagonized the Glu effect in *gad2-1* and WT

stomata but also increased the aperture of all genotypes by itself, including gad1/2/4/5 (Fig. S2d-f). The effect of lowering of apoplastic Ca²⁺ on different genotypes was further examined by removing Ca²⁺ from the stomatal measurement buffer and lowering the EGTA supplement from 1 mM to 200 µM. In these conditions, no impact on the stomatal apertures of WT or gad2-1 leaves was observed, but gad1/2/4/5 stomatal aperture significantly increased, similar to that of gad2-1 (Fig. 3a), suggesting that impaired Ca2+ homeostasis in gad1/2/4/5 guard cells may contribute to its stomatal phenotype. To directly test this, we used a Ca²⁺ and pH dual sensor (CapHensor) to investigate guard-cell cytosolic Ca2+ and proton (H+) (Li et al., 2021) and found in replicated experiments that a higher Ca²⁺ concentration ratio was detected in the guard cells of gad1/2/4/5 compared with WT and gad2-1 mutants, whilst the H⁺ concentration ratio was unchanged (Fig. 4). These data suggest that the resting cytosolic Ca²⁺

concentration, but not pH, is affected by the severe impairment in GABA synthesis found in *gad1/2/4/5* compared with the lesser impaired *gad2-1* (Fig. 1). Furthermore, to test whether impaired GABA synthesis was linked to ROS or NO, as suggested in Bor & Turkan (2019), we measured ROS and NO production in the guard cells using H₂DCF-DA and DAF-2DA, respectively. We found that only ROS accumulation, not that of NO, was elevated in *gad1/2/4/5* guard cells compared to those from WT and *gad2-1* leaves and that ROS accumulation decreased to that of the WT and *gad2-1* by limiting apoplastic Ca²⁺ with EGTA treatment (Figs 3b, 5a, S3). The greater variation in Ca²⁺ concentration in *gad1/2/4/5* guard cells mirrors the greater variation also seen in ROS accumulation (Figs 4, 5).

To more directly determine whether altered ROS homeostasis contributes to the differential stomatal phenotype of *gad2-1* and *gad1/2/4/5*, we applied various ROS inhibitors to epidermal strips



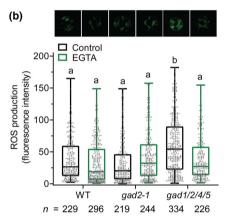


Fig. 3 Reactive oxygen species (ROS) accumulation is greater and stomatal conductance lower in gad1/2/4/5 compared with gad2-1, but can be complemented by reducing apoplastic Ca^{2+} . (a, b) Stomatal aperture (a) and guard-cell ROS production (b) of Arabidopsis wild-type (WT), gad2-1 and gad1/2/4/5 mutant plants. Epidermal strips were pre-incubated in stomatal pore measurement buffer for 1 h under light (200 μ m EGTA supplementation for 2 h to reduce apoplastic Ca^{2+} before stomatal aperture (a) or guard-cell ROS (b) measurement, replicate number as indicated within graph (n). Box plots indicate first quartile, median, and third quartile values; whiskers show minimum and maximum values. Different letters indicate significant differences at P < 0.01, following statistical analysis by two-way ANOVA. Assay buffer had no added calcium.

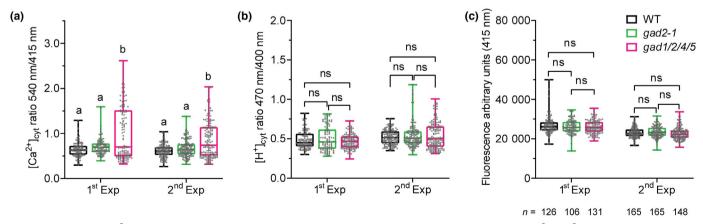


Fig. 4 Higher cytosolic Ca^{2+} concentration ratio is detected in the guard cells of the gad1/2/4/5 mutant. (a, c) Cytosolic Ca^{2+} ($[Ca^{2+}]_{cyt}$) (a) and H^+ ($[H^+]_{cyt}$) (b) ratio of ROI were calculated based on R-GECO1_{540 nm}/PRpHluorin_{415 nm} and PRpHluorin_{470 nm}/PRpHluorin_{400 nm}, as described in Li *et al.* (2021); and the arbitrary units of PRpHluorin fluorescence excited at 415 nm (known as the isosbestic point; Li *et al.*, 2021) was plotted as an internal control to determine CapHensor protein expression levels within Arabidopsis wild-type (WT) and gad mutant plants (c). Replicate number as indicated within graph (n). Box plots indicate first quartile, median, and third quartile values; whiskers show minimum and maximum values. Different letters indicate significant differences at P < 0.01, following statistical analysis by multiple t-test using a nonparametric test; ns, not significant.

