REVIEW PAPER



Phytomelatonin: a universal abiotic stress regulator

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Received 12 September 2017; Editorial decision 7 December 2017; Accepted 11 December 2017

Editor: Christine Raines, University of Essex, UK

Abstract

Melatonin, a derivative of tryptophan, was first detected in plant species in 1995 and it has been shown to be a diverse regulator during plant growth and development, and in stress responses. Recently, great progress has been made towards determining the detailed functions of melatonin in plant responses to abiotic stress. Melatonin priming improves plant tolerance to cold, heat, salt, and drought stresses through regulation of genes involved in the *DREB/CBF*, *HSF*, *SOS*, and ABA pathways, respectively. As a scavenger of free radicals, melatonin also directly detoxifies reactive oxygen species, thus alleviating membrane oxidation. Abiotic stress-inhibited photosynthesis is partially recovered and metabolites accumulate in the presence of melatonin, leading to improved plant growth, delayed leaf senescence, and increased stress tolerance. In this review, we summarize the interactions of melatonin with phytohormones to regulate downstream gene expression, protein stabilization, and epigenetic modification in plants. Finally, we consider the need for, and approaches to, the identification of melatonin receptors and components during signaling transduction pathways.

Keywords: Abscisic acid, abiotic stress, auxin, leaf senescence, melatonin, osmolytes, phytohormone, reactive oxygen species.

Introduction

Environmental stresses adversely affect plant growth and development. As sessile organisms, plants develop different approaches to cope with harsh environmental conditions. Abiotic stress tolerance is a complex trait. Phytohormones including abscisic acid (ABA), ethylene (ETH), gibberellic acid (GA), jasmonic acid (JA), salicylic acid (SA), indole acetic acid (IAA), strigolactone (SL), brassinosteroids (BR), and cytokinins (CTK) play key roles during stress responses and plant development (Balbi and Devoto, 2008; Lee *et al.*, 2013; Kapulnik and Koltai, 2014; Zhao *et al.*, 2016). Additionally, several other small molecules such as melatonin (MT) and polyamines (PA) are involved in plant

stress responses (Chan and Shi, 2015; Huang et al., 2015; Reiter et al., 2015).

Melatonin (N-acetyl-5-methoxytryptamine), a derivative of the essential amino acid tryptophan, was identified in bovine pineal tissue and structurally identified by Lerner and co-workers (Lerner *et al.*, 1958). It was initially shown to be an important molecule in animals that regulates reproductive physiology, circadian rhythms, sleep, retinal physiology, mood, antioxidative activity, sexual behavior, temperature homeostasis, and immunological enhancement (Galano *et al.*, 2011; Venegas *et al.*, 2012; Calvo *et al.*, 2013). In 1995, pioneer studies independently conducted by Dubbels *et al.* (1995) and

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Hattori et al. (1995) verified that melatonin is also ubiquitously present in higher plants and plant products. Since then, melatonin has been found in leaves, roots, stems, fruits, and seeds of various plant species, including crops (rice, wheat, barley, corn, tobacco, grass, carrot, and oats) and fruit (sweet cherry, grape, cucumber, and apple), as well as plant products used to make popular beverages (tea, coffee, beer, and wine) (Manchester et al., 2000; Chen et al., 2003; Garcia-Parrilla et al., 2009; Huang and Mazza 2011; Stürtz et al., 2011; Arnao and Hernández-Ruiz 2013, 2015, 2017a; Arnao, 2014; Feng et al., 2014; Kocadağh et al., 2014; Hernández-Ruiz and Arnao 2016). Evidence has shown that melatonin is involved in flowering, circadian rhythms, photosynthesis, senescence (Byeon et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2012, 2013a, 2013b; Lee et al., 2014; Shi et al., 2015b), root system architecture (Arnao and Hernandez-Ruiz, 2007; Pelagio-Flores et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2014b; Arnao and Hernández-Ruiz, 2017b), seed germination (Posmyk et al., 2009), and in response to various environmental stresses (Table 1).

To date, melatonin has been shown to be a diverse regulator during plant growth and development, and in stress responses (Arnao and Hernández-Ruiz, 2014; Reiter *et al.*, 2015; Zhang *et al.*, 2015). Recently, great progress has been made towards determining the detailed functions of melatonin in plant responses to abiotic stress, and a number of reviews related to this have been published. In this review, we focus on how melatonin interacts with phytohormones and affects transcriptomic and proteomic changes in plants, and we summarize how melatonin modulates plant abiotic stress signaling pathways. We also consider the need for, and approaches to, the identification of melatonin receptors and signaling transduction pathways.

Melatonin detoxifies free radicals and alleviates oxidative stress

In plant cells, reactive oxygen species (ROS) such as the hydroxyl radical ('OH), the superoxide anion (O_2^{-}) , singlet oxygen $({}^{1}O_{2})$, and hydrogen peroxide $(H_{2}O_{2})$ are produced continuously and coincidentally. To scavenge ROS, plants have developed an efficient enzymatic and non-enzymatic antioxidative system to protect against oxidative damage, together with fine modulation of low levels of ROS for signal transduction. Enzymatic antioxidants in plants include superoxide dismutase (SOD), catalase (CAT), peroxidase (POD), glutathione reductase (GR), dehydroascorbate reductase (DHAR), glutathione S-transferase (GST), and peroxiredoxin (PRX) (Noctor et al., 2014; Song et al., 2014). Non-enzymatic antioxidants including glutathione (GSH), ascorbic acid (AsA), carotenoids, tocopherols, and flavonoids are also crucial for ROS homeostasis in plants (Gill and Tuteja, 2010).

