

## Biochemical Response Trends of *Macrotyloma uniflorum*, Lam. Subjected to Dehydration Stress in Different Growth Conditions

<sup>1</sup>Khalid Mohammed Naji and <sup>2</sup>V.R. Devaraj

<sup>1</sup>Department of Chemistry, Faculty of science, Sana'a University, Sana'a, Yemen

<sup>2</sup>Department of Biochemistry, Central college campus, Bangalore University, Bangalore 560 001, India

**Abstract:** The mechanism of plant tolerance against dehydration differs according to the growth status of the plant. To understand the similarities and differences in the drought responses of two different growth situations of horse gram, seedlings of normal plants along with regenerated tissue culture were subjected to dehydration stress have been investigated. Enzymatic and non-enzymatic antioxidants of both seedlings behaved similar albeit minor variations. Activity of antioxidant enzymes of both seedlings compared to their controls showed a similar trend. Peroxidase (POX; EC 1.11.1.7), Superoxide dismutase (SOD; EC 1.15.1.1) and Glutathione reductase (GR; EC 1.6.4.2) were elevated. However, Catalase (CAT; EC 1.11.1.6) was reduced in both stressed seedlings. Also the antioxidants levels in both stressed plantlets exhibited 2 folds elevation of ascorbic acid and ~3 folds of GSH, but the elevation of proline was different where it was 6 folds in callus, while normal seedlings increased by 10 times compared to control. Stress markers hydrogen peroxide and thiobarbituric acid reactive substances (TBARS) 2 folds increased, these coincide with higher levels of Peroxidase, reflecting a great damage of membrane in both stressed status. These suggest that horse gram seedlings behave in similar manner even if grown in different conditions and circumstances which confirm their similar biochemical resistance mechanism when exposed to water deficiency stress.

**Abbreviations:** PMSF: phenyl methyl sulphonyl fluoride; SGH: reduced glutathione; ROS: Reactive Oxygen Species; ABA: Abscisic Acid

**Key words:** Antioxidant systems • Oxidative stress • Growth conditions • Tissue culture

### INTRODUCTION

Drought is one of the most important factors contributing to crop yield loss [1]. Drying is generally considered as the removal of water and the process is associated with oxidative stress. Drought stress induces a range of physiological and biochemical responses in plants. These responses include stomatal closure, repression of cell growth, photosynthesis and activation of respiration. Dehydration stress also increases the formation of ROS resulting in lipid peroxidation, denaturation of proteins and nucleic acid damage with severe consequences on overall metabolism [2]. Plants adapt to water deficit at both cellular and molecular levels by accumulation of osmolytes and proteins specifically involved in stress tolerance. When a plant is subjected to

abiotic stress, a number of genes are turned on, resulting in increased levels of several metabolites and proteins, some of which may be responsible for conferring a certain degree of protection against these stresses. To protect against oxidative damage, cells possess defense mechanisms that include enzymes, such as peroxidases, catalases and superoxide dismutase and non-enzymatic antioxidants, such as glutathione (GSH), vitamin C and E. [3, 4].

All species, from bacteria to higher eukaryotes, possess sensors, transducers and regulators that allow them to respond and adapt to changes in water availability. Genes with diverse functions are induced or repressed by these stresses. In the direction of enhancement of stress tolerance, a number of stress responsive genes and their products have been identified

and classified into two groups from *Arabidopsis*, rice and other species. The first group is Functional proteins includes chaperones, late embryogenesis abundant proteins (LEA), osmotin, mRNA-binding proteins, key enzymes for osmolyte biosynthesis, water channel proteins, sugar and proline transporters, detoxification enzymes and various proteases. The second group is regulatory proteins which includes various transcription factors, protein kinases, protein phosphatases, enzymes involved in phospholipid metabolism and other signaling molecules such as calmodulin-binding protein which are involved in further regulation of signal transduction and stress-responsive gene expression [5]. Genetic engineering of the metabolic pathways for production of osmolytes such as proline, glycinebetaine, mannitol, galactinol, fructans, trehalose, raffinose and ononitol have been shown to increase the resistance to drought [6],[7],[8]. Proteins like LEA which is believed to function as chaperone and number of transcription factors and protein kinases have been found useful in engineering drought resistance. 9-*cis*-epoxycarotenoid dioxygenase (NCED), key enzyme in ABA biosynthesis and ABA 8'-hydroxylase, an enzyme that degrades ABA have been implicated in drought resistance by transgenic methods [10][9],[10]. Analysis of ESTs generated under salt stress, drought and ABA application have indicated closer match between ABA and drought (100% of genes induced by drought were induced by ABA) signaling pathways and cross-talk between salt, drought and cold stress [11]. Response of drought stress in ABA mutant of tomato confirmed the relationship between ABA elevation and free amino acids accumulation [12].

