

1 **Mitochondrial H₂S donor AP39 induces stomatal closure by modulating**
2 **guard cell mitochondrial activity**

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21

22 **Author contributions:**

23 RP performed most of the experiments, analysed the data and wrote the article, DS
24 performed experiments from Figure 1, analysed the data and helped with the writing of
25 the article, RT and MW contributed with the reagents and assisted in the writing of the
26 article, EW provided biological material and contributed to discussion, AC participated
27 in the experimental design and discussion, and CGM conceived the project, analysed the
28 data wrote the article.

29

30 **Short title:** Mitochondrial H₂S induces stomatal closure

1 **ABSTRACT**

2

3 Hydrogen sulfide (H₂S) is a gaseous signaling molecule involved in numerous
4 physiological processes in plants, including gas exchange with the environment through the
5 regulation of stomatal pore width. Guard cells are pairs of specialized epidermal cells that
6 delimit stomatal pores and have a higher mitochondrial density and metabolic activity than
7 their neighboring cells. However, there is no clear evidence on the role of mitochondrial activity
8 in stomatal closure induction. In this work, we showed that the mitochondrial-targeted H₂S
9 donor AP39 induces stomatal closure in a dose-dependent manner. Experiments using
10 inhibitors of the mitochondrial electron transport chain (mETC) or insertional mutants in
11 cytochrome *c* (CYTc) indicated that the activity of mitochondrial CYTc and/or complex IV are
12 required for AP39-dependent stomatal closure. By using fluorescent probes and genetically-
13 encoded biosensors we reported that AP39 hyperpolarized the mitochondrial inner potential
14 ($\Delta\psi_m$) and increased cytosolic ATP, cytosolic hydrogen peroxide levels, and oxidation of the
15 glutathione pool in guard cells. These findings showed that mitochondrial-targeted H₂S donors
16 induce stomatal closure, modulate guard cell mitochondrial ETC activity, the cytosolic energetic
17 and oxidative status, pointing to an interplay between mitochondrial H₂S, mitochondrial
18 activity, and stomatal closure.

19

20 **INTRODUCTION**

21 Most land plants have microscopic structures in the epidermal layer of leaves called
22 stomata, consisting of a central pore surrounded by pairs of highly specialized cells, known as
23 guard cells (GCs). Stomata are responsible for the gas exchange between the plant and the
24 environment, controlling O₂ release to the atmosphere, CO₂ uptake needed for photosynthesis,
25 and water loss through the transpiration stream (Lawson and Matthews, 2020). This trade-off
26 between CO₂ uptake for photosynthesis, and the loss of water, is tightly controlled through the
27 regulation of the stomatal pore width. This is possible due to the ability of guard cells to
28 perceive internal and external stimuli, which are then integrated and transduced via a complex
29 signaling network (Hetherington & Woodward, 2003).

30 Guard cells have unique characteristics that distinguish them from their neighboring
31 cells, including the presence of fewer and smaller chloroplasts (Wille and Lucas, 1984), a higher

1 mitochondrial density (Willmer and Fricker, 1996) and respiratory rate (Araújo et al., 2011).
2 These features point towards a key function of mitochondria in GC's physiological processes,
3 and as a consequence, on stomatal movement regulation. The requirement of sucrose, starch
4 and triacylglycerol breakdown during light-induced stomatal opening (Daloso et al., 2015;
5 Horrer et al., 2016; McLachlan et al., 2016) highlights the role of mitochondrial metabolism in
6 this response. In addition, it was recently shown that GC's mitochondria are the main source of
7 cytosolic ATP, needed for stomatal opening (Lim et al., 2022). However, the role of
8 mitochondrial activity during stomatal closure remains unexplored.

9 Hydrogen sulfide (H₂S) is a low-weight gas endogenously synthesized in cells. It can
10 freely diffuse across biological membranes and is considered very reactive at physiological pH
11 and temperature conditions (Benchoam et al., 2019). H₂S is the third member of the so-called
12 "gasotransmitters" group (García-Mata and Lamattina, 2013), which also includes nitric oxide
13 (NO) and carbon monoxide (CO). All of them share similar chemical properties and are
14 considered relevant signaling molecules in organisms from different kingdoms (Aroca et al.,
15 2020).

16 H₂S participates in diverse cellular processes throughout plant's life cycle, such as
17 germination (Baudouin et al., 2016), autophagy (Laureano-Marín et al., 2020), and stomatal
18 closure regulation (García-Mata and Lamattina, 2010; Lisjak et al., 2010), among others. The
19 biosynthesis of H₂S occurs in different sub-cellular compartments including the cytosol,
20 chloroplast, and mitochondria. Although H₂S can participate in different types of reactions,
21 latest reports suggest that its biological role is exerted through persulfidation, an oxidative
22 posttranslational modification in cysteine residues (Filipovic et al., 2018).

23 In animal experimental systems, mitochondrial H₂S (mt-H₂S) is reported to exert
24 cytoprotective effects via the modulation of cellular ATP levels, as well as
25 stimulating/preserving cellular bioenergetics (Szabo et al., 2014; Fox et al., 2021). The normal
26 electron flow through the mitochondrial electron transport chain (mETC) is coupled to proton
27 pumping, generating an electrical potential ($\Delta\psi_m$) between both sides of the inner membrane,
28 which is the driving force required for mitochondrial ATP synthesis by the ATP synthase complex
29 (Braun, 2020). In prokaryotes and many metazoans including invertebrates, fish, birds, and
30 mammals, H₂S can donate electrons to the mETC (Olson and Straub, 2016). Moreover, in human
31 cell cultures, H₂S persulfidates the mitochondrial ATP synthase, increasing its activity (Módis et

1 al., 2016); while the reduction of cytochrome *c* (CYTc), promotes O₂ consumption (Vitvitsky et al.,
2 2018). The use of mitochondrial-targeted H₂S donors in animal systems has shown that H₂S is
3 able to restore membrane polarization, helping to preserve mitochondrial function (le
4 Trionnaire et al., 2014; Fox et al., 2021).

5 On the other hand, despite advances in the knowledge of the mitochondrial H₂S
6 enzymatic source in *Arabidopsis* (*Arabidopsis thaliana*) (García et al., 2010), little is known
7 about the effect of mt-H₂S in plants. In this work, we studied the role of mt-H₂S in GCs
8 employing H₂S donors targeted specifically to mitochondria. Results show that mt-H₂S
9 participates in stomatal closure induction through the modulation of mitochondrial activity in
10 GCs.

11

12 **RESULTS**

13

14 **Mitochondrial H₂S donors induce stomatal closure**

15

16 Given the lack of information on the use of mitochondrial targeted H₂S in plants, as a
17 first approach, we performed a dose-response assay in order to address whether mitochondrial
18 H₂S has any effect on stomatal movement. With that aim, we treated *Arabidopsis thaliana*
19 epidermal peels (strips) with increasing concentrations of the mt-H₂S donor AP39. Epidermal
20 strips were incubated for 3 hours in opening buffer (OB: 5 mM MES, 50 mM KCl, pH=6.1) under
21 white light, to open the stomatal pores, and then the strips were treated for 90 min, in the same
22 OB, with increasing concentrations of AP39 (Fig. 1A). The addition of the mt-H₂S donor induced
23 stomatal closure in a dose-dependent manner yielding a maximum effect, 30% reduction of the
24 stomatal pore width, at a concentration of 0.1-1 μM AP39. As 100 nM was the minimal dose with
25 the maximum effect, we selected it as the working concentration for the following assays
26 (3.32±0.84 μm and 2.35±0.65 μm for mock and 100 nM AP39, respectively). Interestingly, the
27 treatment with the master regulator of stomatal closure, abscisic acid (ABA), is reported to
28 induce the same percentage of response (Scuffi et al., 2014). In addition, treating the epidermal
29 strips with 100 μM of the widely used general H₂S donor GYY4137 yielded a stomatal closure
30 range comparable to that obtained with a concentration of AP39 2-3 orders of magnitude lower.
31 To test if the mitochondrial donor was affecting GC viability, *Arabidopsis* epidermal strips were

1 placed in OB and treated with 0.001 to 10 μM AP39 for 90 min, and then loaded with the viability
2 fluorescent dye, Fluorescein diacetate (FDA). GC viability was quantified as the ratio between
3 fluorescent GCs over total GCs. As observed in Fig. 1B, the exposure to mt- H_2S only compromised
4 GC viability at the higher concentration assayed (10 μM), where the stomatal closure induction
5 was suboptimal, discarding the possibility of a toxic effect of the donor molecule on stomata.

6 In addition, we treated Arabidopsis peels with AP39 in the presence of the H_2S scavenger
7 hypotaurine (HT), or with two other mitochondrial-targeted H_2S donors, AP123 and RT01 (Fig.
8 1C, Supplemental Fig. 1A,B). The fact that HT impaired AP39-induced stomatal closure, and that
9 both AP123 and RT01 showed a dose-dependent response comparable to that observed for
10 AP39, indicate that stomatal closure was triggered by mitochondrial H_2S . Finally, the same AP39
11 concentrations used for Arabidopsis stomatal closure assays were added to fava bean (*Vicia*
12 *faba*) epidermal strips. As observed in Supplemental Fig. S1C, *Vicia* epidermal strips also showed
13 a dose-dependent stomatal response, indicating that the AP39 effect was not dependent on the
14 plant species.

