

Review Article

## Role of Brassinosteroids in plants responses to salinity stress: A review

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### Abstract

Brassinosteroid emerges as an essential phytohormone that helps the plant to maintain plant growth and development. It also helps the plants grow well under adverse conditions along with normal conditions. In this review article, we have discussed the functional role of brassinosteroid (BRS) in plants under salinity stress conditions. Salinity stress is one of the most devastating abiotic stresses which adversely affect plant growth by disturbing their metabolic pathway. This article also comprises the occurrence, structure and signalling pathway of the brassinosteroid. Application of brassinosteroid improves the plant status under salinity by enhancing the antioxidant enzyme activity in plants. Moreover, we also reported the different growth parameters enhanced by brassinosteroid application in plants under salinity. BRSs also maintain plant growth through the regulation of expression of various genes whose products are involved in various biochemical and physiological processes. This review is based on the various aspects in much detail which are required to understand the proper mechanism of BRS, such as i) the role of BRS signaling pathways in providing tolerance to the plants, ii) changes due to the presence or absence of BRS in plants under stress conditions, iii) BRSs application on the regulation of different genes and transcriptional factor, iv) regulation in ion homeostasis, v) reduction of oxidative stress via different mechanisms under salinity stress. However, a lot of knowledge is required to understand the role of BRS in alleviating salinity stress and needs future research work on BRS with its different derivatives in the alleviation of salt stress.

**Keywords:** Brassinosteroid, Gene expression, Oxidative stress, Salt stress, Signaling pathway

### INTRODUCTION

Brassinosteroids (BRSs) are a class of plant regulating steroidal hormones that regulate plant growth at different stages of the life cycle. BRS plays different essential functions in both biotic and abiotic stresses. BRS control different physiological and biochemical processes of plants under stress and non-stress conditions. It interacts with other hormones in the different physiological processes to control their response. Salinity has emerged as a major threat to agricultural sector in recent times. In India, around 6.727 million hectares of area is salinity affected which represent around 2% of the total geographical area of the country (Arora *et al.*, 2016; Arora and Sharma, 2017). Ahanger *et al.* (2020) reported that BRS treatment helps plants to alleviate

the deleterious effects of salinity.

### Occurrence and structure of BRSs

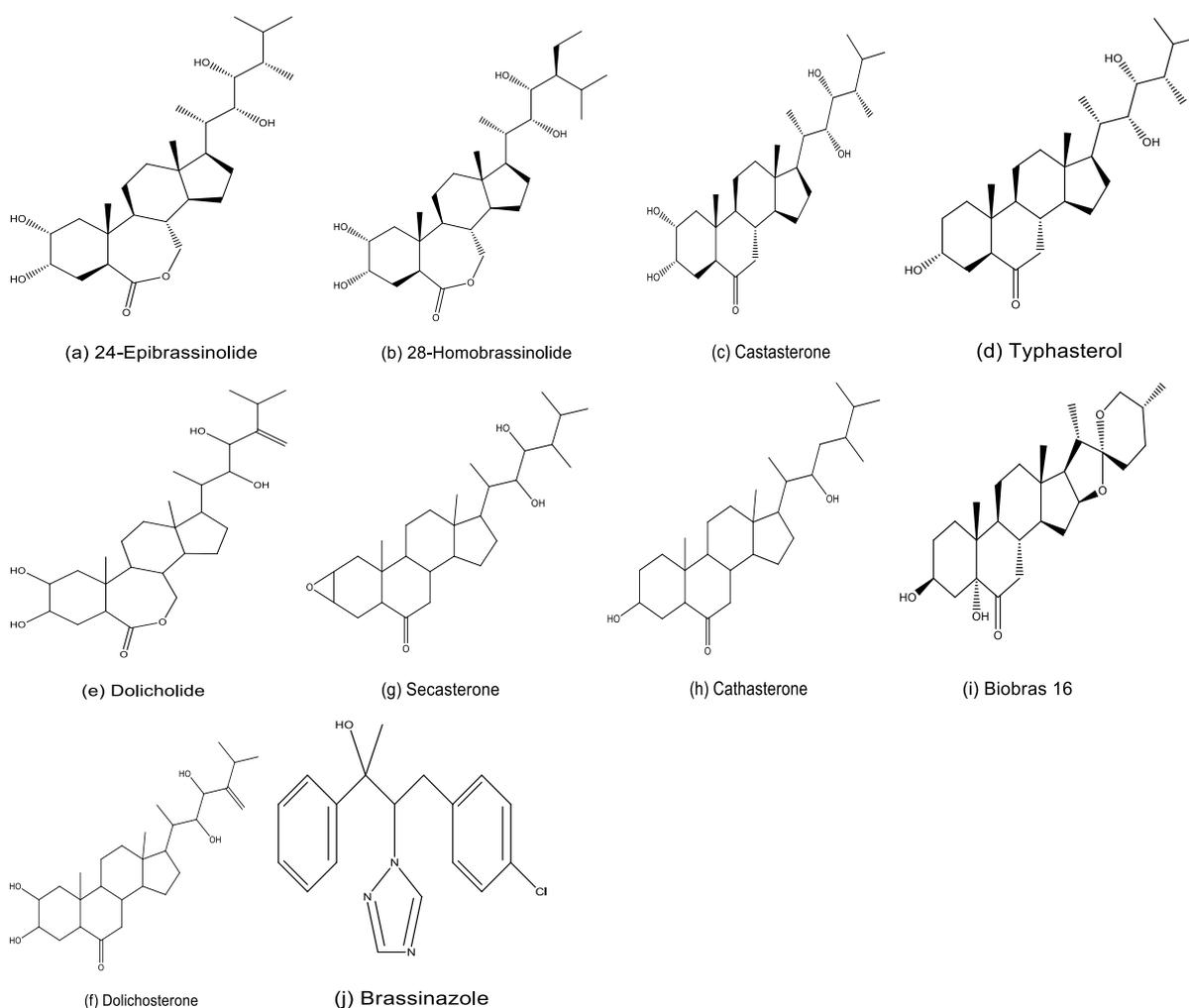
Brassinolide (BL) (C<sub>28</sub>H<sub>48</sub>O<sub>6</sub>) was the first BRS, isolated from pollen of the rape plant in 1979, after which a second BRS was isolated from *Catanea crenata* in 1982, named castasterone (Grove *et al.*, 1979; Yokota *et al.*, 1982). BRS are found in all divisions of the plant kingdom, including angiosperms, gymnosperms, algae, bryophytes and pteridophytes (Fujioka, 1999; Hayat and Ahmad, 2010). Pollens and immature seeds contain a high concentration of BRSs as compared to vegetative cells like stem or leaf. BL and castasterone are the most widely found BRSs in plants, present in 22 and 33 species. Most of the BRSs are found only in a restricted number of species (Fujioka & Sakurai, 1997).