Plant cell tissue cultures are very important in the field of plant biotechnology for the development of transgenic plants, for mass propagation and for the biosynthesis of useful components. These plantlets regenerated in tissue culture environment experience a very different environment as opposed to normal plants. Shoots that have grown *in vitro* are continuously exposed to a unique microenvironment that has been selected to provide minimal stress and optimum conditions for plant multiplication. Plantlets are developed within the culture vessels under low level of light, aseptic conditions, on a medium containing ample sugar and nutrients to allow heterotrophic growth in an atmosphere with high level of humidity.

This study aims to investigate the biochemical response of horse gram seedlings, presented in two growth conditions by assessments the levels of antioxidant defense systems including enzymatic and

non-enzymatic antioxidant defense parameters in addition to some metabolites and stress markers after subjecting the normal seedlings and tissue plants to dehydration stress.

## MATERIAL AND METHODS

**Plant and Stress Treatment:** Drought stress in normal plant; Five days old horse gram seedlings were watered every 12 h. They were subjected to drought stress by withholding water continuously for four days until ~70% of the plant dehydrated. Shoots were collected and deep frozen for 1h.

**Drought Stress in Tissue Culture:** Explants of shoot tips were aseptically inoculated on Murashige and Skoog's media [13] with L2 vitamins and leguminous media [14] on solid agar. After the development of sufficient growth, the calli were sub cultured into media containing 10% PEG as a dehydration stress inducer. Well-developed regenerates of (30-35 day old) were used for extraction of enzymes and antioxidants. The regenerates grown in the normal media without PEG served as controls.

**Enzyme Extraction and Antioxidants:** Frozen shoots were homogenized with 50 mM sodium phosphate buffer, pH 7.5 containing 1 mM of PMSF and 5 mM  $\beta$ -mercaptoethanol. The homogenate was centrifuged at 1000 rpm for 20 min. The supernatant was used as source of enzymes, antioxidants and other components. All the steps in the preparation of the enzyme extract were carried out between 0 to 4°C. Soluble protein content was determined by Lowry method [15] and Bovine Serum Albumin was used as standard.

**Determination Of, Ascorbic Acid and Proline:** Ascorbic acid and dehydroascorbic acid contents were estimated according to [16]. Free proline was extracted from 0.5 g of fresh tissue in 3% aqueous sulphosalicylic acid and estimated by ninhydrine method according to [17].

**Estimation of Lipid peroxidation and (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>):** Malondialdehyde (MDA) is the product of Lipid peroxidation and indicates damage of the membrane. MDA was measured by reacts with thiobarbituric acid (TBA) to form MDA-TBA complex called (TBARS) which calculated by reading Absorbance at 532nm correction was done by subtracting the absorbance at 600 nm using Extinction coefficient of 156 mM<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-1</sup> [18]. Hydrogen peroxide content was determined according to the method described in [19].

**Measurements of GSH:** 0.5 g of frozen plant tissue was ground to fine powder and homogenized in 1.0 ml 3% Trichloroacetic acid, (TCA) and centrifuged at 12, 000 rpm for 15 min at 4 °C. Reduced glutathione were determined according to [19].

**Assay of Enzymes:** Catalase (CAT; EC 1.11.1.6): activity was measured by following the decline in  $A_{240}$  nm of  $H_2O_2$  ( $\epsilon = 36 M^{-1}cm^{-1}$ ) [21]. In a reaction mixture containing 20  $\mu$ l of enzyme extract in 50 mM sodium phosphate buffer (pH 7.0). The reaction was started by adding 15 mM of  $H_2O_2$  as a final concentration and its consumption was measured every 15 seconds for 1-2 min at 240 nm.

*Glutathione reductase* was assayed by monitoring the GSSG dependent NADPH oxidation according to method described in [22].

*Guaiacol peroxidase* activity was measured by monitoring the formation of tetra guaiacol at 470 nm ( $\epsilon = 26.6 mM^{-1}cm^{-1}$ ) using  $H_2O_2$  as substrate, One unit of peroxidase is defined as the amount of enzyme that caused the formation of 1 mM of tetra-guaiacol per minute, according to [23]. POX isozymes separated on 9% native acrylamide gels were incubated for 30 minutes in a mixture of *o*-dianisidine HCl with acetate buffer (pH 5.5) at room temperature. Then gels were transferred to 100 mM  $H_2O_2$  until visible bands developed.

