A novel in vitro tissue culture approach to study salt stress responses in citrus

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Abstract In citrus, a major crop throughout the world, growth and yield are seriously affected by salinity. ferent approaches, including agronomical, physiological and molecular methods, have been used to address this problem. In this work, an in vitro experimental system has been developed to study the toxic effect of NaCl on three citrus genotypes, avoiding the ion filter that represents the root system. To carry out the experiments, shoots were obtained from nodal segments of Cleopatra mandarin, Carrizo citrange and citrumelo CPB4475 plants growing in a greenhouse. Shoots were cultured in control or NaClsupplemented media. After testing several salt concentrations, 60 mM NaCl was selected as saline treatment. Shoots accumulated similar levels of chloride when cultured without roots and exhibited similar leaf damage. No increases in malondialdehyde levels were observed in any genotype (as a measure of oxidative stress). Similar patterns of hormonal signalling (in terms of abscisic acid and salicylic acid contents) were exhibited in the three genotypes, despite their different tolerance under field conditions. All data together indicate that, without root system, 30 all genotypes had the same behaviour under salt stress. The in vitro culture system has been proved as a useful tool to study biochemical processes involved in the response of citrus to salt stress.

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Keywords	Oxidative stress \cdot Plant hormones \cdot	35
Stress tolera	ance · Toxic ions	36

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Introduction

38 Salts in the substrate affect plant growth in two ways: First, the presence of salt reduces the ability of the plant to take 39 up water which leads to reductions in the growth rate. This 40 is referred to as the osmotic effect of salt stress, which 41 starts immediately after the salt concentration around the 42 roots increases over a threshold level. There is a second 43 and slower response due to the accumulation of ions in 44 leaves. This ion-specific phase of plant response to salinity 45 starts when accumulated salt reaches toxic concentrations 46 in the leaves (Gómez-Cadenas et al. 1998). Within many 47 species, documented genetic variation exists in the rate of 48 accumulation of Na⁺ and Cl⁻ in leaves, as well as in the 49 degree to which these ions can be tolerated (Munns and 50 Tester 2008). For most species, Na^+ appears to reach a 51 toxic concentration before Cl⁻ does. However for some 52 species, as in the case of citrus, Cl⁻ is considered to be the 53 more toxic ion (Moya et al. 2002, 2003; López-Climent 54 55 et al. 2008).

The differences found among citrus rootstocks regarding 56 salt tolerance have been related mainly to their ability to 57 exclude chloride (Bañuls et al. 1997; Moya 2003) although 58 the ability to keep a high performance of the photosynthetic 59 system also seems important (López-Climent et al. 2008). 60 Certain citrus genotypes such as Cleopatra mandarin (CM) 61 or Rangpur lime rootstocks can be classified as relatively 62 tolerant due to their ability to restrict chloride ions to roots 63 while others, such as Carrizo citrange (CC) or citrumelo 64 CPB4475 (Cit), have proved to be more sensitive to salinity 65 (López-Climent et al. 2008). 66 67 Salinity causes suberization of root tissues (Walker et al. 68 1984), a decrease in root hydraulic conductivity, an 69 impaired assimilation of mineral nutrients (Ruiz et al. 70 1997), visual toxicity symptoms (Chapman 1968) and 71 eventually leaf abscission (Gómez-Cadenas et al. 1998, 72 2002). Furthermore, chloride accumulation in citrus leaves 73 decreases net photosynthetic rate, transpiration and sto-74 matal conductance while activating plant antioxidant 75 machinery (Arbona et al. 2003; Iglesias et al. 2004).

The analysis of endogenous levels of plant hormones 77 such as abscisic acid (ABA) ethylene, and its direct pre-78 cursor, 1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxilic acid, revealed a 79 general pattern of hormonal change composed by a two 80 phase response that paralleled the chloride accumulation in 81 salt-stressed plants (Gómez-Cadenas et al. 1998, 2002). 82 Therefore, ABA and ethylene have been involved as 83 modulators of some of the responses of citrus to high 84 salinity (Gómez-Cadenas et al. 1998).

