

## 1.2 Photosynthetic and antioxidant responses of Mexican lime (*Citrus aurantifolia*) plants to *Citrus tristeza virus* infection

R. M. Pérez-Clemente, A. Montoliu, V. Vives, M. F. López-Climent and A. Gómez-Cadenas\*

 Departamento de Ciencias Agrarias y del Medio Natural, Universitat Jaume I, Castellón, Spain

The effect of *Citrus tristeza virus* (CTV) infection on photosynthetic activity and antioxidant metabolism was analysed in plants of the highly susceptible citrus genotype Mexican lime (*Citrus aurantifolia*). Two virus isolates differing in their virulence (the severe T318 and the mild T385) were used in the experiments. CTV infection caused a reduction in photosynthetic capacity in infected plants. This limitation was mainly due to a reduction in the carboxylative efficiency whereas the limitation of CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion through the stoma had lower impact. The virus did not damage the antennae and did not reduce the efficiency of light harvesting complexes. Oxidative damage occurred in infected plants, as evidenced by the increase in malondialdehyde levels. Indeed, CTV infection caused an increase in ascorbate peroxidase activity in new shoots developed in infected plants during the 2 years of the experiment. Data suggest that the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> removal machinery was not damaged as a result of stress but the defence mechanism was overwhelmed with time due to the continuing pressure of biotic stress.

**Keywords:** antioxidant activity,  $F_v/F_M$ , NPQ, photosynthesis, quantum yield

### Introduction

Citrus is the most economically important fruit tree worldwide, with more than 131 million tonnes of fruit produced in 2012 on more than 8.7 million ha (FAO, 2012). Among the viral diseases affecting citrus, 'tristeza' has the greatest impact worldwide (Moreno *et al.*, 2008). *Citrus tristeza virus* (CTV) has caused the death of millions of citrus trees in Argentina, Brazil, South Africa, USA and Spain; moreover, the disease keeps spreading into new areas, either by propagation of infected buds or transmitted by different aphid species (Saponari *et al.*, 2013).

Natural CTV hosts are restricted to two genera within the family Rutaceae, namely *Citrus* and *Fortunella*. Among citrus genotypes, Mexican lime (*Citrus aurantifolia*) is known to be the most susceptible to CTV (Moreno *et al.*, 2008).

As described in Moreno *et al.* (2008), CTV may cause three different syndromes depending on virus strains and on the plant species, namely tristeza, stem pitting and seedling yellows. Tristeza, the most dramatic syndrome, causes, in some cases, a quick decline that could lead to the death of the infected trees. Stem pitting seems to be initiated by interruption of meristematic activity at limited areas of the cambium that results in irregular radial growth with local depression at the activated points. Seedling yellows is characterized by stunting, production of small pale or yellow leaves, a reduced root system

and, sometimes, a complete arrest of growth of susceptible genotypes.

CTV is a filamentous plant virus with flexible virions composed of one molecule of single-stranded RNA of positive polarity, which has been completely sequenced, and one species of coat protein with molecular weight 25 kD (Karasev *et al.*, 1995). The genome structure of CTV has been well characterized and abundant data on the transcriptional changes induced in plants infected by CTV is available (Gandía *et al.*, 2007; Liu *et al.*, 2012). Although it is well known that infection results in the alteration of plant physiology, there is a lack of information on how CTV infection affects photosynthetic machinery, antioxidant activity and metabolic processes in citrus plants.

Photosynthesis is tightly regulated and its efficiency is strongly dependent on external abiotic and biotic factors influencing the status of the photosynthetic machinery. Chlorophyll fluorescence can be used as a diagnostic tool for photosystem II (PSII) and, therefore, as a marker of the impact of a specific stress situation on plant performance. In abiotic stress studies, chlorophyll fluorescence has been extensively used to describe changes in photosynthesis (Calatayud *et al.*, 2006; López-Climent *et al.*, 2008; Arbona *et al.*, 2009). Soil flooding and salt stress induce a progressive impairment of the photosynthetic machinery in citrus plants (López-Climent *et al.*, 2008; Arbona *et al.*, 2009). For virus-infected plants, there is a considerable disagreement regarding the alterations in chlorophyll fluorescence parameters. Whereas maximum fluorescence yield in dark-adapted leaves ( $F_v/F_M$ ) did not change in *Eupatorium makinoi* infected by a geminivirus

\*E-mail: aurelio.gomez@uji.es

P P A Journal Code	1 2 2 4 1 Manuscript No.	WILEY	Dispatch: 13.5.14	CE: Santiya R.
			No. of pages: 9	PE:

(Funayama *et al.*, 1997), it was significantly reduced in *Nicotiana tabacum* (Ryšlavà *et al.*, 2003) and in *Oncidium* (Chia & He, 1999) after virus infection.

The oxidation of water by the PSII complex results in the production of molecular oxygen that can also act as a potential electron acceptor, resulting in the formation of reactive oxygen species (ROS). These ROS, such as the superoxide radical ( $O_2^-$ ), hydrogen peroxide ( $H_2O_2$ ), hydroxyl radical ( $\cdot OH$ ), and singlet oxygen ( $^1O_2$ ) are important stress signalling molecules. Activated oxygen or oxygen-free radicals have been associated with numerous physiological disorders of plants (Bartwal *et al.*, 2013). ROS cause direct damage to plant cells through oxidation of biological components such as nucleic acids, proteins and lipids. Plants have developed an intricate defence response network of lipophilic and hydrophilic antioxidant compounds and enzymes that provide protection against conditions of excessive oxidative damage (Bartwal *et al.*, 2013). Among the enzymatic systems, ascorbate peroxidase (APX), catalase (CAT) and others greatly contribute to coping with the environmentally induced oxidative stress and their activities have been used to evaluate stress responses in plants. It has been reported that tolerance to different environmental stresses correlates with an increased production of enzymes involved in the detoxification of ROS (Arbona *et al.*, 2003, 2008; Kukavica *et al.*, 2005).