*Super oxide dismutase* activity was determined using the photochemical method described in [24] and [25] with little modifications based on measuring its ability to inhibit the photochemical reduction of nitroblue tetrazolium. 3.0 ml reaction mixture contained 50 mM potassium Phosphate buffer (pH 7.8), 13 mM methionine, 75 mM NBT, 2 mM riboflavin, 0.1 mM EDTA and 10 - 150  $\mu$ l enzyme extract. Riboflavin was added at the end. The tubes were shaken and placed 15 cm below 40 -W lamps. The reaction initiated by exposure to light and was

arrested after 15 min by removal of light. The absorbance of the reaction mixture at 560 nm was read against a reaction mixture lacking enzyme, which developed maximum color (control value). One unit of the enzyme is defined as the amount of enzyme which can inhibit the reaction (color development) by 50%.

*Acid phosphatase* (EC 3.1.3.2) activity was estimated using *p*-nitrophenyl phosphate as substrates as mentioned in [26]. Each unit of activity was defined as the number of moles of *p*-nitro phenol released per minute.  $\beta$ -*Amylase* activity was determined according to [27].

**Electrophoretic Analysis:** Non-denaturing, discontinuous slab gel electrophoresis was carried out essentially based on the method described in [28], while SDS-PAGE was performed based on [29], using 10% acrylamide resolving gel and 5 % stacking gel.

**Statistical Analysis:** All data are expressed as means of triplicate experiments unless mentioned otherwise. Comparisons of means were performed using graph Pad prism software. Data were subjected to a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and the mean differences were compared ( $P < 0.05$ ).

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Plant's ability to respond to different environmental cues and adaptation is due to altered expression of genes. When the plants are grown in tissue culture media, they switch their metabolic programs and adapt to new conditions. Horse gram shoot explants were used to regenerate the tissue. The combination of MS media and L2 vitamin mix yielded good shoot growth (Figure 1) the plantlets obtained from tissue culture in addition to native plants were analyzed for their ability to respond to dehydration stress.

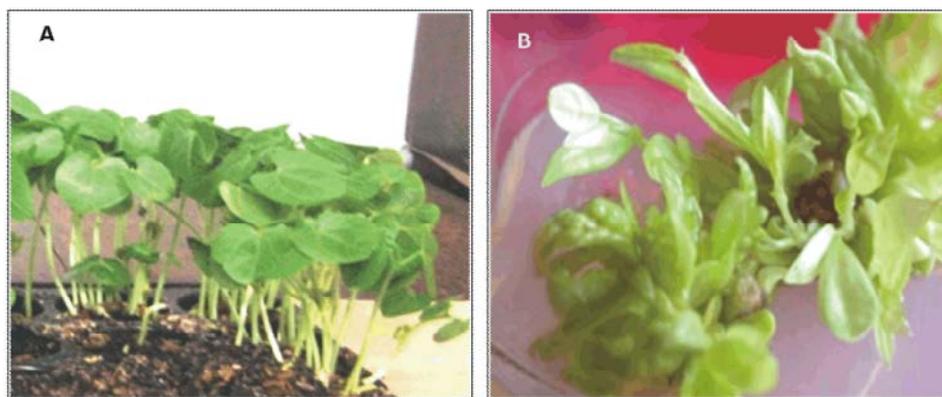


Fig. 1: Seedling of Horse gram (*Macrotyloma uniflorum*); (A) normal germination and (B) regenerated Tissue cultures

