

<REVIEW>

Cytosolic Ca²⁺ Pulses and Protein Kinase Activation in the Signal Transduction Pathways Leading to the Plant Oxidative Burst

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The oxidative burst, the rapid production of O₂⁻ and H₂O₂ by plant cells in response to pathogens and stressors, is a critical step in plant disease resistance and is controlled by several different elicitor-initiated signaling pathways. While different defense elicitors appear to activate disparate initial steps in signaling the oxidative burst, all of the elicitors tested thus far appear to stimulate pathways that converge on the same three core signaling intermediates: 1) the Ca²⁺-independent activation of a mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) family member, 2) the influx of Ca²⁺ into the cytosol, deriving most critically from an internal compartment, and 3) the Ca²⁺-dependent activation of additional protein kinases including a second MAPK homologue and possibly calcium dependent protein kinases (CDPKs). Data from several recent reports are summarized to place these signaling events into a complete and updated model of signaling to the plant oxidative burst.

Key words: calcium, kinase, oxidative burst, phosphorylation

The oxidative burst is the rapid generation of superoxide and hydrogen peroxide that is a defense strategy employed by plants during disease resistance (for reviews, see Baker and Orlandi, 1995; Blumwald et al., 1998; Bolwell et al., 1999; Grant and Loake, 2000; Wojtaszc, 1997). These free-radical species may serve many functions in plant defense, including a direct role in oxidative microbial toxicity (Baker and Orlandi, 1995), and signaling roles in the initiation of several local and systemic downstream defense responses (Levine et al., 1994; Baker and Orlandi, 1995; Wojtaszc, 1997; Orozco-Cardenas and Ryan, 1999). Because of the central place of the oxidative burst in plant defense mechanisms and the obvious deleterious consequences of unchecked oxidant production, the oxidative burst is tightly controlled by multi-step signal transduction pathways that are integrated into other defense and stress signaling pathways. This review focuses on recent advances in the understanding of the interplay between cytosolic Ca²⁺ fluxes and the activation of several different protein kinases in the initiation of H₂O₂ biosynthesis. Evidence from recent reports is compiled to present a coherent and updated signaling model for the events leading from cellular recognition of elicitor stimuli to both Ca²⁺-dependent and independent protein kinase

activation and to cytoplasmic Ca²⁺ entry, leading to the activation of oxidant synthesis.

Overview of the Oxidative Burst Signal Transduction Pathway

The first step in signaling an oxidative burst response undoubtedly involves receptor recognition of different elicitor molecules followed by receptor-dependent reactions. The initial signaling intermediates induced by various oxidative burst elicitors are frequently very different. For example, the pathway initiated by oligogalacturonides appears to require G proteins (Legendre et al., 1992) and phospholipase C (Legendre et al., 1993) but not phospholipase A₂ (Chandra et al., 1996a), while an elicitor from the cell wall of *Verticillium dahliae* utilizes phospholipase A but not phospholipase C (Legendre et al., 1993; Chandra et al., 1996b). Even the initial sites of action may differ, as some elicitors appear to bind to sites on the plant cell surface (Reymond et al., 1995; Ligerink et al., 1997; Bourque et al., 1999; Lee et al., 2001), while others, including the

Abbreviations: CDPK, Calcium Dependent Protein Kinase; GMK1, *Glycine max* Mitogen Activated Protein Kinase 1; GMK2, *Glycine max* Mitogen Activated Protein Kinase 2; MAPK, Mitogen Activated Protein Kinase; SIPK, Salicylic Acid-Induced Protein Kinase; WIPK, Wounding-Induced Protein Kinase.

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avrPto elicitor, may have to penetrate the plant cell to interact with its receptor (Scofield et al., 1996; Tang et al., 1996).

However, while it is apparent that these initial steps in the burst pathway vary dramatically by elicitor, it is also clear that they must eventually converge on common intermediates. One of the first common required signaling events, and thus a good candidate for a convergence point among the varied pathways, is the activation of protein kinases. A second common point in many pathways is ion fluxes. Evidence will be described later in this text that suggests that cytosolic calcium fluxes regulate some of the kinases involved in the oxidative burst. The activated kinases and calcium influx then modulate other cellular events, which presumably culminate in the activation of a Rac-dependent plasma membrane oxidase (Dwyer et al., 1996; Jabs et al., 1997; Bolwell et al., 2001; Romeis et al., 1999; Sagi and Fluhr, 1998; Torres et al., 2002; Olmos et al., 2003).