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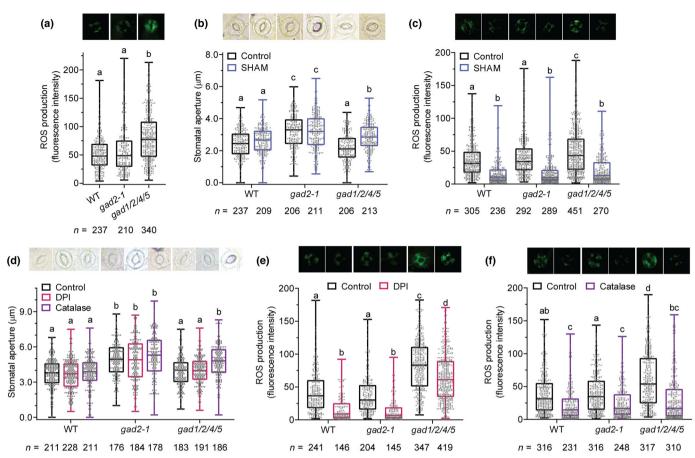


Fig. 5 Greater reactive oxygen species (ROS) production in guard cells in the gad1/2/4/5 mutant reduces its stomatal apertures to that of wild-type. (a–f) Guard-cell ROS production and stomatal aperture of Arabidopsis wild-type (WT), gad2-1 and gad1/2/4/5 mutant plants. Epidermal strips were pre-incubated in stomatal pore measurement buffer for 1 h under light (200 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹) and transferred to the same buffer (a) or buffers supplemented with 2 mM SHAM (b, c), 20 μM DPI (d, e) or 100 U ml⁻¹ catalase (d, f) for 2 h before guard-cell ROS (a, c, e, f) or stomatal aperture (b, d) measurement. Replicate number as indicated within graph (n). Box plots indicate first quartile, median, and third quartile values; whiskers show minimum and maximum values. Different letters indicate significant differences at P < 0.01, following statistical analysis by one-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc test (a) or two-way ANOVA (b–f). The same leaf areas were measured for all samples, the smaller replicates for stomata with lower ROS are a consequence of detection limits (i.e. stomata with zero signal were not counted).

and found that the stomatal aperture of gad1/2/4/5 was increased by a class III plant peroxidase inhibitor SHAM and catalase (that degrades H₂O₂), both of which reduce guard-cell ROS production (Fig. 5b-d,f). Intriguingly, the apoplastic NADPH oxidase inhibitor DPI, which has been previously implicated in Glu- and ROS-induced stomatal closure (Kong et al., 2016), did not reduce guard-cell ROS of gad1/2/4/5 to that of the WT, nor reduce the stomatal aperture (Fig. 5d-f). No difference was detected in loading of the ROS indicators between genotypes (Fig. S4), so collectively these data suggest a biological link between GABA and ROS accumulation. Previously, links have been made between peroxidase activity and GABA accumulation (Krush & Rastegar, 2023), which may indicate an imbalance in the ROS homeostasis when GAD activity is abolished. Furthermore, explicit links between chloroplastic H₂O₂ stimulating GABA production through GAD have been made (Maruta et al., 2013). As such, it is possible that GABA plays a major role in quenching chloroplastgenerated cytoplasmic ROS, rather than that of apoplasticgenerated ROS through NADPH oxidase.

The ROS inhibitors we used reduced basal ROS production in the guard cells of WT plants and *gad2-1* but did not alter stomatal aperture (Fig. 5b–f), suggesting that a decrease in basal guard-cell ROS production does not directly affect stomatal pore size, consistent with the previous research (Li *et al.*, 2016, 2018). Both *gad2* mutants and the *gad1/2* mutant had similar guard-cell ROS production to WT plants, whilst higher order mutants (*gad1/2/4/5*, *gad1/2/4*, and *gad1/2/5*) all produced greater ROS in their guard cells (Fig. S5a,b). This result likely explains why *gad1/2/4*, *gad1/4/5*, and *gad1/2/4/5* have WT-like stomatal phenotypes, unlike *gad2-1* and *gad1/2*, although all lines have depleted GABA in leaves (Fig. S1).