85 It has been shown that the root system plays a key role in controlling water and chloride uptake (Moya et al. 86 87 2002). An adaptative improvement of the salt-tolerant 88 genotype CM can be inferred from the linear correlation 89 between chloride and water usage (Moya et al. 2003). It 90 appears that CM has a more restrictive mechanism than CC

91 for chloride influx at the root level, being highly efficient in

92 limiting chloride uptake to the aerial part (Moya et al. 2002). Since differences are not only restricted to the aerial part or the root system, it is very difficult to study, under conditions, other putative

moss, perlite and vermiculite (80:10:10) as a substrate. 116 Plants were watered when needed with a 0.5 L of a half-117 strength Hoagland solution (Bañuls et al. 1997). Three 118 months after germination, salt stress was applied by 119 increasing NaCl concentration in the watering solution to 120 90 mM. Percentages of salt affected plants, chloride, and 121 malondialdehyde (MDA) contents were recorded at 10, 20 122 and 30 days of culture. 123

124 In a second set of in vitro experiments, greenhousegrown plants of the same citrus rootstocks were used as a source of plant material. Stem pieces (15 cm long) were stripped of their leaves, disinfected by immersion for 127 10 min in a 2% (v/v) sodium hypochlorite solution containing 0.1% (v/v) Tween wetting agent, and rinsed three times with sterile water. Node stem segments (1 cm long) were cultured in Petri dishes with basal medium (BM), containing the inorganic salts of Murashige and Skoog (1962), 100 mg/l i-inositol, 1 mg/l pyridoxine-HCl, 0.2 mg/l thiamine-HCl, 1 mg/l nicotinic acid and 30 g/l sucrose. The pH was set at 5.7 ± 0.1 with 0.1 N NaOH before autoclaving. The medium was solidified by the 136 addition of agar (Pronadisa, Madrid, Spain).

Shoots recovered from nodal stem segments were excised from the explant and cultured into 150×20 mm tubes on multiplication medium (MM) to promote the development of axillary buds. MM consisted of BM medium supplemented with 0.4 mg/l 6-benzylaminopurine. 142 During the growth

formed from buds located at leaf axils. When these shoots

169 collected after 2, 5, 10 and 20 days of the imposition of salt170 stress and MDA, ABA and salicylic acid (SA) contents171 measured.

172 To assess whether the growth regulators used in the 173 culture media had some effect on the results obtained, a 174 new experiment was carried out using the following culture 175 media: BM as control and the same media supplemented with 60 mM NaCl for the salt treatment. MT and MT2. 176 177 After 20 days of treatment, percentage of plants affected by 178 salt was recorded and plant material collected for chloride 179 and MDA analyses.

180In all cases, plant material was cultivated in culture181rooms at 24°C with a 16-h photoperiod. Leaves or shoots182were collected, rinsed with distilled water to eliminate any183residue and frozen in liquid nitrogen. Plant material was184kept at -80° C until further analyses.

185 Visible symptoms of leaf damage

186 The presence of yellowish spots at the leaf tip that pro-187 gressively led to severe burning injuries was considered to 188 be a good visible estimate of chloride-induced damage to 189 leaves. The number of damaged leaves was regularly 190 recorded during the experimental period and expressed as a percentage of the total number of leaves. Plants or shoots 191 192 showing a percentage of damaged leaves equal to or over 193 50% were considered salt "affected".

194 Chloride content

195 Chloride content was measured by automatic titration as described in López-Climent et al. (2008). Samples were 196 oven-dried for 72 h at 70°C. After desiccation, samples 197 198 were minced and incubated overnight in a 0.1 N HNO3 199 (PA grade, Panreac, Barcelona, Spain) and 10% glacial 200 acetic acid (Baker grade, JT Baker, Barcelona, Spain) 201 solution. After filtering, 0.5 ml of the solution was used for 202 determination in a chloridometer (Model 626, Sherwood 203 Scientific Ltd., Cambridge, UK).