Although there are reports on the photosynthetic performance in some crops after virus infection, the effect of CTV infection on citrus photosynthetic performance has not been investigated. In this work, the effects of CTV infection on Mexican lime (a highly susceptible genotype) plants were analysed to better understand how biotic stress affects physiological and biochemical processes in citrus plants. To gain knowledge on the changes in photosynthetic machinery, gas exchange and chlorophyll fluorescence parameters were compared between infected and healthy plants. To test the relationship between the antioxidant mechanisms and the severity of the stress imposed by two CTV isolates (the virulent T318 and the mild T385) in Mexican lime plants, oxidative damage, in terms of leaf malondialdehyde (MDA) concentration together with antioxidant enzyme activities (APX and CAT), was measured.

## Materials and methods

### Plant material, virus isolates and inoculation of Mexican lime plants

Experiments were performed using Mexican lime (*C. aurantifolia*) plants. The isolates T318 and T385 used in this study are part of a collection kept at the Instituto Valenciano de Investigaciones Agrarias (Moncada, Spain) and were kindly provided by Dr Pedro Moreno. T385 is a mild isolate that only induces inconspicuous vein clearing in Mexican lime, whereas T318 is a severe isolate inducing strong vein clearing and stem pitting in Mexican lime and other citrus species (Moreno *et al.*, 1993). These isolates were maintained in container-grown sweet orange

plants propagated on *Carrizo citrange* (*C. sinensis* × *P. trifoliata*) rootstock in an insect-proof greenhouse.

For this study, Mexican lime seedlings were graft-inoculated with two bark pieces from either healthy plants or those infected with one of the two CTV isolates (six plants per treatment). Limes were grown in a temperature-controlled greenhouse (18/26°C night per day, photoperiod 6 h dark per 18 h dark) and 60–85% relative humidity using an artificial potting mix (50% sand and 50% peat moss). During this period, plants were watered three times a week with a half-strength Hoagland solution (Gómez-Cadenas *et al.*, 2002; Arbona *et al.*, 2006). CTV infection was confirmed by ELISA with monoclonal antibodies 3DF1 and 3CA5 (Cabra *et al.*, 2000) and by appearance of symptoms. Plants were kept under the described culture conditions for 2 years.

For oxidative damage and enzyme activity analyses, young sprouts with leaves were collected at different developmental stages during the active growing period and immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen.

### Chlorophyll fluorescence parameters

Measurements were performed with an OS 1-FL portable fluorometer (Opti-Sciences). Five replicate plants per treatment were randomly chosen and maximum dark-adapted chlorophyll fluorescence,  $[F_v/F_M = (F_M - F_o)/F_M]$ , was measured after 30 min of dark adaptation in four different leaves. Quantum yield  $[\Phi_{PSII} = (F_M' - F_s)/F_M']$  was measured in the same leaves after actinic light adaptation. Non-photochemical quenching  $[NPQ = (F_M - F_M')/F_M']$  was calculated.  $F_v/F_M$  indicates the maximum chlorophyll yield after modulated light pulse emission; the variation in  $F_o$  is related to damage in the PSII reaction centres whereas changes in  $F_M$  refer to alterations in the ability to reduce  $Q_A$ .  $F_M'$  is the maximum fluorescence in leaves under regular PAR (actinic radiation) and  $F_s$  is the minimum;  $\Phi_{PSII}$  gives information about the non-cyclic electron transport from PSII to PSI. All terminology and calculations were performed according to Calatayud *et al.* (2006) and López-Climent *et al.* (2008).

### Gas exchange

Leaf-gas exchange parameters were measured with an LCpro+ portable infrared gas analyser (ADC Bioscientific Ltd) under ambient  $CO_2$  and humidity. Supplemental light was provided by a PAR lamp at  $1000 \mu mol m^{-2} s^{-1}$  photon flux density and air flow was set at  $150 \mu mol s^{-1}$ . After instrument stabilization, measurements were taken on four mature leaves (from an intermediate position on the stem) in each of the four plants chosen per treatment. Net  $CO_2$  assimilation rate ( $\mu mol m^{-2} s^{-1}$ ;  $A$ ), the ratio of intercellular to ambient  $CO_2$  concentration ( $C_i/C_a$ ) and stomatal conductance ( $mol m^{-2} s^{-1}$ ;  $g_s$ ) were measured.

### Malondialdehyde concentration and antioxidant enzyme activity

Malondialdehyde concentration was measured following the procedure described in Hodges *et al.* (1999). Plant material was homogenized in 5 mL 80% cold ethanol (Panreac) using a tissue homogenizer (Ultra-Turrax; IKA-Werke). Homogenates were centrifuged at 4°C to pellet debris and different aliquots of the supernatant were mixed either with 20% trichloroacetic acid (TCA; Panreac) or a mixture of 20% TCA and 0.5% thiobarbituric acid (Sigma-Aldrich). Both mixtures were allowed to react in a waterbath at 90°C for 1 h. After this time, samples were

1 cooled in an ice bath and centrifuged. Absorbance at 440, 534  
2 and 600 nm was read in the supernatant against a blank. The  
3 MDA concentration in the extracts was calculated as described  
4 in Arbona *et al.* (2008).

5 Protein extraction was performed using a prechilled mortar  
6 and pestle in an ice bath. Briefly, 0.5 g frozen plant material  
7 was extracted in 2.5 mL phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) using  
8 sea sand as an abrasive. After extraction, the mortar was rinsed  
9 with another 2.5 mL buffer that was also collected. The homog-  
10 enate was filtered through two layers of muslin cloth. The differ-  
11 ent buffers used for enzyme extraction were the following: for  
12 APX, 50 mM PBS pH 7.1 supplemented with 1 mM sodium  
13 ascorbate, 0.1 mM EDTA and two drops of Triton X-100 (Pan-  
14 reac); and for CAT, 50 mM PBS pH 6.8. Homogenates were  
15 centrifuged at 2360 g for 45 min at 4°C and the supernatants  
16 were collected for determination. The APX activity (EC  
17 1.11.1.11) was determined following the depletion in absor-  
18 bance at 290 nm because of ascorbic acid (Asa) consumption,  
19 and CAT (EC 1.11.1.6) was assayed using the hydrogen perox-  
20 ide-dependent reduction of titanium chloride. Protein content in  
21 extracts was assessed by means of the protein-dye binding  
22 method using Coomassie blue G-250 (Sigma-Aldrich). Enzyme  
23 activity was expressed as arbitrary units per mg protein. Further  
24 details on enzyme assays are given in Arbona *et al.* (2003).

