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Molecular hydrogen in agriculture

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Short title: Hydrogen in agriculture

29 **Main conclusion**

30 H₂ gas, usually in the form of H₂-saturated water, could play a useful role in improving many aspects of
31 plant growth and productivity, including resistance to stress tolerance and improved post-harvest durability.
32 Therefore molecular hydrogen delivery systems should be considered as a valuable addition within
33 agricultural practice.

34 **Abstract**

35 Agriculture and food security are both impacted by plant stresses, whether that is directly from human
36 impact or through climate change. A continuously increasing human population and rising food consumption
37 means that there is need to search for agricultural useful and environmentally friendly strategies to ensure
38 future food security. Molecular hydrogen (H₂) research has gained momentum in plant and agricultural
39 science owing to its multifaceted and diverse roles in plants. H₂ application can mitigate against a range of
40 stresses, including salinity, heavy metals and drought. Therefore, knowing how endogenous, or
41 exogenously applied, H₂ enhances the growth and tolerance against numerous plant stresses will enhance
42 our understanding of how H₂ may be useful for future to agriculture and horticulture. In this review, recent
43 progress and future implication of H₂ in agriculture is highlighted, focusing on how H₂ impacts on plant cell
44 function and how it can be applied for better plant performance. Although the exact molecular action of H₂
45 in plants remains elusive, this safe and easy to apply treatment should have a future in agricultural practice.

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47 **Keywords:** abiotic stresses; heavy metals, hydrogen rich water; oxidative stress, salinity

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54 **Introduction**

55 Plants are often grown in sub-optimal conditions, and plant stress has a significant adverse effect
56 on global agriculture. Therefore, future food security will be dependent on better plant growth and higher
57 productivity, especially as the human population expands and the demand for food increases (Molotoks et
58 al. 2021). It has been shown that climate change-driven abiotic stresses causes a loss of food productivity,
59 compromising the future of food security, with the cost of lost produce estimated to be more than US\$170
60 billion per annum on a global scale (Razzaq et al. 2021). A challenge is to develop easy and cheap
61 solutions that mitigate against plant stress and lead to better agricultural outputs, enhancing plant growth
62 and productivity.

63 Hydrogen is the most abundant and lightest chemical element, constituting ~75% of the mass of
64 the universe. At standard pressure and temperature, hydrogen gas (H₂) is highly flammable, colourless,
65 tasteless and odourless. Atomic hydrogen (H) is rare in the Earth's atmosphere and hydrogen is more
66 typically found as a diatomic molecule (H₂) that is electrochemically neutral and non-polar, which has
67 previously been thought of as a relatively physiologically inert molecule (Zeng et al., 2014). H₂ emission
68 from plant tissues was reported many years ago. Recently, H₂ has been found to play vital roles in
69 biomedical fields, where it has been described as having anti-apoptotic, and anti-oxidant effects (Russell
70 et al. 2020). Furthermore, the metabolism of H₂ in different organisms including bacteria, green algae, and
71 higher plants, has also been widely reported (Renwick et al. 1964; Melis and Happe 2001; Bothe et al.
72 2010; Russell et al. 2020). Although the production of H₂ in higher plants remains somewhat unclear
73 (Russell et al. 2020), a growing understanding of its physical and bio-regulatory roles hydrogen gas has
74 recently gained attention in both plant and animal research. H₂ is becoming recognised as an integral
75 signaling molecule that is likely to have influential roles in a broad array of adaptive and developmental
76 responses. In plants, H₂ is known to combine a regulatory role in the control of gene expression and in
77 signal transduction, mediating the management of numerous stress responses (Cui et al. 2020; Wang et
78 al. 2020a,b), including cold stress (Xu et al. 2017), metal stress (Zhao et al. 2017; Wu et al. 2019; Wu et al.
79 2020a; Cui et al. 2020; Fan et al. 2020), UV stress (Xie et al. 2015; Zhang et al. 2018), high light stress

80 (Zhang et al. 2015), and salinity stress (Xie et al. 2012; Wu et al. 2020b). Therefore, a greater understanding
81 of how H₂ acts in cells, and how it leads to better stress tolerance will be important for its future use.

82

83 **Biological generation of H₂ in plants**

84 Plant cells may be exposed to H₂ in different ways, either via endogenous production or by being applied
85 exogenously. Endogenous production of H₂ occurs via the activity of hydrogenase enzymes (Vignais et al.
86 2001; Russell et al. 2020) ((FeFe)-hydrogenases) or nitrogenase enzymes (**Fig 1**). The metallo-protein
87 complexes possess the potential of generating or removing H₂ via catalysing both forward and backwards
88 reactions. The presence of phytohormones such as auxin, abscisic acid, jasmonate and ethylene can
89 enhance endogenous production of H₂ in plants (Lin et al. 2014; Liu et al. 2016; Cao et al., 2017). To
90 illustrate, Legume-rhizobia contributes to H₂ generation inside root nodules during biological nitrogen
91 fixation process as an obligate by-product of the nitrogen fixing enzyme nitrogenase (Golding and Dong
92 2010). In this process of H₂ production, H₂ comes out of the root nodules leading to elevation of H₂ around
93 the root surface (Porte et al. 2020). Increases in H₂ in the rhizosphere leads to beneficial impacts for
94 subsequent plant growth resulting in 15–48% biomass increase in plants, a phenomenon termed as the
95 hydrogen fertilization effect (Dong et al. 2003). Furthermore, H₂ production is also increased when plants
96 are exposed to abiotic stress conditions such as drought and salt stress, suggesting this particular
97 gasotransmitter may be important in stress signaling (Zeng et al. 2013).

98 **H₂ delivery to plants**

99 Although H₂ treatments to economically important crops are reported to have beneficial impacts in both
100 yield and quality (Hu et al. 2021), H₂ is a gas and so is not easy to administer. As a gas, H₂ is lighter than
101 air, therefore under field conditions it is not pragmatic to apply in gaseous form. Furthermore, H₂ is highly
102 explosive and is therefore not suitable to use at any significant concentrations due to safety and storage
103 issues.