However, BRSs are rarely found in algae and till now only two BRSs of C28 group are reported in algae named 24-epicastasterone and 28-homocastasterone in *Hydrodictyon reticulatum* (Camoni et al., 2018). Liu et al. (2017) reported 81 natural BRS in plants along with 137 analogs and 8 metabolites.

### BRASSINOSTEROID SIGNALING PATHWAY

In BRS signaling pathway, the receptor for BRS is present on the surface of the cell, named BRI1 (brassinosteroid insensitive 1). BKI1 (BRI1 Kinase Inhibitor 1) acts as an inhibitory protein that binds to BRI1 receptor and restricts its activity. BRS binds to the BRI1 receptor via its C-terminal domain, which leads to different events like auto-phosphorylation and detachment of BKI1, which means that BRI1 now becomes active. Apart from BRI1, another receptor named BAK1 (BRI1-associated receptor kinase 1) is found in the mem-

brane. Both BAK1 and BRI1 are leucine-rich region receptor-like kinase (LRR-RLK), which can add phosphate ions. On getting activated by the BRS binding, BRI1 binds to the BAK1 and forms a heterodimer (Li and Nam, 2002; Wang and Chory, 2006). This binding initiated a phosphorylation cascade in which one intermediate molecule phosphorylates the next molecule present in the signaling pathway. BIN2 (brassinosteroid-insensitive 2) plays a key role in this cascade pathway. It acts as a regulatory molecule that regulates the activity of BZR1 (brassinazole-resistant 1) and BES1 (bri1-EMS-suppressor 1). These regulatory molecules act as a transcriptional factor that regulates the transcription of BRS-regulated genes. In BRS absence, BIN2 remains activated and phosphorylates both BES1 and BZR1 (Li and Nam, 2002; Vert and Chory, 2006). In the phosphorylated state, BES1 and BZR1 can't bind to the DNA, due to which BRS-regulated gene remains inactive. While in the case of binding of BRS with BRI1,



**Fig. 1.** Structures of different BRSs, analogues and inhibitor. (a) 24-epibrassinolide (b) 28-homobrassinolide (c) Castasterone (d) Typhasterol (e) Dolicholide (f) Dolichosterone (g) Secasterone (h) Cathasterone (a-h are natural BRs) (i) Biobras-16 (brassinosteroid analogue) (j) brassinazole (brassinosteroid biosynthesis inhibitors) (Sources: Fujioka & Sakurai, 1997; Díaz et al., 2003; Asami et al., 2000).

BIN2 becomes inactivated while other signaling cascade molecule, named BSU1 (bri1 suppressor 1), becomes activated. BSU1 acts as dephosphorylase, which removes the phosphate group from the next signaling molecule (Mora-García *et al.*, 2004). It is also documented that in the phosphorylated state, both BZR1 and BES1 undergo degradation in the proteasome (Gampala *et al.*, 2007). Another protein molecule, named 14-3-3 protein, binds with phosphorylated BZR1 and BES1 complex and exports this complex in the cytosol. In the unphosphorylated state, BES1 and BZR1 bind to DNA, which ultimately leads to the transcription of BRS-regulated genes. In conclusion, when BRS does not bind with its receptor, that will ultimately lead to phosphorylation of BES1 and BZR1, which inhibits the BRS regulated genes while in BRS presence, BES1 and BZR1 get dephosphorylated and BRS regulated genes get expressed (He *et al.*, 2005; Yin *et al.*, 2005). Planas-Riverola *et al.* (2019) reported that BRS helps the plant to grow normally when subjected to stress conditions via maintaining a balance between plant growth and plant resistivity to particular stress. They further added that BRS maintains this balance independently or through crosstalk via ABA. Different mechanisms are reported to explain the involvement of BRS in alleviating various stress conditions like heat, cold, and drought. These mechanisms are: enhanced synthesis of osmoprotectant (Fàbregas *et al.*, 2018), antioxidant machinery activation (Kim *et al.*, 2012; Lima and Lobato, 2017; Tunc-Ozdemir and Jones, 2017; Xia *et al.*, 2009; Zou *et al.*, 2018) and fine-tuning stress-responsive transcript machinery (Ye *et al.*, 2017).

### Salt stress

Stress is stated as the environmental conditions, including both biotic and abiotic, which cause an adverse impact on vegetative and reproductive stages of life and affect the growth as well as the development of plants. Biotic stress includes the adverse impact caused by the living factors like microorganisms or herbivores, while abiotic stress is caused by non-living factors like different environmental factors, including temperature, drought, salinity, etc. According to Grime (1977), stress is the external condition that decreases the photosynthetic ability of plants. At present, when the world's total population is more than 7.9 billion, the demand for food is also high, so we need to focus on enhancing food productivity on a global scale. But the major limitation to approaching this target is generated by different stress conditions that negatively affect plant growth through different physiological functions, which decrease the quality as well as quantity of food production. Biotic stress can be controlled at plant levels or by preventing the growth of the biotic factor with different pesticides, insecticides, etc. But in the case of abiotic stress, we can control it only at the plant level by en-

hancing the tolerance level of the plant.