15 16 **Mitochondrial ETC complex IV and/or cytochrome C activity are required for AP39** 17 **dependent stomatal closure**

18
19 In human cellular cultures, mt- H_2S donors were shown to modulate mitochondrial
20 function through the interaction with different members of the mETC (Módis et al., 2016;
21 Vitvitsky et al., 2018). Therefore, we sought to test whether GC mitochondrial activity is involved
22 in mt- H_2S -dependent stomatal closure induction. Following that purpose, Arabidopsis
23 epidermal strips were treated with AP39, with or without the addition of the mETC inhibitors
24 Rotenone (Rtn), 2-Thenoyltrifluoroacetone (TTFA), Antimycin A (AA) or Potassium cyanide (KCN)
25 (inhibitors of the mETC complexes I, II, III and IV, respectively) (Fig. 2A). Stomatal pore width
26 measurements showed that the exposure to the inhibitors of mETC complexes I to III had no
27 effect on AP39-dependent stomatal closure, inducing a reduction of the stomatal pore size
28 comparable to that obtained with AP39 alone ($3.51 \pm 1.42 \mu\text{m}$ – $3.36 \pm 1.19 \mu\text{m}$, $3.26 \pm 1.07 \mu\text{m}$ –
29 $3.39 \pm 1.12 \mu\text{m}$, $3.26 \pm 1.07 \mu\text{m}$ – $3.24 \pm 1 \mu\text{m}$ for AP39 alone or in the presence of Rtn, TTFA or AA,
30 respectively) (Fig. 2B-D). Interestingly, the addition of KCN impaired AP39-induced stomatal
31 closure ($2.78 \pm 1.02 \mu\text{m}$ and $3.37 \pm 1.08 \mu\text{m}$ for AP39 and KCN + AP39, respectively), suggesting that

1 an active mETC complex IV is needed for mt-H₂S-dependent stomatal closure (Fig. 2E). To rule
2 out a putative toxic effect of KCN on GCs, we treated epidermal strips with other widely-used
3 stomatal closure stimuli in the presence or absence of KCN. Supplemental Figure S2 shows that
4 induction of stomatal closure by ABA (but not by darkness) was partially inhibited by KCN
5 (Mock=4.07±1.12 μm, ABA=2.78±0.9 μm, KCN+ABA=3.44±1.09 μm (A); Mock=3.99±1.14 μm,
6 darkness=3.09±0.94 μm, KCN + darkness=3.29±0.96 μm (B)). In addition, KCN treatments
7 performed in FDA-loaded epidermal strips, showed that the fluorescence levels were not
8 affected upon 2h of KCN treatment, indicating that stomatal viability was not compromised by
9 the addition of KCN (Supplemental Fig. S2C).

10
11 To further test the requirement of a functional mETC for AP39-triggered stomatal
12 closure, we assessed the stomatal response in plants with a mutated Cytochrome c (CYTc). CYTc
13 is a heme protein located in the intermembrane space (IMS) that functions as an electron
14 carrier between complexes III and IV (Welchen and Gonzalez, 2016). *Arabidopsis thaliana* has two
15 genes coding for CYTc: *CYTc-1* and *CYTc-2*. In addition to its role as an electron carrier, CYTc
16 is also required for complex IV stability, whose activity and amount is dependent on CYTc levels
17 (Welchen et al., 2012). We measured the stomatal response to AP39 in single and double *CYTc*
18 *Arabidopsis* mutants. The lines *1a* and *1b* are insertional mutants in the gene *CYTc-1*, while *2a*
19 and *2b* contain insertions in the gene *CYTc-2* (Welchen et al., 2012). Results in Figure 3 show that
20 in the single mutants, AP39 induces stomatal closure comparable to that observed in WT plants,
21 however, the stomatal response is impaired in the double mutants, indicating that CYTc is
22 involved in AP39 response. The differences between the single and the double mutants'
23 response is in agreement with previous results that reported the existence of a functional
24 redundancy between both CYTc (Welchen et al., 2012). Moreover, we observed that ABA
25 treatment induced stomatal closure in double mutants (Supplemental Fig. S3), showing that
26 CYTc activity is needed particularly for mt-H₂S signaling pathway.

1 **AP39 hyperpolarizes mitochondrial membrane potential in GCs**

2

3 The requirement of normal CYTc/complex IV activity for AP39-dependent stomatal
4 closure prompted us to analyse the effect of AP39 on mitochondrial inner membrane potential
5 ($\Delta\psi_m$) as an indicator of mETC activity (Zorova et al., 2018). For this purpose, Arabidopsis
6 epidermal strips, expressing a mitochondrial-targeted GFP (mito-GFP) (Logan and Leaver, 2000),
7 were loaded with the fluorescent probe red tetramethylrhodamine, methyl ester (TMRM), which
8 accumulates, reversibly, in the mitochondrial matrix depending on the polarization state of the
9 inner membrane (Brand and Nicholls, 2011). TMRM fluorescence intensity increases upon
10 mitochondrial membrane hyperpolarization and decreases when the mitochondrial membrane
11 is less polarized, while GFP intensity is not dependent on the variation of mitochondrial
12 membrane potential. Mito-GFP epidermal strips were pre-incubated in the dark in OB
13 supplemented with TMRM and then treated with DMSO 0.01% (Mock) or AP39. The ratio between
14 TMRM and GFP fluorescence intensity was calculated for each GC (Fig. 4). AP39 increased the
15 TMRM/GFP ratio on GCs (Fig. 4B), and hence the GCs $\Delta\psi_m$, suggesting a mt- H_2S -dependent
16 increase on mETC activity. In order to measure another indicator of mitochondria activity, we
17 studied the effect of AP39 on GCs cytosolic ATP pool.

18

19 **AP39 increases ATP levels in GCs**

20

21 We used Arabidopsis plants expressing the genetically encoded FRET-based sensor
22 ATeam1.03-nD/na, which contains a ϵ -subunit fragment of ATP synthase from *Bacillus* sp. PS3,
23 and two fluorophores, a monomeric super-enhanced cyan fluorescent protein (mseCFP) and a
24 circularly permuted monomeric Venus (cp173-mVenus) (Imamura et al., 2009; Kotera et al.,
25 2010)). ATeam1.03-nD/Na recognizes $MgATP^{-2}$, the biologically relevant portion of ATP pool, and
26 the interaction leads to a conformational modification of the protein, increasing the FRET
27 efficiency. The simultaneous detection of both fluorescence emissions and the calculation of the
28 Venus/CFP ratio of GCs, provides a dynamic readout of the $MgATP^{-2}$ levels in cytosol.

29

30 Arabidopsis epidermal strips expressing ATeam1.03-nD/na were placed in OB for at least
31 60 min in the dark, to avoid the effects of active photosynthesis (de Col et al., 2017), and then
treated or not with AP39. The Venus/CFP ratio calculated for each GC shows that AP39 increased

1 the cytosolic MgATP⁻² levels, compared with steady conditions (Fig. 5), providing further
2 evidence on the effect of mt-H₂S on the modulation of mitochondrial bioenergetics.

3

4 **AP39 increases H₂O₂ levels and the oxidation of glutathione in the cytosol**

5

6 In different animal experimental systems, AP39 was shown to exert its effect not only
7 through the modulation of mitochondrial activity, but also through the regulation of
8 intracellular signaling components, among them, reactive oxygen species (ROS) (Covarrubias et
9 al., 2019). In plants, there is no information of mt-H₂S regulation, but we reported the existence
10 of an interplay between H₂S and H₂O₂ during stomatal closure induction. To study whether mt-
11 H₂S has any effect on ROS modulation and/or the cellular redox state, we measured cytosolic
12 H₂O₂ levels and the glutathione (GSH) oxidation status in GCs treated with AP39. In order to
13 detect *in vivo* and reversibly the H₂O₂ and the GSH/GSSH ratio dynamics in GCs, we employed
14 Arabidopsis plants expressing the fluorescent proteins roGFP2-Orp1 and Grx1-roGFP2 (Scuffi et
15 al., 2018; Nietzel et al., 2019), respectively. The sensor roGFP2-Orp1 is a construct that contains
16 the yeast peroxidase Orp1 fused to redox sensitive ro-GFP2, while Grx1-roGFP2 has ro-GFP2
17 fused to human glutaredoxin (Grx1) (Gutscher et al., 2009; Nietzel et al., 2019). Epidermal strips
18 from roGFP2-Orp1 and Grx1-roGFP2 plants were treated or not with AP39 at different times,
19 according to Scuffi *et al.*, 2018. Figure 6 shows that AP39 induced the oxidation of both
20 biosensors in GCs (Fig. 6A,B), indicating that mt-H₂S increases the H₂O₂ content and the
21 oxidation of the GSH. Furthermore, when strips were treated with AP39 in presence of HT, there
22 was no evident increase on the oxidation of roGFP2-Orp1 (Fig. 6C) supporting the involvement of
23 H₂S in this response.