104 A more practical approach is the use of saturated forms of H₂ such as hydrogen rich water (HRW) (**Fig 2**).
105 This can be used to apply H₂ directly onto plants, as used by Wu et al. (2020a). Briefly, HRW is prepared

106 by pumping/bubbling H₂ into distilled water (or watering media) following H₂ gas production by hydrogen or
107 oxy-hydrogen generators. Subsequently, this HRW can be diluted to make desired concentration for
108 treatments. Other methods of HRW production include the mixing of magnesium-based tablets in the water,
109 although these will leave behind by-products in the media. HRW can then be applied in spray form or as a
110 soil drench to agricultural crop plants. If plants or plant cells are being grown in hydroponics or culture
111 media, H₂ can be bubbled directly into the media. However, it needs to be borne in mind that H₂ is not very
112 soluble (Wilhelm et al., 1977) and will readily diffuse into the atmosphere where, H₂ will be lost from the
113 environment of the plant and can potentially build up to flammable levels if ventilation is limited, in laboratory
114 conditions for example.

115 H₂ can be useful as a treatment for post-harvest storage. Here, fresh produce can be easily dipped,
116 sprayed or misted with HRW. Moreover, under storage conditions the use of H₂ in gas form is also possible.
117 Safety measures, again, are necessary on the use of large scale HRW or H₂ in gaseous form. HRW
118 application has been shown to improve the vase life and quality of cut rose and lily flowers by decreasing
119 leaf stomatal size and reducing oxidative damage by elevating ROS scavenging antioxidants such as
120 ascorbate peroxidase (APX), superoxide dismutase (SOD), catalase (CAT) and peroxidase (POD) while
121 reducing malondialdehyde (MDA) and electrolyte leakage (Ren et al. 2017).

122 The use of H₂ gas and HRW are relatively easy but not without problems, as discussed above. The future
123 of H₂ in agriculture will need to look to more advanced solutions if the gas is to be widely used. Advances
124 in development of solid hydrogen-storage materials may offer ways to improve the production and storage
125 of H₂. When considering safety, sustainable hydrogen supply of solid-state storage, portable, and large
126 hydrogen contents (Hirscher et al. 2020). Magnesium hydride (MgH₂) is also a promising low cost,
127 abundantly available donor (Grochala and Edwards 2004), showing potential to be used as a H₂ source
128 material in agriculture (Li et al. 2020a). Another potential method of H₂ delivery to agriculture is the use of
129 nanotechnology that provides the opportunity for sustained delivery of H₂ via using hydrogen-releasing
130 nanomaterials such as nanocapsule (AB@hMSN) by encapsulating ammonia borane (AB) into hollow
131 mesoporous silica nanoparticles (hMSN) (Wang et al. 2021). In addition, the use of loaded hydrogen
132 nanomaterials has the advantage of increased residence time in liquids such as water (Wang et al. 2021).

133 However, the release of by-products into the environment has to be considered before adopting any new
134 technologies. In this regard, future studies should focus on the use of nanomaterial-based hydrogen release
135 and their impacts on crops.

136

137 **Physiological effects**

138 **Effect of H₂ on leaf stomata**

139 Water uptake and transpiration are vital for plant growth and survival, but at the same time, climate change
140 is leading to increased uncertainty of water availability for plants, with expanding areas of drought leading
141 to declined agricultural output in some regions (Cook et al. 2018). On the other hand, other regions will be
142 at more risk from flooding, a major climate-related calamity (Hirabayashi et al. 2013). Hydrogen treatment
143 can mitigate drought stress (Zeng et al. 2013; Hancock and Russell 2021), whilst hydrogen is also known
144 to be released from flooded soils (Piché-Choquette and Constant 2019), and therefore the role of H₂ in
145 controlling the plants transpiration stream will be important to understand.

146 Stomata are tiny holes present on the aerial plant surfaces, especially the leaves that play vital role in
147 regulating gas exchange rate and transpiration rates and are crucial for plant growth and survival. Studies
148 have demonstrated that H₂ may have a crucial role in regulation of stomatal aperture via interaction with
149 phytohormones (Liu et al. 2016). For example, in *A. thaliana* grown under drought stress conditions HRW
150 application enhanced endogenous H₂ production, along with reduction in stomatal aperture, leading to
151 drought tolerance (Xie et al. 2014). Zhang et al. (2020) tested the introgression of a *Chlamydomonas*
152 *reinhardtii* hydrogenase gene (*CrHYD1*) for H₂ biosynthesis in *Arabidopsis thaliana* and demonstrated that
153 increased H₂ resulted in closure of stomata under osmotic stress leading to osmotic stress tolerance. From
154 these examples, it is clear that H₂ has a critical role in maintaining the stomatal closure particularly under
155 drought/osmotic stress conditions, although the mechanism and pathways involved have yet to be fully
156 delineated.

157 Drought is a major abiotic stress/challenge affecting agriculture productivity worldwide. Drought stress
158 negatively affects physiological and biochemical mechanisms, and ultimately leads to plant growth

159 reduction and diminishing agricultural productivity (Abideen et al. 2020; Zulfiqar et al. 2021). Chen et al.
160 (2017b) reported that carbon monoxide and hydrogen gas (HRW as a source) co-ordinately improved
161 growth, particularly during root formation, as well as other important traits such as chlorophyll content,
162 relative water content and chlorophyll fluorescence characteristics, under drought-stress conditions.
163 Furthermore, these compounds jointly increased the activities of SOD, POD, CAT, APX, proteins, water
164 soluble carbohydrate, and proline content (also an antioxidant). These factors alleviated the drought
165 induced oxidative stress, evidenced by decreases in hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2), thiobarbituric acid reactive
166 substances (TBARS), and superoxide radical ($O_2^{\cdot-}$) levels (Chen et al. 2017b). Moreover, exogenous H_2
167 (HRW) efficiently can lead to regulation of the stomatal aperture resulting in improved drought stress
168 tolerance (Xie et al. 2014), as mentioned above. Jin et al. (2016) also demonstrated that under drought
169 stress condition, H_2 promptly increased H_2O_2 signaling and altered the apoplastic pH of alfalfa leaves by
170 influencing an abscisic acid (ABA)-based mechanism. The evidence, therefore, points to H_2 -based
171 treatment as being a useful adjunct for enhanced of drought tolerance in the future (Table 1).