204 Malondialdehyde concentration

205 Malondialdehyde concentration was measured following 206 the procedure described in Hodges et al. (1999). Plant 207 material was homogenized in 5 ml of 80% cold ethanol 208 (Panreac, Barcelona, Spain) using a tissue homogenizer 209 (Ultra-Turrax; IKA-Werke, Staufen, Germany). Homoge-210 nates were centrifuged at 4°C to pellet debris and different 211 aliquots of the supernatant were mixed either with 20% 212 trichloroacetic acid (TCA) (Panreac, Barcelona, Spain) or a 213 mixture of 20% TCA and 0.5% thiobarbituric acid (Sigma-214 Aldrich, Madrid, Spain). Both mixtures were allowed to 215 react in a water bath at 90°C for 1 h. After this time,

samples were cooled down in an ice bath and centrifuged.216Absorbance at 440, 534 and 600 nm was read in the
supernatant against a blank. The MDA concentration in the
extracts was calculated as in Arbona et al. (2008).218

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Abscisic acid and salicylic acid analyses

Plant hormones were analyzed by HPLC coupled to tan-221 dem mass spectrometry as described in Durgbanshi et al. 222 (2005) and Arbona and Gómez-Cadenas (2008). Briefly, 223 frozen citrus shoots were ground to a fine powder with a 224 pre-chilled mortar and a pestle and then 0.5 g of powdered 225 tissue was extracted in ultrapure water using a tissue 226 homogenizer (Ultra-Turrax, Ika-Werke, Staufen, Ger-227 many). Before extraction, samples were spiked with 100 ng 228 of $[{}^{2}H_{6}]$ -ABA, and 100 ng of $[{}^{2}H_{4}]$ -SA. After extraction 229 and centrifugation, the pH of the supernatant was adjusted 230 to 3.0 and partitioned twice against di-ethyl-ether (Panreac, 231 Barcelona, Spain). The organic layers were combined and 232 evaporated in a centrifuge vacuum evaporator (Jouan, 233 Saint-Herblain, France). The dry residue was thereafter 234 resuspended in a water: methanol (9:1) solution, filtered, 235 and injected into a HPLC system (Alliance 2695, Waters 236 Corp., Milford, USA). Hormones were then separated in a 237 reversed-phase Kromasil 100 C18 column ($100 \times 2.1 \text{ mm}$ 238 5-um particle size) using methanol and ultrapure water 239 both supplemented with glacial acetic acid to a concen-240 tration of 0.05%. The mass spectrometer, a triple quadru-241 pole (Quattro LC, Micromass Ltd., Manchester, UK), was 242 operated in negative ionization electrospray mode and 243 plant hormones were detected according to their specific 244 transitions using a multiresidue mass spectrometric method 245 (Durgbanshi et al. 2005). 246

Statistical analyses

Data mean comparisons and regression analyses were248performed with STATGRAPHICS PLUS v.5.1. (Statistical249Graphics Corporation, Herndon, VA) software. One-way250ANOVA and comparisons between means were made251following the LSD test at P < 0.05.252

Results

Effect of salt stress on intact plants of different citrus254genotypes255

In a first experiment, 3-month-old intact seedlings of the
three citrus genotypes CC, Cit and CM, were watered with
an increased concentration of NaCl to study the effect of
salt stress on young plant material (Table 1). Leaf damage
was obvious from the first day of measurement in plants of
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Table 1 Damage, chloride concentration and malondialdehyde (MDA) content in leaves of intact plants of three citrus genotypes subjected to salt stress