Melatonin in both animals and plants is a direct free radical scavenger and an indirect antioxidant (Tan *et al.*, 2007, 2012; Manchester *et al.*, 2015). Melatonin controls the burst of hydrogen peroxide in plants associated with pathogen attack and harsh environmental conditions, possibly by directly

scavenging excessive ROS and by enhancing the activities of antioxidative enzymes and the capacity of the ascorbateglutathione cycle (Wang et al., 2013b). It is estimated that via the cascade reaction, one melatonin molecule potentially scavenges 10 free radicals, which contrasts with the classic antioxidants because they typically detoxify one radical per molecule (Tan et al., 2007). Therefore, it has been deduced that the initial function of melatonin in organisms was to serve as an antioxidant to scavenge a variety of ROS and reactive nitrogen species (RNS), and to protect plants from oxidative stress (Dubbels et al., 1995; Hardeland et al., 1995; Tan et al., 2007; Manchester et al., 2015). Exogenous application of melatonin increases antioxidant enzyme activities, while it decreases superoxide, hydrogen peroxide, and malondialdehyde concentrations in apple, grape, maize, sunflower, tomato, and wheat (Wang et al., 2013b; Meng et al., 2014; Turk et al., 2014; Li et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2015; Ye et al., 2016; Arora and Bhatla, 2017). Moreover, melatonin treatment reduces the accumulation of oxidized proteins, enhances the occurrence of oxidative stress-induced autophagy, and alleviates photo-oxidation damage in Arabidopsis (Wang et al., 2015). Pre-treatment with melatonin significantly alleviates H₂O₂-modulated plant growth, cell damage, and ROS accumulation in bermudagrass (Shi et al., 2015d), and reduces paraquat-induced oxidative stress in Arabidopsis (Weeda et al., 2014) and cadmium-mediated oxidative stress in rice (Byeon et al., 2015). Melatonin possibly interacts with nitric oxide (NO) to modulate the production of O_2^{\bullet} and the peroxynitrite anion (ONOO⁻), the accumulation of tyrosinenitrated proteins, and the activity and spatial localization of SOD isoforms (Arora and Bhatla, 2017).

Transcriptomic analysis has shown that a large proportion of differentially expressed genes are involved in oxidation-reduction process after melatonin treatment. Several classes of antioxidant-related genes are significantly regulated by melatonin (Liang et al., 2015; Shi et al., 2015a; Wei et al., 2015). NOEl encodes a rice catalase, and the *noel* mutant accumulates high amounts of H_2O_2 , leading to leaf cell death and senescence (Lin et al., 2012). Melatonintreated *noel* mutants show significantly reduced leaf cell death and a decrease in H_2O_2 when compared to the wildtype, indicating that melatonin directly participates in regulating the cellular H₂O₂ detoxification system (Liang et al., 2015). Studies have also shown that not only exogenously applied but also endogenously produced melatonin in plants possess a similar antioxidant capacity (Table 1). Transgenic plants rich in endogenous melatonin have a higher total antioxidative capacity and lower oxidatively damaged products compared with the wild-type (Wang et al., 2014a). Arabidopsis plants with transgenic apple ASMT1 (encoding N-acetylserotonin methyltransferase) or MzSNAT5 (encoding serotonin N-acetyltransferase) have significantly lower intrinsic ROS than the wild-type and hence these plants exhibit greater tolerance to drought stress (Zuo et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2017). Melatonin-rich transgenic rice plants treated with ROS-generating herbicide also have reduced lipid peroxidation due to scavenging of ROS and stimulation of antioxidative enzymes Table 1. Exogenous application of melatonin or modulation of exogenous melatonin regulates plant abiotic stress tolerance