To further test the impact of GABA on ROS and stomatal conductance, we transformed the *gad1/2/4/5* mutant with an active form of *GAD2* (*GAD2*Δ) driven by the guard-cell-specific promoter *GC1* (*GC1::GAD2*Δ), which we previously used to increase GABA in *gad2* lines in Xu *et al.* (2021a). We recovered three independent *gad1/2/4/5/GC1::GAD2*Δ lines, all of which complemented ROS accumulation back to WT levels compared

with the significantly greater values seen in gad1/2/4/5 (Fig. 6a). Intriguingly, two ROS complemented lines had an increased stomatal conductance (gad1/2/4/5/GC1::GAD2\Delta #4 and #5, or lines #4 and #5), whereas the other *gad1/2/4/5/GC1::GAD2Δ* #2 (line #2) presented a WT-like stomatal conductance (Fig. 6b). As we have shown that gad1/2/4/5 has significantly greater ROS accumulation than all other lines tested (e.g. Fig. 6a) and that quenching ROS in gad1/2/4/5 increases stomatal aperture (Figs 3, 5), we investigated the relationship between GABA and stomatal conductance in our material with comparable ROS (Fig. 6c) (i.e. the complementation lines and WT, excluding gad1/2/4/5 which accumulates significantly greater ROS (Fig. 6a,c)). When examining these lines with equal ROS, we found stomatal conductance to be significantly negatively correlated with GABA concentration (P < 0.001; Fig. 6c). We interpret this result as a clear demonstration that GABA can impact stomatal conductance in two ways: (1) When GABA is low but sufficient to quench ROS (e.g. gad1/2/4/5/GC1::GAD2\Delta #4 and #5) (Figs 1, 6a), yet insufficient to constrain stomatal opening, this phenocopies the large stomatal aperture of gad2-1 (Figs 1, 6c; Xu et al., 2021a) and (2) a further rise in GABA accumulation, as observed in *gad1/2/4/5/* GC1::GAD2Δ #2, constrains stomatal opening leading to WT-like stomatal performance (Fig. 6), as is seen in WT and also gad2-1/ GC1::GAD2∆ (Xu et al., 2021a).

The GABA shunt is the major pathway for GABA metabolism in plants, which bypasses ROS-sensitive steps of TCA cycle and comprises three key enzymes – GAD, GABA-T, and SSADH (Gilliham & Tyerman, 2016). Under stress, the *ssadh* and *gad1/2* T-DNA knockout mutants have been associated with higher ROS production, whereas *gaba-t/pop2* (with greater GABA accumulation) has lower ROS production (Bouché *et al.*, 2003;

Su et al., 2019; Wu et al., 2021); collectively, this suggests the GABA shunt mediates ROS homeostasis under stress. However, none of these studies have found that GABA metabolism alters basal ROS production under nonstressed conditions. Here, we used the gad1/2/4/5 mutant and its complementation lines to study the impact of low tissue GABA on guard cell function. Much to our surprise, whilst gad1/2/4/5 had a lower leaf GABA content than gad2-1 and gad2-2, it did not share the two gad2 mutant's greater stomatal apertures and conductance; in fact, we found that it possessed WT-like stomatal apertures and conductance. On initial observation, despite two independent alleles of gad2 sharing the same stomatal phenotype and their phenotypic complementation by GAD2, gad1/2/4/5 not sharing the same stomatal phenotype as gad2 could be seen to call the role of GABA as a regulator of guard cell opening into question (Xu et al., 2021a). On closer examination, we have been able to determine - through multiple lines of evidence – that the gad1/2/4/5 quadruple knockout impairs guard-cell ROS homeostasis, which compromises the higher stomatal conductance and aperture caused by GABA deficiency observed in the gad2 single mutants (Figs 1, 5a; Xu et al., 2021a). By reducing ROS in the gad1/2/4/5 background, we can clearly restore the negative relationship between GABA accumulation and stomatal conductance (Fig. 6c). Despite the very low expression of GAD4 and GAD5 in leaves under standard conditions, they appear to have a major impact on stomatal phenotype when GAD2 is also ablated in guard cells.

The high ROS accumulation phenotype of *gad1/2/4/5* guard cells under control conditions and the greater stress induced ROS within *gad1/2* roots suggests the impact of GADs are differential but additive, and together with the lesser ROS in *pop2/gaba-t* lines (high GABA) (Wu *et al.*, 2021), this is consistent with GABA and

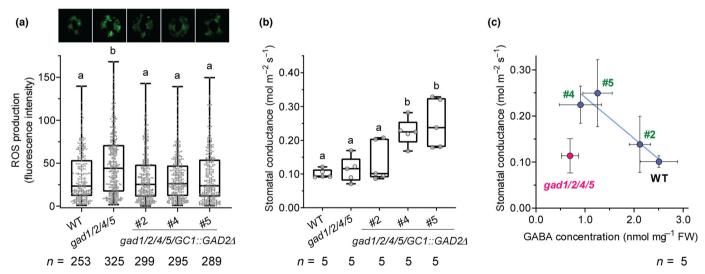


Fig. 6 Complementation of $GAD2\Delta$ reduces guard-cell reactive oxygen species (ROS) production and increases either GABA accumulation in leaves or stomatal conductance of gad1/2/4/5 mutant. (a, b) Guard-cell ROS production (a) and stomatal conductance (b) of Arabidopsis wild-type (WT), gad1/2/4/5 mutants and complementation plants. Guard-cell $GAD2\Delta$ complementation ($GC1::GAD2\Delta$) in gad1/2/4/5 restored guard-cell ROS production of $gad1/2/4/5/GC1::GAD2\Delta$ and gad1/2/4/5 restored guard-cell ROS production of $gad1/2/4/5/GC1::GAD2\Delta$ in $gad1/2/4/5/GC1::GAD2\Delta$ in gad