		Time of treatment (days)					
		10		20		30	
		Control	90 mM NaCl	Control	90 mM NaCl	Control	90 mM NaCl
Leaf damage (% of affected plants)	Carrizo citrange	0.00 ± 0.00	$6.15 \pm 0.04*$	0.00 ± 0.00	$12.50 \pm 0.80^{*}$	0.00 ± 0.00	48.42 ± 1.91*
	Citrumelo CPB 4475	0.00 ± 0.00	$12.02 \pm 1.01*$	0.00 ± 0.00	$21.12\pm3.29*$	0.00 ± 0.00	$61.08 \pm 1.54*$
	Cleopatra mandarin	0.00 ± 0.00	0.00 ± 0.00	0.00 ± 0.00	$4.00\pm0.42*$	0.00 ± 0.00	$11.64 \pm 0.29^*$
Cl ⁻ (mg/g fresh tissue)	Carrizo citrange	4.14 ± 0.84	$6.32\pm0.39*$	3.87 ± 0.65	$14.47 \pm 2.09*$	5.11 ± 0.56	$32.19 \pm 0.98*$
	Citrumelo CPB 4475	2.36 ± 0.64	$6.96 \pm 0.80^{*}$	2.14 ± 0.58	$18.24 \pm 1.57*$	2.94 ± 0.20	$35.12 \pm 2.67*$
	Cleopatra mandarin	1.94 ± 0.20	2.53 ± 0.49	1.47 ± 0.11	$4.5\pm0.95^*$	1.53 ± 0.01	$12.61 \pm 0.19^*$
MDA (nmol/g fresh tissue)	Carrizo citrange	29.57 ± 2.15	30.00 ± 1.58	27.41 ± 1.21	$42.01\pm1.29^{*}$	27.78 ± 2.52	$37.56 \pm 2.00*$
	Citrumelo CPB 4475	25.65 ± 1.92	$32.09 \pm 2.19*$	23.99 ± 2.08	$51.19 \pm 2.84 *$	26.39 ± 1.90	$48.52 \pm 3.25^*$
	Cleopatra mandarin	25.30 ± 1.81	24.22 ± 0.33	21.33 ± 0.63	23.76 ± 0.88	22.43 ± 1.32	22.03 ± 0.50

* Symbols followed with an asterisk denote statistical significance at P < 0.05. Data in insets are normalized mean values \pm relative SE

261 Cit. In this genotype, after 30 days of stress, affected plants were 61% of the total. Plants of CC also showed evident 262 damage due to the increased concentration of NaCl from 263 264 day 10, being 50% of the plants affected by the stress at day 30. Contrastingly, the percentage of CM plants affec-265 266 ted by salt stress was only 11% over a 30-day period. Leaf Cl⁻ concentration mimicked damage and leaves of Cit and 267 CC plants accumulated the highest concentration of the 268 toxic ion whereas in leaves of CM, chloride content was 269 270 much lower throughout the experimental period. Basal 271 levels of Cl⁻ were lower in CM than in the rest of geno-272 types. Leaf MDA concentration (an indirect marker of salt-273 stress induced oxidative damage) increased in the sensitive 274 genotypes (Cit and CC) until a certain extent and then 275 remained constant. In contrast, leaf MDA content in salt-276 stressed plants of CM was similar to that in control plants 277 throughout the experimental period.

278 Adjustment of NaCl concentration in the in vitro system

279 Shoots of the CC, Cit and CM cultivated in vitro were 280 subjected to different saline treatments (30, 60 and 90 mM 281 NaCl) and the pattern of Cl⁻ concentration followed over a 282 30 day period (Fig. 1). Chloride concentration in control 283 shoots showed similar basal values among the three 284 genotypes throughout the experimental period. After 285 salinisation, chloride in shoots progressively increased in 286 all genotypes and for all treatments, being the highest 287 levels found in the most severe salt treatment. Although the 288 studied citrus genotypes exhibited slightly different accu-289 mulation patterns (chloride accumulation was faster in CC 290 and Cit than in CM), all tended to similar maximum values 291 (Fig. 1). For the subsequent experiments, 60 mM NaCl was 292 set as the salt stress treatment because this intermediate 293 concentration did not promote a high mortality (as that observed in shoots treated with 90 mM NaCl), but allowed294an important and fast Cl⁻ accumulation (higher than in the29530 mM treatment) useful for further measurements.296

Effect of salt stress on in vitro cultured shoots297of the different citrus genotypes298

299 It is well known that, under field conditions, salinity causes yellowing, bronzing, or browning of leaves and premature 300 foliage drop. In our experimental system, damage caused 301 by exposure of citrus shoots to 60 mM NaCl was evidenced 302 by the apparition of characteristic leaf symptoms (Fig. 2). 303 It was observed that leaf injury become more severe as the 304 period of salt treatment progressed. After 10 days, light 305 yellowing was observed in all genotypes. Leaf chlorosis 306 increased after 20 days in all the cases and, at the end of 307 the treatment (30 days), browning was evident in leaf tis-308 sues of all genotypes. 309

