

# Priming Effect of Exogenous ABA on Heat Stress Tolerance in Rice Seedlings is Associated with the Upregulation of Antioxidative Defense Capability and Heat Shock-Related Genes

Xiaolong Liu (✉ [lxl032202@163.com](mailto:lxl032202@163.com))

Yichun University <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0572-4580>

Ping Ji

Yichun University

Hongtao Yang

Yichun University

Changjie Jiang

Institute of agrobiological science, NARO

Zhengwei Liang

Northeast Institute of Geography and Agroecology Chinese Academy of Sciences

Qizhou Chen

Yichun University

Fang Lu

Yichun University

Xin Chen

Yichun University

Yunyun Yang

Yichun University

Xiaobo Zhang

Yichun University

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## Research Article

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1 **Priming effect of exogenous ABA on heat stress tolerance in rice seedlings is**  
2 **associated with the upregulation of antioxidative defense capability and heat**  
3 **shock-related genes**

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5 Running title: ABA improved ROS-scavenging capability

6

7 Xiaolong Liu<sup>1\*</sup>, Ping Ji<sup>1</sup>, Hongtao Yang<sup>1</sup>, Changjie Jiang<sup>2</sup>, Zhengwei Liang<sup>3</sup>, Qizhou  
8 Chen<sup>1</sup>, Fang Lu<sup>1</sup>, Xin Chen<sup>1</sup>, Yunyun Yang<sup>1</sup>, Xiaobo Zhang<sup>1</sup>

9

10 <sup>1</sup>College of Life Sciences and Resources and Environment, Yichun University, Yichun,  
11 Jiangxi, 336000, China

12 <sup>2</sup>Institute of Agrobiological Sciences, NARO, Kannondai 2-1-2, Tsukuba, 305-8602,  
13 Japan

14 <sup>3</sup>Northeast Institute of Geography and Agroecology, Chinese Academy of Sciences,  
15 Changchun, Jilin, 130102, China

16

17

18

19 \* Correspondence author:

20 Xiaolong Liu: [lx1032202@163.com](mailto:lx1032202@163.com)

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22

23 **Abstract**

24 Heat stress is a major restrictive factor that suppresses rice production. In this study,  
25 we investigated the potential priming effect of exogenous abscisic acid (ABA) on heat  
26 tolerance in rice seedlings. Seedlings were pretreated with 10  $\mu$ M ABA by root  
27 drenching for 24 h and then subjected to heat stress conditions of 40 °C day/35 °C  
28 night. ABA pretreatment significantly decreased leaf withering by 2.5–28.5% and  
29 chlorophyll loss by 12.8–35.1% induced by heat stress in rice seedlings. ABA  
30 application also mitigated cell injury, as shown by lower malondialdehyde (MDA)  
31 content, membrane injury and expression of cell death-related genes *OsKOD1*,  
32 *OsCPI* and *OsNAC4*, while expression of *OsBII*, a cell death-suppressor gene, was  
33 upregulated by ABA pretreatment. Moreover, ABA pretreatment improved antioxidant  
34 defense capacity, as shown by an obvious upregulation of ROS-scavenging genes and  
35 a decrease in ROS content ( $O_2^-$  and  $H_2O_2$ ) and downregulation of the *OsRbohs* gene.  
36 The application of fluridone, an ABA biosynthesis inhibitor, increased membrane  
37 injury and the accumulation of ROS under heat stress. Exogenous potent antioxidants  
38 (proanthocyanidins, PC) significantly alleviated leaf withering by decreasing ROS  
39 overaccumulation and membrane injury induced by heat stress. In addition, ABA  
40 pretreatment significantly superinduced the expression of ABA-responsive genes *Salt*  
41 and *OsWsi18*, the ABA biosynthesis genes *OsNCED3* and *OsNCED4*, and the heat  
42 shock-related genes *OsHSP23.7*, *OsHSP17.7*, *OsHSF7* and *OsHsfA2a*. Taken  
43 together, these results suggest that exogenous ABA has a potential priming effect for  
44 enhancing heat stress tolerance of rice seedlings mainly by improving antioxidant  
45 defense capacity and heat shock-related genes.