Calcium Fluxes in the Oxidative Burst Pathways

Defense elicitor-activated Ca^{2+} pulses were first recorded in 1991 in aequorin-transformed tobacco plants (Knight et al., 1991), and were then directly connected to the oxidative burst in 1997 (Chandra et al., 1997). Since the publication of those studies, we and others have found a firm causal relationship between the expression of cytosolic Ca^{2+} fluxes and the stimulation of the oxidative burst. Every oxidative burst elicitor thus far tested stimulates a Ca^{2+} flux (in *Nicotiana tabacum*; Chandra et al., 1997, Cessna and Low, 2001a; and in *Glycine max*, Navazio et al., 2002), and several different Ca^{2+} channel blockers invariably inhibit H_2O_2 production (Tavernier et al., 1995; Bolwell et al., 1999). Therefore, it appears that the requirement for cytosolic Ca^{2+} fluxes in the stimulation of the burst is quite strict.

Biochemical characterization of the cytosolic Ca^{2+} increases activated in response to oxidative burst elicitation in tobacco cells has provided substantial gains in answering two important questions. 1) What signaling events precede the Ca^{2+} pulses? 2) Does the cellular source of an elicited Ca^{2+} influx determine its efficacy in mediating the oxidative burst signal?

Events Upstream of Ca^{2+} Influx

The Ca^{2+} pulses induced by four different oxidative burst-initiating stimuli have been thoroughly studied with a large selection of pharmacological modulators

of signal transduction (Cessna and Low, 2001a). The most potent inhibitors of the elicitor-induced Ca^{2+} signals were serine/threonine protein kinase inhibitors and anion channel blockers. Indeed, several reports point clearly to the involvement of protein kinases and anion channels in the burst pathway upstream of the requisite Ca^{2+} pulses (Cessna and Low, 2001a; Lecourieux et al., 2002; Navazio et al., 2002). The relationship between calcium fluxes and kinase activity will be discussed in further detail later in this article.

There are two possible explanations for the ability of anion channel blockers to inhibit a Ca^{2+} flux. First, movement of anions across a membrane will generally lead to membrane depolarization, and thus blocking an anion flux could therefore prevent the depolarization-dependent activation of voltage-regulated Ca^{2+} channels and thereby inhibit Ca^{2+} influx to the cytosol (Ward et al., 1995). Alternatively, Ca^{2+} movement across a membrane will quickly generate a reduced membrane potential, resulting in the rapid termination of Ca^{2+} flow. Simultaneous movement of anions across the same membrane would alleviate this electrical blockade, and obstruction of this flow would then inhibit Ca^{2+} movement also. Regardless of the mechanism, inhibition of Ca^{2+} movements by anion channel blockers is well established in the plant literature, especially in processes involving signal transduction (Ward et al., 1995; Xing et al., 1997; Lecourieux et al., 2002).

Localization of the Required Ca^{2+} Pulses to Release from Intracellular Compartments

Ca^{2+} does not readily diffuse within the cytosol, but rather, due to the large number of Ca^{2+} binding proteins present, Ca^{2+} remains localized near its sites of entry (Clapham, 1995). Thus, the compartment from which the Ca^{2+} influx derives partially determines the specificity encoded in the Ca^{2+} signal (Sanders et al., 1999). By manipulating the content of both the internal and external pools of signaling-ready Ca^{2+} with chelators or exogenous Ca^{2+} , and by the judicious use of selective Ca^{2+} signaling inhibitors, we have determined that the release of Ca^{2+} from an internal store, as opposed to the influx of Ca^{2+} across the plasma membrane, is required for the activation of the oxidative burst (Cessna et al., 1998; Cessna and Low, 2001b). This conclusion appears to be generally true of the activation of the plant oxidative burst, because several different elicitors in more than one plant species appear to behave in the same manner. This identification that organellar Ca^{2+} is the critical Ca^{2+} pool for oxidative burst activation does not necessarily preclude the