172 **Effect of H_2 on root development**

173 The development of a good root system for the uptake of water and nutrients, as well as to ground the
174 plants at its location, is vital for optimal plant growth and productivity. H_2 has been found to be influential in
175 root growth (Lin et al. 2014; Zhu et al. 2016; Wu et al. 2020b).

176 Studies have demonstrated that H_2 -induced root development is related to its influence on the endogenous
177 level of plant hormones. In a recent study, Wu et al. (2020b) reported that HRW-treated mung bean
178 seedlings enhanced the endogenous level of indole acetic acid (IAA) and gibberellic acid (GA_3) resulting in
179 enhanced hypocotyl and root length. Augmentation of the endogenous levels of phytohormones is
180 evidenced by up-regulation of related genes (Lin et al. 2014). Reports show that HRW seed treatment could
181 induce phytohormone signalling pathways in response to environmental stresses (Zeng et al., 2013; Liu et
182 al., 2016). In cucumber explants, Zhu et al. (2016) also demonstrated that the adventitious rooting-related
183 target genes were upregulated in response to hydrogen-rich water (HRW). Additionally, it was found that
184 HRW treatment upregulated the expression of cell cycle-related genes including A type cyclin (*CycA*), B
185 type cyclin (*CycB*), cyclin-dependent kinase A (*CDKA*) and cyclin-dependent kinase B (*CDKB*) during

186 adventitious rooting (Zhu et al. 2016). Similar to other accepted gasotransmitters such as NO, the
187 endogenous regulatory functions of H₂ can be imitated through the exogenous treatment with hydrogen-
188 based products/compounds.

189 The interaction of H₂ with other gaseous signals, such as nitric oxide (NO) and hydrogen sulfide (H₂S), is
190 important to understand, as they may be working together or antagonistically. It was recently reported that
191 NO is involved in the H₂-induced root formation (Li et al. 2020a). The combination of these gaseous
192 molecules effectively regulates gene expression of plasma membrane H⁺-ATPase and 14-3-3 proteins,
193 which are integral for the proper growth, development and response to stresses. H₂ has also been reported
194 to play a role in root formation via interacting with the NO and haemoxygenase-1/carbon monoxide
195 pathways in plants (Lin et al. 2014; Zhu et al. 2016).

196 An alternative study of adventitious rooting describes H₂ as regulating target genes related to auxin
197 signaling and root development such as *CsDNAJ-1*, *CsCPDK1/5*, *CsCDC6*, *CsAUX228-like*, and
198 *CsAUX22D-like* through CO pathways. Such results confirm that H₂ promotes rooting by increasing the
199 content of NO and the activities of NO synthase-like enzymes and nitrate reductase (Zhu et al. 2016). H₂
200 was also shown to activate the cell cycle and up-regulate cell cycle-related and rooting-related genes via
201 the NO pathway (Zhu et al. 2016). Therefore, it is likely H₂ has a vital role in root formation through the
202 interaction with endogenous plant signaling molecules, and their related downstream target genes.

203 **Effect of H₂ on pre- and post-harvest senescence**

204 The distance between food production sites and subsequent consumption sites is going to significantly
205 increase due to continuous shift of population towards urban areas, a factor that becomes of increasing
206 importance when considering the international distribution of food. Post-harvest losses in the supply chain
207 of fresh horticulture commodities ahead of arrival to the consumer are estimated to be between 13–38%
208 (Duan et al. 2020). The high market value of cut flowers in international markets compels major increases
209 in the production of floricultural crops globally, particularly in developing countries, generating billions of
210 US-dollars economically through worldwide trade and industry (Chandler and Brugliera 2011). Thus,
211 minimizing post-harvest losses during storage and transportation, whilst also retaining the quality standard,
212 is a great challenge for industries in pursuit of financial success. Therefore, further research in this area is

213 needed if enhancing the post-harvest life of horticultural and floricultural produce and consequently
214 reducing post-harvest losses is to be realised.

215 Of particular importance to the horticulture industries are the studies which describe the application of H₂
216 as enhancing the post-harvest longevity of variable crops (Su et al. 2019a; Li et al. 2020b). H₂ application
217 has been reported to enhance the post-harvest life of many commodities including fruits, vegetables and
218 floriculture crops (**Fig 3**). For instance, Hu et al. (2021) demonstrated that pre-harvest HRW treatment to
219 daylily flowers not only enhanced the daily yield of budding flowers, but also reduce the chilling injury
220 induced by elevated ROS levels and membrane oxidation. Whilst, HRW treated daylily buds generate less
221 browning in storage conditions (Hu et al. 2021).

222 Treatment with HRW also improved the ornamental and aesthetics traits and enhanced the vase life rose
223 (*Rosa hybrid*) and cut lily (*Lilium spp.*) flowers (Ren et al. 2017). Here, H₂ maintained membrane stability
224 and water balance, whilst enhancing antioxidant activities and reducing oxidative damage and stomata size
225 (Ren et al. 2017). It is generally observed that H₂ content decreases during senescence and therefore
226 improving endogenous H₂ level during the senescence process might decrease the deterioration of produce
227 (Hu et al., 2018). To illustrate, Su et al. (2019a) demonstrated that altering endogenous H₂, by applying
228 exogenous HRW, can extend vase life of lisianthus cut flowers by retaining redox homeostasis through
229 enhancing endogenous antioxidant potential. Moreover, H₂ is reported to improve vase quality and extend
230 the life of cut roses by inhibiting endogenous ethylene biosynthesis and mitigating ethylene signal
231 transduction during senescence (Wang et al. 2020a). Recently, Li et al. (2020b) used magnesium hydride
232 (MgH₂) as a source of H₂ in the vase solution, evaluating its role in prolonging the vase life of cut carnation
233 flowers. An increase in H₂-induced H₂S was observed along with enhancement in the longevity of cut
234 flowers via H₂S signaling, re-establishing redox homeostasis and decreasing the transcripts of
235 representative senescence-associated genes, including *DcbGal* and *DcGST1* (Li et al. (2020b). A
236 proteomic study revealed that HRW and NO (from sodium nitroprusside) application improved the post-
237 harvest freshness of cut lilies, possibly via AtpA protein and activity of ATPase, as well as through regulating
238 photosynthesis and describes the positive role of NO signaling in the H₂-induced enhancement in post-
239 harvest of cut flowers (Huo et al. 2018).