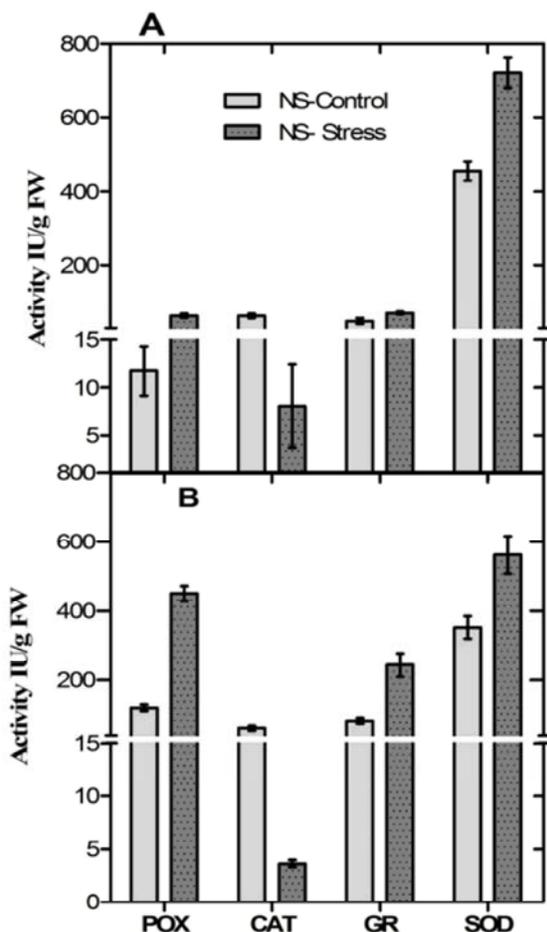


Fig. 2: Levels of antioxidant enzymes activities in Horse gram (A) normal seedlings under drought stress (B) tissue culture plants under dehydration stress induced by 10% PEG. Data plotted are mean  $\pm$  SD of triplicate of two separate replicates. Data analyzed by ANOVA test, ( $P < 0.05$  was considered significant)

The ROS produced during applied stress is efficiently processed by antioxidant enzymes. Considerable elevation in the levels of antioxidant enzymes in both tissue culture and native seedlings indicated that greater degree of stress imposed on the plant and presence of an efficient detoxification system in horse gram.

The levels of antioxidant enzymes in tissue culture and normal seedlings relative to their respective controls showed a similar response trend (Figure 2). Three of the four antioxidant enzymes tested, POX, SOD, GR were elevated under stress in both normal and tissue culture regenerates. Nevertheless the pattern of enzyme bands showed different in POX, new expressed isoform in tissue culture was reported [30]. Similar elevation in the

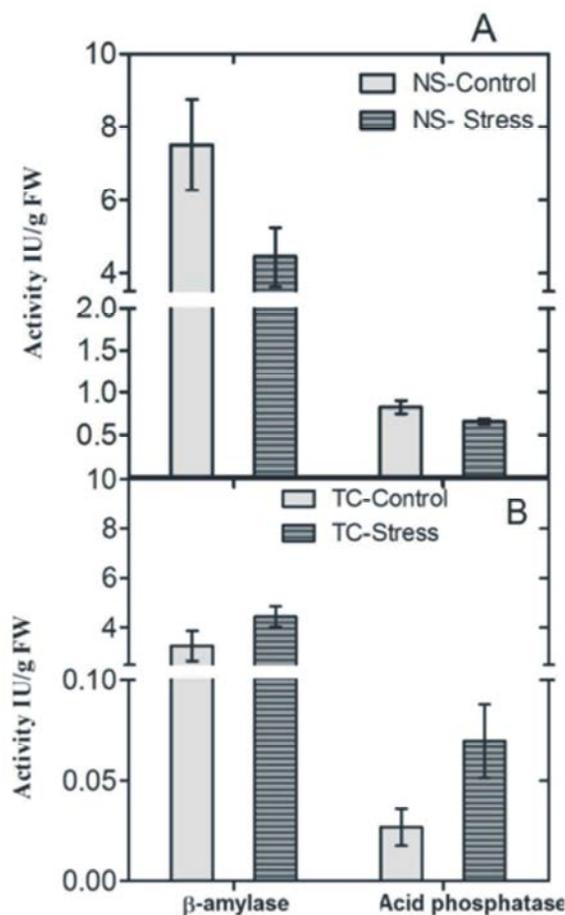


Fig. 3: Activities of metabolite mediated enzymes of Horse gram normal seedling (a) exposed to drought stress and (b) tissue culture exposed to dehydration with 10% PEG. Data were analyzed by one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) test and a  $P < 0.05$  was considered significant.

antioxidant enzymes have been noted in many plants [31]. However, the CAT levels were reduced in both the tissues under applied stress. The patterns obtained from drought for normal plant and tissue culture regenerates is essentially similar (Figure 2.A). However, the patterns of enzyme levels did not match with those obtained during salt stress [32]. This suggested operation of some response mechanism under drought and high temperature stresses. It also suggested that same kind of stress elicitor (dehydration) and transducer of signal are involved in these stresses. However, the two tissues differed in their response to stress in terms of metabolic enzymes amylase and phosphatase (Figure 3). Both enzymes were reduced under drought stress in normal seedlings, whereas elevated in regenerates.