Salinity stress can be defined as negative impacts caused by the high concentration of minerals like sodium or potassium ions (Munns, 2005). Among the abiotic stress, salinity becomes a major limiting factor because approx. 45 million hectares of irrigated land is badly damaged by salt stress (Shrivastava and Kumar, 2015) which is around 20% of total irrigated land. Irrigation is considered the major reason for salinity (Zhu, 2001). Szabolcs (1974) categorizes saline soil into saline soil and sodic soil. In saline soils, NaCl and Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, while in sodic soil, NaCO<sub>3</sub> is considered the chief salt. On the basis of causing agent, salt stress is categorized into two sub-parts: (A) Natural salt stress: it is the gathering of salts in soil or water for a longer duration via a natural process, (B) Anthropogenic salt stress: it is caused as a result of human activities like irrigation. Natural causes of salt stress include rock weathering, rainfall or evaporation, etc. Replacement of perennial crops with annual vegetation is also the main reason for salinity stress.

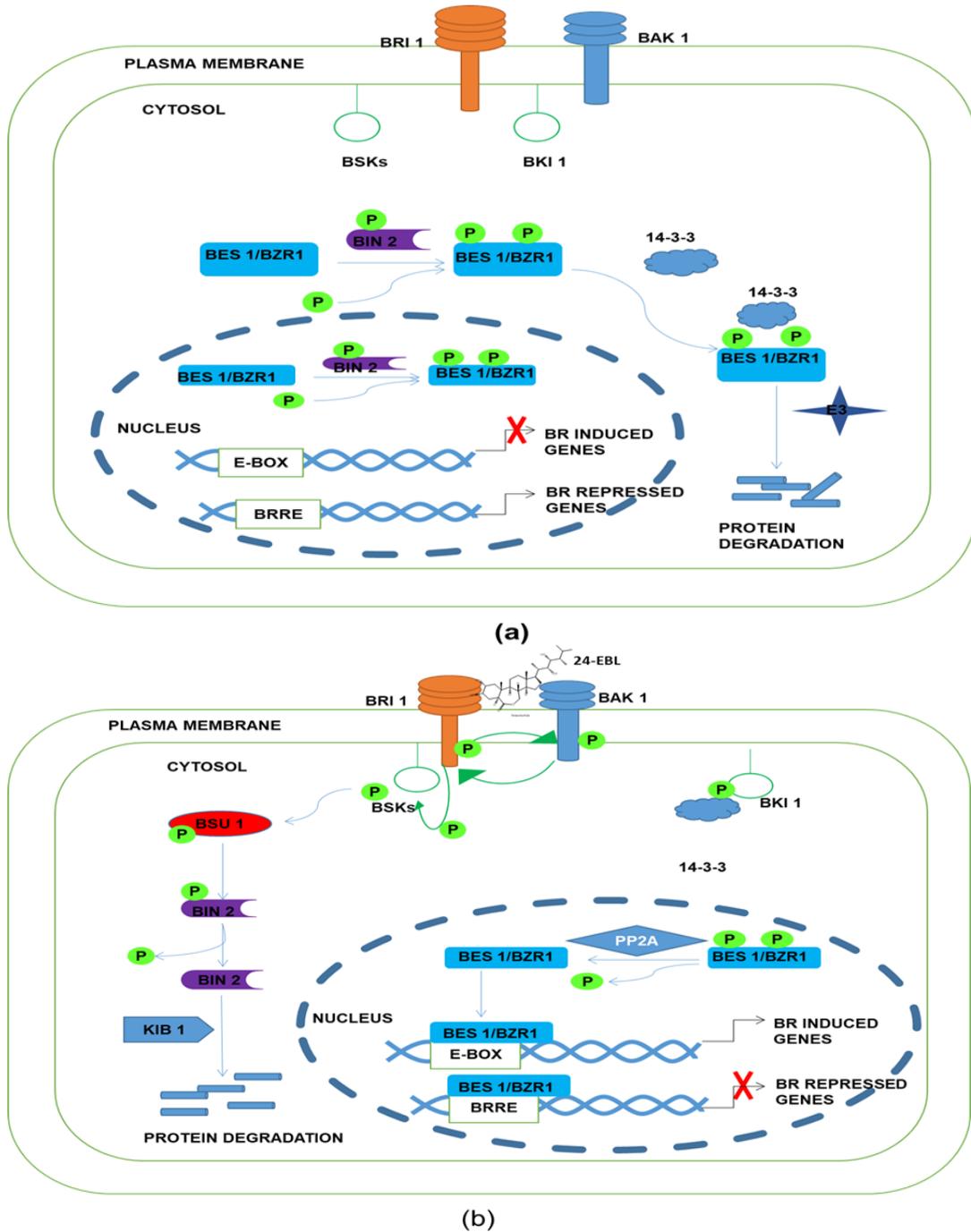
Salinity is considered the most affecting abiotic stress, which causes a great loss of crop yield worldwide. It reduces the plant's yield by affecting different growth parameters. Each plant can withstand a particular range of salinity, after which its growth will reduce, and at extreme salinity, it even results in the death of the plant. On the basis of the plant's threshold capacity, plants are divided into two main categories: salt tolerant and salt sensitive. Salinity affects the plant in both the vegetative phase as well as reproductive phase. In the vegetative stage, it causes a negative impact on seed germination. It is studied that presence of salt in plant-soil environment decreases capability of the seed to absorb water which reduces the growth rate. Along with this, salinity also causes injuries in leaves, which affect the photosynthetic ability of plants, due to which plant growth reduces. This process is known as the salt-specific effect of salt stress (Greenway and Munns, 1980). Salt stress negatively affects the plant's growth, measured via different morphological and physiological parameters. Petretto *et al.* (2019) reported a significant reduction in various parameters in *Eruca sativa Mill.* and *Diplotax tenuifolia L.* under salinity stress. They recorded that shoot biomass, leaf area, and plant height were significantly decreased under saline conditions. Salinity stress also affects the germination process and decrease germination percentage, seedling root and shoot length, germination index, and seedling fresh and dry weight in sorghum plant (Rajabi Dehnavi *et al.*, 2020).