240 As well as flowers, H₂ treatment of fruit can also be beneficial. It has been reported that H₂ can make a
241 significant impact in the post-harvest preservation of kiwifruit (Hu et al. 2014). Here, H₂ treatment delayed
242 ripening and senescence via constraining the respiration intensity, lowering the incidence of rot, decreasing
243 lipid peroxidation levels and enhancing SOD activity, post-harvest. Furthermore, H₂ treatment was shown
244 to prolong the post-harvest life of kiwifruit via restricting endogenous ethylene (Hu et al., 2018), a gaseous
245 plant hormone known to be instrumental in the ripening process (Wei et al. 2021).

246 In tomato, during post-harvest treatment, H₂ was shown to not only reduce senescence and extend post-
247 harvest life, but also to reduce the nitrite content, a substance that is harmful to human health (Zhang et al.
248 2019). In the edible mushroom *Hypsizygus marmoreus*, H₂ application in the form of HRW during post-
249 harvest, improved quality through decreasing oxidative stress, depicted by lowered relative electrolyte
250 leakage rate and MDA content and anti-superoxide-radical (O₂⁻) activity (Chen et al. 2017a). The
251 application of H₂ concertedly enhanced the activities of antioxidants including SOD, CAT, APX and
252 glutathione reductase (GR) through inducing their gene expression levels (Chen et al., 2017b). Together,
253 these reports (Chen et al., 2017a; Hu et al., 2018) demonstrate that H₂ is able to reduce endogenous
254 ethylene production and prolong the longevity and shelf life of floriculture and horticulture crops by
255 augmenting antioxidant activities and suppressing ethylene biosynthesis genes. However, further research
256 is needed to ascertain the specific treatment regimens of H₂ that will be effective for individual species and
257 genotypes of plants, particularly as phytotoxic reactions are highly variable between individual horticultural
258 commodities. The authors suggest for floral longevity treatment of HRW as a vase solution, while for fruits
259 and vegetables, fumigation at different intervals may be beneficial. As well as molecular hydrogen, other
260 important signalling molecules such as hydrogen sulphide (H₂S) have been proposed as the post-harvest
261 treatment in horticulture (Zulfiqar and Hancock 2020), although toxicity needs to be considered for their
262 use, which does not seem to be an issue for H₂.

263 **Seed germination**

264 Seed priming is a process used to enhance seed germination, a process which inevitably leads to various
265 desirable traits such as enhanced photosynthesis and tolerance to abiotic stresses (Zulfiqar 2021).

266 There are numerous seed priming methods available and many researchers have described the use of
267 both chemical and non-chemical compounds effective for boosting seed germination, with varied responses
268 being reported (Zulfiqar 2021). Importantly H₂ has also shown its potential as a seed priming agent. For
269 example, Xu et al. (2013) demonstrated that HRW treatment to rice improved seed germination under salt
270 stress condition, with the authors reporting activation of α/β -amylase activity resulting in the accelerated
271 formation of reducing sugar and total soluble sugar content. Here, HRW treatment was also noted to trigger
272 elevated antioxidant enzyme activity (SOD, CAT, APX) and decreases in oxidative stress markers
273 (thiobarbituric acid reactive substances) (Xu et al. 2013).

274

275 **H₂ and abiotic stress tolerance in plants**

276 **Metal stress can be alleviated with H₂**

277 Plants depend on soil to acquire nutrients for their proper growth and development, although soils are often
278 contaminated through anthropogenic activity (Okereafore et al. 2020). Increasing contamination of
279 productive land has become a great concern for agriculture productivity (Okereafore et al. 2020). Productive
280 soils can gain metal pollutants via solid or liquid fuel burning, industrial effluents, mining activities, sewage
281 waste disposal, urban runoff, agrochemicals runoff and domestic garbage disposal in rivers and canals, for
282 example (Hou et al. 2020). Few (potentially toxic) heavy metals including Cu, Co, Fe, Ni, Se, and Zn are
283 vital elements for plants, but these are known to become toxic as soon as their excess accumulation occurs
284 in soil solution. Accordingly, non-essential elements including arsenate (As), cadmium (Cd), and caesium
285 (Cs) can threaten crop productivity should they accumulate in the soil, even in minute amounts (Okereafore
286 et al. 2020).

287 Soil contamination with toxic heavy metals increases subsequent uptake in plants and their accumulation
288 in plant tissues not only causes lowered crop productivity, but there is a concomitant risk to animal and
289 human health (Couto et al. 2018). At the cellular level, elevated quantities of heavy metals can impose
290 damage through numerous mechanisms. The most common of these is the production of reactive oxygen
291 species (ROS) that can induce oxidative stress, although other consequences include inactivation of

292 biomolecules through displacement of essential metal ions, or blocking essential functional groups, have
293 also been described (Stohs and Bagchi 1995). ROS at normal physiological levels play an essential role in
294 plant physiology (Hasanuzzaman et al. 2020), however enhanced generation disrupts homeostatic cellular
295 functions (Jalmi et al. 2018), through oxidation of vital biomolecules including DNA, RNA, lipids, proteins
296 and enzymes etc. (Dumanović et al. 2020). Fan et al. (2020) described that H₂ application alleviates the Cu
297 toxicity in *Daphnia magna* by depressing Cu bioaccumulation and decreasing oxidative stress.

298 Redox active transition metals such as Fe and Cu, can generate ROS directly through redox reactions, as
299 with the Fenton Reaction, for example; in contrast, other metals like Pb, Cd, Ni, Al, Mn, and Zn generate
300 ROS by indirect mechanisms. The indirect mechanisms of ROS production include heightened ROS
301 production within the mitochondria, stimulation of ROS-producing enzymes such as NADPH oxidases, or
302 by displacing essential cations from the binding sites of functional enzymes and inhibiting their activities
303 (Shahid et al. 2014; Stork and Li 2016).