46 **Key words** Abscisic acid (ABA); Antioxidative defense; Heat stress; Priming; Rice  
47 (*Oryza sativa* L.)

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51 **Abbreviations**

52	ABA	Abscisic acid
53	H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	Hydrogen peroxide
54	HS	Heat stress
55	HSP	Heat-shock proteins
56	HSF	Heat-shock factor
57	MDA	Malondialdehyde
58	MI	Membrane injury
59	O <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup>	Superoxide anions
60	PC	Proantho Cyanidins
61	qRT-PCR	Quantitative real-time PCR
62	ROS	Reactive oxygen species
63	RBOH	Respiratory Burst Oxidase Homolog
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## 68 Introduction

69 Global warming has become a severe ecological and environmental problem that has  
70 been observed due to the development of industry and population growth. Heat stress  
71 is caused by an extremely high temperature or by a lasting threshold of high-  
72 temperature weather, which has resulted from global warming (Quint et al. 2016; Xu et  
73 al. 2018). Heat stress results in serious threat to crop production worldwide, and the  
74 yields of wheat, rice, and maize were decreased by 6.0%, 3.2% and 7.4%, respectively,  
75 due to a 1°C increase in the mean temperature (Zhao et al. 2017; Janni et al. 2020). Rice  
76 (*Oryza sativa* L.) is a staple food for most of the world's population. China is a largest  
77 rice production country, and the main growing temperature in the growing season of  
78 rice occurs during the annual long hot summer season (Shi et al. 2015). Rice production  
79 during this time suffers from heat stress, which directly inhibits the survival and  
80 transplanting of late rice, as well as the heading, flowering and grain-filling of early  
81 rice (Yang et al. 2020). Previous research has shown that widespread extreme high-  
82 temperature events of consecutive 40 °C days caused a 30% yield loss in the rice  
83 planting area of Southeast China (Tao et al. 2007). Furthermore, heat stress results in a  
84 significant decrease in grain yield, total milled rice yield, head rice yield, and total  
85 milling revenue with the increasing average growing temperature (Lyman et al. 2013).  
86 Thus, the demand of an expanding population under the current situation of global  
87 warming remains a huge challenge for food production.

88 The effect of heat stress on rice production occurs during the entire growth stage.  
89 The germination of rice seeds was suppressed by growth temperatures  $\geq 35$  °C, as  
90 shown by a significant decrease in the germination rate and growth in buds (Yang et al.  
91 2021), and the suppressive effect was evidenced by the overaccumulation of ROS in  
92 buds (Yang et al. 2021). The optimal temperature of rice seedlings ranges from 22 °C  
93 to 28 °C, while the growth of rice seedlings is severely inhibited under growth  
94 conditions of  $\geq 35$  °C (Soda et al. 2018). Heat stress results in withering, browning,  
95 abnormalities and water loss of rice leaves, suppresses the growth of seedlings and roots,  
96 and causes complete wilting of rice plants (Liu et al. 2016; Kilasi et al. 2018; Li et al.  
97 2020). Heat stress suppresses photosynthetic efficiency by decreasing chlorophyll  
98 content, disturbing the combination of chlorophyll-protein complexes and damaging  
99 the photosystem structure (Yang et al. 2013; Fan et al. 2017). In addition, heat stress  
100 causes excess accumulation of reactive oxygen species (ROS), which results in severe  
101 damage to the membrane and cell death (Zhao et al. 2017). Rice plants are more

102 sensitive to heat stress at the reproductive and grain-filling stages. Heat stress results in  
103 the degradation of flowering florets, abortion of pollen and devitalization of pollen  
104 viability of rice at the booting stage, which leads to a reduction in filled spikelets and a  
105 decrease in the maturation rate (Coast et al. 2016; Fu et al. 2016; Zhang et al. 2018).  
106 Heat stress suppresses the grain-filling rate in rice at the grain-filling stage, as shown  
107 by the decrease in activity of the starch branching enzyme, which impedes the  
108 assimilation of photosynthate into starch in rice grains (Kaneko et al. 2016; Zhang et al.  
109 2016, 2018; Wang et al. 2019). Thus, it is indeed necessary to explore an effective  
110 pathway for the improvement of heat tolerance in rice in the key growth period.