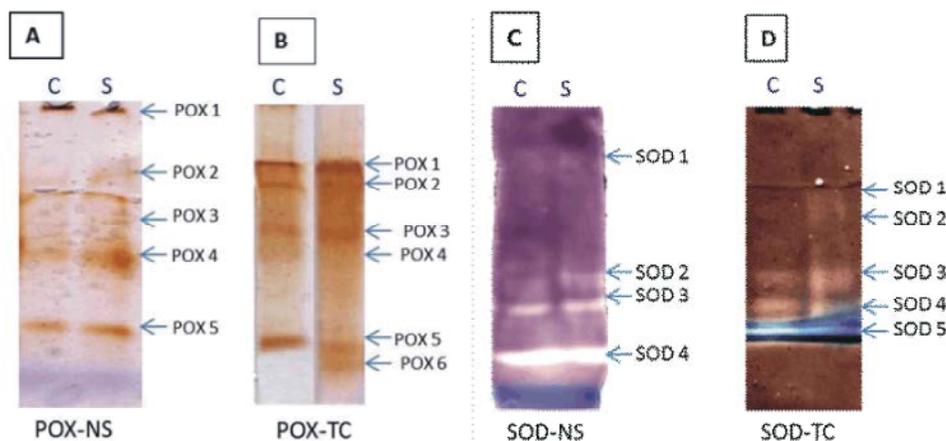


Fig. 4: Zymogram of isoenzyme activity: (A) and (B) for Guaiacol peroxidase; (C) and (D) for SOD. (NS = normal seedling, TC= tissue culture seedling); (C = control, S= stress)

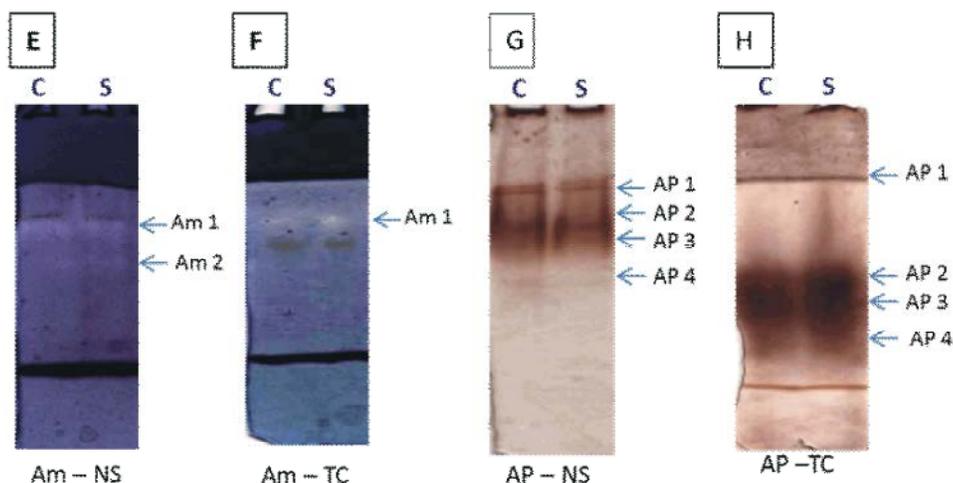


Fig. 5: Zymogram of isoenzyme activity: (E) and (F) for Amylase; (G) and (H) for Acid Phosphatase. (NS = normal seedling, TC= tissue culture seedling); (C = control, S= stress)

The patterns of amylase and phosphatase in drought stress resembled the temperature stress pattern in normal seedling. but The enzyme level pattern in tissue culture regenerates however resembled those obtained for salt stress [32], suggesting the fact that dehydration by PEG and NaCl elicit similar response on metabolic enzymes like amylase and phosphatase [32].

The sequence of events in the plant tissue subjected to drought stress are; increased production of ROS and oxidized target molecules; increase in the expression of genes for antioxidant functions; increases in the levels of antioxidative systems and increased scavenging capacity for ROS, resulting in tolerance against the drought stress [33]. Considering the known roles of each of the antioxidant enzymes it appears that such a sequence is in place in horse gram.

The difference in amylase and phosphatase activities between normal and tissue culture plants could be due to difference in their nutritional/metabolic patterns. The growth of plant under tissue culture condition can also be considered as acclimation to microenvironment. This is also reflected from the SDS-PAGE patterns of the normal and tissue cultured plants, wherein the number of bands in tissue culture regenerates is significantly lower than those in the normal plant tissue (Figure 4B).

Evaluation of stress response in terms of antioxidants and other stress markers indicated greater degree of stress in tissue culture regenerates than normal seedlings. Even though the amount of antioxidants and other parameters were relatively low in tissue culture plantlets than in native seedlings, the difference between the control and stressed tissue culture plantlets was striking.