### EFFECT OF BRSSs ON SEED GERMINATION UNDER SALINITY STRESS

Salinity stress affects a plant via disturbing water balance, ion homeostasis, and ion toxicity, leading to re-

duced plant growth. Salinity negatively affects the germination process; with the enhancement in salt concentration in soil, germination percent decreases. Decreased germination percentage is reported under salinity stress conditions in *Oryza sativa* (Xu et al., 2011) and *Brassica juncea* (Ibrar et al., 2003). Salinity stress affects the osmotic balance among seeds and germination media, which changes the water absorption pro-

cess of seeds (K̄hān et al., 2006). It is believed that alteration in the seed imbibition process alters the behavior of enzymes involved in nucleic acids metabolism (Gomes-Filho et al., 2008). Similar results were found in tomatoes (Kaveh et al., 2011). Seeds of *Brassica napus* also show decreased seed germination under high salt stress conditions (Bybordi, 2010). Wang et al. (2011) conducted an experiment on cucum-



**Fig. 2.** Brassinosteroid signaling pathway (a) without brassinosteroid (b) with brassinosteroid (Mao and Li, 2020). In the absence of 24-EBL, BES1/BZR1 protein undergoes degradation which results in repression of BR induced genes (a). In the presence of 24-EBL, BIN2 undergoes degradation and BES1/BZR1 bind to DNA and causes the expression of BR induced genes (b).

bers to examine the role of BRS on seed germination under salinity stress and reported that BRSs ameliorate the harmful effects of salinity stress in cucumbers in the seed germination process. They further concluded that BRSs enhance seed germination by improving ethylene synthesis via enhancing the expression of *CsACO1* and *CsACO2*. It is suggested that BRSs enhance the salt tolerance efficiency of plants by modulation of putrescine metabolism, which improves the germination process. It is reported that a proper concentration of BRS can improve the stress tolerance efficiency in plants. However, a high concentration of BRS can be harmful for plants similar to its deficiency (Liu *et al.*, 2020).

### EFFECT OF BRSs ON PLANT LENGTH UNDER SALINITY STRESS

Khodarahmpour *et al.* (2012) studied different growth parameters of *Zea mays* under salt stress conditions. At a high salt concentration (240mM NaCl), different growth parameters like length of plumule and radicles and seed vigor were observed. Similar results were also recorded in *Oenanthe javanica* (Kumar *et al.*, 2021). They found a reduction in plant height, branches and leaves number, fresh and dry weight of root and shoot under increased salinity stress. Sensitive cultivars of coriander were more affected by salinity stress than tolerant cultivars (Meriem *et al.*, 2014). It is believed that salinity stress results in osmotic stress in plants, disturbing the water balance and transport that ultimately affects different physiological and biochemical processes. Researchers believe that salt stress decreases the growth of plants because the energy produced in plants is diverted to maintain homeostasis (Atkin and Macherel, 2009; Sarker and Oba, 2020). During salt stress conditions, there is an elevation in the synthesis of reactive oxygen species (ROS) that disturbs the enzyme activity of cells. It also disturbs biomembrane stability, which results in reduced biomass (Ali *et al.*, 2017; Alzahrani *et al.*, 2019).

The harmful impacts of salinity on plant length can be alleviated with the application of epibrassinolide (EBL). EBL neutralizes the harmful impacts of saline conditions on length and biomass. It also improves the root and shoots length and number of roots (Sharma *et al.*, 2013). Similar results were also recorded in *Medicago sativa* (Zhang *et al.*, 2007) and *Zea mays* (Arora *et al.*, 2008). It is believed that in rice and Arabidopsis, plant height is controlled by the interaction between BRs and GAs. This interaction between BRs-GAs was found to be involved in regulating cell elongation. (Che *et al.*, 2015; Sun *et al.*, 2015). BZR1, a component of BRS signaling pathway, interacts with DELLA protein (negative regulator of GAs signalling) and forms a complex, which inhibits the DNA-binding ability of BZR1. On

application of GA, DELLA proteins degrade, which causes the release of BZR1 and induces plant growth by improving the expression of genes whose product controls the cell elongation. (Bai *et al.*, 2012; Gallego-Bartolome' *et al.*, 2012; Li *et al.*, 2012). It is reported that in BRS-related rice mutants, BRS application improved the level of GA. Further, it is observed that it also enhances the expression level of genes, which are involved in GA metabolism, like GA20ox-2/SD1 and GA3ox-2/D18 (Tong *et al.*, 2014). BRS also improved the expression of the GA3ox-2 enzyme that converts the inactive form GA20 to the active form GA1. Expression of the GA2ox-3 gene is repressed by BRS, which is involved in GA inactivation, which indicates the positive involvement of BRS in plant growth (Castorina and Consonni, 2020).

### EFFECT OF BRSs ON PLANT BIOMASS UNDER SALINITY STRESS

Biomass of a plant define by two major components, including root and shoot weight of the plant. In terms of growth parameters, plant biomass gives an idea about the level of severity of a stress condition. Foolad (2004) studied the impact of salinity on plants and reported that at lower salt stress conditions, plant growth reduces due to low availability of nutrients to plant, while at higher salinity, plant growth reduces due to different factors like ion imbalance, nutrient imbalance osmotic stress which disturbs the functioning of a plant at the cellular level. A significant reduction in the dry weight of root as well as of the shoot was observed in some selected rice varieties (Puvanitha and Mahendran, 2017). This reduction in dry weight may be due to high metabolic energy costs, which leads to decreased carbon content (Netondo *et al.*, 2004). This decrease in dry weight is caused due to high ion toxicity that affects the nutrient uptake in the seedling (Datta *et al.*, 2009).

A significant elevation in fresh weight of both root and shoot has been observed in Lucerne on priming the seeds with EBL (Zhang *et al.*, 2007). It is reported that BRS application improves growth of plants by enhancing cell division and cell elongation in *Liriodendron tulipifera*. BRSs also modify the carbohydrate content of the cell wall, which depicts the positive role of BRSs in plant growth that are subjected to stress (Jin *et al.*, 2014). There is an increase in shoot biomass in the wheat plant by applying BRS under salinity stress (Shahbaz and Ashraf, 2007). Similarly, BRS application also improves soybean biomass accumulation under salinity stress (Soliman *et al.*, 2020). Sousa *et al.* (2021) reported that EBR spray-on salinity exposed tomato plant enhances the dry matter of different plant parts like root and shoot. According to Steffens (1991), BRSs affect plant growth by controlling the cell division

and cell enlargement process. BRSs application also improves plant growth during zinc stress in radish plants (Ramakrishna and Rao, 2015) and in *Phaseolus vulgaris* L. under salinity and cadmium stress (Rady, 2011). BRs also reported enhancing cell division in parenchyma cells of *Helianthus tuberosus* (Clouse and Zurek, 1991). BRSs are known to be involved in wall loosening of epicotyl (Zurek *et al.*, 1994) and hypocotyl of *Brassica chinensis* and *Cucurbita maxima* (Wang *et al.*, 2001), which indicates the positive role of BRSs in maintaining plant biomass.