24

25 **DISCUSSION**

26

27 H₂S is already established as a signaling molecule with physiological roles in
28 organisms from the five kingdoms (Olson and Straub, 2016; Aroca et al., 2020). The main
29 enzymatic source of H₂S in animal systems, Cystathionine γ -lyase (CSE), is localized in
30 the cytosol, however, under certain stress conditions it can translocate to the
31 mitochondria and exert different physiological roles through mt-H₂S production (Fu et

1 al., 2012). On the other hand, the role of the endogenously synthesized mt-H₂S in plants
2 remains unclear because most of the knowledge about the biological function of H₂S
3 comes from pharmacological data, using the general H₂S donors NaHS and GYY4137, or
4 from genetic data related to the cytosolic source DES1 (Scuffi et al., 2018; Shen et al.,
5 2020).

6 In the present study we prove that mt-H₂S, released by mitochondrial-targeted
7 H₂S delivery molecules, induces stomatal closure in a CYTc and/or complex IV
8 dependent manner (Fig. 2 and Fig. 3). The suboptimal response at the higher
9 concentration assayed, corresponds with a reduction in guard cell viability (Fig. 1B),
10 which resembles the biphasic dose-response observed for mt-H₂S in animal's
11 mitochondria (Szabo et al., 2014). In the latter, high concentrations of mt-H₂S inhibit
12 mitochondrial activity, an effect associated to mitochondrial-derived diseases (Panagaki
13 et al., 2019), while at low concentrations, mt-H₂S has cytoprotective effects, increasing
14 mitochondrial biogenesis and function (Fox et al., 2021). As in the above-mentioned
15 systems, mt-H₂S can act as an inorganic electron donor and interact with mETC
16 components (Módis et al., 2016; Vitvitsky et al., 2018), we analysed the possibility of a
17 link between stomatal closure induction and mETC activity. It has been reported that
18 the activity of the mitochondrial complex II (succinate dehydrogenase [SDH]) is related
19 to stomatal behaviour. The heterozygous mutant *SDH1-1/sdh1-1* and a line with down-
20 regulation of *SHD1-1* expression by RNA interference showed an increased stomatal
21 conductance and stomatal aperture (Fuentes et al., 2011).

22 In our experimental system, either the inhibition of mitochondrial ETC complex
23 IV or the mutation of both *CYTC-1* and *CYTC-2* genes, impaired AP39-dependent stomatal
24 closure, suggesting that mt-H₂S affects the last steps of mitochondrial ETC. Given that
25 CYTc not only carries electrons to complex IV, but it is also required for the stability of
26 this supercomplex (Welchen et al., 2012), further evidence will be needed to determine
27 whether CYTc, complex IV, or both of them, are involved in the mt-H₂S-triggered
28 signaling pathway. These results can be associated with experiments done in human

1 cells, where H₂S stimulates O₂ consumption even in the presence of AA, consistently with
2 the entry of electrons at the level of complex IV (Vitvitsky et al., 2018).

3 Mitochondrial ATP production by oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS) has a
4 major relevance in most eukaryotic cells as the main energetic source to drive cellular
5 processes. OXPHOS implies the electron transport from reducing equivalents to
6 molecular oxygen, through the mETC, establishing the $\Delta\psi_m$ required for ATP synthesis
7 (Braun, 2020). Using the fluorescent probe TMRM in Arabidopsis mito-GFP epidermal
8 peels, we show that AP39 hyperpolarizes $\Delta\psi_m$ in GCs (Fig. 4). The increase in
9 mitochondrial inner membrane potential, together with the requirement of
10 CYTc/complex IV for AP39-dependent stomatal closure, suggests that mt-H₂S modulates
11 mETC activity, pointing to a relation between mitochondrial function and stomatal
12 movement regulation.

13 Cytosolic ATP pool in GCs plays a key role for light-dependent stomatal opening
14 (Inoue and Kinoshita, 2017). ATP is needed to fuel plasma membrane H⁺-ATPase, which
15 generates the electrochemical gradient that activates inward rectifying K⁺ channels,
16 increasing GC's turgor and finally opening the stomatal pore. Recent works suggested
17 that mitochondria are the main ATP source in GCs (Lim et al., 2022), and that plasma
18 membrane H⁺-ATPase AHA2 is required for ABA-induced stomatal closure (Pei et al.,
19 2022), highlighting the relevance of mitochondrial energetic metabolism for stomatal
20 physiology.

21 On the other hand, although ATP requirement for stomatal closure is less
22 explored, the inhibition of mitochondrial ATP synthase, partially inhibits dark-mediated
23 stomatal closure (Goh et al., 2011), indicating that mitochondrial ATP production
24 participates in this response. Our data shows that GC cytosolic ATP levels increase in
25 response to the mt-H₂S donor (Fig. 5). The shift on the Venus/CFP ratio was consistent
26 and reproducible and is in the range of the reported biosensor response to adenine in
27 Arabidopsis seedlings (de Col et al., 2017). Therefore, we provide insights on the relation
28 between mitochondrial ATP production and stomatal closure induction.

1 Recent reports indicate that H₂S triggers stomatal closure through persulfidation
2 of highly connected components (nodes) that includes the NADPH oxidase Respiratory
3 Burst Oxidase Homolog D (RBOHD) (Shen et al., 2020). Persulfidation promotes RBOHD
4 activity, stimulating the apoplastic superoxide production. Superoxide is rapidly
5 converted to H₂O₂ either spontaneously or by the activity of superoxide dismutase (Chen
6 and Yang, 2020), and then H₂O₂ is believed to enter guard cells through aquaporins
7 (Rodrigues et al., 2017). In addition, the treatment of epidermal peels with general H₂S
8 donors (NaHS and GYY4137) produces an increase in cytosolic H₂O₂ levels in GCs (Scuffi
9 et al., 2018), showing an interplay between ROS and H₂S. On the other hand, in the last
10 years some works have shown that mitochondrial activity is related to RBOHs-
11 dependent ROS production. The mitochondrial enzyme NAD kinase-CaM dependent
12 (NADKc) catalyzes NADP⁺ production exclusively in the presence of CaM/Ca²⁺. The
13 insertional mutants in NADKc, *nadkc-1* and *nadkc-2*, displayed a substantial reduction of
14 extracellular ROS accumulation when seedlings were treated with the pathogen-derived
15 peptide flagellin (flg22) (Dell'Aglio et al., 2019). Authors proposed that the NADKc-
16 dependent NADP(H) synthesis is needed to sustain ROS burst driven by plasma
17 membrane NADPH oxidases. Furthermore, Fabro and colleagues reported the same
18 altered response in ROS production in plants mutated in the enzyme PROLINE
19 DEHYDROGENASE (ProDH), which transfer electrons into the mETC (Fabro et al., 2016).
20 Despite ROS accumulation is a key mechanism that has been observed downstream of
21 several signals that trigger stomatal closure (Arnaud and Hwang, 2015; Zhang et al.,
22 2017; Postiglione and Muday, 2020), there are no reports showing the participation of
23 mitochondrial activity on ROS production in GCs. Based on these pieces of evidence that
24 connect mitochondrial function with ROS accumulation, together with the, well
25 established, interplay between H₂S and H₂O₂ in GCs, we analysed cytosolic H₂O₂ content
26 and the GSH/GSSH ratio. In Figure 6 we show that AP39 triggers the oxidation of both
27 roGFP2-Orp1 and Grx1-roGFP2 sensors, but their dynamics are different. After reaching a
28 maximum oxidation at 10 min, Grx1-roGFP2 was fully reduced back to its initial state.
29 These results indicate that the mt-H₂S donor increases the H₂O₂ levels and the oxidation

1 of the GSH pool in GCs, pointing to a signaling role of mitochondrial H₂S over cytosolic
2 components in the regulation of stomatal closure. Although it is tempting to link the
3 raise of cytosolic H₂O₂ to its reported effect on inward-rectifying K⁺ channels (I_{KIN})
4 activity (Köhler et al., 2003), it is difficult to propose a linear pathway in such a complex
5 signaling network.

6
7 Based in our findings, we propose that mitochondrially-targeted H₂S delivery
8 molecule AP39 induces stomatal closure, a response that depends on a functional CYTc
9 or/and complex IV. Additionally, this donor also hyperpolarizes the mitochondrial inner
10 membrane, increases the cytosolic GSH oxidation, and the ATP and H₂O₂ content in GCs
11 (Fig. 7). Taken together, these results point towards an effect of mt-H₂S over mETC at the
12 CYTc/complex IV level that induces an increase in the mitochondrial inner membrane
13 potential and an increase in the ATP synthesis in GCs. The modulation of mitochondrial
14 activity by AP39 can possibly lead to the spread of the signal to other cellular
15 compartments, increasing the oxidation of GSH pool and the H₂O₂ levels in GCs, finally
16 producing stomatal closure. These observations indicate that mt-H₂S has a function in
17 the modulation of mitochondrial energetics in plants, while they also point to an active
18 role of mitochondrial activity in stomatal closure. Nevertheless, more studies are
19 required to unveil the gap between the mitochondrial effect of AP39 and the cytosolic
20 H₂O₂ increase in GCs, as well as the relevance of this signaling pathway in a physiological
21 context to further understand the mitochondrial role in GC's signaling network.