involvement of externally-derived influx in all oxidative burst signaling pathways. In fact, several reports have monitored Ca²⁺ pulses derived from the apoplast that are apparently required for the stimulation of H₂O₂ production (Blumwald et al., 1998). For example, using electro-physiological techniques, Gelli et al., 1997 and Zimmermann et al. (1997) have identified defense elicitor-stimulated activation of plasma membrane Ca²⁺ channels. Furthermore, inhibitors that block these channels (Cd³⁺, La³⁺) also blocked the resulting defense responses, suggesting that Ca²⁺ influx across the plasma membrane is required for the activation of the oxidative burst (Gelli et al., 1997; Zimmermann et al., 1997; Orozco-Cardenas and Ryan, 1999). While at first reading it may seem difficult to reconcile all of the above data, some of which point toward the requirement of an externally-derived Ca²⁺ influx, and some of which point to a requirement for internally-derived Ca²⁺ release, the following explanation for the apparent discrepancies can be offered. First of all, cellular Ca²⁺ fluxes rarely stem from a single source, but rather, entry through the plasma membrane can regulate organellar Ca²⁺ release, and the converse may also be true (Clapham, 1995; Sanders et al., 1999; Cessna and Low, 2001b). Thus, inhibition of Ca²⁺ influx through a plasma membrane channel can alter flow from an internal Ca²⁺ channel (for example, by blocking Ca²⁺-induced Ca²⁺ release, Clapham, 1995). In light of these considerations, externally-derived Ca²⁺ fluxes may indirectly effect the activation of the oxidative burst, by altering the flow of Ca²⁺ from the internal stores (Cessna and Low, 2001b). In conclusion, our data support a hypothesis that internal Ca²⁺ release is required for the stimulation of the oxidative burst. However, more investigation in this area, including subcellular imaging of the pools tapped during elicitor stimulation and genetic identification of the Ca²⁺ channels involved would provide much more conclusive information.

Evidence for Kinase Involvement in Oxidative Burst Signaling

Preliminary evidence for kinase involvement in the oxidative burst was first noted in radiolabeling and pharmacologic studies prior to identification of kinase activation. Elicitation of plant cells treated with ³²P-phosphate leads to labeling of a number of proteins (Farmer et al., 1989; Felix et al., 1991; Chandra and Low, 1995), suggesting that kinases are somehow activated during the process. Assuming an analogy with signaling pathways of the neutrophil oxidative burst, these novel phosphoproteins could conceivably be

other kinases, members of the superoxide-generating oxidase complex itself, or proteins not involved in the burst. Phosphorylated proteins that have thus far been identified in elicitor-stimulated Arabidopsis are AtMPK6 (Nuhse et al., 2000), AtMPK4 (Huang et al., 2000; Petersen et al., 2000), AtMPK3 (Kovtun et al., 2000) and AtPhos43 (Peck et al., 2001) and Pti in tomato (Zhou et al., 1995); however, the role of these proteins in the oxidative burst is unknown at this point.

Additional evidence for kinase participation has come from pharmacologic studies, where serine/threonine kinase inhibitors such as K-252a and staurosporine block oxidative burst stimulation in a dose-dependent manner (Schwake and Hager, 1992; Levine et al., 1994; Chandra and Low, 1995; Matthieu et al., 1996). Because addition of these same inhibitors also causes rapid termination of a previously initiated burst, it can be further suggested that continuous phosphorylation is essential for maintenance of burst activity. Interestingly, protein phosphatase inhibitors can autologously activate the burst, even in the absence of elicitors (Felix et al., 1994; Chandra and Low, 1995).

More conclusive evidence for the role of phosphorylation changes in the oxidative burst is provided by several reports that have monitored the *in vivo* activation of specific protein kinases. The first kinase demonstrated to participate in the oxidative burst was the resistance gene product, Pto. Tomato cell cultures transformed with Pto kinase displayed a prolonged two phase production of the oxidative burst in response to bacteria expressing the *avrPto* avirulence gene, whereas control cells lacking the Pto kinase expressed only the transient first phase of the burst (Chandra et al., 1996a and b). However, even the cells that lacked Pto kinase were able to generate substantial quantities of oxidants in response to non-race-specific elicitors, suggesting that the Pto kinase communicates the burst signal only when activated by *avrPto*, leaving the task to other kinases to respond to non-host-specific pathogens.