## 25 Statistical analysis

26 Data mean comparisons were performed with STATGRAPHICS PLUS v.  
27 5.1 software (Statistical Graphics Corporation). One-way analysis  
28 of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare mean values among the  
29 different treatments. The least significant difference (LSD) test at  
30  $P \leq 0.05$  was followed to assess significant differences.

## 31 Results

### 32 Symptoms of CTV infection in Mexican lime plants

33 The first symptoms of viral infection in Mexican lime  
34 plants were observed 4 weeks after inoculation. Eight  
35 weeks after the onset of the experiments, the symptoms  
36 of CTV infection were evident in all inoculated plants.  
37 The primary symptoms observed in plants infected with  
38 both isolates were vein clearing in young and mature  
39 leaves, and leaf cupping. In the case of plants infected  
40 with the severe isolate CTV (T318), vein clearing devel-  
41 oped into corking of the main vein. Twenty-four weeks  
42 after the inoculation, corking was extended to the sec-  
43 ondary leaf veins and the death of 15% of the new  
44 sprouts was recorded (data not shown).

45 During the second year after inoculation, a reduction  
46 in the leaf size was observed in leaves regardless of the  
47 severity of the isolate used for the inoculation. Vein  
48 corking was the most evident symptom in plants infected  
49 with T318, and a general leaf abscission together with  
50 the death of new branches (including those with 15 to  
51 22 leaves) occurred in these plants.

### 52 Chlorophyll fluorescence parameters

53 Measurements of chlorophyll fluorescence and gas  
54 exchange parameters during the second year of the  
55 experiment are only included for plants infected with the

56 mild CTV isolate because infection with the severe iso-  
57 late T318 resulted in low and highly variable values.

58 Leaves of healthy plants maintained  $F_V/F_M$  levels  
59 around 0.8 throughout the 2-year experimental period.  
CTV infection affected this parameter during the first  
year after inoculation; from 17 to 39 weeks after inocu-  
lation, infected plants showed a significant decrease in  
 $F_V/F_M$  levels with respect to healthy plants, regardless  
of the virulence of the virus isolate (Fig. 1a.I). However,  
from week 41 to the end of the first year after inocula-  
tion, infected plant values of  $F_V/F_M$  were similar to  
healthy plants. During the second year after infection,  
leaves infected with CTV T385 presented  $F_V/F_M$  values  
significantly lower than those measured in non-infected  
plants at all data points (Fig. 1a.II).

Biotic stress reduced  $\Phi_{PSII}$  in Mexican lime plants  
(Fig. 1b). At the first data point, infection caused a 4.4%  
decrease in  $\Phi_{PSII}$  in plants inoculated with the mild iso-  
late and a 5.5% reduction in those inoculated with the  
severe CTV isolate, in relation to control values. During  
the second year, PSII quantum efficiency could only be  
measured in plants infected with the mild isolate.  
Throughout this period, virus infection caused a drastic  
decrease in  $\Phi_{PSII}$  as shown in Figure 1b.II. For example,  
88 weeks after inoculation,  $\Phi_{PSII}$  in infected plants was  
18.6% lower than in healthy plants.

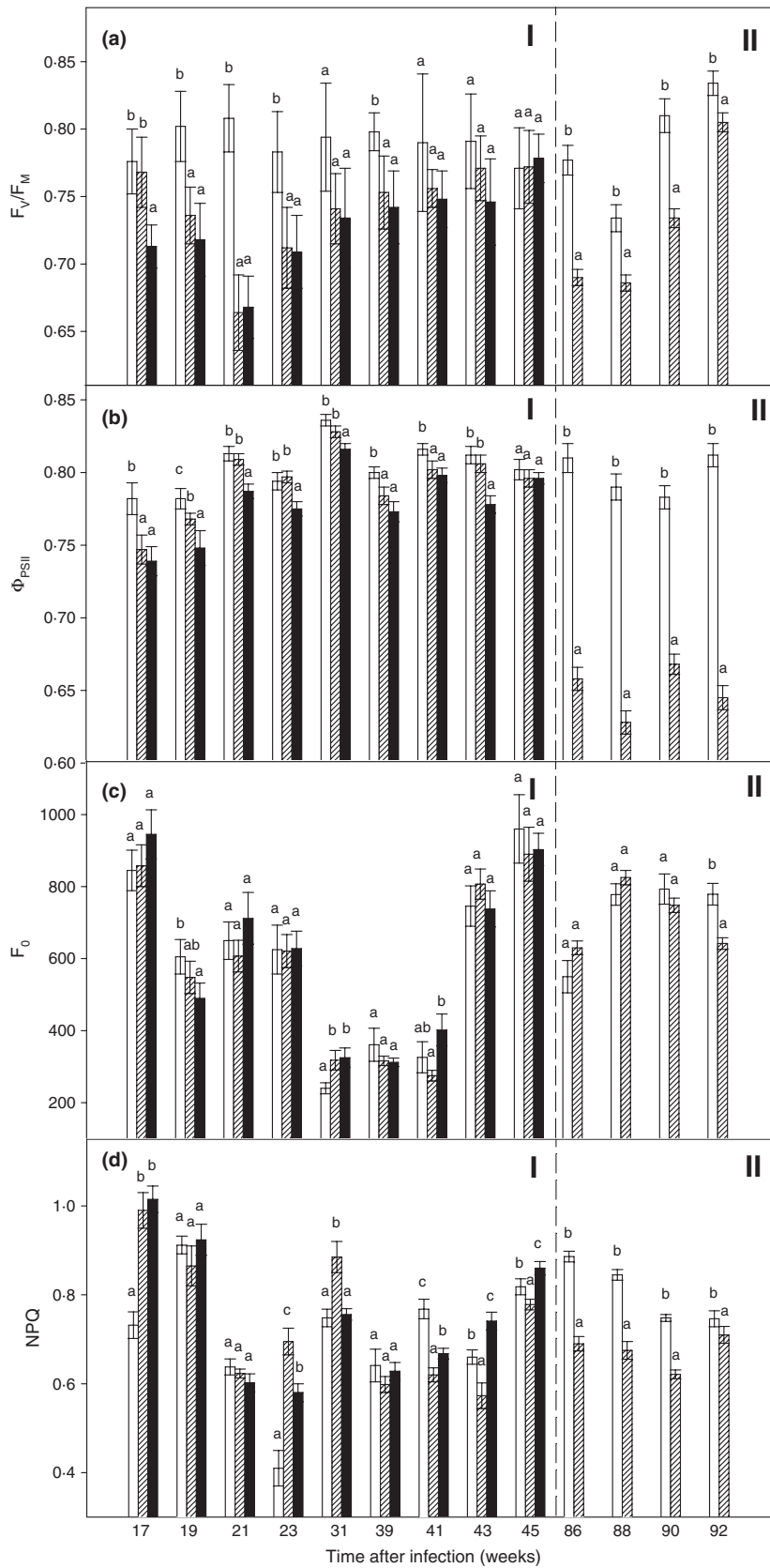
CTV infection did not have a consistent effect on Fo  
values (Fig. 1c). In most of the data points Fo values  
were similar between infected and healthy plants. How-  
ever, at weeks 19 and 92, infected plants showed Fo val-  
ues lower than healthy ones. In contrast, at weeks 31  
and 41 an increase in Fo occurred as a consequence of  
virus infection.