To quantify the occurrence of toxicity due to chloride 310 ions, we considered as affected shoots those showing 311 necrosis in at least 50% of their leaves. Figure 3 represents 312 the percentage of CC, CM and Cit shoots affected by 313 salinity (60 mM) after 0, 10, 20 and 30 days of treatment. 314 Leaf damage increased very fast in Cit (60% of affected 315 plants vs. 20% in CM and 17% in CC at day 10). After 316 20 days of salt treatment, 75 and 66% of CC and CM 317 shoots were damaged respectively whereas almost all Cit 318 shoots showed significant leaf damage. In all cases, and 319 despite the slight different rates of leaf damage occurrence, 320 shoots were in very bad conditions after 30 days of salt 321 treatment (Figs. 2 and 3). 322

When chloride concentration was determined in shoots323of CC, CM and Cit after 10, 20 and 30 days of treatment,324no differences were found among the three citrus geno-325types (Table 2). The accumulation of Cl⁻ ions took place326



Fig. 1 Shoot chloride concentration in three citrus genotypes subjected to different concentrations of NaCl. In control (*filled circle*), 30 (*open circle*), 60 (*filled inverted triangle*), and 90 (*open triangle*) mM NaCl supplemented medium. Each point corresponds to the average \pm standard error of four independent determinations

327 progressively throughout the experimental period. After 328 10 days of treatment, values threefold above controls were 329 recorded in salinized shoots (ranging from 6.80 to 8.89 mg/g 330 in control shoots vs. 20.85-27.00 mg/g in salinized ones). At 331 the end of the experiment, Cl⁻ concentration in salinized 332 shoots achieved values even higher (ranging from 6.55 to 333 13.20 mg/g in control shoots vs. 33.73-39.08 mg/g in sali-334 nized ones).

As an indicator of oxidative damage, MDA content was
measured in shoots of citrus genotypes. No significant
differences were found between salt-stressed and control
shoots of Cit and CM (Table 2). However in CC, 60 mM
NaCl treatment induced reductions in MDA content at day

10 and 30 and a slightly significant increase at day 20 (1.2-340fold above controls), suggesting a poor correlation between341MDA content and leaf damage.342

Salt treatment did not induce significant ABA accumu-343 lation in shoots of any genotype, regardless the extent of 344 saline treatment (Table 2). ABA contents in control shoots 345 were higher than in stressed ones in all genotypes 346 throughout the experimental period except for a transient 347 increase in salt-treated Cit shoots after 20 days. Elevated 348 349 SA levels were observed in shoots of all studied genotypes 350 after 10 days of treatment (Table 2), although it was no significantly different in the case of CC. This could evi-351 dence an early signaling of SA as a consequence of salt 352 stress. 353

Early effects of salt stress on in vitro shoots of Carrizo citrange

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To investigate the early effects of salt stress, chloride 356 concentration, MDA, ABA and SA contents were mea-357 sured on in vitro cultured CC shoots 2, 5 and 10 days after 358 the imposition of saline conditions (Table 3). Chloride 359 content remained almost invariable throughout the exper-360 imental period in control shoots. On the contrary, chloride 361 concentration in salinized shoots progressively increased 362 with time. Two days after the onset of the treatment, Cl⁻ 363 concentration in salinized shoots was 1.5 times higher than 364 that found in control ones, and achieved levels 4.6 times 365 higher than in control shoots at day 10. 366

No differences in MDA levels were found between367control and salinized shoots after short saline treatment368periods. However a slight increased of MDA took place at369day 10; in comparison with the values obtained at day 2, in370both, control (27.3 vs. 16.48 nmol/g fresh tissue) and371salinized-shoots (29.74 vs. 20.79 nmol/g fresh tissue).372

Abscisic acid content in control shoots was similar to
that measured in salinized ones; only after 5 days of saline
treatment the differences between them were statistically
significant. As observed before, ABA content in control
shoots was much higher than in stressed ones (33.20 vs.
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9.6 ng/g fresh tissue).373
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No differences were found in the content of SA between379control and salinized shoots after 2 and 5 days. After38010 days of stress, a slight although no significant increase381in this hormone was recorded (Table 3).382