Abiotic stress	Concentration of melatonin or transgene*	Plant species	Changes and mechanisms	Reference
Cold	10, 30 μM	Arabidopsis thaliana	Modulation of CBF, COR, ZAT10 and ROS genes	Bajwa <i>et al.</i> , 2014
	20 μΜ	Arabidopsis thaliana	Modulation of ZAT6 and CBFs	Shi and Chan, 2014
	50 μΜ	Arabidopsis thaliana	Modulation of CBFs, COR, RD and KIN genes	Shi <i>et al.</i> , 2015c
	43, 86 nM	Carrot (Daucus carota)	ROS scavenger; Polyamine metabolism	Lei <i>et al.</i> , 2004
	0.05–800 μM	Citrullus lanatus	ROS; Hormones; Stress-responsive genes	Li <i>et al.</i> , 2017a
	25, 50, 100, and 500 mM	Cucumber (Cucumis sativus)	Membrane structure; Protein oxidative changes	Posmyk <i>et al.</i> , 2009
	200 μΜ	Cucumber (Cucumis sativus)	ZAT12; Polyamine; ABA	Zhao <i>et al.</i> , 2017
	50 μΜ	Elymus nutans	ROS changes; ABA	Fu <i>et al.</i> , 2017
	1 mM	Barley (Hordeum vulgare)	ROS changes; ABA; Photosynthesis	Li <i>et al.</i> , 2016c
	1 mM	Maize (<i>Zea may</i> s)	Mineral elements; ROS	Turk and Erdal, 2015
	50 and 500 μM	Maize (<i>Zea may</i> s)	Stress-related proteins	Kołodziejczyk et al., 201
	1 mM	Wheat (Triticum aestivum)	ROS changes; Osmoprotectants	Turk <i>et al.</i> , 2014
	100 μΜ	Bermudagrass (Cynodon dactylon)	Photosynthesis; Metabolites	Hu <i>et al.</i> , 2016
	150 μΜ	Watermelon (Citrullus lanatus)	siRNA, miRNA, Cold-responsive genes	Li <i>et al.</i> , 2016b
	100 μM	Tomato (Solanum lycopersicum)	Alleviation of photoinhibition	Ding et al., 2017
	Suppression of SNAT or ASMT	Rice (Oryza sativa)	Growth; Yield; Gene expression	Byeon and Back, 2016
	Overexpression of human SNAT	Rice (Oryza sativa)	Elevated chlorophyll synthesis	Kang <i>et al.</i> , 2010
Drought	10 μM	Alfalfa (Medicago sativa)	Nitric oxide; Proline	Antoniou et al., 2017
	100 μM	Apple (Malus prunifolia)	ABA; ROS	Li <i>et al.</i> , 2015
	100 μΜ	Apple (Malus prunifolia)	Photosynthesis; Modulation of SAG12 and PAO	Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2013 <i>b</i>
	50, 100, 300, 500 m M	Cucumber (Cucumis sativus)	Photosynthesis; ROS; Cell membrane	Zhang <i>et al.</i> , 2013
	50 nM	Grape (Vitis vinifera)	Photosynthesis; ROS	Meng et al., 2014
	100 μM	Maize (<i>Zea mays</i>)	Photosynthesis; Transpiration rates; ROS	Ye <i>et al.</i> , 2016
	50, 100 μM	Soybean (<i>Glycine max</i>)	Growth; Seed production; Gene expression	Wei <i>et al.</i> , 2015
	100 μM	Tomato (Solanum lycopersicum)	Photosynthesis; ROS	Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2015
	Overexpression of apple ASMT	Arabidopsis thaliana	ROS	Zuo <i>et al.</i> , 2014
	Overexpression of apple MzSNAT5	Arabidopsis thaliana	ROS	Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2017
Salt	100 μM	Apple (Malus hupehensis)	CBL-CIPK; ROS	Li <i>et al.</i> , 2016a
	1 μM	Arabidopsis thaliana	lon homeostasis; ROS	Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2017
	1 μM	Citrus (Citrus aurantium)	ROS; Metabolites; Ion accumulation	Kostopoulou et al., 2015
	50, 100, 150, and 200 μM	Cucumber (Cucumis sativus)	Growth; Photosynthetic capacity	Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2016a
	1 μM	Cucumber (Cucumis sativus)	Antioxidant systems, ABA and GA4	Zhang <i>et al.</i> , 2014a
	1 μM	Cucumber (Cucumis sativus)	157 proteins	Zhang et al., 2017b
	0.1 μΜ	Malus hupehensis	lon homeostasis; ROS	Li <i>et al.</i> , 2012
	10, 20 μM	Rice (Oryza sativa)	Photosynthesis; Senescence; ROS	Liang <i>et al.</i> , 2015
	75 μΜ	Rice (Oryza sativa)	lon homeostasis; ROS	Li <i>et al.</i> , 2017 <i>b</i>
	15 μΜ	Sunflower (Helianthus annuus)	Root growth; Hypocotyl elongation	Mukherjee et al., 2014
	15 μΜ	Sunflower (Helianthus annuus)	Cu/Zn SOD, Mn SOD; Tyrosine-nitration of proteins	Arora and Bhatla, 2017
	0, 50, and 100 μM	Soybean (Glycine max)	Growth; Seed production; Gene expression	Wei <i>et al.</i> , 2015
Heat	Suppression of SNAT or ASMT 5 and 20 µM	Rice (Oryza sativa) Arabidopsis thaliana	Growth; Yield; Gene expression Expression of <i>HSF</i> and <i>HSP</i>	Byeon and Back, 2016 Shi <i>et al.</i> , 2015 <i>d</i>
	20 μΜ	Perennial ryegrass (<i>Lolium</i> <i>perenne</i>)	ABA and cytokinin pathway; Photosynthesis	Zhang <i>et al.</i> , 2017 <i>a</i>
	20 µM	Tomato (Solanum lycopersicum)	HSP abundance and expression	Xu <i>et al.</i> , 2016
	Overexpression of tomato	Tomato (Solanum lycopersicum)	HSP abundance and expression	Xu <i>et al.</i> , 2016
	0.3, 1, 6, 12, 30, 60, 90 μM	Phacelia tanacetifolia	Seed germination	Tiryaki and Keles, 2012

* SNAT, serotonin N-acetyltransferase; ASMT, N-acetylserotonin methyltransferase.

(Park *et al.*, 2013). These results indicate that melatonin functions as a powerful antioxidant to detoxify free radicals and thus improve the oxidative stress tolerance in plants.

Melatonin alleviates electrolyte leakage (EL) and lipid peroxidation caused by malondialdehyde (MDA) during plant stress responses. Abiotic stresses including drought, salt, and cold increase MDA and ROS levels, which have a direct impact on cell membranes, resulting in increased EL in bermudagrass (Shi et al., 2015a), and probably other plants as well. Pre-treatment with melatonin decreases both EL and MDA under abiotic stress conditions (Shi et al., 2015a, 2015d). Cold stress results in disrupted membranes and a collapsed nucleus, while melatonin pre-treatment alleviates cold-induced cell damage in suspended carrot cells (Lei et al., 2004). In tomato, pre-treatment prevents cadmium (Cd)induced increases in EL and MDA to varying degrees (Hasan et al., 2015). Treatment with 200 mM NaCl increases EL and MDA in cucumber plants, while melatonin-treated plants show significantly lower EL and MDA than the control in the presence of NaCl (Wang et al., 2016a). These results are consistent with the ability to prevent the oxidation of membrane lipids in particular.