22 23 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

24 25 **Plant material and Chemicals**

26 *Arabidopsis* (*Arabidopsis thaliana*) wild-type Columbia-0 (Col-0) ecotype, *Arabidopsis* mito-GFP,
27 *Arabidopsis* CYTc mutants *1a*, *1b*, *2a*, *2b*, *1b2a* and *1b2b* (Welchen et al., 2012) , and *Arabidopsis*
28 lines expressing the biosensors ATeam1.03-nD/nA (de Col et al., 2017), roGFP2-Orp1 and Grx1-
29 roGFP2 (Gutschner et al., 2009; Nietzel et al., 2019) (kindly provided by Prof. Markus

1 Schwarzländer) were grown in soil:perlite:vermiculite (1:1:1, v/v/v); while fava bean (*Vicia faba*
2 were grown in soil:vermiculite (1:3 v/v). All plants were placed at 20°C under short-day
3 conditions (8-h- light/16-h-dark photoperiod, 200 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$), after stratification for 48
4 hours at 4°C in the dark.

5 Mitochondrial H_2S donors AP123 (Geró et al., 2016b) (10-(4-carbamothioylphenoxy)-10-
6 oxodecyl) triphenylphosphonium bromide), AP39 (le Trionnaire et al., 2014), ((10-oxo-10-(4-(3-
7 thioxo-3H-1,2-dithiol-5-yl)phenoxy) decyl) triphenylphosphonium bromide) and RT01 (Latorre et
8 al., 2018) were synthesized as previously described by us. GYY4137 (morpholin-4-ium4
9 methoxyphenyl(morpholino) phosphinodithioate) was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich.
10 Rotenone, 2-Thenoyltrifluoroacetone (TTFA) and Antimycin A (AA) were purchased from
11 Tecnolab S.A., while Potassium cyanide (KCN) was purchased from Mallinckrodt
12 Pharmaceuticals. Tetramethylrhodamine methyl ester (TMRM) was purchased from Biotium.

13

14 **Stomatal Aperture measurements**

15 Epidermal peels were excised from abaxial side of 5-6 weeks old *Arabidopsis thaliana* Col-0 or 4-
16 weeks old *Vicia faba* leaves and immediately floated in Opening Buffer (OB: 5 mM MES-KOH, 50
17 mM KCl, pH=6.1) for 3 hours in the light. Strips were then kept in the same OB and exposed to
18 different treatments as indicated in the figure legends. Stomata were digitized using an
19 AmScope MU1000 camera coupled to an Olympus CKX53 microscope with a 40x lens
20 (LUCPlanFLN, 0.6 numerical aperture). The stomatal aperture was measured using IMAGEJ
21 analysis software (NIH, Bethesda, MD, USA).

22 **Viability staining**

23 *Arabidopsis* Col-0 epidermal strips were incubated for 3 hours in OB in light and exposed to
24 different treatments. Then, peels were incubated with 20 μM fluorescein diacetate (FDA) for 10
25 minutes in the dark at room temperature and washed with fresh OB to remove excess dye.
26 Fluorescence was imaged with a 40x lens (LUCPlanFLN, 0.6 numerical aperture) using an
27 AmScope MU900 camera coupled to an Olympus CKX41 microscope equipped with an Olympus
28 U-RFLT50 lamp, a BP460-490C excitation filter and a BA520 IF barrier filter. Exposure times (from
29 100ms to 300 ms) were adjusted depending on the probe fluorescence intensity in each
30 experiment.

31

1 **Confocal microscopy**

2 Fluorescence images were acquired with a Nikon Eclipse C1 Plus confocal microscope.
3 Mitochondria in guard cells were imaged with a 100x lens (Plan Apochromat Lambda, 1.45
4 numerical aperture, oil immersion). Epidermal peels from *Arabidopsis thaliana* expressing a
5 mitochondrial-targeted GFP (mito-GFP) were floated in OB supplemented with 500 nM
6 Tetramethylrhodamine methyl ester (TMRM) for 3 hours in the dark and then treated for 90
7 minutes with Mock (DMSO 0.01% (v/v)) or 100 nM AP39. TMRM and GFP were excited at 488 nm
8 and 561 nm respectively, and their emissions were collected simultaneously at 515/30 and
9 605/75nm. The laser intensity was set to 4% for 488nm and 5% for 561nm. The ratio TMRM/GFP
10 was calculated for each GC and the values were normalized to the Mock.

11 12 **Fluorescence Microscopy**

13 Guard cells of plants expressing ATeam1.03-nD/Na, roGFP2-Orp1 and Grx1-roGFP2 biosensors
14 were analyzed *in vivo* using an inverted Nikon Ti-E fluorescence microscope coupled to a
15 Hamamatsu ORCA-D2 Dual CCD camera. Excitation light was produced by a fluorescent lamp
16 Prior Lumen 200 PRO (Prior Scientific) and epidermal strips were imaged using a 60x oil
17 immersion objective (CFI Plan APO Lambda 60x 1.4 numerical aperture). Epidermal peels from
18 ATeam1.03-nD/nA leaves were floated in OB a least 1 hour in the dark and then treated for 1
19 hour with DMSO 0.01% (v/v) (Mock) or 100 nM AP39. Peels were excited at 440 nm (436/20 nm),
20 and mseCFP and cp173-mVenus emissions were collected at 483/32 nm and 542/27 nm,
21 respectively, with a dichroic 510-nm mirror (Hamamatsu Pho-tonics) for simultaneous
22 acquisitions. Exposure times (from 150ms to 200 ms) were adjusted depending on the sensor
23 expression level in each experiment, with a 4 x 4 pixel binning. The ratio Venus/CFP was
24 calculated for each GC and the values were normalized to the Mock.

25 roGFP2-Orp1 and Grx1-roGFP2 peels were floated in OB at least 7 hours in light and then treated
26 with DMSO 0.01% (v/v) (Mock), 100 nM AP39, or AP39 and 200 μ M HT for the indicated times.
27 Sensors were excited sequentially with 470/40 nm and 405/40 nm and the emissions were
28 collected using a 505/530 nm bandpass filter (GFP-specific filter) for both excitation wavelengths
29 with a 2 x 2 pixel binning. For roGFP2-Orp1 and Grx1-roGFP2 experiments, the exposure times
30 were 100ms and 200ms, and 50ms and 200ms, for 405/40 nm and 470/40 nm excitations,

1 respectively. The ratio 405/488nm was calculated for each GC and the values were normalized to
2 the Mock.

3

4 **Images analysis**

5 Images were analysed using IMAGEJ software (NIH, Bethesda, MD, USA). For TMRM/GFP ratio
6 calculation and fluorescence measurement from roGFP2-Orp1, Grx1-roGFP2 and ATeam1.03-
7 nD/nA sensors, the background was subtracted from each channel and then the region of
8 interest was delimited to GCs. Fluorescence was measured as the mean pixel intensity.

9 To obtain the ratiometric false-colored ATeam1.03-nD/nA images, background was subtracted
10 to mseCFP and cp173-mVenus emissions in representative images, and then they were
11 thresholded. Finally, cp173-mVenus/mseCFP (Venus/CFP in Figure 5) was generated with Image
12 Calculator and a pseudocolor (LUT Physics) was applied to the resulting image.

13

14 **Statistical Analyses**

15 Data analyses were performed using RStudio (R Foundation for Statistical Computing,
16 Vienna, Austria. URL: <https://www.R-project.org/>). The statistically significant
17 differences were analyzed using Student's t test, Tukey's Method or Dunnett's Method,
18 as indicated in the figure legends.

19

20 **Accession Numbers**

21 Sequence data from this article can be found in the GenBank/EMBL data libraries under
22 accession numbers At1g22840 (*CYTC-1*) and At4g10040 (*CYTC-2*).

23

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4 5 **Conflicts of Interest**

6 M.W and R.T. have intellectual property (patents awarded) on mitochondrial and other targeted H₂S
7 donors and MW is CSO of MitoRx Therapeutics.

8 9 **Figure legends**

10
11 **Figure 1.** The mitochondrial H₂S donor AP39 induces stomatal closure in a dose-dependent
12 manner. Epidermal strips were excised from abaxial side from 5-6 weeks old Arabidopsis
13 (*Arabidopsis thaliana*) leaves (ecotype Columbia -Col-0) and floated in opening buffer (OB: 5 mM
14 MES, 50 mM KCl, pH=6.1) for 3 hours in the light. Then, they were treated for 90 minutes with
15 Dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) 0.01% (v/v) (Mock), 100 μM of general H₂S donor GYY4137, 100 nM
16 AP39 and 200 μM of the H₂S scavenger hypotaurine (HT), or with increasing concentrations of
17 mitochondrial H₂S donor AP39. Stomatal aperture was measured (A,C), or AP39-treated peels
18 were subsequently loaded with the fluorescent dye Fluorescein diacetate (FDA) (B). Stomatal
19 aperture values are expressed as absolute values in microns (μm) and are represented as points
20 in the boxplots, where the box is bound by the 25th to 75th percentile (A). The line in the middle
21 is the median, the darker point is the mean and whiskers span 10th to 90th percentile. The black
22 points are outliers. The percentage of guard cell viability is the result of the ratio between
23 fluorescent guard cells and total guard cells in the bright field (B). The bars represent the means,
24 and the points are individual measurements. Error bars = SD. Data is from at least three
25 independent assays. Letters indicate statistical differences among treatments (Tukey's Method,
26 confidence level=0.95) (A,C). Asterisks indicate statistical differences from the Mock (Dunnett's
27 Method, p-value<0.05 = (*), confidence level=0.95) (B).