Effect of plant growth regulators 383

To elucidate whether the addition of plant growth regula-
tors to the culture medium had some effect on the studied384
385parameters, changes in foliar damage, chloride and MDA
contents were measured after 20 days in CC shoots cul-
tured in medium with or without plant growth regulators387
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Fig. 2 Effect of salt stress in different citrus genotypes. Yellowing, browning and necrosis in leaves of Cleopatra mandarin (a), Citrumelo CPB 4475 (b) and citrange Carrizo (c) affected by salinity. In each picture and from left to right: control leaves and after 10, 20 and 30 days of saline treatment. d Necrotic shoot of Cleopatra mandarin after 30 days saline treatment (*right*) and control (*left*)

389 and with or without treatment with 60 mM NaCl (Table 4). 390 Shoots grown on media, supplemented or not with plant 391 growth regulators, showed the same behaviour. Healthy 392 leaves (without evident damage) were observed in shoots 393 cultured in both media (with or without plant growth reg-394 ulators, Table 4). This suggests that no additional hor-395 mones are required to maintain shoots in vitro for 20 days. 396 Shoots growing in salt-stress conditions showed foliar 397 damage (approximately a 70% of affected shoots) without 398 significant differences due to the presence of plant growth 399 regulators in the medium.

400 Similar increases in Cl⁻ concentration were observed in 401 shoots growing in both salinized media (4.71 mg/g in 402 media supplemented with plant growth regulators vs. 403 5.23 mg/g in media without them). In the same way, no 404 significant variations in MDA content were observed 405 between plants cultured with additional plant growth reg-406 ulators or without them. In this case, as observed before, 407 salt treatment did not modify MDA levels.

408 Discussion

409 The literature extensively describes how h

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Fig. 3 Percentage of citrus shoots affected by salinity. Shoots were grown in control (*filled cirlce*) or 60 mM NaCl supplemented (*open circle*) medium. Each point corresponds to the average \pm standard error of 18 independent determinations

452 both salt-tolerant and salt-sensitive genotypes accumu-453 lating similar amounts of chloride, which is really com-454 plicated under field conditions. Therefore, the method 455 proposed appears to be a good tool for studying bio-456 chemical processes involved in the response of citrus to 457 salt stress. Singh et al. (2004) cultured calli from dif-458 ferent citrus rootstocks differing in their tolerance to salt 459 stress. In this study, a good correlation between salt 460 tolerance and ion accumulation was found. The differ-461 ences found between both systems must be due to the 462 totally different type of tissue cultured. Furthermore, 463 while the system used by Singh et al. (2004) could be 464 used as a practical tool to evaluate salt tolerance of citrus 465 germoplasm (due to the similar behaviour of calli and intact plants), our system is oriented to elucidate common 466 467 and specific response to ion toxicity among genotypes, avoiding the root filter. Salt stress tolerance has been 468 correlated with an improved oxidative stress response in 469 several crops (Shalata et al. 2001; Perl-Treves and Perl 470 471 2002). Increased MDA levels in leaves of intact plants of CC and Cit plants were also observed under salt treat-472 ment (Table 1). However, no significant differences were 473 found between salt-stressed and control shoots of Cit and 474 475 CM (Table 2) when cultured in vitro without root system. 476 In the case of CC, a slight decrease in MDA content was 477 found in some points. From these results, we can conclude that there is no correlation between foliar damage 478 and oxidative stress: characteristic leaf symptoms caused 479 by salinity (vellowing, browning, etc) were observed in 480 all studied genotypes while no consistent MDA accu-481 mulation was detected. 482