304 Existing literature reveals positive influences of H₂ on alleviating metal accrued stress (**Fig 4**). In cucumber,
305 under cadmium stress, HRW has been demonstrated to promote adventitious rooting and reduce the
306 content of deleterious compounds such as hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂), MDA, superoxide radical (O₂⁻) and
307 thiobarbituric acid reactive substances (TBARS), all of which are indicators of oxidative stress (Wang et al
308 2019). Furthermore, decreases in ascorbic acid (AsA), glutathione (GSH), lipoxygenase (LOX) activity,
309 relative electrical conductivity (REC), AsA/docosahexaenoic acid (DHA) ratio, and GSH/oxidized
310 glutathione (GSSG) ratio were observed as well, indicating a reduction in stress-associated biomarker
311 activity. Concomitant increases in beneficial biomolecules GSSG and DHA, content under cadmium stress
312 were also noted (Wang et al. 2019), evidencing that H₂ possesses the ability to induce adventitious rooting
313 under Cd stress by decreasing oxidative damage. In alfalfa seedlings, application of HRW alleviated the
314 mercury (Hg) toxicity reducing adverse effects of stunted growth as a result of Hg accumulation, through
315 avoiding oxidative stress and maintaining redox homeostasis (Cui et al. 2014). HRW has also been
316 demonstrated to regulate genetic expression related to glutathione and sulfur metabolism. Here, increased
317 GSH (a key antioxidant that regulates the intracellular redox state of the cell) (Schafer and Buettner, 2001)
318 metabolism resulted in enhanced Cd tolerance via Cd chelation and activating antioxidation pathways (Cui

319 et al. 2020). An earlier proteomics study revealed that H₂ (HRW) eliminated cadmium toxicity through
320 various mechanisms including altering genetic expression related to the reduction of oxidative damage,
321 maintaining nutrient balance and by enhancing sulfur compound metabolism (Dai et al. 2017).

322 H₂ application is also reported to lower uptake of heavy metals and hence reduce toxicity in multiple plant
323 species. For example, a study of the cadmium accumulation in Pak choi (*Brassica chinensis*) (Wu et al.
324 2019) observed that HRW applications repress the expression of cadmium absorption transporters (*BcIRT1*
325 and *BcZIP2*) on exposure to increased Cd concentrations. It has also been reported that H₂ application
326 mitigates the toxic effects of cadmium in *Brassica campestris* by upregulating the expression and ultimately
327 the activity of nitrate reductase (NR) (Su et al. 2019b). Here, pre-treatment with HRW induced lower ROS,
328 enhanced AsA content, increased activity of POD and SOD in seedling roots. Proteomic analysis revealed
329 altered proteins related to antioxidants and oxidation-reduction processes in response to HRW treatment.
330 Furthermore, mitigation of cadmium stress in *Brassica campestris*, through H₂ application was dependent
331 on endogenous NO (Su et al. 2019b). A supporting study (Wu et al. 2015) reported alleviation of cadmium
332 (Cd) toxicity in Chinese cabbage (*Brassica campestris* spp. *chinensis* L.). Molecular evidence showed that
333 Cd-induced up-regulation of iron-regulated transporter1 (*IRT1*) and natural resistance associated
334 macrophage protein genes, responsible for Cd absorption, was blocked, while expression of the *HMA3*
335 gene, responsible for Cd sequestration into the root vacuoles, was substantially improved by HRW.
336 Furthermore, it was demonstrated that the Cd-protective effect related to H₂ may be associated with its
337 control of plasma membrane-based NADPH oxidase encoded by respiratory burst oxidase homolog D
338 (*RbohD*), which activates upstream of *IRT1* and adjusts root Cd uptake at both the functional and
339 transcriptional levels (Wu et al. 2020a). Chen et al. (2014) reported improvement in the aluminium induced
340 inhibition of root growth through decreasing the endogenous NO level in alfalfa (Chen et al., 2014).

341 Work such as this shows that there is potential for H₂-based treatments to be used to mitigate against metal
342 stresses, which may be seen in the future as increased anthropogenic activities and associated climate
343 changes become more significant (Table 1).

344 **Salinity stress**

345 Salinity stress is a major environmental constraint globally. About 45 million hectares of productive, irrigated
346 land have been estimated to be affected by salinity stress worldwide. This figure is increasing day-by-day
347 (Munns and Tester 2008) largely due to climate change, especially in coastal areas (Hadley 2009). Salinity
348 negatively affects plant productivity by causing imbalance in cellular osmotic and ionic equilibria. Major
349 hostile effects of salinity include increased osmotic stress, specific ion toxicity, nutrient-acquisition and
350 homeostasis/deficiencies, increased cell-turgor loss, and stress induced increased ROS causing oxidative
351 stress (Flowers, 2004; Munns and Tester 2008). The role of H₂ in improving salinity stress tolerance has
352 been reported in many crops including *Hordeum vulgare* (Wu et al. 2020c), *Oryza sativa* (Xu et al. 2013) and
353 *Medicago sativa* (Wang et al. 2012).

354 Exogenous HRW application on *Hordeum vulgare* under salinity stress showed that H₂ increased the rate of
355 Na⁺ extrusion from roots, a mechanism mediated by salt-overly-sensitive SOS1-like Na⁺/H⁺ exchangers in
356 the root epidermis. Furthermore, H₂ application enhanced root K⁺ retention by preventing NaCl-induced
357 membrane depolarization and reducing sensitivity of K⁺ efflux channels to ROS, as detected by
358 electrophysiological studies using non-invasive ion flux measuring MIFE techniques (Wu et al. 2020c). It
359 has also been reported that endogenous H₂ levels are enhanced in response to salt stress where H₂ pre-
360 treatment of *A. thaliana* modulated genes/proteins of the zinc-finger transcription factor ZAT10/12 and
361 related antioxidant defence enzymes, resulting in reduction of oxidative stress (Xie et al., 2012). Here, H₂
362 pre-treatment was noted to regulate ion homeostasis by regulating the H⁺ pump and antiporters responsible
363 for Na⁺ exclusion and compartmentalization. The same study suggested that APX genes such as *cAPX1*,
364 and Salt Overly Sensitive1 (SOS1) protein gene, *SOS1*, might be the target genes of H₂ signaling (Xie et
365 al. 2012). H₂ may also enhance total, isozymatic activities or corresponding transcripts of antioxidant
366 enzymes, and reduced oxidative damage under salt stress during rice seed germination (Xu et al. 2013).
367 More recently, a study on the role of *CrHYD1* transgenic *A. thaliana* under salinity stress reported that
368 enhanced endogenous H₂ regulated the redox and ion homeostasis via interaction with melatonin (Su et
369 al. 2021). It is clear, therefore, that the generation and accumulation of H₂ has an influence on stress-
370 induced signaling pathways that can help mitigate the effects of high salt (Table 1), a factor which may
371 become more significant as salinity continues to have an impact in the future (Munns and Tester, 2008).