At the beginning of the experimental period, NPQ  
drastically increased (1.8-fold at week 17) in leaves of  
plants infected with both CTV isolates (Fig. 1d). From  
this week and for the rest of the first year of study, NPQ  
values showed no clear trend. During the second year of  
the experiment, CTV infection induced a significant  
decrease in NPQ values in leaves of plants inoculated  
with T385 isolate (23.0% reduction at week 86;  
Fig. 1d.II).

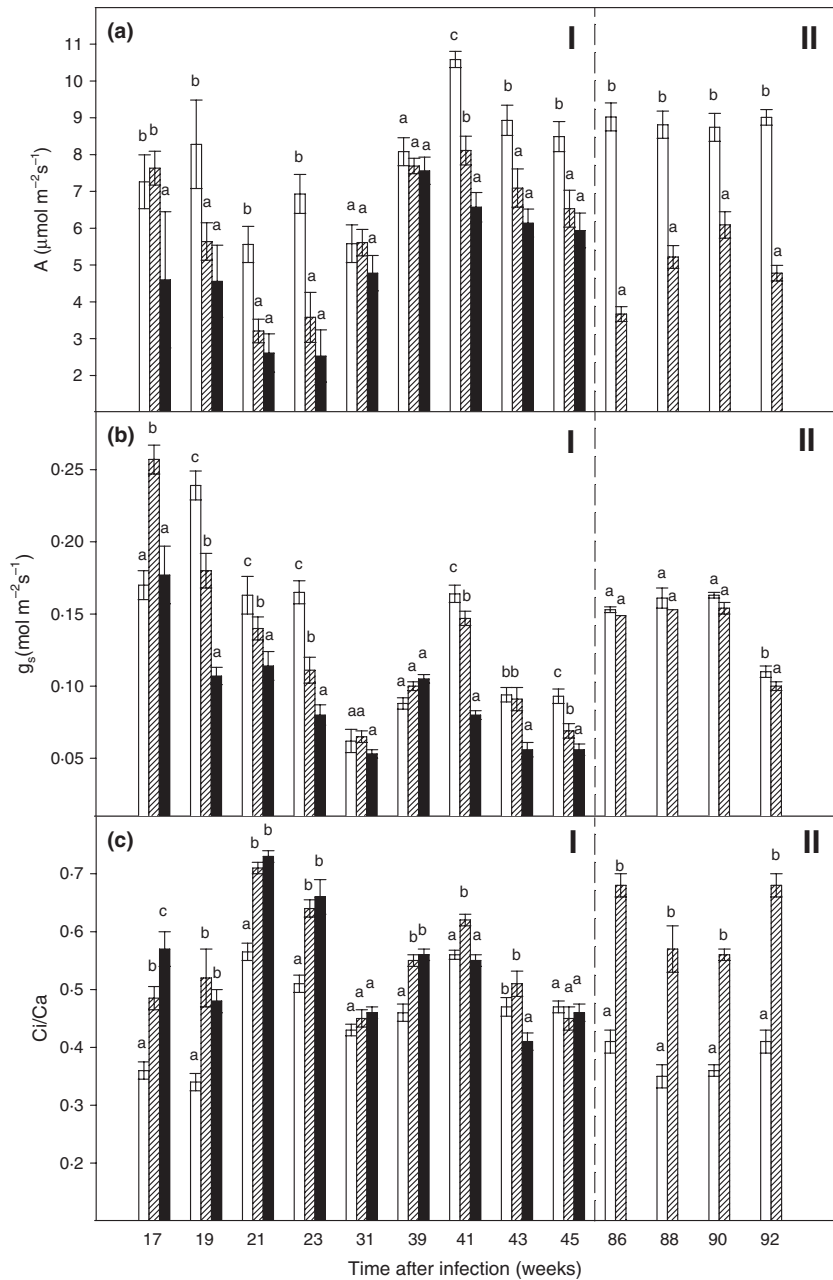
### 59 Gas exchange parameters

In general, lower  $A$  and  $g_s$  and higher  $C_i/C_a$  were found  
in leaves of infected plants in comparison with non-  
infected ones. As shown in Figure 2a, CTV infection  
induced a decrease in  $A$  throughout the experimental  
period, this reduction being stronger in plants infected  
with the severe isolate T318. At week 21, net  $CO_2$   
assimilation rate in leaves of plants infected with T385  
declined until reaching values 42.2% lower than those in  
healthy plants. By 86 weeks after infection,  $A$  in T385  
infected plants decreased further to reach values 59.3%  
lower than the control (Figure 2a.II).

In general, stomatal conductance decreased after CTV  
infection, regardless of the virulence of the isolate  
(Fig. 2b). During the first year after virus inoculation,



**Figure 1** Chlorophyll fluorescence parameters in Mexican lime leaves after CTV infection. (a) Maximum fluorescence yield in dark-adapted leaves ( $F_V/F_M$ ). (b) Quantum yield in light-adapted leaves ( $\Phi_{PSII}$ ). (c) Basal fluorescence in dark-adapted leaves ( $F_0$ ). (d) Non-photochemical quenching (NPQ). I: first year after infection, II: second year after infection. Symbols denote (□) control plants, (■) plants infected with the severe T318 isolate, and (▨) plants infected with the mild T385 isolate. Data are mean values of 20 independent measurements  $\pm$  standard error. Different letters denote significant differences at  $P \leq 0.05$  on each date.