Abscisic acid plays a pivotal role in the adjustment of 483 plants to abiotic stress conditions (Gómez-Cadenas et al. 484 1998; Christmann et al. 2006); it is the long-distance signal 485 that communicates water stress from the root to the shoot. 486 Evidence for root-derived ABA as a long-distance signal 487 has been obtained from split-root experiments with whole 488 plants in which only one part of the root system experi-489 enced water deficit (Dodd et al. 2008). Earlier studies 490 showed that, in many crops, the leaf can accumulate ABA 491 492 in response to salt stress (Montero et al. 1997; Sibole et al. 1998). In the case of citrus, previous reports indicate that 493 the genotype CC responds to salinity by increasing ABA 494 levels (Gómez-Cadenas et al. 1998). These experiments 495 496 were performed with whole intact plants and it is possible that such salt treatment in the roots leads to a shoot water 497 deficit that, in turn, triggers ABA accumulation. These 498 results suggested the existence of an osmosensing mecha-499 nism and also the organ-specific nature of such a response. 500 This suggestion is also supported by the fact that gene 501 expression in response to salt stress usually is organ- or 502 tissue-specific (Jia et al. 2002). When shoots were cultured 503 504 in vitro, no accumulations of ABA were observed in any of 505 the studied genotypes, which seem to discard an ABA 506 dependent signaling. These results are similar to those obtained in maize by Jia et al. (2002), who observed that 507 NaCl treatment only induced a small ABA accumulation in 508 leaf tissues, whereas on the contrary, the same treatment of 509 NaCl caused a significant ABA accumulation in root 510 tissues. 511

The transient increase of SA levels at 10 days of salt treatment could suggest a role for this hormone in the response of citrus to salinity. Although further work should be done to understand this effect, our data suggests a common signal not related to genotype tolerance as observed in all studied genotypes, independently of their tolerance to high salinity. 518

	Time of treatment (days)					
	10		20		30	
	Control	60 mM NaCl	Control	60 mM NaCl	Control	60 mM NaCl
Carrizo citrange	7.70 ± 0.02	$27.00 \pm 0.04*$	6.06 ± 0.02	$30.25 \pm 0.04*$	13.20 ± 0.02	$33.73 \pm 0.05*$
Citrumelo CPB 4475	6.80 ± 0.01	$27.00\pm0.09^*$	7.90 ± 0.01	$38.00 \pm 0.03^*$	9.09 ± 0.02	$48.34 \pm 0.04*$
Cleopatra mandarin	8.89 ± 0.03	$20.85 \pm 0.10^{*}$	8.57 ± 0.08	$43.14 \pm 0.21*$	6.55 ± 0.04	$39.08 \pm 0.11^*$
Carrizo citrange	37.09 ± 1.46	$24.74 \pm 1.35^{*}$	14.90 ± 0.85	$18.42 \pm 1.33^*$	27.31 ± 2.92	$16.93 \pm 0.70^{*}$
Citrumelo CPB 4475	21.99 ± 1.18	21.55 ± 1.47	22.04 ± 0.50	20.65 ± 0.51	23.75 ± 0.84	20.45 ± 1.55
Cleopatra mandarin	-	-	21.34 ± 0.96	21.02 ± 0.76	24.83 ± 0.47	25.21 ± 0.74
Carrizo citrange	37.20 ± 9.35	29.05 ± 4.99	53.55 ± 2.32	$23.65 \pm 3.84*$	91.37 ± 8.31	$33.13 \pm 3.95*$
Citrumelo CPB 4475	78.75 ± 7.51	$52.05 \pm 2.74*$	40.70 ± 1.85	$78.42 \pm 14.54^*$	157.40 ± 7.38	$82.39 \pm 3.40^*$
Cleopatra mandarin	104.50 ± 18.84	90.50 ± 3.16	26.00 ± 0.56	22.00 ± 2.30	24.95 ± 2.30	$13.30 \pm 2.15^{*}$
Carrizo citrange	57.60 ± 11.03	74.90 ± 9.05	79.45 ± 6.05	75.20 ± 2.66	108.15 ± 6.31	$57.15 \pm 18.54*$
Citrumelo CPB 4475	33.25 ± 5.34	$55.35 \pm 6.32*$	42.60 ± 4.98	54.25 ± 11.49	60.15 ± 5.28	62.20 ± 11.59
Cleopatra mandarin	67.20 ± 4.88	$176.45\pm5.16^*$	116.10 ± 7.92	$71.35 \pm 5.02*$	79.60 ± 9.02	62.35 ± 7.56
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Table 2 Chloride, malondialdehyde (MDA), abscisic acid (ABA) and salicylic acid (SA) contents in shoots of three citrus genotypes subjected to salt stress (60 mM NaCl)