111 Plants generate and accumulate ROS such as superoxide anions ( $O_2^-$ ) and  
112 hydrogen peroxide ( $H_2O_2$ ) under various environmental stress conditions, such as  
113 drought, salinity, alkalinity and extreme temperature (Choudhury et al. 2017). These  
114 ROS molecules play an important role in the regulation of development and adaptation  
115 to the environment (Mittler 2017). However, excess accumulation of ROS causes  
116 oxidative stress in plants, which results in severe damage to the plant cellular membrane,  
117 RNA, DNA and proteins (Sewelam et al. 2016). We previously reported that  
118 overaccumulation of ROS in rice roots is a main limiting factor in cell damage and plant  
119 growth inhibition in rice seedlings under alkaline stress conditions (Zhang et al. 2017).  
120 ROS accumulation is an important harmful pathway in the physiological effects of heat  
121 stress on plants (Xu et al. 2021). Heat stress causes a remarkable upregulation of  
122 *respiratory burst oxidase homolog* (RBOH) genes and an accumulation of ROS in rice  
123 seedlings, and excessive ROS levels disturb the balance of ROS production and  
124 scavenging, which further results in membrane lipid peroxidation, cell damage, changes  
125 in a series of antioxidant enzymes, and even plant death (Liu et al. 2019). Previous  
126 studies have shown that excessive accumulation of ROS induced by heat stress causes  
127 the decline of pollen viability, spikelet fertility and grain chalkiness in rice plants at  
128 reproductive and grain-filling stages, indicating that ROS level is involved in the  
129 regulation of yield formation of rice under heat stress condition (Suriyasak et al. 2017;  
130 Zhao et al. 2017), and enhancing the antioxidative defense capacity promotes anther  
131 development and yield formation under heat stress conditions (Dwivedi et al. 2019).  
132 Therefore, studies on the improvement of rice tolerance to various stress factors by  
133 reducing oxidative stress induced by overaccumulation of ROS are still required for  
134 further insight and will provide a potential useful pathway in rice field production in  
135 the future (Kerchev et al. 2015).

136 The phytohormone abscisic acid (ABA) plays an important role in the regulation  
137 of plant growth and adaptive to various stress factors (Ye et al. 2012; Sah et al. 2016;  
138 Dar et al. 2017). One important pathway of ABA action is exerting the priming effect  
139 to plants in stress tolerance (Savvides et al. 2016; Vishwakarma et al. 2017), which  
140 confer the potential enhanced ability to mount defense responses to impending stress  
141 factors (Pastor et al. 2013; Aranega-Bou et al. 2014). The priming effect of ABA has  
142 been demonstrated as shown by rice seeds or seedlings pretreated with ABA improved  
143 plants survival, growth and grain yield in saline stress conditions (Li et al. 2010;  
144 Gurmani et al. 2011, 2013). Wei previously reported that exogenous ABA primes rice  
145 seedlings for enhanced tolerance to alkali stress and improved plant growth and grain  
146 yield in saline-alkaline paddy field (Wei et al. 2015, 2017). Further analysis on the  
147 underlying mechanism of ABA priming showed that ABA priming potentiated to  
148 improve the downstream antioxidant defense capacity and stress tolerance-related gene  
149 expression for an increased adaptive response to alkaline stress (Liu et al. 2019).