**Figure 2** Gas exchange parameters in Mexican lime plants after CTV infection. (a) Net CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation rate (*A*). (b) Stomatal conductance (*g<sub>s</sub>*). (c) Intercellular to ambient CO<sub>2</sub> ratio (*C<sub>i</sub>/C<sub>a</sub>*). I: first year after infection, II: second year after infection. Symbols denote (□) control plants, (■) plants infected with the severe T318 isolate, and (▨) plants infected with the mild T385 isolate. Data are mean values of at least 20 independent measurements ± standard error. Different letters denote significant differences at  $P \leq 0.05$  on each date.

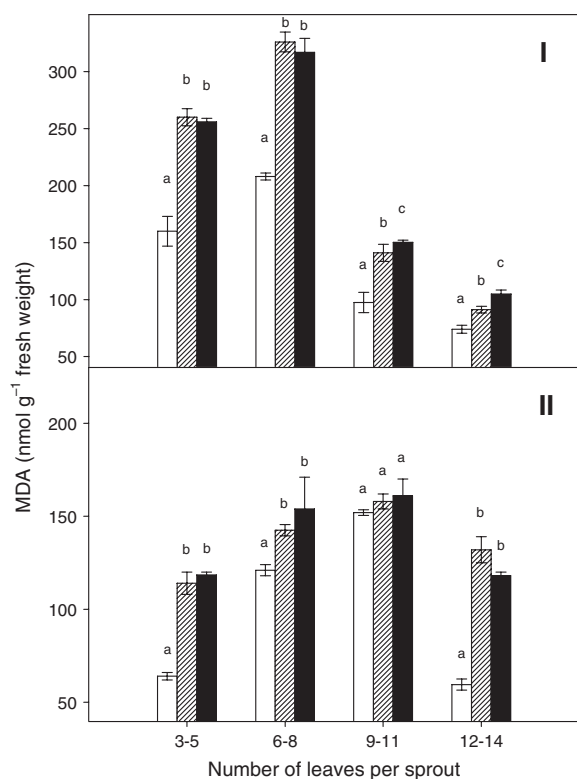
leaves of plants infected with the severe isolate T318 exhibited the lowest  $g_s$  values, being, for example, 51.2% lower than in non-infected plants at week 41. During the second year of experiment, similar values of  $g_s$  were recorded in leaves of healthy and infected plants although at the end of the experimental period, a slight decrease in infected plants was observed (Fig. 2b.II).

Despite some variability, the ratio of intercellular to ambient CO<sub>2</sub> concentration generally increased in leaves of infected plants during the first year after infection (Fig. 2c.I). From week 19 to 39 there were no significant differences between plants infected with isolates T385 or T318 although at week 41 and 43, leaves of plants

infected with the mild virus isolate T385 showed higher values of this parameter. During the second year, there was a drastic increase in Ci/Ca in leaves of infected plants (1.6-fold; Fig.2c.II).

#### MDA concentration

Oxidative damage in response to CTV infection was studied in leaves of Mexican lime in terms of MDA concentration (Fig. 3). Biotic stress increased MDA content in sprouts at all stages of development, both in the first and second years after inoculation. Throughout the experimental period the differences between healthy and



**Figure 3** Malondialdehyde (MDA) concentration in shoots of Mexican lime at different stages of development after CTV infection. I: first year after infection, II: second year after infection. Symbols denote (□) control plants, (■) plants infected with the severe T318 isolate, and (▨) plants infected with the mild T385 isolate. Data are mean values of six independent replicates  $\pm$  standard error. Different letters denote significant differences at  $P \leq 0.05$  at each stage of sprout development.

infected plants were statistically significant. During the first year, sprouts of 3–5 and 6–8 leaves exhibited maximum differences, MDA concentration being 1.6-fold higher in infected plants than in healthy plants.

#### Antioxidant enzymatic activity

APX activity was higher in infected plants at all stages of development. However, there were no differences in APX activity between shoots of plants infected with the two virus isolates at any stage of shoot development (Fig. 4a). During the second year of the experiment differences in APX activity between inoculated and non-infected plants drastically increased. APX activity in infected sprouts at early developmental stages (3–5 leaves) was 2.0-fold higher than in non-infected ones. This increase was more pronounced in infected sprouts at later developmental stages (9–11 and 12–14 leaves), reaching values 2.5- and 2.7-fold higher than those determined in healthy leaves, respectively.

Contrary to what was observed in APX, virus infection induced a reduction in CAT activity (Fig. 4b). During

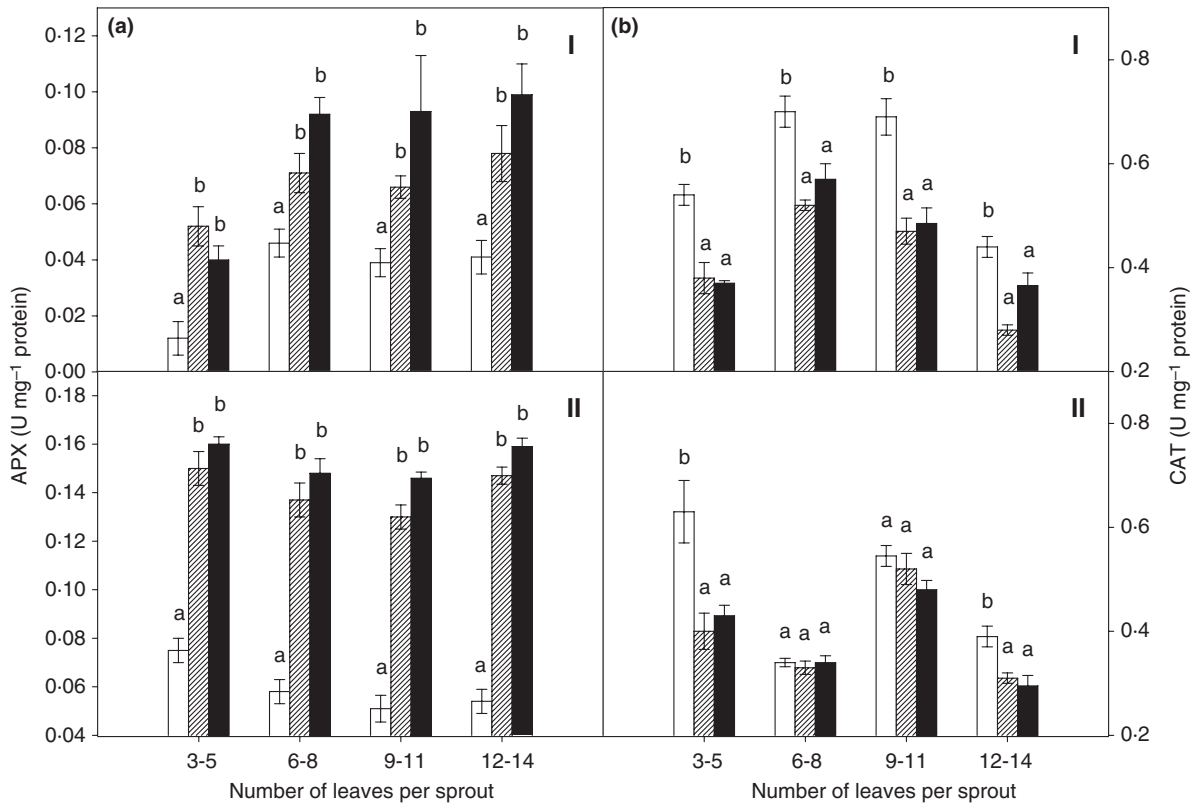
the first year after inoculation, differences in CAT activity were statistically significant between infected and healthy plants at all stages of sprout development. During the second year, CTV infection only induced reductions in CAT activity in the youngest and the oldest sprouts.