Table 1: Non-enzymatic antioxidants of normal seedlings and tissue culture of horse gram subjected to drought stress

	Normal seedlings		Tissue cultured seedlings	
	control	stress	control	stress
GSH ( $\mu\text{g/g FW}^*$ )	166.70 $\pm$ 10.60	383.30 $\pm$ 16.28	16.54 $\pm$ 1.30	58.65 $\pm$ 4.14
ASA (mg/g FW)	3.30 $\pm$ 0.52	4.78 $\pm$ 0.67	0.2987 $\pm$ 0.05	0.70 $\pm$ 0.09
Proline ( $\mu\text{g/g FW}$ )	0.95 $\pm$ 0.17	10.81 $\pm$ 1.03	0.11 $\pm$ 0.01	0.60 $\pm$ 0.03

Data are means of three replicates + SE ( $P < 0.05$ )

\*FW= Fresh weight

Table 2: Stress markers in horse gram tissue culture and normal seedlings subjected to drought stress

	Normal seedlings		Tissue cultured seedlings	
	control	stress	control	stress
H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> (mM/g FW)	6.347 $\pm$ 0.93	9.130 $\pm$ 0.78	0.980 $\pm$ 0.10	1.932 $\pm$ 0.04
MDA ( $\mu\text{g/g FW}$ )	0.911 $\pm$ 0.05	1.082 $\pm$ 0.07	0.8387 $\pm$ 0.06	2.072 $\pm$ 0.03
Total Chlorophyll (mg/g FW)	0.642 $\pm$ 0.06	1.040 $\pm$ 0.05	0.6190 $\pm$ 0.05	0.898 $\pm$ 0.03
Total soluble sugar (mg/g FW)	27.371 $\pm$ 1.51	34.03 $\pm$ 1.44	0.6190 $\pm$ 0.05	0.898 $\pm$ 0.03

Data are means of three replicates + SE ( $P < 0.05$ )

\*FW= Fresh weight

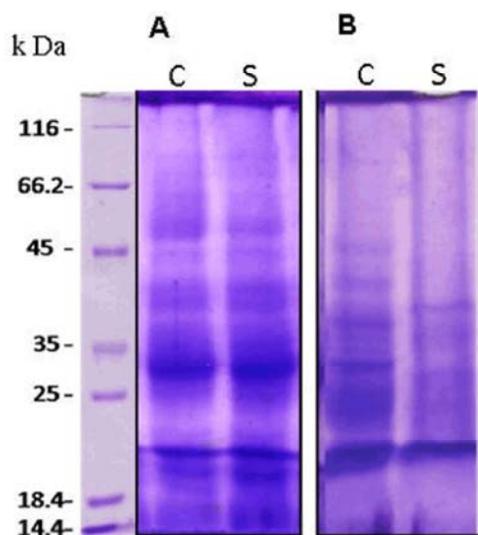


Fig. 6: 10% SDS-PAGE Stained for Proteins with coomassie brilliant Blue R of crude extracts. (A): of Normal seedlings; (B): of tissue culture. (C) = control and (S) = stress

In comparison with the controls tissue culture plantlets, the stressed plantlets had 2-fold increase in H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, MDA and ascorbic acid, ~3-fold increase in GSH and a 6-fold increase in proline. Except the proline, which increased by 10 fold relative to control in native seedlings, the enhancement in other components was not as high as those in tissue culture plantlets (Table 1). The elevated levels of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> in both tissues under stress indicated

induction of POX and its levels in regenerates and native seedlings are in agreement with this. The elevated levels of MDA which indicated a greater level of lipid peroxidation in drought and dehydration stress also coincides with higher levels of POX. Increased lipid peroxidation during water loss was reported under drought in wheat seedling [34], in sunflower [35]. These observations are also in consonance with the levels of SOD in both tissues under stress and induction of a new isoform of SOD in native seedlings (Figure 4.3). Proline accumulation may help the plant to survive short periods of drought and recover from stress. The marked increase in the levels of proline in both seedling indicated operation of an efficient osmotic regulation in both native and tissue cultured plantlets. The same was also noticed in temperature stressed seedlings but not in salt stressed horse gram [32]. Plants respond to drought stress by physiological and biochemical strategies. Anti-oxidative enzymes and osmoregulation are usually considered to be critical factors under water deficient conditions.

It is proposed that soluble sugar, in addition to their storage functions have an important role in controlling cellular metabolism. Soluble sugars can be involved in osmoregulation and can decrease osmotic potential as well as improve stability of soluble protein [36]. The observed increase in the soluble sugars of both horse gram seedlings is in agreement with these generalizations (Table 2). If the repertoires of genomic responses are not sufficient or appropriate, then primary metabolism is

impaired and oxidative stress becomes increasingly important and cell death and senescence response are triggered [37, 38].