Melatonin improves plant photosynthesis and delays leaf senescence

In plants, photosynthesis is the key biological process that determines plant survival and productivity. Generally, abiotic stress conditions inhibit photosynthesis and reduce growth, resulting in decreased transpiration and elevated water use efficiency (Gururani et al., 2015). In tomato, pre-treatment with 0.1 mM melatonin significantly increases drought tolerance. Pre-treated tomato plants show elevated net photosynthetic rate, transpiration rate, stomatal conductance, quantum yield of PSII, electron transport, and maximum quantum yield (F_v/F_m) (Liu et al., 2015). Exposure to moderate light under chilling causes substantial reduction of F_v/F_m and of the effective photochemical efficiency (F'_v/F'_m) in tomato, while melatonin mitigates the photoinhibition (Ding et al., 2017). Chlorophyll is extremely sensitive to water deficit, and reduction in pigment levels caused by drought stress has been reported in several plant species. However, these pigments are largely preserved after melatonin pre-treatment (Li et al., 2012, 2015; Wang et al., 2013a, 2013b; Zhang et al., 2013). Long-term supplement of 100 μ M melatonin to the soil increases photosynthetic activity, chlorophyll content, and sugar contents in apple leaves (Wang et al., 2013a). In Chara australis (Characeae), supplementing melatonin in the water growth medium increases the quantum yield of PSII by 34% (Lazár et al., 2013). In addition, exogenous application of melatonin under stressed conditions helps maintain the chlorophyll content in rice (Liang et al., 2015), grape (Meng et al., 2014), cherry (Sarropoulou et al., 2012a), and turfgrass (Shi et al., 2015a; Zhang et al., 2017a). Transgenic rice seedlings with the human SNA gene exhibit high levels of melatonin and elevated chlorophyll synthesis under cold stress conditions (Kang et al., 2010). As noted above, melatonin is a direct free radical scavenger that attenuates ROS/RNS formation and protects against stress-induced damage at multiple levels. In photosynthetic organisms, ROS/RNS are continuously produced that can damage key macromolecules, in particular DNA, lipids, and proteins, and that can severely inhibit photosynthesis. Melatonin synthesized on-site might relieve chloroplasts from stress-induced damage and thus help to maintain photosynthesis under stress conditions. Hence, melatonin effectively alleviates decomposition of chlorophyll and preserves chloroplast physiology when plants are subjected to abiotic stresses.

Melatonin is known to regulate phloem-loading of sucrose in plants. Application of 10 µM melatonin accelerates starch catabolism at night, whereas 100 µM significantly suppresses this process and leads to starch accumulation in photosynthetic tissues (Zhao et al., 2015). Melatonin alleviates the decline in content of carotenoids and chlorophyll during leaf senescence in apple. Concentrations of nitrogen, total soluble proteins, and Rubisco decrease in parallel with the aging process, but the levels of these metabolites are significantly higher in melatonin-treated plants. In addition, the contents of starch, sorbitol, sucrose, fructose, and glucose tend to increase after melatonin treatment (Wang et al., 2013a, 2013b). Using an 'omics' approach, 54 metabolites were examined in bermudagrass plants before or after melatonin treatment. Interestingly, without abiotic stress treatments, melatonin was only found to affect a small portion of the detected metabolites, while under stressed conditions, a much larger number of metabolites showed increased contents after melatonin pre-treatment, especially those involved in the carbon metabolic pathway (Shi et al., 2015a; Hu et al., 2016). These results indicate that melatonin might function as a regulator of plant sugar metabolism in response to abiotic stress. The stomata are important passages through which air and water vapor are conveyed in plant leaves. Melatonin pre-treatment leads to greater stomatal conductance in apple and grape (Meng et al., 2014; Li et al., 2015). In apple, the imposition of drought results in significantly shorter and narrower stomata and also causes stomatal closure. Apple plants pre-treated with melatonin have longer and wider stomata than the control plants. After melatonin pre-treatment, stomata remain open under stress conditions; however, stomatal density in apple leaves is not altered by melatonin (Li et al., 2015). In grape, drought conditions decrease the length and width of stomata in mature leaves, as well as the degree to which they open. Pre-treatment with melatonin leads to greater stomatal length and width, and the degree of opening of stomata is greater than that in control plants (Meng et al., 2014). Hence, pre-treatment with melatonin results in greater stomatal conductance and improves photosynthetic capacity because of the ability of melatonin to maintain the stomata in an open state.

Leaf senescence is a type of programmed cell death that results in the degradation of macromolecules including chlorophyll and the subsequent mobilization of components to other parts of the plant (Liang *et al.*, 2014). Melatonin pre-treatment suppresses the up-regulation of *senescenceassociated gene 12* (*SAG12*) and *pheophorbide a oxygenase* (PAO) in apple, and helps to maintain better function of PSII under drought conditions (Wang et al., 2013b). In addition, Arnao and Hernández-Ruiz (2009) found that melatonin pre-treatment significantly slowed the senescence process in barley leaves, with the maximal chlorophyll content being observed after application of 1 mM melatonin. In rice, Liang et al. (2015) also found that melatonin significantly inhibited chlorophyll degradation, suppressed the expression of senescence-associated genes, and delayed leaf senescence. Several transcription factors including senescence-related SGR and NAC are regulated by melatonin in rice, as shown by highthroughput RNA sequencing, indicating that a reduction in melatonin is an essential feature of plant senescence (Liang et al., 2015). Using proteomic approaches, senescence-related protein has been shown to exhibit decreased intensity after melatonin pre-treatment (Sun et al., 2016). In perennial ryegrass, melatonin reduces transcript levels of senescenceassociated genes (LpSAG12.1 and Lph36) and alleviates heatinduced leaf senescence (Zhang et al., 2017a).