28
29 **Figure 2. AP39-induced stomatal closure requires complex IV activity.** (A) Scheme showing
30 the sites of action of the different mitochondrial electron transport chain (mETC) inhibitors;
31 Epidermal strips from the abaxial side of 5-6 weeks old Arabidopsis Col-0 leaves were floated in
32 OB (5 mM MES, 50 mM KCl, pH=6.1) for 3 hours in the light and then they were treated with
33 Dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) 0.01% (v/v) (Mock), 100 nM AP39, or they were pre-incubated for 30

1 minutes with the different mETC inhibitors: (B) 1 μ M Rotenone (Rtn), (C) 100 μ M 2-
 2 Thenoyltrifluoroacetone (TTFA), (D) 50 μ M Antimycin A (AA) or (E) 1 mM potassium cyanide
 3 (KCN), and subsequently treated or not with AP39 for 90 minutes. The values of stomatal
 4 aperture are expressed in microns (μ m) and are represented as points in the boxplots where the
 5 box is bound by the 25th to 75th percentile. The line in the middle is the median, the darker point
 6 is the mean and whiskers span 10th to 90th percentile. The black points represent outliers. Data is
 7 the result from at least three independent assays. Letters indicate statistical differences among
 8 treatments (Tukey's Method, confidence level=0.95). IMS: intermembrane space.

9
 10 **Figure 3. AP39-induced stomatal closure involves cytochrome c (CYTc).** Epidermal strips
 11 from the abaxial side of leaves of 5-6 weeks old Arabidopsis double or single insertional mutants
 12 in cytochrome c *CYTC-1* and *CYTC-2* (*1b2a* and *1b2b* (A), *1a* and *1b* (B), or *2a* and *2b* (C)), were
 13 floated in OB (5 mM MES, 50 mM KCl, pH=6.1) for 3 hours in the light. Then, they were treated for
 14 90 minutes with Dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) 0.01% (v/v) (Mock) or 100 nM AP39. The values of
 15 stomatal aperture width are expressed in microns (μ m) and are represented as points in the
 16 boxplots where the box is bound by the 25th to 75th percentile. The line in the middle is the
 17 median, the darker point is the mean and whiskers span 10th to 90th percentile. The black points
 18 are outliers. Data is from at least three independent assays. Asterisks indicate statistical
 19 differences with the Mock (Student's t-test, confidence level=0.95 (p-value<0.05 = (*), p-
 20 value<0.01 = (**), p-value<0.001 = (***) , NS=Not significant).

21
 22 **Figure 4. AP39 hyperpolarizes mitochondrial inner membrane potential in guard cells.**
 23 Epidermal peels from abaxial side of 5-6 weeks old Arabidopsis mito-GFP leaves were incubated
 24 in OB (5 mM MES, 50 mM KCl, pH=6.1) with 500 nM Tetramethylrhodamine methyl ester (TMRM)
 25 in the dark, and then treated with Dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) 0.01% (v/v) (Mock) or 100 nM AP39
 26 for 90 minutes. (A) Representative false-colored images of guard cells treated with the Mock or
 27 AP39. (B) The ratios between TMRM and GFP fluorescence intensities (TMRM/GFP) were
 28 calculated for each guard cell, normalised to the Mock and represented as individual points in
 29 the boxplots, where the box is bound by the 25th to 75th percentile. The line in the middle is the
 30 median, the darker point is the mean and whiskers span 10th to 90th percentile. The black points
 31 are outliers. Data is for at least 30 guard cells per treatment and three independent assays.

1 Asterisks indicate statistical differences with the Mock (Student's t-test, confidence level=0.95
2 (p-value<0.05 = (*)). Scale bars: 5 μ m.

3
4 **Figure 5. AP39 increases cytosolic MgATP⁻² levels in guard cells.** Epidermal strips from
5 abaxial side of 5-6 weeks old Arabidopsis Col-0 leaves expressing the cytosolic MgATP⁻² sensor
6 ATeam1.03-nD/Na were placed in OB (5 mM MES, 50 mM KCl, pH=6.1), dark-adapted at least 60
7 minutes and treated for 90 minutes with Dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) 0.01% (v/v) (Mock) or 100
8 nM AP39. (A) Representative false-colored ratiometric images of guard cells treated with the
9 Mock or AP39. (B) The ratio between Venus and CFP fluorescence intensities (Venus/CFP) were
10 calculated for each guard cell, normalised to the Mock and represented as individual points in
11 the boxplots, where the box is bound by the 25th to 75th percentile. The line in the middle is the
12 median, the darker point is the mean and whiskers span 10th to 90th percentile. The black points
13 are outliers. Data is the result of at least 70 guard cells for each treatment from three
14 independent assays. Asterisks indicate statistical differences with the Mock (Student's t-test,
15 confidence level=0.95 (p-value<0.01 = (**)). Scale bars: 5 μ m.

16
17 **Figure 6. AP39 oxidizes cytosolic roGFP2-Orp1 and Grx1-roGFP2 in guard cells.** Epidermal
18 peels from Arabidopsis Col-0 leaves expressing the cytosolic biosensors that detect H₂O₂ and the
19 glutathione (GSH) oxidative state, roGFP2-Orp1 (A,C) or Grx1-roGFP2 (B), respectively, were
20 incubated in opening buffer (OB: 5 mM MES, 50 mM KCl, pH=6.1) for 7 h under light and then
21 treated with: Dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) 0.01% (v/v) (Mock) for 60 minutes, 100 nM AP39 for 5,
22 10, 15, 20, 30 or 60 minutes, 20 mM Dithiothreitol (DTT) for 10 minutes, 1 mM H₂O₂ for 10
23 minutes, or 200 μ M Hypotaurine (HT) and AP39 for 60 minutes. The ratios between emissions
24 collected with 405/488 nm excitations were calculated for each guard cell, normalised to the
25 Mock and represented as individual points in the boxplots, where the box is bound by the 25th to
26 75th percentile. The line in the middle is the median, the darker point is the mean and whiskers
27 span 10th to 90th percentile. The black points are outliers. Data is the result of at least three
28 independent assays. Asterisks indicate statistical differences with the Mock (Dunnett's test = (p-
29 value<0.05 = (*), p-value<0.01 = (**), p-value<0.001 = (***)). Ratiometric images are false-colored
30 and represent the different treatments. Scale bars: 5 μ m.

31

Figure 7. Model of mitochondrial (mt)-H₂S-triggered signaling pathway in guard cells. The donor AP39 accumulates in mitochondria and releases mitochondrial (mt)-H₂S, triggering a signaling pathway that concludes in stomatal closure. To induce the reduction of stomatal pore size, AP39 requires the activity of cytochrome c (CYTc) and/or mitochondrial complex IV. Further, AP39 hyperpolarizes the mitochondrial membrane potential ($\Delta\psi_m$) and increases ATP synthesis in guard cells, as well as the cytosolic H₂O₂ levels and the oxidation of the glutathione (GSH) pool. Segmented lines suggest a possible participation of H₂O₂, GSH, ATP and $\Delta\psi_m$ on stomatal closure induction, which can be modulated through CYTc/complex IV.