Mitogen-Activated Protein Kinase Participation in Oxidative Burst Signaling

MAP kinases have been associated with a number of plant defense responses, including salicylic acid production, wounding, and the hypersensitive response (for reviews, see Zhang and Klessig, 2000 and 2001; and Jonak et al., 2002). Several different groups have measured two different MAPK-like protein kinase activities that are both likely required for oxidant production in soybean and tobacco (Zhang and Klessig,

1997; Cazale et al., 1999; Grant and Loake, 2000; Taylor et al., 2001). The two kinases are both activated in elicitor-treated cells with the same kinetic profile as H_2O_2 production, and their activation *in vivo* was sensitive to the same protein kinase modulators that abolish burst activity. Based on their substrate specificities, their immunoprecipitation by MAPK selective antibodies, and their phosphorylation on threonine and tyrosine residues, it has been concluded that the two kinases are members of the MAP kinase family with molecular weights of around 44 and 47 kDa in soybean (Cazale et al., 1999; Taylor et al., 2001). Biochemical and genetic evidence indicates that the two soybean MAPK family members correspond to the tobacco Salicylic acid-Induced Protein Kinase (SIPK) or *Glycine max* Mitogen activated protein Kinase 1 (GMK1) (Zhang and Klessig 1997; Taylor et al., 2001; Kim, 2002) and the Wounding-Induced Protein Kinase (WIPK), or the *Glycine max* Mitogen activated protein Kinase 2 (GMK2) (Seo et al., 1995; Kim, 2002).

Like all MAPK family members, SIPK-GMK1 and WIPK-GMK2 are believed to be activated after dual phosphorylation on tyrosine and threonine residues residing in an auto-inhibitory loop that guards the mouth of the active site in the non-phosphorylated form of the enzyme. This activation reaction is catalyzed by MAPK kinases (MAPKKs), which themselves are activated by phosphorylation catalyzed by MAPKK kinases (MAPKKKs). A tobacco and a soybean MAPKK homologue which uses SIPK-GMK1 as a substrate have been identified (NtMEK2 in tobacco, and GMKK1 in soybean; Yang et al., 2001; Kim, 2002). However, Yang et al. (2001) reported that the NtMEK2-SIPK/WIPK cascade is not involved in H_2O_2 production based on the data that transiently expressed NtMEK2 does not induce an oxidative burst. Furthermore, pharmacological studies suggest MAP kinases are not involved (Romeis et al., 1999), but two other groups manifested the opposite behavior (Cazale et al., 1999; Taylor et al., 2001). At this point, it is unclear whether the difference arises from elicitor-specific pathways, species differences, experimental conditions or perhaps the activation of SIPK-GMK1 and WIPK-GMK2 occurring downstream of hydrogen peroxide production. Obviously, complete resolution of this issue will require evaluation of knockout mutants of the NtMEK2-SIPK/WIPK (GMKK1-GMK1/GMK2) cascade in whole plant studies of the oxidative burst.

Interestingly, MAP kinases appear to be both upstream and downstream of oxidant production. A number of kinases show increased expression and/or activity in presence of hydrogen peroxide, including AtNDPK2

(Moon et al., 2003). Both over-expression and suppression of SIPK yield cells susceptible to oxidative stress (Samuel and Ellis, 2002), and over-expression of SIPK also leads to the hypersensitive response in the absence of a stimulus. Furthermore, protein tyrosine phosphatases are inhibited by oxidant production, and this inhibition is sufficient to activate AtMPK6, a MAP kinase that may be involved in oxidant production (Gupta and Luan, 2003; Taylor et al., 2003), leading to a feed-forward mechanism. These results suggest that the kinases that induce the burst would normally maintain the oxidase in a constitutively active state if their substrates (or themselves) were not continuously dephosphorylated by more dominant phosphatases.