372 **UV and high light stress**

373 Ultraviolet (UV) radiation of 280–400 nm is a minute portion of the solar energy that is able to modulate
374 plant physiology upon reaching the terrestrial ecosystems (Paul and Gwynn-Jones 2003). Under open field
375 conditions, plants are exposed to direct excess UV radiation, which can affect plant vitality and defence
376 responses. Exposure to UV triggers alterations in fundamental cellular processes including production of
377 ROS, DNA repair mechanisms and by causing damage to cellular structures (Jenkins 2009; Hideg et al.
378 2013; Li et al. 2013). Plants use their natural defence systems comprising of various antioxidant proteins
379 and peptides, and osmoprotectants, to counteract the negative impact of ROS as a result of abiotic stresses
380 (Zulfiqar and Ashraf 2021; Zulfiqar et al. 2020). Studies have demonstrated that H₂ application can induce
381 tolerance to UV stress through modulation in the antioxidant defence system in plants (Xie et al. 2015;
382 Zhang et al. 2015). HRW has been shown to confer tolerance to UVB-induced oxidative damage partially
383 through the manipulation of (iso) flavonoid metabolism in *Medicago sativa* L. (Xie et al. 2015). Whilst
384 studying the impact of light stress on maize seedlings, it was observed that HRW treated plants showed
385 great tolerance to photo-oxidation by maintaining high levels of antioxidant activities, including SOD, CAT,
386 APX, and GR (Zhang et al. 2015).

387 HRW significantly blocked UVA-induced accumulation of H₂O₂ and O₂⁻ and increased anthocyanin
388 production (Su et al. 2014). Interestingly, it has been demonstrated that incremental inositol 1,4,5-
389 trisphosphate/calcium (InsP₃-dependent cytosolic Ca²⁺) contributes to H₂-promoted anthocyanin
390 biosynthesis under UVA irradiation in radish sprouts (Zhang et al. 2018).

391 **Genetic approach**

392 Modern breeding tools can enhance the development of new and refined cultivars which demonstrate
393 higher tolerance toward environmental stresses, thereby achieving productivity goals within the agricultural
394 and horticultural food industries. Classic breeding programs are time consuming and laborious, with very
395 little success in developing desired traits in the intended crop, however with the advancement in molecular
396 biology technology and improved techniques, promising opportunities are on the way to develop new
397 cultivars inserted with the specific genes including osmolyte genes for abiotic stress resistance (Zulfiqar et
398 al. 2020). Regarding H₂, genetic studies have revealed introgression of H₂-related genes into plants can

399 enhance abiotic stress tolerance. For instance, the physiological roles of H₂ biosynthesis via expressing
400 hydrogenase1 gene (*CrHYD1*) in *A. thaliana* demonstrates a contributing link among osmotic tolerance,
401 endogenous H₂ level, and *CrHYD1* expression in transgenic lines (Zhang et al. 2020). However,
402 introgression of *CrHYD1* from *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* enhanced the salinity tolerance through
403 enhancing endogenous production of H₂ and melatonin, depicting the crucial role of H₂ in response to
404 salinity (Su et al. 2020). Results from such studies strongly suggest that future research should also focus
405 on H₂-based genetic improvements of crops to further understand the role of H₂ in enhancing the stress
406 tolerance in plants.

407 **Possible mechanisms behind H₂ responses**

408 The evidence from numerous studies, as discussed above, suggests that H₂ has a profound, and positive
409 effect on the growth of plants, and their tolerance to stress; be that heavy metals (Cui et al. 2014; Dai et al.
410 2017; Wang et al. 2019), or salinity (Wang et al. 2012; Wu et al. 2020c; Xu et al. 2013). However, the
411 molecular basis of these effects is far from certain. It is unlikely that H₂ is perceived by a classical receptor-
412 type mechanism, as it is so small. It is also relatively inert, so reactions with thiol groups, as seen with other
413 reactive biological gases including H₂O₂ (Ulrich et al. 2019), H₂S (Kumar et al. 2021) and NO (Gupta et al.
414 2020), are unlikely.

415 Many empirical investigations (Xu et al. 2013; Ren et al. 2017; Chen et al. 2017b) report beneficial
416 effects of H₂ on antioxidant levels in cells, but how this is brought about is also unclear. It has been reported
417 that H₂ can scavenge both hydroxyl radicals ($\cdot\text{OH}$) and peroxynitrite (ONOO^-) (Ohsawa et al. 2007),
418 although this has been brought into doubt when the reaction kinetics of H₂ and these distinct molecules
419 were considered (Penders et al. 2014). It appears, therefore, that the direct scavenging of such reactive
420 signaling molecules by H₂ can be ruled out. Hancock et al. (2021) have suggested that as the mid-point
421 potential of the H₂ couple is -414 mV (relative to a Standard Hydrogen Electrode (SHE)), that iron ions,
422 specifically Fe³⁺, may be the target. If this is the case, many significant and relevant heme prosthetic groups
423 could be targets, including those in mitochondria, chloroplasts and the respiratory burst oxidase
424 homologues (RBOHs) (Hancock et al. 2021). This would lead to the reduction of Fe³⁺ to Fe²⁺, altering the
425 activity of such heme-based enzymes, potentially account for some of the effects seen. Furthermore, Fe³⁺

426 has a role in hydroxyl radical formation (Fong et al. 1976) whilst Fe^{2+} has been shown to have pro-oxidant
427 activity (Mozuraityte et al. 2006). The molecular basis of H_2 action in cells has recently been reviewed
428 (Hancock and Russell 2021; Hancock et al. 2021).