### EFFECT OF BRSs ON PHOTOSYNTHETIC PIGMENTS UNDER SALINITY STRESS

Salinity has a negative effect on photosynthetic pigment, which ultimately affects the photosynthesis process. The major reason for photosynthesis inhibition via salinity is disturbed water potential (Betzen *et al.*, 2019). It is believed that in salt stress conditions, there is an increased accumulation of  $\text{Na}^+/\text{Cl}^-$  in the chloroplast, which directly inhibits the photosynthesis process in plants (Slabu *et al.*, 2009). Similar results were also observed in rice plants (Amirjani, 2011). They concluded that chlorophyll-b concentration was more affected as compared to chlorophyll-a. Saha *et al.* (2010) and Chutipaijit *et al.* (2011) also found a reduction in chlorophyll content under salt stress in *Vigna radiata* and *Oryza sativa*, respectively. It is reported that the decrease in chlorophyll content of sunflower under salinity is due to salinity-induced chlorophyll degradation or reduced synthesis of chlorophyll. Reduced production of 5-aminolaevulinic acid, which acts as a precursor of chlorophyll biosynthesis, ultimately leads to reduced chlorophyll synthesis (Santos, 2004; Parida *et al.*, 2002). Fang *et al.* (1998) stated that during the process of chlorophyll degradation, there is a conversion of chlorophyll-a into chlorophyll-b. Reduction in chlorophyll content can also be linked with the increased ROS concentration, which leads to photosynthetic pigment oxidation. Enhanced activity of chlorophyllase also results in decreased chlorophyll content (Kato *et al.*, 1985).

A decrease in photosynthetic pigment can be alleviated with the treatment of EBL by regulating the transcription as well as translational processes of photosynthetic pigment formation. EBL application also decreases the rate of chlorophyll degradation (Bajguz and Piotrowska-Niczyporuk, 2014; Honnerová *et al.*, 2010). The use of BRSs improves the photosynthetic efficiency of plants via regulating the chlorophyll concentration and decreasing the ROS content to ameliorate the deleterious effects of salinity stress (Wu *et al.*, 2017). EBL application also improved the chlorophyll content in *Pisum sativum* L. (Shahid *et al.*, 2011) and *Brassica oleraceae* L. under salt stress (Çağ *et al.*, 2007). Siddiqui *et al.*

(2018) also reported the increase in chlorophyll content of *Brassica juncea* L. by treating the plants with 28-HBL and 24-EBL. Behnamnia *et al.* (2009a) suggested that BRS treatment improves the light-capturing efficiency of plant and enhances both the transcriptional and translational process of the enzymes involved in the chlorophyll biosynthesis. BRS shows a significant positive effect on the chlorophyll content including both chlorophylls a and b of *Robinia pseudoacacia* L. under salinity (Yue *et al.*, 2019). BRs improve the chlorophyll content in *Brassica juncea* by enhancing the gene expression involved in the synthesis of enzymes, leading to chlorophyll synthesis (Hayat *et al.*, 2007). It is also suggested that BRS improves the chlorophyll content via retarding the process of chlorophyll degradation and other proteins related to this protein primarily associated with the light-harvesting complex (Holá, 2011). However, the exact mechanism is still unknown, and a lot of study on this topic needs to be done.

### EFFECT OF BRSs ON PHOTOSYNTHESIS UNDER SALINITY STRESS

Photosynthesis is the major physiological process that occurs in plants. This process indicates the physiological status of the plant. Out of these two photosystems, photosystem-II is considered more sensitive to salt stress (Allakhverdiev *et al.*, 2000). Stepien and Klobus (2005) reported that reduced efficiency of photosystem-II under salt stress conditions, leading to reduced photosynthetic performance. This reduction in photosynthesis leads to decreased plant biomass production as well as storage (Demetriou *et al.*, 2007). Salt stress alters the process of oxygen-evolving in barley by affecting the photosystem-II functioning and reducing plant growth (Kalaji *et al.*, 2011). Similar results were also recorded in *Brassica juncea* (Mittal *et al.*, 2012). They suggested that reduced photosynthetic activity is due to alteration in D1 protein of photosystem-II and rate of electron transport. It is also reported that during salt stress, there is a reduction in the ability of electron transfer in photosystem-II. During salinity stress conditions, alteration at both donor and acceptor side of photosystem-II occurs, resulting in decreased electron transport efficiency (Lu and Vonshak, 2002).

BRSs application enhances the photosynthetic rate of plants by enhancing the RuBisCo activity and other main enzymes included in the Calvin cycle (Yin *et al.*, 2021). BRSs also improve the uptake of  $\text{CO}_2$  that enhance the stomatal conductance (Siddiqui *et al.*, 2018b). Fariduddin *et al.* (2014 a) and Yusuf *et al.* (2017) suggested that BRS application improved the formation and activity of RuBisCo enzyme, enhancing the gaseous exchange parameters under salinity stress. It promotes the photosynthetic efficiency in

plants by improving the repair process of D1 protein and enhance its stabilization. BRs protect the plant from the damage resulting from the excess energy excitation in the reaction center. It is also suggested that EBL treatment increases the activity of different antioxidant enzymes like superoxide dismutase (SOD), ascorbate peroxidase (APX), and glutathione peroxidase (GPX), which reduces the concentration of ROS and protects the photosynthetic apparatus and synthesis of pre-D1 protein from the inhibitory effect of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (Xia *et al.*, 2009). EBL also improves the expression of the different gene that encodes peroxidase, ATP24a, and ATP2 (Goda *et al.*, 2002). Siddiqui *et al.* (2018c) informed that BRS regulates photosynthesis process via maintaining the development of stomatal and chloroplast structures. They further revealed that BRS regulates the photosynthesis process under stress as well as non-stress conditions. The efficiency of PSII ( $\phi$ PSII) indicates the overall photosynthesis state. It is reported to increase with the application of BRS (Yu *et al.*, 2004; Jiang *et al.*, 2012a; Hu *et al.*, 2013a, b; Li *et al.*, 2016). BRS enhances the net photosynthetic rate by elevating the concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation and improving the stomatal conductance and RuBisCo activity (Gruszka, 2013).