There is little current information regarding SIPK-GMK1 substrates important to the burst pathway. Two primary candidates would include anion or Ca^{2+} channels or their protein regulators, and/or the oxidant generating enzyme or enzyme complex or its regulators. Alternatively, additional effector proteins that are one or more signaling steps removed from trans-membrane ion movement or oxidant production may be the immediate substrates of SIPK-GMK1. Based on pharmacological considerations further discussed below, we have placed SIPK-GMK1 and WIPK-GMK2 on an independent pathway, one branch leading to the burst by way of Ca^{2+} influx and WIPK-GMK2 activation, and the other by way of as yet unidentified signaling intermediates. In this working model, both of the branches in the pathway are required for the induction of H_2O_2 biosynthesis. While the details concerning its placement in this pathway await further experimentation, it can be determined now that SIPK-GMK1 activation is a required step in the burst pathway, residing independent from (or upstream of) Ca^{2+} influx.

Integration of Calcium and Kinase Signals: Ca^{2+} -Dependent Protein Kinase Activation

The integration of calcium and kinase signaling appears to occur in the middle of the kinase cascade. In studies where elicitor-stimulated calcium signaling was blocked, elicitor-induced activation of WIPK-GMK2 was inhibited, but activation of SIPK-GMK1 was insensitive to the same treatments (Hoyos and Zhang, 2000; Taylor et al., 2001). It was therefore concluded that SIPK-GMK1 activation is independent of, or precedes Ca^{2+} influx in signaling the burst response, and that WIPK-GMK2 activation necessarily follows Ca^{2+} fluxes (Cessna and Low, 2001a; Taylor et al., 2001). Also consistent with the placement of SIPK-GMK1 independent of the Ca^{2+} pulse (Fig. 1) is the finding that SIPK-GMK1

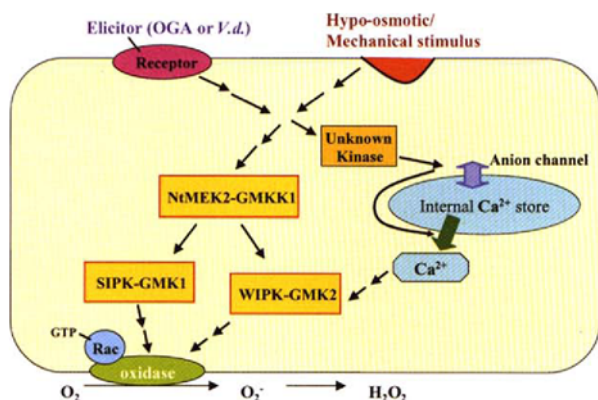


Figure 1. Activation of the oxidative burst includes activation of a kinase upstream of calcium release from an internal store, activation of SIPK-GMK1 through a calcium-independent pathway, activation of WIPK-GMK2 through a calcium dependent pathway, and activation of the oxidase and other downstream effectors.

activity is directly sensitive to both k252a and staurosporine (Zhang et al., 2000; Taylor et al., 2001). In contrast, SIPK-GMK1 activity is not affected by prior treatments of the cells with the anion channel blockers or Ca²⁺ channel blockers and modulators (Hoyos and Zhang, 2000; Taylor et al., 2001). Together, these data indicate that SIPK-GMK1 is activated independent of or upstream of both anion and calcium ion movement across a membrane (Fig. 1).

There is currently little information on the nature of the cytosolic Ca²⁺-sensing protein that relays the Ca²⁺ signal to the oxidant producing apparatus. Candidates include one or more of the many calmodulin isoforms expressed in plant cells, a CDPK, an EF-hand containing NADPH oxidase-like protein (Keller et al., 1998), a calcineurin-type protein such as SOS3 (Liu and Zhu, 1998) or another Ca²⁺-binding enzyme or regulatory protein. While it is possible that a CDPK may be involved in the stimulation of the oxidative burst (Romeis et al., 2000), direct evidence for CDPK involvement is based on the coincident activation of a CDPK and H₂O₂ biosynthesis, and the sensitivity of both CDPK activation and H₂O₂ production to non-specific inhibitors such as W-7 (Romeis et al., 2001). Because W-7 is unsuccessful in inhibiting the oxidative burst in many plants (Taylor et al., 2001), it can be concluded that some other Ca²⁺-sensing protein may more commonly relay the signal to the burst machinery.