429 Due to the physical characteristics of molecular hydrogen, an alternative mechanism of action may be
430 through the spin states of H_2 . The H_2 molecule can exist in two states, that is, para and ortho spin states
431 (Shagam et al. 2015). It has been of the posited (Hancock and Hancock 2019) that this may allow an
432 interaction with other signaling molecules in cells, such as NO. However, to date, there is no evidence that
433 this is the case and is another aspect of hydrogen chemistry that is worthy of further investigation.

434 Finally, another mechanism of H_2 action may be through the alteration of the expression and/or activity of
435 the enzyme haem oxygenase (HO-1). This enzyme aids in catabolism of haem (Wilks 2002). H_2 is reported
436 to enhance the abiotic stress tolerance and adventitious root development via the modulation of HO-1 gene
437 expression, a Nrf-2 regulated gene, that has key role in preventing both hypoxia and vascular inflammation
438 through enhancing antioxidant, antiapoptotic, antiproliferative and immunomodulatory pathways in animals,
439 and is likely to have a similar effect in plants (Kapitulnik et al. 2012). HO-1 may be part of vital signalling
440 systems involved in the response to cellular stress in plants (Jin et al. 2013; Lin et al. 2014) and therefore
441 its role in mediating H_2 effects would seem appropriate.

442 Although research findings are demonstrating the positive influence of H_2 usage in agriculture to manage
443 the stress conditions, still much more work needs to be carried out as it is very unclear how H_2 actually
444 works in the cell and what exactly the molecular targets are. This needs to be a focus for H_2 -based research
445 moving forward.

446

447 **Conclusions and future perspectives**

448 As a result of abiotic stresses, plants generally demonstrate retarded growth responses. Such stresses are
449 only likely to be exacerbated by increased human activity and climate change. Therefore, mitigating
450 treatments which are easy and safe to use would be of significance for future sustainable food security. H_2
451 application in the form of HRW has been suggested as such a beneficial remedy in agriculture. H_2 has been

452 shown to mitigate against a range of abiotic stresses, including heavy metal tolerance (Dai et al. 2017; Wu
453 et al. 2019; Wang et al. 2019; Dumanović et al. 2020; Fan et al. 2020; Cui et al. 2020), increased salinity
454 (Wang et al. 2012; Xu et al. 2013; Wu et al. 2020c; Su et al. 2021) and UV exposure (Xie et al. 2015; Zhang
455 et al. 2015; Su et al. 2014), as well as improving the post-harvest storage of flowers and fruits.

456 However, there are a few caveats which need to be the focus of future research. H₂ treatment is not always
457 easy to use, with HRW being the most obvious and easiest, but the loss of H₂ from the liquid phase to the
458 atmosphere will limit the longevity of such treatments and require regular administration. Using H₂ in the
459 gaseous form is both dangerous (owing to flammability) and time limited as it would easily escape ground
460 level atmospheres. Due to the modernity of molecular hydrogen research, most of the studies related to H₂
461 intervention for abiotic stress-induced negative impacts on crop plants are laboratory based and yield
462 evaluations have not been completed, especially under field conditions where the severity of these stresses
463 is more prevalent. Therefore the cost–benefit analysis of the viability of H₂ applications within industry, to
464 both crop or produce, at pre-harvest and post-harvest stage respectively, should also be considered in
465 future studies.

466 H₂ research for agriculture and horticulture is at its infancy stage and currently production costs are
467 relatively high. For instance, green hydrogen production (by electrolysis) can range between \$1.25 and
468 \$10.90 per Kg dependent on the generation method used (Calise et al. 2019). However, H₂ is likely to
469 become cost effective as it is adopted by other industries, for example within the transport and energy
470 sectors. Within agriculture and horticulture various possibilities could be evaluated to reduce labor cost for
471 H₂ application. In this regard, H₂ application via irrigation systems such as drip irrigation could be an
472 alternative to reduce labor costs and ensure uniform application. Therefore, the future progress in H₂-based
473 mitigation of abiotic stresses and post-harvest benefits are totally reliant on the cost-effective technology of
474 H₂ production and H₂ delivery on an agricultural scale, which is likely to be more attractive in the future.

475 In conclusion, H₂ treatments can be beneficial in many stages of agriculture, from seed germination (Xu et
476 al. 2013), root growth (Lin et al. 2014; Zhu et al. 2016; Wu et al. 2020b), post-harvest storage (Jiang et al.
477 2021). Current and growing research literature supports the evidence that H₂ has positive effects on plants
478 and appears to have no harmful biological effects. Future work on H₂ treatments and a comprehensive

479 understanding of the molecular basis of how H₂ interacts in physiological systems are paramount and will
480 require further research investment if this natural and effective compound is to be utilized to enhance food
481 production on a commercial basis.

482

483

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733 **Figure legends:**

734 Figure 1. Abiotic Stresses - Highlights the potential causes of abiotic stress, with a focus on the particular
735 vulnerability of commercial crops. Cellular effects of abiotic stress include elevation of ionic, osmotic
736 and oxidative stress indicators that, if exposed for prolonged periods of time, can lead to reduced
737 growth potential. H₂ Application and Stress Relief – Suggests possible application methods of
738 molecular hydrogen and illustrates the positive cellular effects attributed to enhanced levels of
739 cellular H₂, and how these can relate to increased growth potential.