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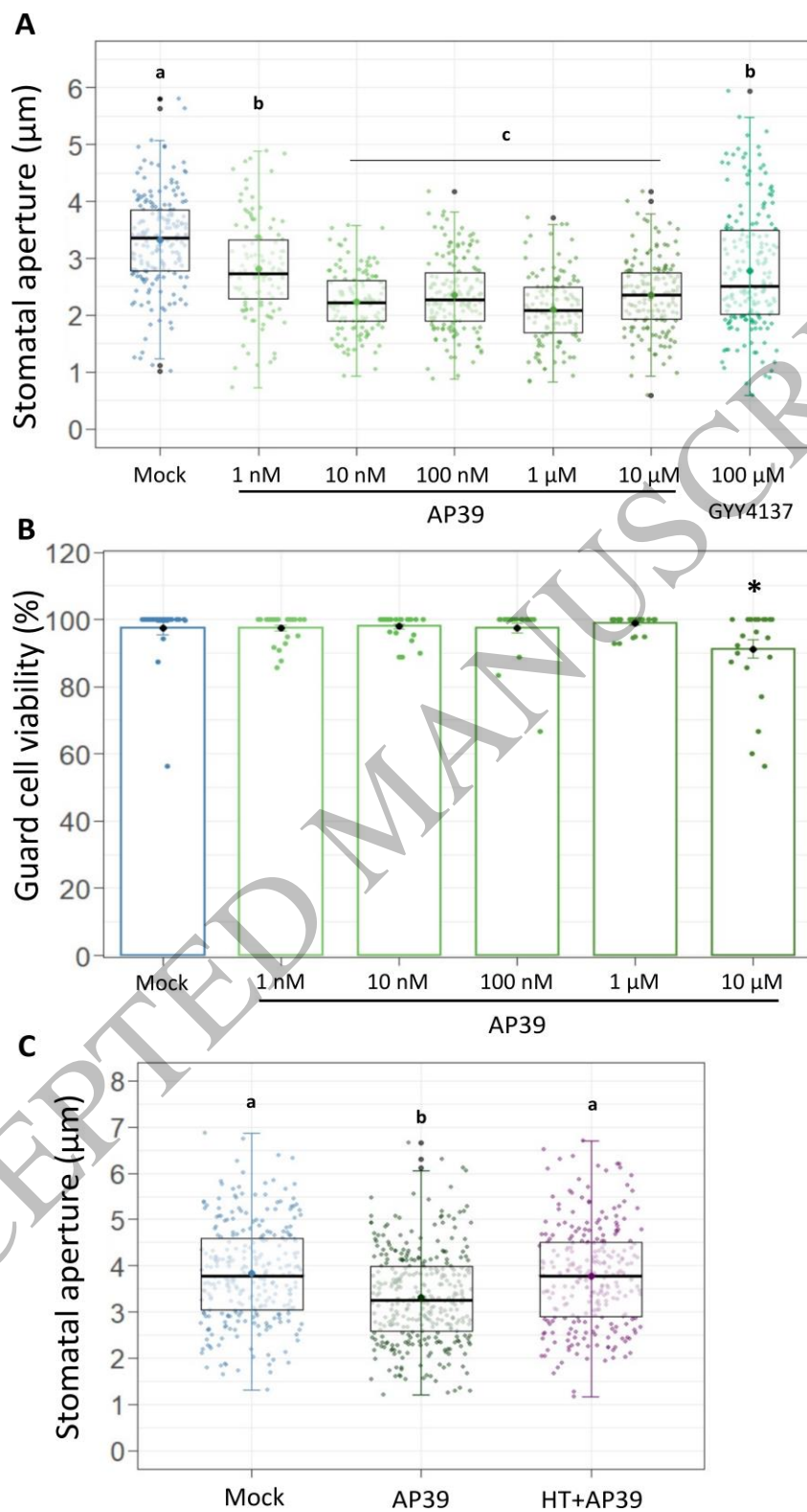


Figure 1
128x247 mm (3.2 x DPI)

1

2

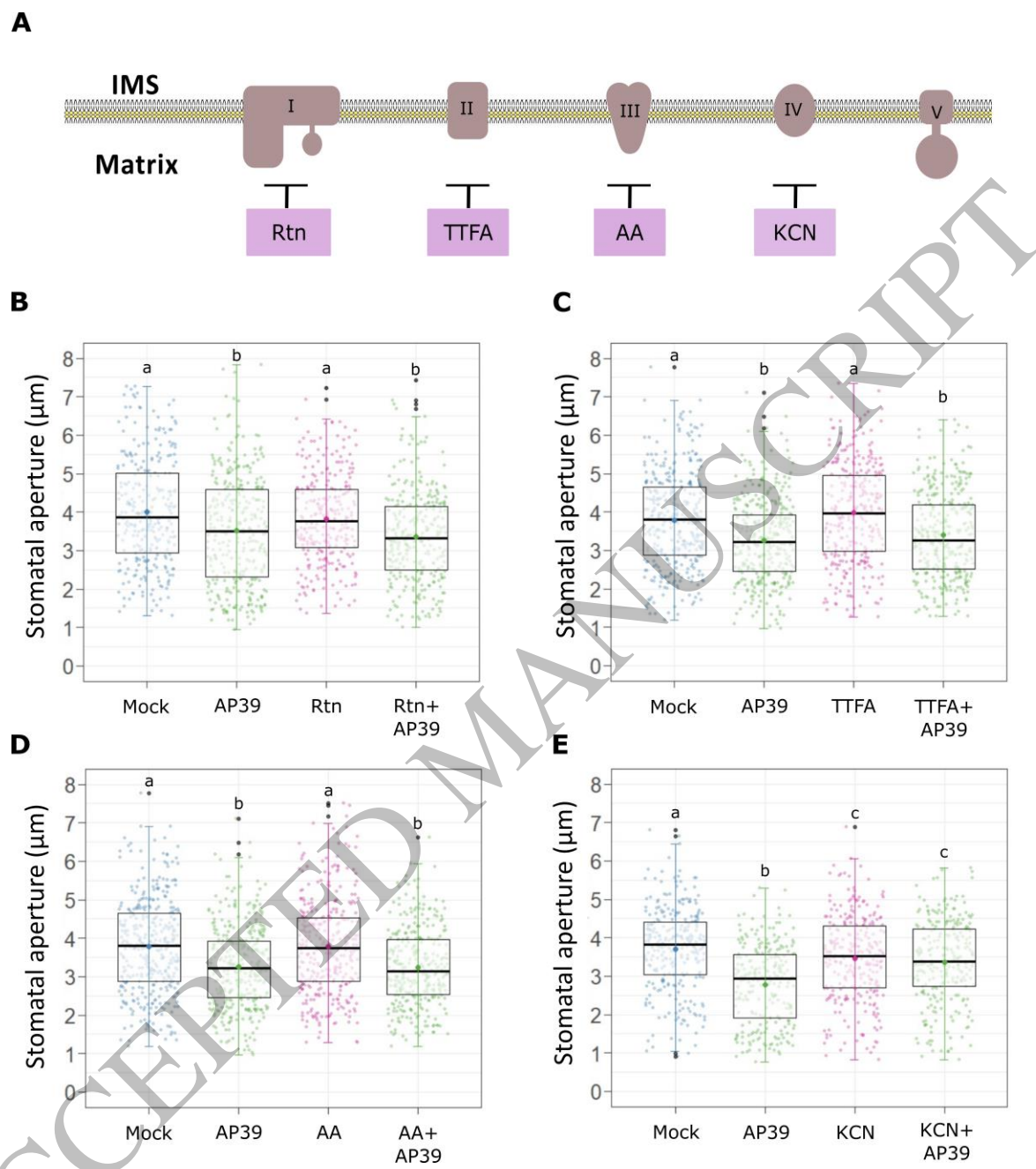


Figure 2
150x172 mm (3.2 x DPI)

1

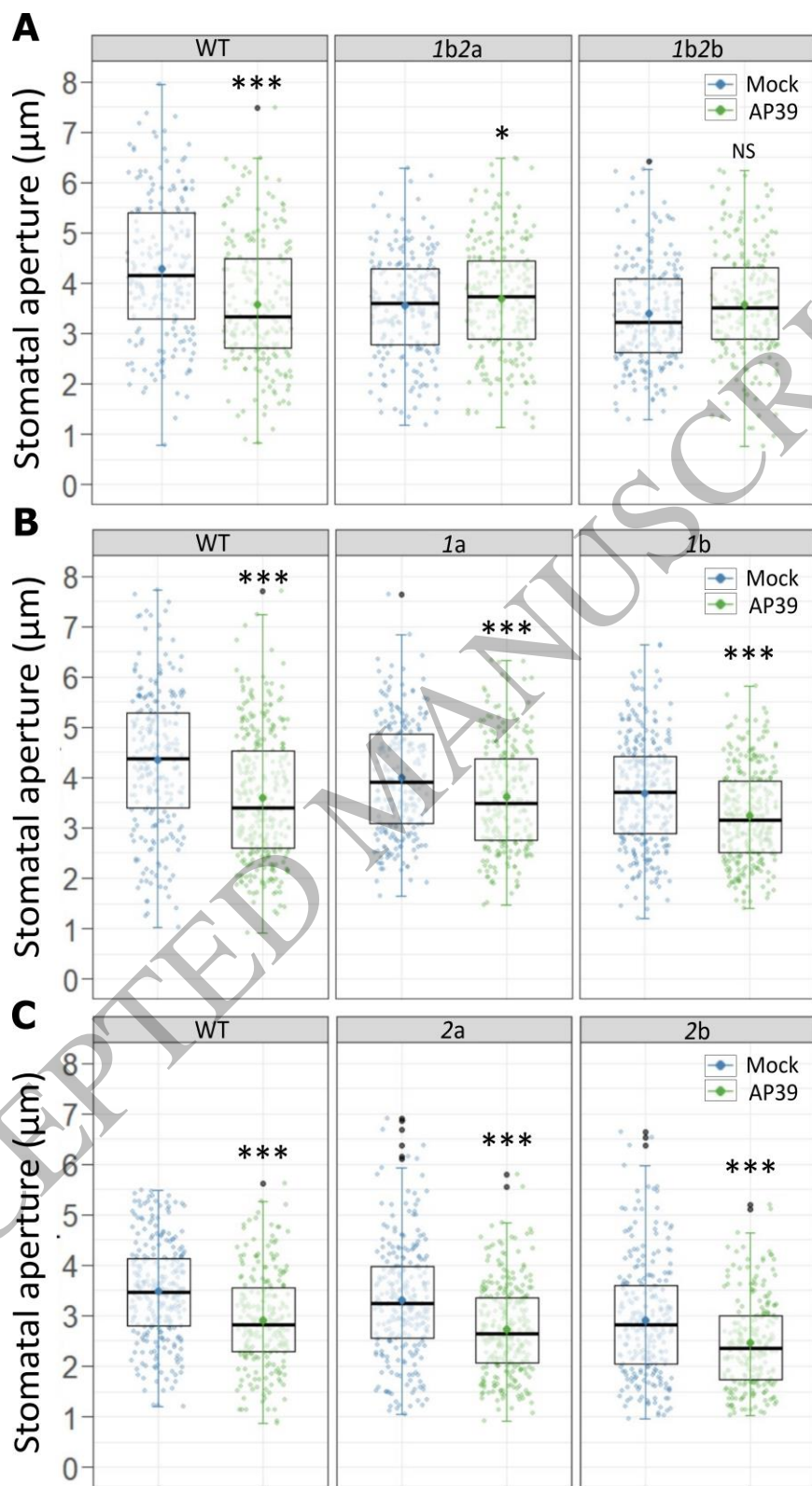


Figure 3
142x247 mm (3.2 x DPI)