Melatonin modulates plant growth and development

Melatonin affects plant growth partially through photosynthesis and metabolism pathways. Transgenic rice seedlings expressing sheep serotonin N-acetyltransferase (NAT)showed enhanced seminal root growth and an elevated number of adventitious roots. Moreover, exogenous melatonin treatment promoted seminal root growth of the wild-type rice under continuous light (Park and Back, 2012). Melatonin priming increased yield of corn (Zea mays), mung bean (Vigna radiata), and cucumber (Janas and Posmyk, 2013; Wang et al., 2016a; Ye et al., 2016). Melatonin-treated soybean plants produced more pods and seeds than the controls, although the 100-seed weight was not significantly influenced (Wei et al., 2015). In addition, many genes involved in cell division, photosynthesis, carbohydrate metabolism, fatty acid biosynthesis, and ascorbate metabolism were differentially regulated by melatonin. In etiolated lupin (Lupinus albus), melatonin promotes the growth of hypocotyls at micromolar concentrations, while it inhibits the same process at higher concentrations (Hernández-Ruiz et al., 2004). Recent research on Arabidopsis and soybean seedlings has shown that high melatonin concentrations adversely affect wholeplant growth (Bajwa et al., 2014; Wei et al., 2015). In tomato, application of melatonin at 50 µM promotes fruit ripening and increases fruit softening, pigment accumulation, water loss, and flavor formation (Sun et al., 2015). Further proteomics analysis has shown that melatonin increases the intensity of proteins involved in ripening-related pathways and in the anthocyanin accumulation pathway (Sun et al., 2016).

In roots, melatonin modulates growth in a concentrationdependent manner, as reported in mustard (Chen *et al.*, 2009), cherry (Sarropoulou *et al.*, 2012*b*), sunflower (Mukherjee *et al.*, 2014), tomato (Wen *et al.*, 2016), and several monocot species (Hernández-Ruiz *et al.*, 2005; Liang *et al.*, 2017). A stimulatory effect was observed during root growth of mustard after treatment with low concentrations of melatonin, while an inhibitory effect was found with high concentrations (Chen et al., 2009). Salt stress inhibits primary root growth and hypocotyl elongation in sunflower seedlings, but melatonin-treated seedlings exhibited 13% and 58% increases for primary root length and hypocotyl elongation, respectively, in the presence of NaCl (Mukherjee et al., 2014). Melatonin promotes the rooting of several sweet cherry rootstocks at a relative low concentration, but inhibits root growth at high concentrations (Sarropoulou et al., 2012b). Wen et al., (2016) observed that the effects of melatonin on formation of adventitious root in tomato seedlings are dosedependent. Application of an NO scavenger removed the function of melatonin, but a melatonin biosynthesis inhibitor had little effect in abolishing the function of NO during the formation of adventitious root. Hernández-Ruiz et al. (2005) found that the optimum growth-promoting concentration for melatonin in several monocot plants was 10^{-7} M. In rice, 10-50 µM melatonin treatments inhibit embryonic root growth, but promote lateral root formation and development (Liang et al., 2017).

Putative target genes of melatonin

Melatonin modulates a wide range of stress-responsive genes. The expression of C-repeat-binding factors (CBFs)/drought response element binding factors (DREBs), a downstream cold responsive gene (COR15a), and transcription factors involved in freezing- and drought-stress tolerance, including CAMTA1, ZAT6, ZAT10, and ZAT12 are up-regulated by melatonin (Bajwa et al., 2014; Shi and Chan 2014; Shi et al., 2015b; Zhao et al., 2017). In Arabidopsis, a low concentration of melatonin (100 pM) changed the expression level of 81 genes, while a high concentration (1 mM) influenced the expression of 1308 genes, including the transcription factors (TFs) WRKY, NAC, and MYB (Weeda et al., 2014). Based on the classification of the gene ontology (GO) 'slim' term, the majority of genes were involved in stress response and signal transduction. The same results were found in cucumber where 10 µM melatonin affected fewer genes (113) than 500 µM melatonin (317), and expression levels of the WRKY, MYB, and NAC genes were significantly changed by melatonin (Zhang et al., 2014b). In bermudagrass, genome-wide transcriptomic profiling identified 3933 transcripts that were differentially expressed after melatonin treatment. Pathway enrichment analysis showed that pathways related to nitrogen metabolism, major carbohydrate metabolism, hormone metabolism, metal handling, redox, and secondary metabolism were over-represented. Transcription factors including DREB, HSF, WRKY, and MYB are highly induced by melatonin (Shi et al., 2015a). Melatonin treatment also up-regulates expression of genes inhibited by salt stress, and hence alleviates the inhibitory effects of the stress on gene expression. Genes involved in fatty acid biosynthesis, cell division, carbohydrate metabolism, photosynthesis, and ascorbate metabolism are activated after melatonin pre-treatment in soybean (Wei et al., 2015). Exogenous melatonin treatment affected 457 genes in rice, with 191 being up-regulated and 266 being

down-regulated. The functions of these genes were mainly involved in response to stress and responses to other stimuli (Liang et al., 2015). Several miRNAs, such as miR159-5p, miR858, miR8029-3p, and novel-m0048-3p, are down-regulated upon melatonin treatment in watermelon. The target genes of these miRNA, including CDPK, bHLH, WRKY, MYB, and DREB, consistently show increased expression in the presence of melatonin (Li et al., 2016b). In melatonin-rich transgenic rice, 260 and 204 genes are up- and down-regulated, respectively, when compared with the wild-type. Representative upregulated genes include those for signaling and transcription factors such as the leucine-rich repeat and zinc-finger genes. In contrast, jasmonate-induced and senescence-associated genes are significantly down-regulated. Further GO analysis reveals that melatonin is positively involved in plant reproductive development (Byeon et al., 2013). Ovine HIOMT and AANAT genes were transformed into switchgrass and modulated the expression of 405 and 946 genes, respectively. Among them, 186 unigenes were co-regulated by both transgenes, which might be the candidate targets of melatonin (Yuan et al., 2016a, 2016b).