#### Discussion

In general, citrus genotypes are hosts for CTV, but there is a wide diversity in their response to viral infection, which is isolate-dependent. Mexican lime was chosen as a citrus model in this study because of its high susceptibility to CTV (Moreno *et al.*, 2008).

Whereas many studies have been directed towards understanding the structure, genetics, pathogenicity determinants and transport of viruses in plants, much less is known about the impact of a virus infection on plant physiology. Therefore, the present work studied the effect of CTV infection on chlorophyll fluorescence and gas exchange parameters, malondialdehyde concentration (to evaluate the oxidative damage) and antioxidant enzyme activity, in Mexican lime plants infected either with a mild or severe CTV isolate.

Although there are some reports on photosynthetic performance after virus infection (Chia & He, 1999; Rýšlavá *et al.*, 2003; Funayama-Noguchi & Terashima, 2006; Song *et al.*, 2009), until now there have been no investigations of photosynthetic responses of citrus plants to infection by CTV. The results of this study indicate that photosynthetic ability was reduced by CTV infection in Mexican lime plants, regardless of the virulence of the isolate used for infection. Biotic stress caused by CTV reduced  $\Phi_{PSII}$  values in infected plants by about 5%. It has been reported that under abiotic stress conditions, reductions in  $\Phi_{PSII}$  are associated with increases in NPQ (Osmond *et al.*, 1999; López-Climent *et al.*, 2008), suggesting an attempt to dissipate excess energy. These findings are in concordance with those observed during the first stages of virus infection; 17 weeks after inoculation, NPQ values strongly increased, regardless of the virus isolate. However, no study has examined, to date, the long-term effect of CTV infection on photosynthesis. Results of the present investigation show that, with the progress of infection, NPQ values in leaves of infected plants tended to decrease, being 23.0% lower than those determined in healthy plants at 86 weeks after infection. This could indicate an over-excitation of the photochemical system leading to an accumulation of reduced electron acceptors. This may in turn increase the accumulation of reactive radicals, which may further injure PSII components. A similar trend in NPQ values associated with virus infection has been reported in *Nicotiana benthamiana* plants infected with *Pepper mild mottle virus* (Pérez-Bueno *et al.*, 2006). Those authors proposed that virus-induced disturbances of the Benson–Calvin cycle could lead to an increase of the intra-thylakoidal pH gradient contributing to the NPQ increase during virus infection.



**Figure 4** Antioxidant enzymatic activity in shoots of Mexican lime at different stages of development after CTV infection. (a) Ascorbate peroxidase activity (APX). (b) Catalase (CAT) activity. I: first year after infection, II: second year after infection. Symbols denote (□) control plants, (■) plants infected with the severe T318 isolate, and (▨) plants infected with the mild T385 isolate. Data are mean values of six independent replicates  $\pm$  standard error. Different letters denote significant differences at  $P \leq 0.05$  at each stage of sprout development.

Contrary to that observed in citrus plants under abiotic stress conditions (Arbona *et al.*, 2009), CTV infection did not cause an increase in  $F_o$ , which suggests that virus infection did not damage the antennae and, therefore, did not reduce the efficiency of the light-harvesting complexes. The decrease in  $A$  observed in the present work together with the concomitant increase in  $C_i/C_a$  and reductions in  $F_v/F_m$  and  $\Phi_{PSII}$ , suggest that limitations in photosynthetic activity induced by CTV in citrus are caused mainly by the reduction in carboxylative efficiency, whereas the limitation of  $CO_2$  diffusion through the stoma seems to have a lower impact. In contrast to these findings, no evident changes in  $F_v/F_m$  were detected in peach plants infected for a long term with *Plum pox virus*, although the decrease in NPQ values in those plants reflected a reduced capacity for dissipation excess of light energy and an increase of reactive species of oxygen was detected (Hernandez *et al.*, 2004).

In plants growing under stress conditions, the lack of effective mechanisms for energy dissipation in a defective photosynthetic system, together with the increase of alternative electron sinks, may cause more electrons to divert to photorespiration and/or the Mehler reaction instead of being used in photosynthetic

processes. This would cause an increase in active oxygen species and therefore result in higher oxidative damage. Results described in this work suggest that the lack of increase in NPQ in response to infection may be responsible, at least in part, for the MDA accumulation.