150 ABA also functions in crops response to heat stress and plays a vital role in crop  
151 production under climate warming condition (Suzuki et al. 2016; Li et al. 2021).  
152 Application of exogenous ABA improves plant heat tolerance as shown by keeping  
153 water balance, regulating stomatal conductance and the regulation of gene expression,  
154 like the heat-shock proteins (HSP) (An et al. 2014; Liu et al. 2014; Lei et al. 2015).  
155 Additional, ABA also functions in the regulation of rice in the reproductive and grain-  
156 filling stage (Islam et al. 2018; Li et al. 2021). The ROS signal pathway plays an  
157 important role in plant response to environmental stress and excess accumulation  
158 induced by various stress factors result in membrane injury, root damage and even the  
159 death of plants (Zhang et al. 2017; Qiu et al. 2019). ABA confers to regulate ROS levels  
160 in plants response to environmental stress factors (Wang et al. 2013; Liu et al. 2019),  
161 as well as under high temperature condition (Hu et al. 2010). And the ABA-deficient  
162 mutants exhibited more sensitive to heat stress (Larkindale et al. 2005). These studies  
163 demonstrate a strong correlation between ABA application and regulation of ROS  
164 levels in plants response to stress condition (Suzuki et al. 2016; Liu et al. 2019). Current  
165 studies on the relationship between ABA and heat stress in rice were mainly focused on  
166 the ABA-dependent signal pathway and spraying of exogenous ABA (Wang et al. 2013;  
167 Zhang et al. 2019; Li et al. 2020). Research of ABA priming effect on stress tolerance  
168 in rice were mainly validated in the response to salt or alkaline stress (Gurmani et al.  
169 2013; Wei et al. 2015, 2017; Liu et al. 2019).

170 This study aimed to gain insights into the effect and mechanism of ABA priming  
171 on heat tolerance in rice by focusing on the effect of ABA priming on ROS-formation  
172 or ROS-scavenging pathway. Our results strongly suggest that priming effect of  
173 exogenous ABA on heat stress tolerance in rice seedlings is associated with  
174 improvement of antioxidative defense capacity and expression of heat stress tolerant  
175 genes.

176

## 177 **Materials and methods**

### 178 **Plant material and growth conditions**

179 Rice cultivar Huanghuazhan, a elite cultivar suitable to be spreaded in eastern China,  
180 was used in this study. It was bred by crossing ‘Huangxinzhan’ with ‘Fenghuazhan’ and  
181 was resistant to high-temperature stress (China Rice Data Center). Rice seeds were  
182 surface-sterilized with 75% (v/v) alcohol for 5 min, and rinsed with deionized water  
183 five times. After that, seeds were immersed in water for 2 days, and then were sprinkled  
184 onto a petri dish with wet filter paper for pregermination in an incubator under dark  
185 condition at 28 °C for 24 h. Eighteen uniformly germinated seeds were transplanted  
186 onto a multi-well plate floating on a 320-mL cup containing deionized water for 7 days,  
187 and then grown in half-strength Kimura B nutrient solution (Miyake and Takahashi  
188 1983) for another 7 days. All rice seedlings were grown in a controlled growth chamber  
189 under the following conditions: 28°C day/22°C night, 12 h photoperiod, and 350 mmol  
190 photons m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> light intensity.

### 191 **ABA pretreatment and high-temperature treatment**

192 Abscisic acid (ABA) (Sigma, Inc., St, Louis, MO, USA) was dissolved in a small  
193 amount of absolute ethanol and then diluted with deionized water to the desired  
194 concentrations (Wei et al. 2015; Liu et al. 2019). Rice seedlings at approximately three-  
195 leaf stage were pretreated with 10 μM ABA or deionized water by root-drench for 24 h,  
196 respectively. Then these two sets of rice seedlings were transferred to the control or  
197 high-temperature stress conditions after rinsed with deionized water, respectively. Thus,  
198 four treatments were set: root-drench with deionized water in unstressed condition (CK);  
199 root-drench with 10 μM ABA in unstressed condition (ABA); root-drench with  
200 deionized water in heat stress (HS), root-drench with 10 μM ABA in high-temperature  
201 stress condition (ABA+HS). We used grown temperature at 40°C to simulate high-

202 temperature stress. The growth temperature of unstressed condition was set as  
203 following: 28°C day/22°C night and temperature of high-temperature stress was set as  
204 40°C day/35°C night. This growth temperature was set according to the description of  
205 rice response to heat stress in South China by Shi et al. (2015) and Huang et al. (2017).