Using comparative proteomic technologies, 40 and 34 proteins in bermudagrass were found to be affected by melatonin in the absence and presence, respectively, of H_2O_2 . MapMan pathway analysis showed that several pathways were enhanced by melatonin and H₂O₂ treatments, including polyamine metabolism, major carbohydrate (CHO) metabolism, photosynthesis, redox status, and amino acid metabolism (Shi et al., 2015d). Through use of NanoLC-MS/MS, 622 and 309 proteins were found to be altered by senescence and melatonin, respectively. The functions of these proteins were mainly classified into several senescence-related categories, including degradation of macromolecules, transport, photosynthesis, development, redox, and stress responses (Wang et al., 2014b). GO analysis has shown that melatoninmodulated proteins in cucumber are mainly involved in lipid metabolism, ribosome biosynthesis, and carbohydrate metabolism (Zhang et al., 2017b). In corn plants, proteins involved in the ABA pathway, stress response, ROS, and energetic metabolism show intensity changes after melatonin priming (Kołodziejczyk, et al., 2016). Exogenous melatonin treatment and overexpression of tomato ASMT genes increased the expression level of HSPs and the protein abundance in tomato. Proteomics analysis showed decreased accumulation of aggregated proteins (Xu et al., 2016). Melatonin pre-treatment also reduces protein degradation through inhibition on the expression of autophagy-related genes (ATGs) in apple and tomato (Wang et al., 2013a; Xu et al., 2016). These results indicate that melatonin is involved in plant stress responses at both transcriptional and post-transcriptional levels. Several genes, including DREB/CBF, WRKY, and MYB, might function as melatonin targets. The detailed function of these genes in response to melatonin needs to be further examined.

Melatonin integrates with phytohormones

Many melatonin-affected genes are involved in different hormone signaling pathways, such as auxin, ABA, SA, ETH, and JA, indicating possible crosstalk between melatonin and other phytohormones, as noted above (Weeda et al., 2014). Interactions between melatonin and other phytohormones have been well reviewed by Arnao and Hernández-Ruiz (2017b, 2017c). One of the first roles proposed for melatonin in plants was its possible action as a growth regulator. Melatonin promotes root and vegetative growth in a number of plant species (Arnao and Hernández-Ruiz, 2007, 2014, 2015; Erland et al., 2015; Nawaz et al., 2015). Melatonin modulates root system architecture by stimulating lateral and adventitious root formation, but it minimally affects primary root growth or root-hair development in Arabidopsis (Pelagio-Flores et al., 2012; Koyama et al., 2013). In addition, melatonin neither activates the expression of the auxin-inducible gene marker DR5: GUS, nor induces the degradation of HS:: AXR3NT-GUS. Therefore, melatonin is proposed to modulate lateral root development through IAA-independent pathways (Pelagio-Flores et al., 2012; Koyama et al., 2013). However, melatonin and IAA are structurally related, and therefore it is suggested that melatonin applied exogenously could be metabolized to IAA or to an IAA agonist (Kolár and Machácková, 2005); however, this has not been demonstrated so far. Tryptophan is the precursor for both melatonin and IAA. Arylalkylamine N-acetyltransferase (AANAT), which encodes a rate-limiting enzyme catalysing melatonin biosynthesis in animals, has also been identified in plants (Kang et al., 2013). Tomato plants overexpressing the homologous sheep oAANAT exhibited higher melatonin levels and lower IAA contents than controls due to competition for the precursor (Wang et al., 2014a). It is reported that exogenously applied melatonin acts as a rooting promoter and its action is similar to that of IAA (Sarropoulou et al., 2012a). Exogenous melatonin treatment increases the contents of IAA and IBA in tomato and mustard seedlings (Chen et al., 2009; Wen et al., 2016). At a relatively low concentration (50 μ M), melatonin has been shown to enhance the expression levels of auxin signaling-transduction genes (IAA19 and IAA24) and auxin efflux genes (PIN1, PIN3, and PIN7) and to accelerate adventitious root formation in tomato (Wen et al., 2016). In contrast, a high concentration of melatonin (600 µM) repressed auxin synthesis and transportation pathways, as evidenced by decreased expression of YUC1, YUC2, YUC5, YUC6, TAA1, TAR2, PIN1, PIN3, and PIN7 (Wang et al., 2016b). In rice, 10-20 µM melatonin treatment up-regulates the expression of Os01g08320 (OsIAA1), Os02g56120 (OsIAA9), Os02g57250 (OsIAA10), Os06g07040 (OsIAA20), and Os011g11410 (OsIAA27) (Liang et al., 2017). These data indicate that melatonin at low concentrations might partially function as an IAA mimic.