Several enzymatic activities greatly contribute to coping with oxidative stress and their activities have been used to evaluate stress responses in plants (Arbona *et al.*, 2008). However, under different biotic stress conditions, antioxidant enzymatic activities vary considerably. Usually, there is an increase in APX activity in wounded tissues (Samsone *et al.*, 2011) or in those damaged by chewing herbivores (Hu *et al.*, 2009). In contrast, phloem-sucking aphids cause a decrease in APX activity together with an increase in peroxidase activity in the affected tissues (Khattab, 2007). A decrease in antioxidant capacity in stressed tissues results in higher levels of ROS that may contribute to further injury (Bartwal *et al.*, 2013). The results of the present study show an increase in APX activity in new shoots developed in infected plants during the two years of the experiment. These data suggest that the machinery responsible for the removal of  $H_2O_2$  was not damaged as a result of stress. However, CAT activity decreased significantly, especially

during the first year of infection. This may have occurred because the damage was localized in chloroplasts (where APX is active) whereas the CAT enzyme is localized in peroxisomes and is absent from chloroplasts (Singh *et al.*, 2010). Therefore, the results indicate a certain capacity of infected Mexican lime plants for H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> detoxification. However, the accumulation of MDA in infected plants would indicate that part of the ROS escape from the detoxification system, due to the continuous pressure exerted by the stress, and thereby cause an increase in lipid peroxidation.

It has been proposed that alterations in the activities of reactive oxygen species-scavenging enzymes could be a key step in the activation of the phytopathogenic response (De Gara *et al.*, 2003). In the present investigation, MDA levels and antioxidant enzymatic activities did not correlate with the differences in virulence between the two isolates. The APX activity, which plays an essential role in ROS scavenging, increased to the same extent in plants infected with either the severe or mild virus isolate. In addition, CAT activity decreased to the same extent in plants infected with either isolate, in agreement with results found in other host-pathogen systems (Hernandez *et al.*, 2004). In contrast, Hakmaoui *et al.* (2012) reported that the antioxidant response and the extent of oxidative stress in *N. benthamiana* plants correlated with the different virulence of isolates. This disagreement between investigations could be attributed to the different systems used in the trials. The present work was carried out with a woody species and the first effects of viral infection were estimated weeks after infection. However, Hakmaoui and collaborators performed the experiments with an herbaceous species and results were measured between 7 and 28 days after the infection.

It can be concluded from the current investigation that CTV infection caused impairment of the photosynthetic machinery, although the antennae complex was not affected and the availability of CO<sub>2</sub> in the substomatal cavity was not a limiting factor. Restrictions in photosynthetic activity induced by CTV seem related to a reduction in the carboxylative efficiency. As a consequence of the defective photosynthetic system, infected leaf cells suffered oxidative damage. Although infected plants exhibited some ability for H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> detoxification by activating APX activity, this defence mechanism was overwhelmed with time due to the continuing pressure of biotic stress.

## Acknowledgements

This work was supported by Universitat Jaume I (SPAIN) through grants P1B2012-06 and P1B2013-23 and by the Spanish Ministerio de Economía y Competitividad (MINECO) through grant no. AGL2010-22195-C03-01. The authors thank Drs Pedro Moreno and José Guerri from IVIA (Valencia) for providing the CTV isolates and their technical support. All authors declare no conflict of interest.

## References

- Arbona V, Flors V, Jacas J, García-Agustín P, Gómez-Cadenas A, 2003. Enzymatic and non-enzymatic antioxidant responses of Carrizo citrange, a salt-sensitive citrus rootstock, to different levels of salinity. *Plant and Cell Physiology* **44**, 388–94.
- Arbona V, López-Climent MF, Mehouchi J, Pérez-Clemente RM, Abrams SR, Gómez-Cadenas A, 2006. Use of persistent analogues of abscisic acid as palliatives against salt-stress induced damage in citrus plants. *Journal of Plant Growth Regulation* **25**, 1–9.
- Arbona V, Hossain Z, López-Climent MF, Pérez-Clemente RM, Gómez-Cadenas A, 2008. Antioxidant enzymatic activity is linked to waterlogging stress tolerance in citrus. *Physiologia Plantarum* **132**, 452–66.
- Arbona V, López-Climent MF, Pérez-Clemente RM, Gómez-Cadenas A, 2009. Maintenance of a high photosynthetic performance is linked to flooding tolerance in citrus. *Environmental and Experimental Botany* **66**, 135–42.
- Bartwal A, Mall R, Lohani P, Guru SK, Arora S, 2013. Role of secondary metabolites and brassinosteroids in plant defense against environmental stresses. *Journal of Plant Growth Regulation* **32**, 216–32.
- Calatayud A, Iglesias DJ, Talon M, Barreno E, 2006. Effects of long-term ozone exposure on citrus: chlorophyll a fluorescence and gas exchange. *Photosynthetica* **44**, 548–54.
- Cambra M, Gorris MT, Román MP *et al.*, 2000. Routine detection of citrus tristeza virus by direct immunoprinting-ELISA method using specific monoclonal and recombinant antibodies. In: da Graça JV, Lee RF, Yokomi RK, eds. *Proceedings of the 14th International Conference of the Organization of Citrus Virologists*. IOCV: California, USA, 34–41.
- Chia TF, He J, 1999. Photosynthetic capacity in *Oncidium* (Orchidaceae) plants after virus eradication. *Environmental and Experimental Botany* **42**, 11–6.
- De Gara L, De Pinto MC, Tommasi F, 2003. The antioxidant systems vis-à-vis reactive oxygen species during plant-pathogen interaction. *Plant Physiology and Biochemistry* **41**, 863–70.
- FAO, 2012. FAOSTAT. [<http://faostat3.fao.org/faostat-gateway/go/to/download/Q/QC/E>]. Accessed 2 May 2014.
- Funayama S, Sonoike K, Terashima I, 1997. Photosynthetic properties of leaves of *Eupatorium makinoi* infected by a geminivirus. *Photosynthesis Research* **52**, 253–61.
- Funayama-Noguchi S, Terashima I, 2006. Effects of *Eupatorium yellow vein virus* infection on photosynthetic rate, chlorophyll content and chloroplast structure in leaves of *Eupatorium makinoi* during leaf development. *Functional Plant Biology* **33**, 165–75.
- Gandía M, Conesa A, Ancillo G *et al.*, 2007. Transcriptional response of *Citrus aurantifolia* to infection by *Citrus tristeza virus*. *Virology* **367**, 298–306.
- Gómez-Cadenas A, Arbona V, Jacas J, Primo-Millo E, Talón M, 2002. Abscisic acid reduces leaf abscission and increases salt tolerance in citrus plants. *Journal of Plant Growth Regulation* **21**, 234–40.
- Hakmaoui A, Pérez-Bueno ML, García-Fontana B *et al.*, 2012. Analysis of the antioxidant response of *Nicotiana benthamiana* to infection with two isolates of *Pepper mild mottle virus*. *Journal of Experimental Botany* **63**, 5487–96.
- Hernandez JA, Rubio M, Olmos E, Ros-Barcelo A, Martínez-Gómez P, 2004. Oxidative stress induced by long-term plum pox virus infection in peach (*Prunus persica*). *Physiologia Plantarum* **122**, 486–95.
- Hodges DM, DeLong JM, Forney CF, Prange RK, 1999. Improving the thiobarbituric acid-reacting substances assay for estimating lipid peroxidation in plant tissues containing anthocyanin and other interfering compounds. *Planta* **207**, 604–11.
- Hu ZH, Shen YB, Shen FY, Su XH, 2009. Effects of feeding *Clostera anachoreta* on hydrogen peroxide accumulation and activities of peroxidase, catalase, and ascorbate peroxidase in *Populus simonii* × *P. pyramidalis* 'Opera 8277' leaves. *Acta Physiologiae Plantarum* **31**, 995–1002.