#### EFFECT OF BRSs ON PROTEIN CONTENT UNDER SALINITY STRESS

Proteins are considered the major biomolecules globally and play a wide range of different functions in plants. They play both functional as well as structural roles in plants. Both positive and negative impacts of salinity stress on protein content have been recorded in various studies. A negative impact of salinity on different rice varieties has been reported which causes a significant loss of protein content in rice. Salt stress causes a great reduction in the water potential of plants which results in a decreased protein formation (Jamil *et al.*, 2012). Along with it, salt stress also causes the dissociation of poly-ribosomal units ultimately leading to decreased protein content in plants (Bardzik *et al.*, 1971; Jones, 1996). However, contrasting results were found in tomato (Chao *et al.*, 1999) and clover plants (Sibole *et al.*, 2003).

Rattan *et al.* (2012) studied the growth of maize (*Zea mays*) plants subjected to salinity stress and then treated these plants with BRS and observed that BRS mitigates the impacts of salinity via enhancing the level of protein concentration and different compatible solutes. Similar results were also reported in *Wolffia arrhiza*, which shows the positive role of BRSs in maintaining the accumulation and synthesis of protein. BRSs improve the protein content by enhancing the rate of translation that leads to enhanced protein formation (Chmur and Bajguz, 2021; Bajguz and Asami, 2005).

Similarly, Bajguz and Piotrowska-Niczyporuk (2014) also reported the higher protein content in *Chlorella vulgaris* on BRS treatment. According to them, BRS improve protein content by enhancing the expression of target genes. BRSs increase the total soluble protein content in the rice by enhancing the Hill reaction efficiency, which leads to an increased accumulation of photosynthetic pigments (Maibangsa *et al.*, 2000). Under stress conditions, BRS is reported to improve the activity of proteins and membrane-related enzymes via regulating the protein folding or by enhancing the interaction of proteins with sterols (Lindsey *et al.*, 2003). However, contrast results were recorded in *Malus hupehensis*. It is documented that level of soluble protein content is elevated in *M. hupehensis* under salinity stress conditions significantly, but BRS application does not have any significant positive impact on protein content (Su *et al.*, 2020).

#### EFFECT OF BRSs ON PROLINE CONTENT UNDER SALINITY STRESS

Proline is a common amino acid that acts as one of the major osmolytes. It is accumulated in plants under stress conditions and helps the plant maintain its osmotic status. High concentration levels of proline occur under saline conditions, which reflects the positive role of proline in stress conditions (Sharma *et al.*, 2013). This increase in proline content, along with other organic molecules, prevents the cell from different toxic or inhibitory processes, including maintenance of turgidity of cells, providing enzyme stability, and regulating ROS activity (Szabados and Saviouré, 2010). Proline also stabilizes the cell membrane and protein structure and helps regulate redox potential in plants (Ashraf and Orooj, 2006). Increased proline content in *Clerodendron inerme* was recorded under salinity stress conditions (Silambarasan and Natarajan, 2014). Similar results were also observed in rice (Demiral and Türkan, 2006), *Brassica juncea* (Madan *et al.*, 1995). Different researchers have different views to justify increased content of proline under salinity stress. It is suggested that it could be due to the prevention of feedback inhibition of proline biosynthetic pathway (Widholm, 1988). It is also believed that increased proline content is due to decreased activity of proline degrading enzymes (Kandpal *et al.*, 1981).

Zeng *et al.* (2010) observed that if there were a mutation in the BRSs synthetic pathway or its signaling pathway, plants would show increased sensitivity to salt stress. It is suggested to occur due to decreased transcriptional activity of proline-producing enzymes. This indicates the positive involvement of BRSs and proline in improving salinity tolerance.

An enhancement in proline content was also recorded by 24-EBL application in *Lycopersicon esculentum*

cultivars under drought stress (Behnamnia *et al.*, 2009b). 24-EBL treatment increases the proline content under salinity stress which defines the protective role of BRSs during salinity. It is suggested that BRSs increase proline content due to improved expression of proline biosynthesis (Özdemir *et al.*, 2004). BRs treatment increases the proline content in cucumber, which helps the plant to mediate the adverse impact of auto-toxicity stress by maintaining the cell membrane stability (Yang *et al.*, 2019). Kutby *et al.* (2020) observed the increase in proline content in tomatoes under salinity stress which further increased under BRS application. According to them, proline aids the plants to alleviate the osmotic stress by reducing the uptake of toxic ions (Hayat *et al.*, 2012). Wani *et al.* (2019) also observed the elevation in proline content via BRS application in mustard. Similar results were also recorded in cowpea under salinity stress (Cardoso *et al.*, 2019). Elevation in proline content through BRS application was also observed in soybean under salt stress (Alam *et al.*, 2019).