Melatonin affects ABA biosynthesis and catabolism during cucumber (*Cucumis sativus*) seed germination under salt-stress conditions. Pre-treatment with 1 μ M melatonin down-regulates the ABA biosynthesis gene *NCED2* and up-regulates ABA catabolism genes including *CYP707A1* and *CYP707A2*. As a result, the ABA content significantly decreases after melatonin treatment (Zhang *et al.*, 2014*a*). Evidence shows that 100 μ M melatonin selectively downregulates *MdNCED3* and up-regulates *MdCYP707A1* and

MdCYP707A2, leading to reduced ABA content in droughtstressed apple plants (Li et al., 2015). The same results have been observed in perennial ryegrass, with ABA biosynthesis and signaling genes being down-regulated and ABA content declining after 20 µM melatonin treatment under heat-stress conditions (Zhang et al., 2017a). However, Jia and Zhang (2000) reported that pretreatment with $50-500 \mu$ M melatonin had no effect on water stress-induced ABA accumulation in maize. In chilling-stressed Elymus nutans and cucumber, ABA production was reported to increase after 50 and 200 µM melatonin treatments, respectively (Fu et al., 2017; Zhao et al., 2017). The effect of melatonin on ABA content is therefore still controversial. Interestingly, the ABA-biosynthesis inhibitor fluridone significantly suppresses melatonin-induced ABA accumulation. However, ABA and fluridone pre-treatments do not affect the endogenous melatonin content (Fu et al., 2017), indicating that melatonin functions upstream of the ABA pathways (Arnao and Hernández-Ruiz 2017c). Further transcriptomic analysis has shown that the ABA receptor (PYL5) and PP2C are highly induced by melatonin in bermudagrass (Shi et al., 2015a), while PYL8 of Citrullus lanatus is suppressed by melatonin under cold-stress conditions (Li et al., 2017a). These results indicate that the ABA signaling transduction pathway is modulated by melatonin, but the detailed mechanisms need to be further examined.

Melatonin also modulates the expression level of genes involved in the ETH, SA, and JA pathways (Arnao and Hernández-Ruiz 2017c). In harvested tomato fruit, melatonin treatment increases ethylene production through up-regulation of the biosynthesis gene *SlACS4* during fruit ripening (Weeda *et al.*, 2014). The ethylene receptor genes *NR* and *ETR4* and the signal transduction elements *EIL1*, *EIL3*, and *ERF2* are up-regulated by melatonin (Sun *et al.*, 2015). Melatonin influences GA biosynthesis and catabolism during seed germination (Zhang *et al.*, 2014*a*). Notable increases in putrescine and spermidine levels have been observed in melatonin-treated carrot suspension cells and cucumber seedlings (Lei *et al.*, 2004; Zhao *et al.*, 2017). These data suggest that the actions of melatonin may involve other phytohormones.

Conclusions and perspectives

Increasing evidence shows that melatonin functions as a universal defensive signal to alleviate damage induced by different stressful conditions. In Fig. 1 a model is proposed to characterize the potential roles of melatonin during plant abiotic stress responses. Melatonin might interact with other phytohormones such as ABA, IAA, ETH, and GA to regulate gene expression, protein stabilization, and epigenetic modification caused by miRNA. Furthermore, downstream stress-responsive pathways are activated, including those for enhancing antioxidant systems, decreasing free radicals, increasing osmoprotectants, recovering ionic disorder, alleviating membrane oxidation, and delaying leaf senescence. Stress-inhibited photosynthesis is partially recovered in the presence of melatonin. Plants thus exhibit improved growth and increased stress tolerance after melatonin priming (Fig. 1).

Under abiotic stress conditions, plants have developed different strategies to buffer the harmful effects on growth and development. The key roles of the *DREB/CBF* pathway for cold, the *HSF-HSP* pathway for heat, the *SOS3-SOS2-SOS1/NHX* pathway for salt, and the ABA

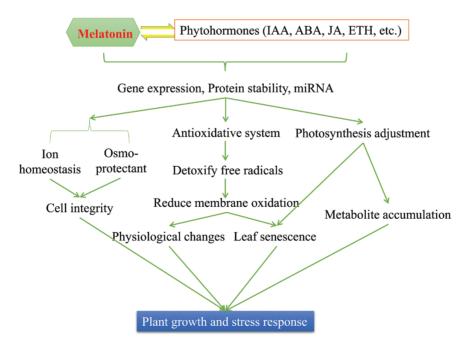


Fig. 1. Proposed model depicting melatonin-mediated plant abiotic stress responses. Melatonin interacts with other phytohormones and modulates gene expression, protein stability, and epigenetic modification directed by miRNA. Activated stress-responsive genes further detoxify free radicals, alleviate membrane oxidation, and delay leaf senescence. Stress-inhibited photosynthesis is partially recovered and metabolites accumulate in the presence of melatonin. The production of osmoprotectants is increased and ion disorders are balanced to maintain cell integrity. Plant tolerances to abiotic stress are hence improved and damage to plant growth is reduced after melatonin treatment.

(PYR/PYL-PP2C-SnRK2-ABF) pathway for drought have been well characterized. Melatonin functions as a general regulator during plant responses to abiotic stress through modulation of stress-responsive genes directly or indirectly (Fig. 2). We hypothesize that the perception of melatonin activates downstream signaling transduction pathways. Alternatively, melatonin-modulated ROS/RNS function as secondary messengers during plant growth and stress responses. Melatonin or a downstream signaling component induces the expression of DREB/CBF genes and other cold stress-responsive transcription factors such as CAMTA3, ZAT6, ZAT10, and ZAT12 to improve plant /cold tolerance (Bajwa et al., 2014; Shi and Chan, 2014; Shi et al., 2015b; Zhao et al., 2017). Expression of HSF and HSP is readily induced by melatonin treatment, leading to enhanced heat tolerance (Shi et al., 2015c). Moreover, salt overly sensitive 1 (SOS1), SOS2, SOS3, NHX Na⁺/H⁺ antiporters (*NHXs*), *CBL1*, and *CIPK23* are significantly up-regulated after melatonin treatment (Li et al., 2012, 2016a, 2017b; Chen et al., 2017), resulting in an activated SOS pathway and elevated salt tolerance. Exogenous melatonin changes the ABA content by modulating its biosynthesis and metabolism pathways. Increased expression levels of ABA receptors are induced by melatonin and ABA signaling transduction pathways are then activated, resulting in increased drought tolerance (Jia and Zhang, 2000; Zhang et al., 2014a; Li et al., 2015; Shi et al., 2015a). However, the effect of melatonin on ABA is still controversial, as noted above. ABA is a stress-induced hormone and how melatonin integrates with the ABA signal remains unclear. Low concentrations of melatonin activate the IAA pathway, while high concentrations repress it (Wang *et al.*, 2016); Wen *et al.*, 2016; Liang *et al.*, 2017). In addition, melatonin inhibits expression of *IAA17/AXR3* and *NAC*, leading to reduced *SEN4* and *SAG12* and delayed leaf senescence (Wang *et al.*, 2013b; Liang *et al.*, 2015; Shi *et al.*, 2015b).