The tissue culture regenerated plantlets stressed with dehydration also behaved similar to drought stressed seedlings in terms of antioxidant enzymes and antioxidants albeit minor variations. The tissue culture regenerates were more stressed than the native seedlings. The above results show that horse gram has repertoire to respond to the deficiency of water stress in both growth conditions. However, higher intensities of drought and dehydration may invoke the senescence responses.

### REFERENCES

1. Bai Li-Ping, Fang-Gong, S.U.I., G.E. Ti-Da, S.U.N. Zhao-Hui, L.U. Yin-Yan and Z.H.O.U. Guang-Sheng, 2006. Effect of Soil Drought Stress on Leaf Water Status, Membrane Permeability and Enzymatic Antioxidant System of Maize. *Pedosphere*, 16: 326-332.
2. Hansen, J.M., H. Zhang, D.P. Jones, 2006. Differential oxidation of thioredoxin-1, thioredoxin-2 and glutathione by metal ions. *Free Radic. Biol. Med.*, 40: 138-145
3. Bartels, D. and R. Sunkars, 2005. Drought and salt tolerance in plants. *Critical Reviews in Plant Science* 24: 23-58.
4. Shinozaki, K.Y. and K. Shinozaki, 2005. Organization of cisacting regulatory elements in osmotic- and cold-stress-responsive promoters. *Trends in Plant Science*, 10: 88-94.
5. Shinozaki, K. and K. Yamaguchi-Shinozaki, 2007. Gene networks involved in drought stress response and tolerance. *J. of Exp. Bot.*, 58: 221-227.
6. Mahajan, S. and N. Tuteja, 2005. Cold, salinity and drought stresses: An overview. *Arch. Biochem. Biophys.*, 444: 139-158.
7. Valliyodan, B. and H.T. Nguyen, 2006. Understanding regulatory networks and engineering for enhanced drought tolerance in plants. *Current Opinion in Plant Biology*, 9: 189-195.
8. Mathur, P.B., V. Vadez and K.K. Sharma, 2008. transgenic approach for abiotic tolerance in plants: Retrospect and prospects, *Plant Cell Rep.*, 27: 411-424.
9. Umezawa, T., M. Fujita, Y. Fujita, K. Yamaguchi-Shinozaki and K. Shinozaki, 2006a. Engineering drought tolerance in plants: discovering and tailoring genes unlock the future. *Current Opinion in Biotechnology*, 17: 113-122.
10. Umezawa, T., M. Okamoto, T. Kushiro, E. Nambara, Y. Oono, M. Seki, M. Kobayashi, T. Koshiba, Y. Kamiya and K. Shinozaki, 2006b. CYP707A3, a major ABA 8-hydroxylase involved in dehydration and rehydration response in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. *The Plant J.*, 46: 171-182.
11. Rabbani, M.A., K. Maruyama, H. Abe, M.A. Khan, K. Katsura, Y. Ito, K. Yoshiwara, M. Seki, K. Shinozaki and K. Yamaguchi-Shinozaki, 2003. Monitoring expression profiles of rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) genes under cold, drought and high-salinity stresses and ABA application using both cDNA microarray and RNA gel blot analyses. *Plant Physiology*, 133: 1755-1767.
12. Al-Asbahi, A.A., M.A. Al-Maqtari and K.M. Naji, 2012. ABA biosynthesis defective mutants reduce some free amino acids accumulation under drought stress in tomato leaves in comparison with *Arabidopsis* plants tissues. *Journal of stress physiology and Biochemistry*, 8(2): 179-192.
13. Murashige, T. and F. Skoog, 1962. A revised medium for rapid growth and bioassays with tobacco tissue cultures. *Physiologia Plantarum*, 15: 473-497.
14. Phillips, G.C. and G.B. Collins, 1979. *In vitro* Tissue Culture of Selected Legumes and Plant Regeneration from Callus Cultures of Red Clover. *Crop Sci.*, 19: 59-64.
15. Lowry, O.H., N.J. Rosebrough, A.I. Farr and R.I. Randall, 1951. Protein measurement for the folin phenol reagent. *J. Biol Chem.*, 193: 265-275.
16. Okamura, M., 1980. An improved method for determination of L-ascorbic acid and L-dehydroascorbic acid in blood plasma. *Clin. Chim. Acta*, 103: 259-268.
17. Bates, L.S., R.P. Waldren and I.D. Teare, 1973. Rapid determination of free proline for water-stress studies, *Plant Soil*, 39: 205-207.
18. Madhava Rao, K.V. and T.V.S. Sresty, 2000. Antioxidative parameters in the seedlings of pigeonpea (*Cajanus cajan* L.Millsbaugh) in response to Zn and Ni stresses. *Plant Sci.*, 157: 113-28.
19. Velikova, V., I. Yordanov and A. Edreva, 2000. Oxidative stress and some antioxidant systems in acid rain-treated bean plants. Protective role of exogenous polyamines, *Plant Sci.*, 151: 59-66.
20. Eyer, P. and D. Podhradsky, 1986. Evaluation of the micromethod for determination of glutathione using enzymatic cycling and Ellman's reagent. *Analytical Biochemistry*, 153: 57-66.
21. Aebi, H., 1984. Catalase *in vitro*. *Methods of Enzymology*, 105: 121-126.