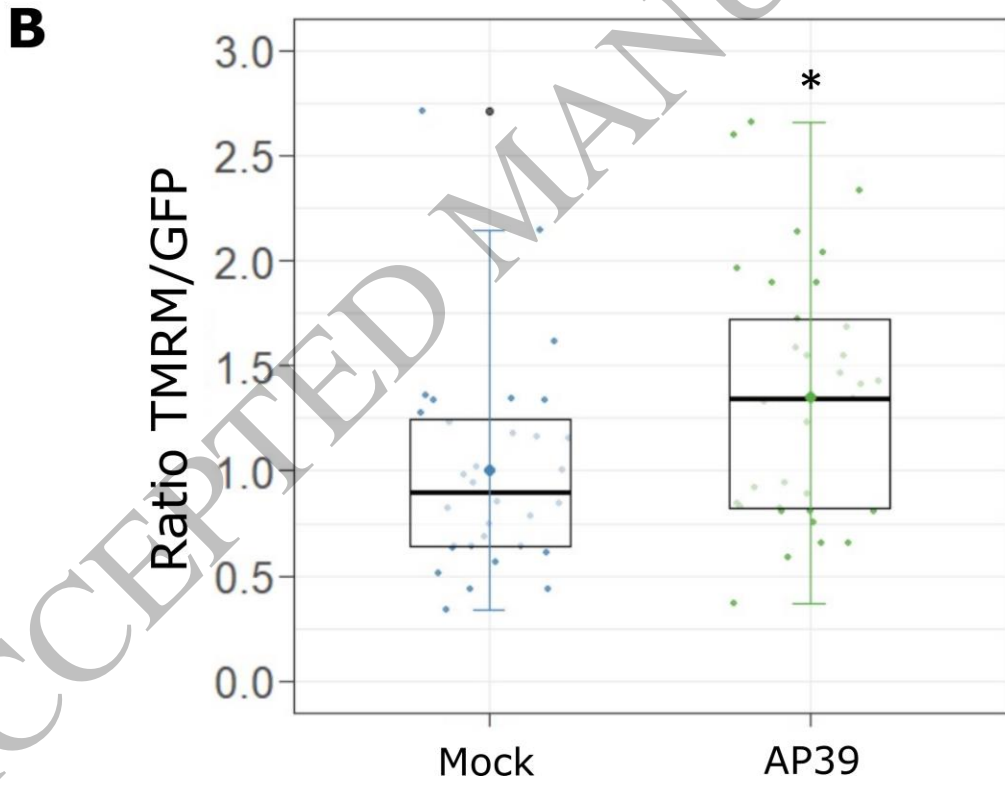
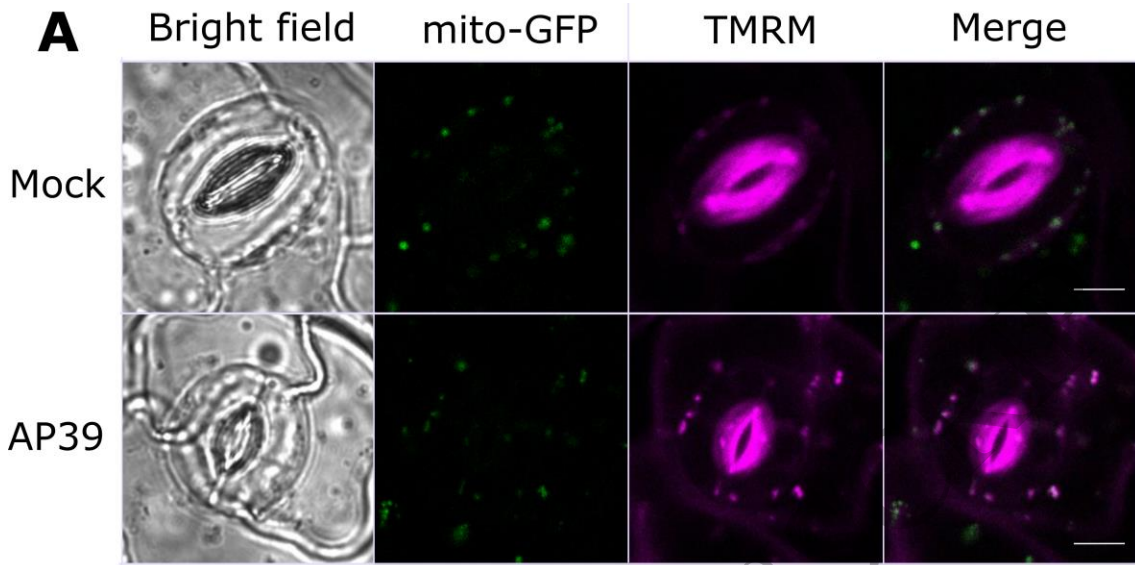


Figure 4
150x187 mm (3.2 x DPI)

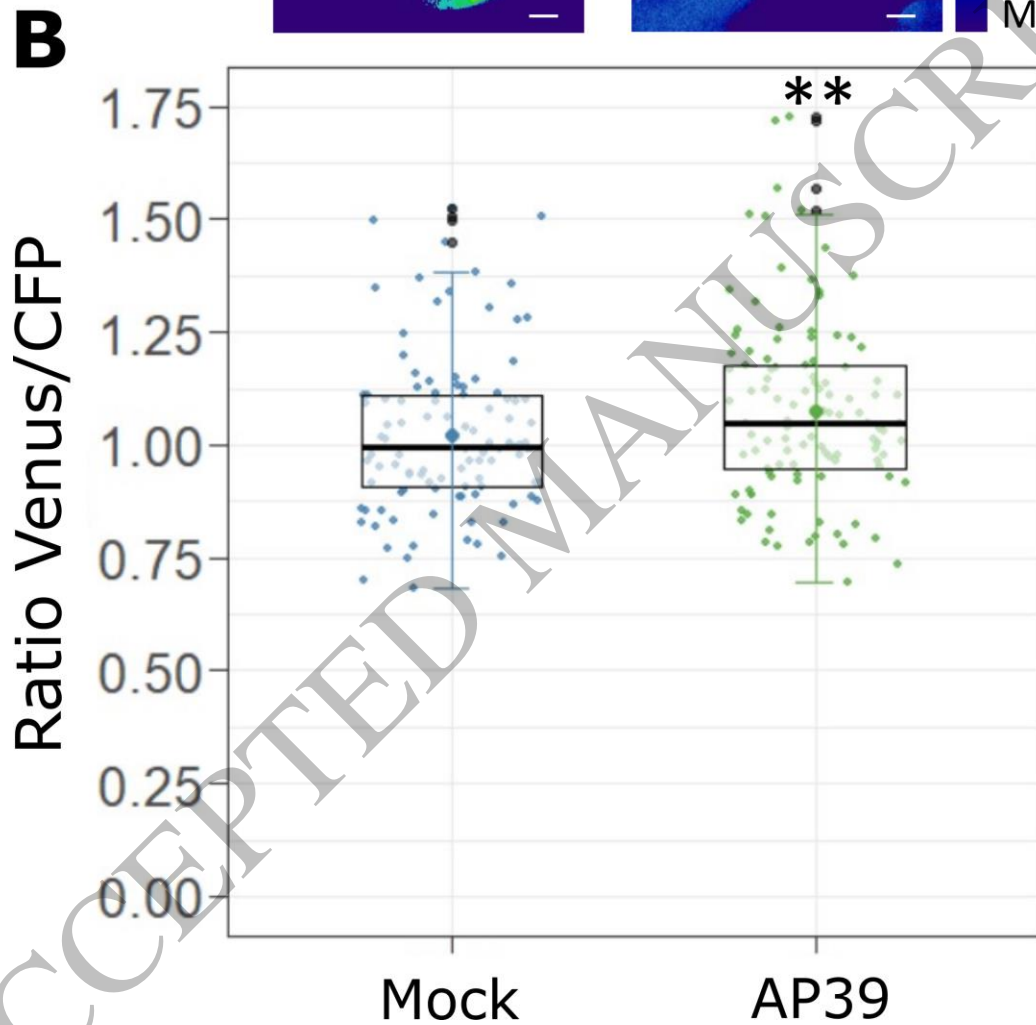
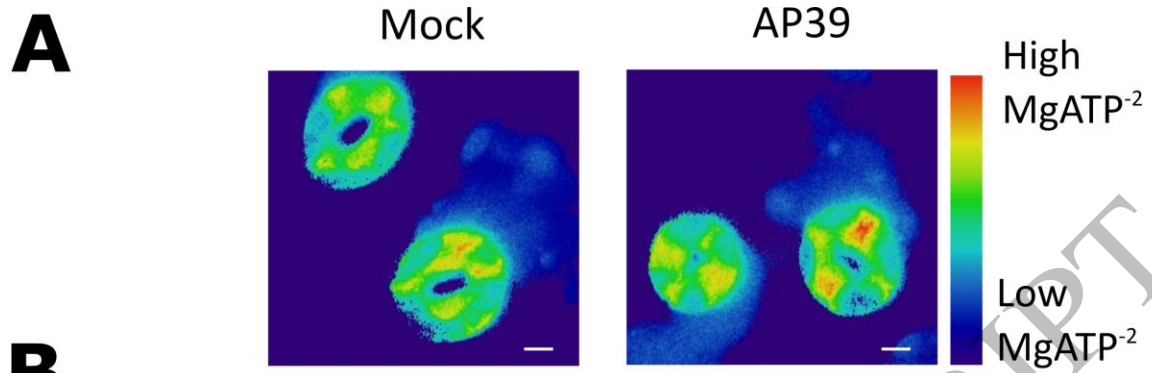