* Symbols followed with an asterisk denote statistical significance at P < 0.05. Data in insets are normalized mean values \pm relative SE

Table 3 Chloride, malondialdehyde (MDA), abscisic acid (ABA) and salicylic acid (SA) contents in Carrizo citrange shoots after 2, 5 and 10 days of saline treatment

	Time of treatment (days)						
	2		5		10		
	Control	60 mM NaCl	Control	60 mM NaCl	Control	60 mM NaCl	
Cl ⁻ (mg/g fresh tissue)	1.68 ± 0.03	$2.73 \pm 0.04*$	1.72 ± 0.08	$5.02 \pm 0.09*$	1.15 ± 0.04	5.38 ± 0.13*	
MDA (nmol/g fresh tissue)	16.48 ± 1.49	20.79 ± 0.99	18.41 ± 2.08	17.31 ± 1.38	27.30 ± 1.35	29.74 ± 1.76	
ABA (ng/g fresh tissue)	25.20 ± 2.80	30.07 ± 3.87	33.20 ± 5.91	$9.60 \pm 1.40^{*}$	8.40 ± 1.60	11.33 ± 0.40	
SA (ng/g fresh tissue)	34.60 ± 13.00	27.73 ± 6.82	28.93 ± 5.28	37.80 ± 5.24	35.00 ± 3.60	56.73 ± 12.91	

* Symbols followed with an asterisk denote statistical significance at P < 0.05. Data in insets are normalized mean values \pm relative SE

 Table 4
 Foliar damage, chloride and malondialdehyde (MDA) contents in Carrizo citrange shoots grown in medium supplemented or not with

 0.2 mg/l of gibberellic acid and 6-benzylaminopurine. Data were recorded after 20 days of saline treatment

	Treatment					
	+		_			
	Control	60 mM NaCl	Control	60 mM NaCl		
Foliar damage (%)	0.00 ± 0.00	$72.90 \pm 1.10^{*}$	0.00 ± 0.00	$68.00 \pm 0.20^{*}$		
Cl ⁻ (mg/g fresh tissue)	1.67 ± 0.03	$4.71 \pm 0.12^{*}$	1.63 ± 0.07	$5.23\pm0.12^*$		
MDA (nmol/g fresh tissue)	28.06 ± 1.55	$33.24 \pm 0.69*$	17.51 ± 1.67	$18.35 \pm 1.98^*$		

* Symbols followed with an asterisk denote statistical significance at P < 0.05. Data in insets are normalized mean values \pm relative SE

519 The lack of ABA accumulation within in vitro cultured 520 shoots of citrus genotypes under stress conditions could be 521 due to the fact that the triggering signal for increasing 522 biosynthesis must occur in the roots and the lack of this 523 tissue in our system makes impossible for this early signal 524 to occur. It was also possible that hormone-signalling had taken place before 10 days of saline treatment, when first525data of ABA concentration were recorded. To exclude this526last possibility and to elucidate the early effects of salt527stress on in vitro grown citrus shoots, the pattern of chlo-528ride concentration, MDA and hormone concentrations in529CC shoots were determined after 2, 5 and 10 days of salt530

stress treatment. Chloride accumulation in shoots was
again gradual throughout this short experimental period,
but no differences were found in MDA, ABA or SA levels
between control and salinized shoots after short saline
treatment periods, which do not support a putative early
ABA- or SA-dependent signalling pathway.

537 After analyzing all data, we can conclude that when 538 shoots are cultured without a root system, all genotypes 539 accumulate the same levels of chloride and exhibit similar 540 leaf damage as a consequence of the imposition of a salt 541 stress treatment. The lack of an increase in MDA levels in 542 all genotypes, and the common patterns of hormonal signalling, in both short and long periods of study indicate 543 544 that, under the same salt conditions and with the same level 545 of leaf chloride intoxication, no biochemical differences 546 exist among tolerant and sensitive genotypes. This points to 547 the roots as a key organ not only as a filter of chloride ions 548 but also as a signalling system in citrus.

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