- 1 Karasev AV, Boyko VP, Gowda S *et al.*, 1995. Complete sequence of the  
2 *Citrus tristeza virus* RNA genome. *Virology* **208**, 511–20.
- 3 Khattab H, 2007. The defense mechanism of cabbage plant against  
4 phloem-sucking aphid (*Brevicoryne brassicae* L.). *Australian Journal of*  
5 *Basic and Applied Sciences* **1**, 56–62.
- 6 Kukavica B, Vucinic Z, Vuletic M, 2005. Superoxide-dismutase,  
7 peroxidase, and germin-like protein activity in plasma membranes and  
8 apoplast of maize roots. *Protoplasma* **226**, 191–7.
- 9 Liu Y, Wang G, Wang Z, Yang F, Wu G, Hong N, 2012. Identification  
10 of differentially expressed genes in response to infection of a mild  
11 *Citrus tristeza virus* isolate in *Citrus aurantifolia* by suppression  
12 subtractive hybridization. *Scientia Horticulturae* **134**, 144–9.
- 13 López-Climent MF, Arbona V, Pérez-Clemente RM, Gómez-Cadenas A,  
14 2008. Relationship between salt tolerance and photosynthetic  
15 machinery performance in citrus. *Environmental and Experimental*  
16 *Botany* **62**, 176–84.
- 17 Moreno P, Guerri J, Ballester-Olmos JF, Albiach R, Martínez ME, 1993.  
18 Separation and interference of isolates from a citrus tristeza virus  
19 isolate evidenced by biological activity and double stranded RNA  
20 (dsRNA) analysis. *Plant Pathology* **42**, 35–41.
- 21 Moreno P, Ambrós S, Albiach-Martí MR, Guerri J, Peña L, 2008. Citrus  
22 tristeza virus, a pathogen that changed the course of the citrus  
23 industry. *Molecular Plant Pathology* **9**, 251–8.
- 24 Osmond CB, Anderson JM, Ball MC, Egerton JJG, 1999. Compromising  
25 efficiency: the molecular ecology of light-resource utilization in  
26 terrestrial plants. In: Press MC, Scholes JD, Barker MG, eds.  
27 *Physiological Plant Ecology*. Oxford, UK: Blackwell Science, 1–24.
- 28 Pérez-Bueno ML, Ciscato M, vandeVen M, , García Luque I, Valcke R,  
29 Barón M. 2006. Imaging viral infection: studies on in *Nicotiana*  
30 *benthamiana* plants infected with the Pepper mild mottle tobamovirus.  
31 *Photosynthesis Research* **90**, 111–23.
- 32 Ryšlavá H, Müller K, Semorádová Š, Synková H, Čerovská N, 2003.  
33 Photosynthesis and activity of phosphoenolpyruvate carboxylase in  
34 *Nicotiana tabacum* leaves infected by *Potato virus A* and *Potato virus*  
35 *Y*. *Photosynthetica* **41**, 357–63.
- 36 Samsone I, Anderson U, Levinsh G, 2011. Gall midge *Rhabdophaga*  
37 *rosaria*-induced rosette galls on *Salix*: morphology, photochemistry of  
38 photosynthesis and defense enzyme activity. *Environmental and*  
39 *Experimental Botany* **9**, 29–36.
- 40 Saponari M, Loconsole G, Liao HH, Jiang B, Savino V, Yokomi RK,  
41 2013. Validation of high-throughput real time polymerase chain  
42 reaction assays for simultaneous detection of invasive citrus pathogens.  
43 *Journal of Virological Methods* **193**, 478–86.
- 44 Singh BK, Sharmab SR, Singh B, 2010. Antioxidant enzymes in cabbage:  
45 variability and inheritance of superoxide dismutase, peroxidase and  
46 catalase. *Scientia Horticulturae* **124**, 9–13.
- 47 Song X, Wang Y, Mao W *et al.*, 2009. Effects of *Cucumber mosaic virus*  
48 infection on electron transport and antioxidant system in chloroplasts  
49 and mitochondria of cucumber and tomato leaves. *Physiologia*  
50 *Plantarum* **135**, 246–57.
- 51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59

# Author Query Form

Journal: PPA  
Article: 12241

Dear Author,

During the copy-editing of your paper, the following queries arose. Please respond to these by marking up your proofs with the necessary changes/additions. Please write your answers on the query sheet if there is insufficient space on the page proofs. Please write clearly and follow the conventions shown on the attached corrections sheet. If returning the proof by fax do not write too close to the paper's edge. Please remember that illegible mark-ups may delay publication.

Many thanks for your assistance.

Query reference	Query	Remarks
1	<b>AUTHOR:</b> Please read through the entire proof carefully, paying particular attention to the accuracy of equations, tables, illustrations (which may have been redrawn), other numerical matter and references (which have been corrected for style but not checked for accuracy, which remains the responsibility of the author).	
2	<b>AUTHOR:</b> Please note that the version of your paper that appears online is complete and final, except for volume, issue and page numbers, which are added upon print publication. Therefore, there will be no further opportunity to make changes to your article after online publication.	
3	<b>AUTHOR:</b> Please check that authors and his affiliation is correct.	