Figure 5
150x178 mm (3.2 x DPI)

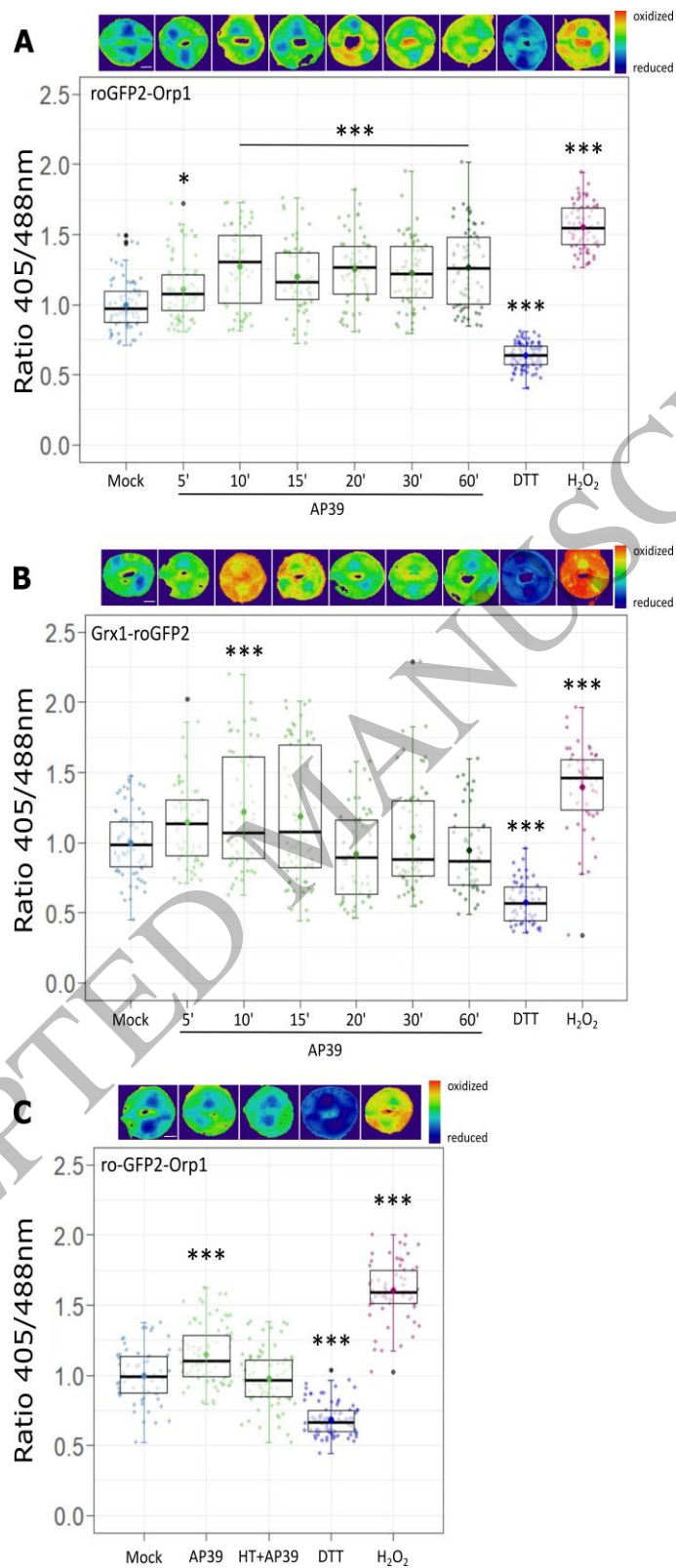


Figure 6
120x247 mm (3.2 x DPI)

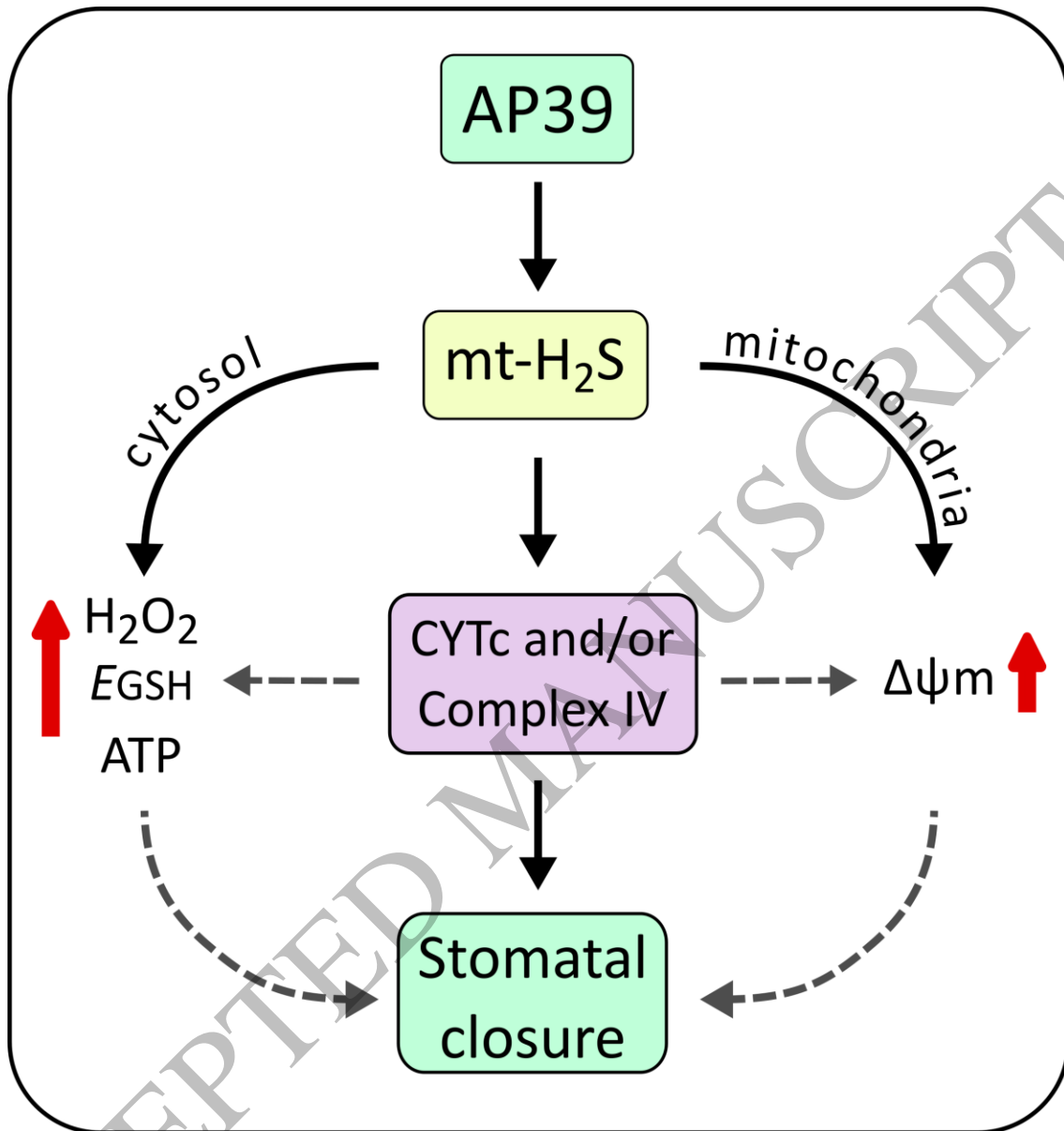


Figure 7
150x159 mm (3.2 x DPI)