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741 Figure 2. Illustrates the known cellular effects of H₂ enrichment inferred from evidence delineated across
742 both plants and animal species. From top left, running clockwise - The increase in activity of

743 transcription factor (Nrf2) and downstream enzymes with anti-inflammatory properties (e.g. HO-1).
744 Inhibition of multiple signalling pathways that activate the stress response (e.g. p38/MAPK) are
745 detailed. The altered gene-expression profile described in the nucleus (Increased anti-oxidant
746 profile, CAT, SOD e.g./Reduced pro-inflammatory profile NFkB e.g.). The reduction in oxidative
747 degeneration to DNA and lipid membranes is also described. Furthermore, the reduced activity of
748 caspase c, and resulting decline in apoptosis. Additionally, increased adenosine triphosphate
749 (ATP) production and improved membrane potential of the mitochondria have been detailed.
750 Finally, enhanced photosynthesis and energy metabolism is also shown. Thiobarbituric acid
751 reactive substances (TBARS), MDA, lipoxygenases (LOX), ascorbic acid (AsA), gibberellic acid
752 (GA₃), indole acetic acid (IAA), glutathione (GSH), Heme Oxygenase 1 (HO-1), hydroxyl group
753 ([•]OH), peroxynitrite (ONOO⁻), (created in BioRender.com)

754 Figure 3. Demonstrates the possible methods of treating horticultural produce for enhancing post-harvest
755 longevity.

756 Figure 4. Depicts the possible mechanisms of H₂ during photosynthesis, describing the reduction of
757 electrophilic ROS/RNS and the reversible activity of Fe-Fe hydrogenases. The cellular excess
758 hydrogen produced in this manner is also hypothesised to enhance salubrious H₂-oxidising
759 bacteria. (created in BioRender.com)

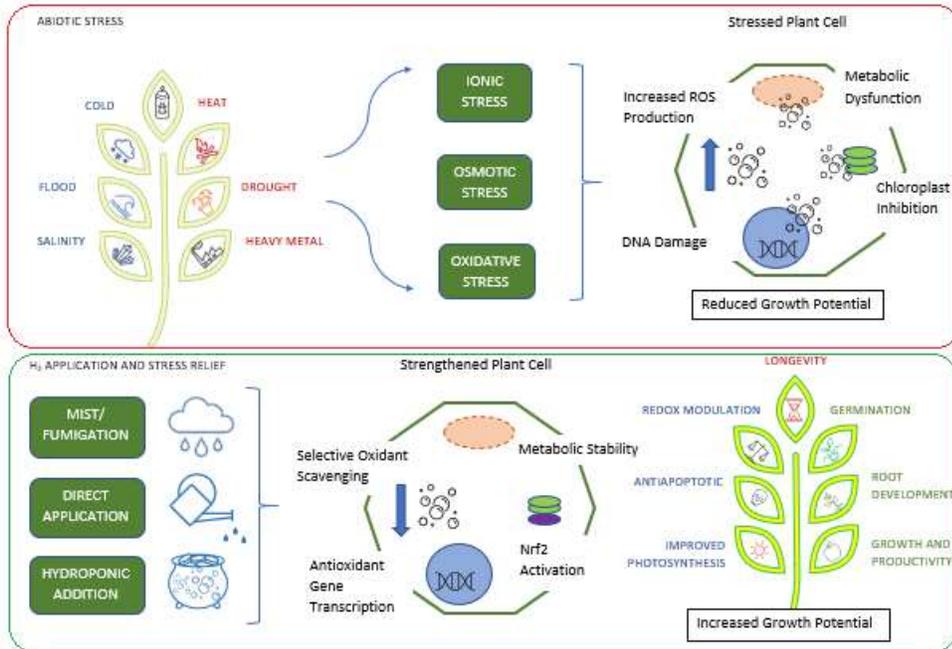
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Table 1. Role of H₂ applied as HRW against different climate change induced abiotic stresses in plants

Scientific name (plant)	Stress	Concentration used of H ₂	Function	Referen
Alfalfa (<i>Medicago sativa</i>)	Mercury	1, 10, and 50% [v/v]	Decreased TBARS and oxidative stress; improved growth and biomass; modulated total and isozymatic antioxidant enzyme activities, re-established GSH and AsA homeostasis as well as genes relating to their expression	Cui et al.
Cucumber (<i>Cucumis sativus</i>)	Cadmium	50%	Recovered metal stress-induced decrease in adventitious roots growth; reduced oxidative stress; regulated ascorbate-glutathione cycle	Wang et al. (201)
Alfalfa (<i>M. sativa</i>)	Cadmium	10%	Enhanced the level of genes related to sulfur metabolism; improved glutathione metabolism; alleviation of Cd toxicity, achieved through heightened ABC transporter-mediated secretion.	Cui et al.
Pak choi (<i>Brassica chinensis</i>)	Cadmium	50%	Decreased Cd uptake via inhibiting the expression of <i>BcIRT1</i> and <i>BcZIP2</i> genes related to metal transporters	Wu et al.
Barley (<i>Hordeum vulgare</i>)	Salt	830 μM	Alleviated detrimental impacts of salinity; maintained a higher rate of Na ⁺ extrusion mediated by SOS1-like Na ⁺ /H ⁺ exchanger in the root epidermis; prevented NaCl-induced membrane depolarization and reduced sensitivity of K ⁺ efflux channels to ROS	Wu et al.
Arabidopsis (<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>)	Salt	10, 25, 50, and 75% [v/v]	Increased endogenous H ₂ concentration; improved growth; modulated antioxidant defence enzymes; maintained ion homeostasis by regulating the antiporters and H ⁺ pump responsible for Na ⁺ exclusion	Xie et al.
Rice (<i>Oryza sativa</i>)	Salt	1, 5, 25, and 50 % [v/v]	Improved germination and seedling growth; activated α/β-amylase activity accelerating formation of reducing sugar and total soluble sugar. Enhanced total, isozymatic activities or corresponding transcripts of antioxidant enzymes, including superoxide dismutase, catalase, and ascorbate peroxidase.	Xu et al.
Alfalfa (<i>M. sativa</i>)	Drought	Irrigated with or without 50 % HRW	Exhibited more tolerance to drought stress via increased ABA activity.	Jin et al.
Arabidopsis (<i>A. thaliana</i>)	Drought	25%, 50%, and 75% [v/v]	Increased intracellular H ₂ production and reduced stomatal aperture	Xie et al.
Cucumber (<i>C. Sativus</i>)	Drought	10, 30, and 50% [v/v]	Promoted development of adventitious roots; improved drought tolerance via enhancing endogenous antioxidant activities	Chen et al. (201)

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