GADs being a key physiological mechanism for the modulation of ROS as a signalling agent under both standard and stressed conditions. There is evidence to suggest that GABA concentration (and some GAD expression) is diel regulated, reaching a maximum in early morning after exposure to light, then decreasing until the next light cycle, except under stress when GABA is constitutively high (Espinoza et al., 2010). This suggests that GABA may have more influence over ROS at these times, quenching ROS when stomata are opening and/or most open under standard conditions and having a lesser role when stomata are primed for closure. Moving forward, it would now be important to build better understanding of how GAD expression and GABA concentration is regulated and coordinated at the single-cell level to further explore the roles of the various GAD paralogs in whole plant function with respect to GABA's role in quenching ROS.

In addition to our study highlighting - again - the importance of single-cell processes and how they may be masked by examination of whole leaf phenotypes, it also raises a new question of how GABA, Glu, and ROS interact to maintain autonomous Ca²⁺ homeostasis in the guard cells. We found that chelation of apoplastic Ca²⁺ reduced both guard-cell ROS production and the enlarged stomatal aperture of gad1/2/4/5 leaves (Fig. 3) and that gad1/2/4/5 stomata are insensitive to Glu (Fig. S2). These data suggest that the increased ROS production in gad1/2/4/5 guard cells may well be linked to impaired Ca²⁺ homeostasis, which may be triggered by higher Glu content in gad1/2/4/5 leaves relative to gad2-1 or WT leaves; however, the gad1/2 mutant also has higher Glu and lower ROS, so further work needs to be conducted to explore the link with Glu (Fig. S1). As both Ca²⁺ and ROS can act both up and downstream of each other (Murata et al., 2015; Medeiros et al., 2020), we cannot confirm the exact order of events. Furthermore, as there are 20 GLRs, and as we already working in a quadruple mutant background, we have not been able to confirm, at this point in time, if GLRs are responsible for gad induced changes in Ca²⁺ and ROS. Further research will now be required to explore how plants balance GABA and Glu signalling via the GABA shunt to impact plant phenotypes as foreshadowed in Xu et al. (2021b), and examine the exact mechanism by which GABA controls ROS accumulation.

Our work has shed new light on the complexity of GABA signalling in plants and its role in modulating plant gas exchange. Previously, it was shown that GABA affects ABA, coronatine, and light- and dark-induced stomatal opening and closure (Xu et al., 2021a). γ-Aminobutyric acid is also known to impact the activity of Aluminium-activated Malate Transporters and is suggested to have other targets such as potassium channels or proton pumps (Ramesh et al., 2015, 2017; Xu et al., 2021b). Here, we show that GABA metabolism impacts ROS production and Glu accumulation in plants and adds further points of interaction for GABA as a signalling molecule.

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Competing interests

None declared.

Author contributions

BX, SZ, JK, RH, KRK and MG supervised the research. BX performed stomatal aperture, Ca²⁺-pH imaging and ROS measurements. XF performed stomatal conductance measurements, segregated and genotyped the gad mutants, prepared samples for GABA and Glu measurement, and constructed complemented plants. AP performed the stomatal density measurements and verified experimental data independently. BX and XF contributed equally to this work.

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Data availability

The data supporting the findings of this study are available in the Supporting Information of this article.

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Supporting Information

Additional Supporting Information may be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of the article.

- **Fig. S1** Loss of *GAD4* or *GAD5* compromises the *gad2-1* stomatal pore aperture.
- **Fig. S2** Glutamate closes stomata of wild-type and *gad2-1*, but not gad1/2/4/5 in presence of 50 μ M CaCl₂.
- **Fig. S3** Guard-cell NO production is similar between wild-type and *gad* mutants.
- **Fig. S4** Guard-cell ROS production, excited by mercury lamp for *c*. 20 s, is similar between wild-type and *gad* mutants, suggesting the guard cells of different genotypes plants all contains similar levels of H₂DCF-DA before imaging.
- **Fig. S5** Loss of *GAD4* or *GAD5* increases guard-cell ROS production in *gad1/2* mutant.
- **Table S1** Primer sets used to identify T-DNA insertion in Arabidopsis *gad* mutants.

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