Regardless of the means by which the calcium signal is recognized, it is apparent that protein kinase activation not only precedes but also follows Ca²⁺ influx in

the pathway leading to oxidant production. The most carefully studied protein kinase that can conclusively be placed in the latter portion of the pathway is the above mentioned WIPK-GMK2. Like SIPK-GMK1, WIPK-GMK2 is activated coincident with H₂O₂ production. However, in contrast to SIPK-GMK1, WIPK-GMK2 activation is blocked by agents that inhibit elicitor-stimulated Ca²⁺ signaling. A second critical difference between the two MAPK homologues is their direct sensitivity to the kinase inhibitors k252a and staurosporine. While both kinases are completely inhibited in k252a/staurosporine treated cells, SIPK/GMK1 but not WIPK/GMK2 is directly sensitive to the modulators when kinase activity is measured *in vitro*. This difference further supports the possibility that SIPK/GMK1 lies independent of (or upstream of) Ca²⁺ influx and WIPK-GMK2 activation (Fig. 1). While Ca²⁺ influxes are placed prior to GMK2 activation, there is at least one signaling event between the calcium flux and GMK2 activation, as calcium is neither required for GMK2 activation nor does it directly stimulate GMK2 activity. Little information is yet available on the nature of the substrates utilized by WIPK-GMK2 in the burst pathway. Presumably other regulatory proteins, or the oxidant-producing enzyme itself is activated by WIPK-GMK2-dependent phosphorylation.

Model of the Integration of Ca²⁺ and Kinase Activity

The simplest summary of the most current data is presented in Figure 1. Elicitors (or eliciting physical stimuli) are first perceived. Several different immediate responses to receptor activation are possible, including the direct activation of various protein kinases, and/or the activation receptor associated G-proteins. We hypothesize that while the pathways leading to the oxidative burst are initially varied, they eventually converge on the activation of SIPK-GMK1 and WIPK-GMK2, i.e., Ca²⁺-independent and Ca²⁺-dependent branches. Simultaneous signaling through both of these branches is required for initiation of the burst response.

Evidence for such a signaling-junction is twofold. First, activation of H₂O₂ production in plant cells cannot reproducibly be achieved with Ca²⁺-selective ionophores (e.g., ionomycin and A23187; Chandra et al., 1997; Cessna and Low, 2001a), even though substantial Ca²⁺ influx after ionophore treatment can be measured (Chandra et al., 1997). Thus, while cytosolic Ca²⁺ influx is most definitely required for stimulation of the burst, as evidenced by the potent and universal inhibition of H₂O₂ production by Ca²⁺ influx modulators, it does not appear to be sufficient for its activation.

This indicates that a parallel pathway must be activated simultaneously. Furthermore, unlike what occurs after Ca^{2+} channel or anion channel blocker treatments, inhibition by the protein kinase inhibitors k252a and staurosporine cannot be overcome by ionophore-mediated Ca^{2+} entry (Cessna and Low, 2001a). It therefore seems likely that a kinase not only facilitates H_2O_2 production by its activation of Ca^{2+} entry, but must also be required for the activation of the Ca^{2+} -independent parallel pathway.

While this model accurately represents the current information available, it is quite possible that it is oversimplified. For example, there may be additional links between SIPK/GMK1 and calcium fluxes or calcium fluxes and WIPK/GMK2 activation. Furthermore, the activation of the oxidase may require multiple inputs, e.g., calcium as well as kinase activation. Timing, localization, and exact concentration are probably all important in the integration and outcome of calcium/kinase signaling pathways. Finally, it is likely that this pathway is intricately connected to other stress-response signal transduction pathways, as is obvious from cross-talk studies (reviewed in Bowler and Fluhr, 2000). Further studies combining genetic, proteomic, and imaging techniques are required to fully comprehend the mechanism of calcium and kinase signal integration in the oxidative burst.

Received September 30, 2003; accepted October 1, 2003.

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