#### **EFFECT OF BRSs ON MDA CONTENT UNDER SALINITY STRESS**

Lipid peroxidation is believed to be the major process, which defines the metabolic state of membranes. It gives an idea of the overall status of membrane fluidity, membrane permeability, and separation of membrane protein that regulates the distribution of ions across the cell membrane. Malondialdehyde (MDA) content represents the status of the extent of lipid peroxidation in a plant. MDA content in sunflower was reported to be elevated under salt stress conditions, which shows the negative impact of salinity on membrane (Ebrahimian and Bybordi, 2012). Under the salinity stress conditions, there is an increased concentration of ROS, which leads to lipid peroxidation and increases the MDA content of plants. However, after the application of EBL, a decline in the level of MDA was observed. This signifies that under salinity stress conditions, treatment of EBL increases the activity of antioxidant enzymes, which reduces the ROS content and prevents lipid peroxidation (Ahammed *et al.*, 2013). EBL application also helps to maintain membrane integrity by regulating the MDA content of the cell, which prevents the cell membrane from being damaged (Sharma *et al.* 2013). Rajewska *et al.* (2016) believed that BRs treatment helps the plant in the adjustment of cell redox potential via maintaining the lipid peroxidation level in the cell membrane by BRs. It is reported that both endogenous and exogenous BRs protect the plant from oxidative stress by improving the stress tolerance efficiency of maize plants. Further, it is found that *vp14* gene is an important gene involved in the abscisic acid

(ABA) biosynthesis pathway and BRs upregulate this gene expression in the leaves of maize plants. This indicates that BRs enhance the stress tolerance to oxidative stress by maintaining the synthesis of ABA (Zhang *et al.*, 2011). A decline in MDA content in EBL and HBL treated maize plants was observed under salinity stress (Rattan *et al.*, 2020). This reduction in MDA content involves the enhanced scavenging of ROS, which decreases the membrane damage due to lipid peroxidation (Tanveer *et al.*, 2018). Amraee *et al.* (2020) observed the NaCl treatment causes an increase in MDA content in tolerant variety of flax, whereas no significant change was recorded in sensitive varieties. However, BRS application declines the total MDA content in both tolerant and sensitive varieties. Similar results were also recorded in potatoes through BRS priming subjected to salinity stress which indicates the positive role of BRS in mitigating the negative impact of salt stress on lipid peroxidation level (Efimova *et al.*, 2018). Yue *et al.* (2018) also reported that pretreatment of BRS declines the MDA content in *Robinia pseudoacacia* L. under salinity stress.

#### **EFFECT OF BRSs ON ANTIOXIDANT ENZYMES UNDER SALINITY STRESS**

All plants produce different ROS via various metabolic processes. To protect the excess ROS accumulation, these plants produce different antioxidant enzymes like catalase (CAT), SOD, peroxidase (POD), etc. (Foyer *et al.*, 1994). Enhanced level of antioxidant enzymes has been reported in many plants like maize and wheat (Lewis *et al.*, 1989), rice (Fadzilla *et al.*, 1997), and *Catharanthus roseus* (Misra and Gupta, 2006) in response to salinity stress. To increase the salt tolerance of a plant, it is necessary that the formation and scavenging of ROS must be regulated in the chloroplast (Miller *et al.*, 2010). BRSs enhance the activities of various antioxidant enzymes that help the plant to diminish the harmful effect of accumulated ROS, which ultimately improve their stress tolerance efficiency (Vázquez *et al.*, 2019). BL has been reported to mitigate the harmful effects of salinity stress in maize plants by improving the activity of antioxidant enzymes (El-Khallal *et al.*, 2009). 28-HBL improves the activity of different antioxidant enzymes under salt conditions (Arora *et al.*, 2008). Vardhini (2011) also reported similar results in sorghum. Along with the enhanced activity of glutathione reductase (GR), SOD, and CAT, they also observed the declined activity of two other antioxidant enzymes, named POD and polyphenol oxidase (PPO). Exogenous application of BRs increases the activity of antioxidant enzymes, leading to improved stress tolerance efficiency and increasing the accumulation of proline

and sugar (Qingmao *et al.*, 2006). Similar results were also obtained by pre-treating the seeds with BL sowing (Zhang *et al.*, 2007). The application of BRs enhances the storage of apoplastic hydrogen peroxide ( $H_2O_2$ ), which improves the antioxidant system of the plant and leads to enhanced tolerance efficiency of plant species to oxidative stress (Jiang *et al.*, 2012b; Fariduddin *et al.*, 2014b). Sharma *et al.* (2013) also observed similar results and found that EBL treatment increases the overall activity of different antioxidant enzymes like SOD, CAT and APX except for GR and monodehydroascorbate reductase (MDHAR), which indicates the significant role of EBL in controlling the level of ROS activity. Similar results were also obtained in cucumber (Xiao-min and Wei, 2013), eggplant (Ding *et al.*, 2012), and *Lycopersicon esculentum* (Ogweno *et al.*, 2008). Application of 24-EBL increases the expression of *osBRI1* and *OsDWF4* in the plants, which are involved in BRS receptor and BRS biosynthesis, respectively, which ultimately leads to improved activity of antioxidant enzymes (Sharma *et al.*, 2013).

Jiang *et al.* (2012c) also believed that the stress tolerance induced via BRS application is facilitated through enhanced expression of different antioxidant enzymes. This stress tolerance mechanism is facilitated by increased synthesis and storage of  $H_2O_2$ , which acts as a signaling molecule. This enhanced concentration of  $H_2O_2$  improves the activity of antioxidant enzymes, proteins and different transcription factors that improve the ROS scavenging activity at the cellular level and ultimately leads to enhancing the efficiency of plants to tolerate the harmful effects of abiotic stress (Xia *et al.*, 2009; Cui *et al.*, 2011; Zhu *et al.*, 2013). Nie *et al.* (2013) studied the role of BRSs in  $H_2O_2$  accumulation in tomatoes and in improving stress tolerance in plants. It suggested role of *respiratory burst oxidase homolog1* (RBOH1), and mitogen-activated protein kinase 1/2 (MPK 1/2) in the accumulation of  $H_2O_2$  in the apoplast. They reveal that MPK2 plays a more significant role in its  $H_2O_2$  accumulation than MPK1. When the activity of RBOH1 is silenced in *Nicotiana benthamiana*, it is observed that ROS scavenging activity is reduced which leads to decreased stress tolerance efficiency of the plant (Deng *et al.*, 2015). BRS application also improves the activity of antioxidant enzymes like CAT, SOD, APX and POX in *Eucalyptus urophylla* plants that are subjected to salinity (Oliveira *et al.*, 2019). Singh *et al.* (2020) observed that different antioxidant enzymes like CAT, SOD, and others increased under salinity stress conditions which were further elevated by the application of EBL. It is documented that application of 28-HBL improves the stress tolerance efficiency in *Brassica juncea* via improving the ROS scavenging activity of different antioxidant enzymes (Kaur *et al.*, 2018).