22. Edwards, E.A., S. Rawsthorne and P.M. Mullineaux, 1990. Subcellular distribution of multiple forms of glutathione reductase in leaves of pea (*Pisum sativum* L.). *Planta*, 180: 278-284.
23. Chance, M. and A.C. Maehly, 1955. Assay of catalases and peroxidases, *Methods Enzymol.*, 2: 764-817.
24. Beauchamp, C. and I. Fridovich, 1971. Superoxide dismutase: improved assays and an assay applicable to acrylamide gels. *Analyt. Biochem.*, 44: 276-287.
25. Misra, H.P. and I. Fridovich, 1977. Superoxide dismutase: "positive" spectrophotometric assays. *Anal Biochem.*, 70: 553-560.
26. Hoerling, N. and O. Svensmark, 1976. Carboxyl esterase with different substrate specificity in human brain extracts. *J. Neurochem.*, 27: 523-528.
27. Shuster, L. and R.H. Gifford, 1962. Assay of  $\alpha/\beta$  amylases, *Arch. Biochem. Biophys.*, 194: 534-540.
28. Davis, B.J., 1964. Disc gel electrophoresis II, Method and application to human serum proteins, *Ann NY. Acad. Sc.*, 121: 404-427.
29. Laemmli, 1970. Cleavage of structural proteins during the assembly of the head of bacteriophage T4, *Nature*, 227: 680-685.
30. Naji, K.M. and V.R. Devaraj, 2009. Partial Purification and Characterization of Newly Expressed Guaiacol Peroxidase from Dehydrated Seedlings of Horse Gram (*Macrotyloma Uniflorum*) Tissue Culture. *Faculty of Science Bulletin Sana'a University*, 22(1): 39-48.
31. Almeselmani, M., P.S. Deshmukh, R.K. Sairam, S.R. Kushwaha and T.P. Singh, 2006. Protective role of antioxidant enzymes under high temperature stress. *Plant Science*, 171: 382-388.
32. Naji, K.M. and V.R. Devaraj, 2011. Antioxidant and other biochemical defense responses of *Macrotyloma uniflorum* (Lam.) Verdc. (Horse gram) induced by high temperature and salt stress. *Braz. J. Plant Physiol.*, 23(3): 187-195.
33. Mano, N., F. Mao and A. Heller, 2002. A miniature bio-fuel cell operating in a physiological buffer, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 124: 12962-3.
34. Selote, D.S., S. Bharti and R. Khanna-Chopra, 2004. Drought acclimation reduces O<sub>2</sub> accumulation and lipid peroxidation in wheat seedlings. *Biochemical and Biophysical Research Communications*, 314: 724-729.
35. França, M.B., A.D. Panek and E.C.A. Eleutherio, 2007. Oxidative stress and its effects during dehydration. *Comparative Biochemistry and Physiology*, 146: 621-631.
36. Tan, Y., Z. Liang, H. Shao and F. Du, 2006. affect of water deficits on the activity of anti-oxidative enzymes and osmoregulation among three different genotypes of *Radix Astragali* at seeding stage *Colloids and Surfaces B: Biointerfaces*, 49: 60-65.
37. Shao, H.B., Z.S. Liang and M.A. Shao, 2005. Change of anti-oxidative enzymes and MDA among 10 wheat genotypes at maturation stage under soil water deficits. *Colloid Surf. B Biointerf.*, 45: 7-13.
38. Shao, H.B., L.Y. Chu, Z.H. Lu and C.M. Kang, 2008. Primary antioxidant free radical scavenging and redox signaling pathways in higher plant cells. *Int. J. Biol. Sci.*, 4: 8-14.