Although progress has been made to characterize the functions of melatonin in plants, numerous questions remain unanswered. Firstly, whilst the receptors and signaling transduction pathways of other phytohormones have been identified, including auxin, cytokinin, gibberellins, ethylene, brassinosteroids, jasmonic acid, and abscisic acid, no information is available regarding melatonin receptors in plants. Currently, two melatonin membrane receptors, namely MT1 and MT2 (originally denoted as Mella, Mellb), have been identified in mammalian vertebrates, and two, MT3 or Mellc, in non-mammalian vertebrates (Hardeland, 2009), but the perception of melatonin by plant cells and the signaling transduction pathways remain to be determined. Secondly, ROS are important signaling molecules during the plant stress response. Melatonin acts as an effective free radical scavenger and antioxidant to alleviate oxidative stress caused by drought, salt, cold, and heat amongst others (Tan et al.,

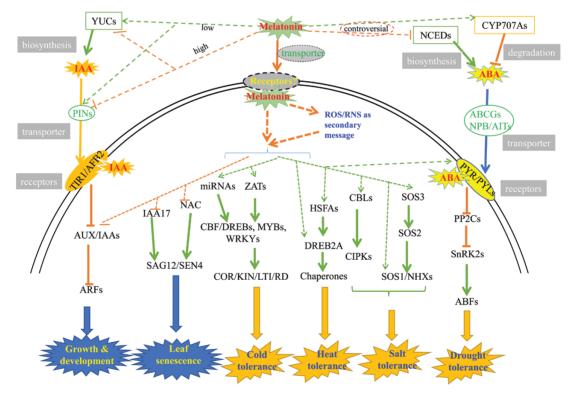


Fig. 2. Melatonin modulates plant stress-signaling pathways, regulates plant growth, and delays leaf senescence. Based on identification of melatonin receptors in mammalian and non-mammalian vertebrates (Hardeland, 2009), we hypothesize that the perception of melatonin by receptors either directly modulates expression of stress-responsive genes or indirectly through melatonin signaling components or secondary messengers such as ROS/RNS. Melatonin up-regulates C₂H₂-type zinc finger transcription factor *ZAT*s and miRNAs, which act as upstream regulators of the CBFs/DREBs pathway during plant responses to cold stress. Melatonin regulates heat and salt stresses through the *HSF-DREB2A* and *SOS* pathways, respectively. The ABA signaling transduction pathway (*PYR/PYL-PP2C-SnRK2-ABF*) is modulated by melatonin to regulate the plant drought-stress response. Melatonin activates/represses the IAA pathway in a concentration-dependent manner. The senescence-related genes *IAA17/AXR3* and *NAC* are inhibited by melatonin, leading to delayed leaf senescence. Dashed lines show pathways possibly regulated by melatonin, as summarized in the text.

2007, 2012; Reiter *et al.*, 2015) Therefore, it is not surprising that melatonin improves plant tolerance to most abiotic stresses. However, further work is needed to characterize how melatonin interacts with other hormones and how it regulates stress-signaling pathways.

Melatonin-mediated transcriptomic changes have been identified in bermudagrass, rice, Arabidopsis, soybean, and cucumber (Byeon et al., 2013; Weeda et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2014b; Shi et al., 2015d; Wei et al., 2015). However, relatively little is known about the downstream target genes and regulatory networks. Bioinformatics analysis of genes commonly modulated by melatonin would be an effective approach to answer this question. Finally, homologous genes involved in plant melatonin biosynthesis have been cloned in several crop species (Zuo et al., 2014; Byeon and Back, 2016). Overexpression of biosynthesis-related genes increase the endogenous content of melatonin and improve plant abiotic stress tolerance. Several Chinese medicinal herbs constitutively exhibit very high melatonin contents, especially Chantui (Periostracum cicadae), which has 3.7 μ g g⁻¹ dry mass melatonin (Chen *et al.*, 2003). In beans of Coffea species, melatonin content even reaches 5.8–9.6 μ g g⁻¹ dry mass, which is much higher than in edible plants (Ramakrishna et al., 2012). Functional analysis of the genes involved in melatonin biosynthesis and metabolism pathways in these plants might provide more efficient genetic resources to increase the endogenous melatonin content in crops. In conclusion, melatonin is an important stress-signaling molecule that functions as a general abiotic stress regulator.

Acknowledgments

We apologize to those colleagues who have contributed to this field but who were not cited because of space limitations. This research was supported by a National Key Research and Development Program grant (2017YFD0201305) to ZC and YW, Huazhong Agricultural University Scientific & Technological Self-innovation Foundation (Program No.2016RC010) and the Chutian Scholars Fund Project to ZC, and Huazhong Agricultural University Scientific & Technological Self-innovation Foundation (Program No.2016QD026) to YW.

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