## EFFECT OF BRSs ON ION HOMEOSTASIS UNDER SALINITY STRESS

An appropriate ratio of ions is necessary for the normal growth and development of plant (Wang *et al.*, 2003). It is suggested that enhanced absorption of ions  $Na^+$  and  $Cl^-$  reduced the uptake of other nutrients like nitrogen, which are important for the proper growth of plants (Zhu, 2001). Along with this, there are also many other harmful effects of sodium accumulation in plants like disturbed membrane stability as well as also membrane structure (Kurth *et al.* 1986). Khan *et al.* (2000) recorded effect of salinity on *Atriplex griffithii* and suggested that with the increase of salinity, there is an elevation in the level of  $Na^+$  and  $Cl^-$  in root, stem and leaves. On the other hand, a reduction in the level of  $Ca^{2+}$  and  $Mg^{2+}$  concentration is observed in stems and leaves. High concentration of  $Cl^-$  is the primary reason for the reduced growth of plants. A decrease in the photosynthetic efficiency of plants is observed due to elevated levels of  $Na^+$  because it reduces the stomatal conductance of leaves by reducing the uptake of  $Ca^{2+}$  and  $K^+$ . In contrary to  $Na^+$ , a higher concentration of  $Cl^-$  inhibits photosynthesis by degrading chlorophyll molecules (Tavakkoli *et al.*, 2011).

In a study, when canola plant was grown under salt stress with the application of BRSs, it is found that BRSs helps the plants to maintain the osmotic potential in leaves and also regulates the level of different ions which helps the canola plant to attain ionic homeostasis (Liu *et al.*, 2014). Application of HBL and EBL under salinity maintains ionic balance in seedlings by reducing the concentration of  $Na^+$  and restoring the level of  $K^+$  (Rattan *et al.*, 2020). It is believed that BRS application maintains the ionic homeostasis in plants by decreasing the transportation of  $Na^+$  (Eleiwa *et al.*, 2011). Exogenous application of 24-EBL enhances the activity of nitrate reductase, nitrite reductase, glutamine synthase and glutamate synthase, which helps to maintain the ionic balance in tomato seedlings. Further, BRSs treatment also maintains the electrochemical gradient in root and leaves of plant, which help the plants alleviate the stress conditions (Shu *et al.*, 2016). Talaat and Shawky (2013) observed that BRS application in wheat plant under salinity stress conditions maintain the ionic balance in plant cell by regulating the uptake of different ions like  $Na^+$ ,  $K^+$ ,  $Ca^{2+}$ ,  $Mg^{2+}$ , N and P. BRSs enhances the uptake of all ions except  $Na^+$ . They also observe the elevation in the organic content of plant by BRSs application. A positive co-relation is reported between  $Ca^{2+}$  and Calcium/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase (CCaMK) under BRSs treatment in plants. An increase in  $Ca^{2+}$  concentration is observed during BRS treatment, which enhances the activity of CCaMK. They also revealed that this increased activity of CCaMK

**Table 1.** Regulation of different genes and transcriptional factors with the application of BRs.

Gene/Transcriptional factors	Plant	Response	Effect of EBL	Reference
<i>MhSOS1</i>	<i>Malus hupehensis</i>	Maintaining cytoplasmic Na <sup>+</sup> concentration	Increasing gene expression	Su et al., (2020)
<i>MhNHX1-3</i> , <i>MhNHX4-1</i> , <i>MhNHX4-2</i>	<i>Malus hupehensis</i>	Maintaining cytoplasmic K <sup>+</sup> concentration	Increasing gene expression	Su et al., (2020)
<i>CsAOX</i> , <i>CsACO1</i> , <i>CsACO2</i> , <i>CsACS1</i> , <i>CsACS2</i> <i>CsACS3</i>	<i>Cucumis sativus</i> , tomato	Enhance salt tolerance	Increase gene expression	Li et al., (2013), Zhu et al., (2016)
<i>ERF115</i> <i>PSK5</i>	Arabidopsis	Enhance quiescent cell division	Regulate gene expression	Yang et al., (2001), Kutschmart et al., (2009), Heyman et al., (2013), Wei & Li (2016)

further increases the concentration of Ca<sup>2+</sup> in the cytosol (Yan et al., 2015). Otie et al. (2021) reported that an exogenous application of BL improves the uptake of different ions like K<sup>+</sup>, Ca<sup>2+</sup>, and Mg<sup>2+</sup> in soybean plants subjected to salinity stress. They also recorded that BL application reduces the concentration of Na<sup>+</sup> in the soybean leaves. It is observed that BL application under salinity stress causes the modification of plasma membrane, enhancing the plant's ability to uptake and assimilate the different nutrients (Ali et al., 2008). Various reports suggested that BL reverses the negative impact of NaCl on K<sup>+</sup> leakage in the root and shoot region of the plant (Azhar et al., 2017). BL treatment also alleviates the Na<sup>+</sup> toxicity by maintaining the K<sup>+</sup>/Na<sup>+</sup> ratio (Dong et al., 2017).

## Conclusion

The review clearly shows that salinity has a great negative effect on crop plants. Salinity stress is one of the most common abiotic stress that affects crop production in the soil. The physiological and biochemical processes in plants are badly affected by the increased concentration of salinity. Various approaches have been developed to counter the negative impact of salinity until now, but the situation is almost the same. So, there is a great need for attention to sustainable agricultural production. BRS is the most important plant hormone in relation to various stresses. BRS help the plant to alleviate the harmful salt stress and provide tolerance to the particular stress. It also enhances the antioxidant enzyme activities and regulates the ROS formation in the plant cell under salt stress conditions. BRSs act as a signaling molecule in the plant during stress conditions and activate all the defense mechanisms to face the stressed condition. The BRSs re-

sponse in plants activates various enzymes involved in the defense mechanism. With the application of BRSs, plants gain much resistance to cope with the stress and improve their processes under salinity. BRSs play a great role in the improvement in yield production under salinity. There has been much research on the molecular level of BRS under salinity but there is a lack of proper mechanism and a better understanding of how it reduces salt stress in plants. Much research is needed to clearly understand its mechanism in salt stress alleviation.

## Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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