## 206 **Treatment of rice seedlings with exogenous Fluridone and Proantho** 207 **Cyanidins (PC)**

208 In this study, exogenous fluridone and proantho cyanidins (PC) were used to examine  
209 the mechanism of ABA priming effect. Fluridone is an ABA biosynthesis inhibitor and  
210 inhibited rice seedlings growth under alkaline stress (Wei et al. 2015). Proantho  
211 cyanidins is an antioxidant that effectively scavenged superoxide anion radicals and  
212 hydroxyl radicals, and alleviated alkalinity-induced suppression of rice seedling growth  
213 by inhibiting ROS overaccumulation (Rue et al. 2017; Zhang et al. 2017). Two-week-  
214 old rice seedlings were pretreated in the solution with deionized water, 10 µM fluridone  
215 and 1% PC, by root-drench for 24 h, respectively; and then transferred to control or  
216 heat stress conditions aforementioned. The treatments were set as follows: CK,  
217 Fluridone, PC, HS, Fluridone+HS, PC+HS, respectively.

## 218 **Measurement of seedling growth**

219 Photograph of the growth condition of rice seedlings was taken at the indicated  
220 treatment hours. The withered leaf rate was investigated at 48, 72 and 96 h of heat stress,  
221 respectively. The withered leaf rate was recorded as 1 if the whole leaf was dry and  
222 brown, while it was recorded as 0.5 if half of the leaf was dry and brown, respectively  
223 (Liu et al. 2020). The withered leaf rate of each treatment was represented by the  
224 proportion of withered leaves of whole leaves one cup.

## 225 **Measurement of chlorophyll content**

226 The chlorophyll content was measured according to the theory as described by Wellburn  
227 and Lichtenthaler (1984), with some modifications as described by Liu et al. (2019).  
228 Leaf samples (0.1 g) were extracted using a 10 mL mixture of ethanol (5 mL) and  
229 acetone (5 mL) under dark condition. The absorbance of the supernatant was  
230 determined at 645 and 663 nm using a spectrophotometer (UV-2700, Shimadzu, Kyoto,  
231 Japan) until the whole leaves whitening. The total chlorophyll content unit fresh weight  
232 was calculated using the following formula:  $(20.29 \times A_{645} + 8.05 \times A_{663}) V / (1000 \times W)$ .

233 **Measurement of malondialdehyde (MDA) content and membrane injury**  
234 **(MI)**

235 The MDA content was determined by the thiobarbituric acid reaction as described by  
236 Heath and Packer (1968). Leaf samples were homogenized in 1 mL of 50 mM  
237 phosphate buffer (pH 7.8) after smashed at refrigerated condition with liquid nitrogen,  
238 and centrifuged at  $12,000 \times g$  for 15 min. Subsequently, 400  $\mu\text{L}$  of supernatant was  
239 mixed with 1 ml of 0.5% thiobarbituric acid, and the mixture was boiled for 20 min.  
240 The absorbance of the resulting supernatant after cooled and centrifuged was measured  
241 at 532, 600, and 450 nm using a spectrophotometer (UV-2700, Shimadzu, Kyoto,  
242 Japan). The MDA concentration was calculated using the following formula:  $6.45 \times$   
243  $(A_{532} - A_{600}) - 0.56 \times A_{450}$ . Finally, the MDA content in leaf was calculated according  
244 to the fresh weight of leaf of each treatment.

245 Membrane injury (MI) was represented by measured by relative electrolytic  
246 leakage (Tantau and Dörffling 1991). Rice leaves (2 g fresh weight) were randomly  
247 selected from each treatment group, washed with deionized water to remove surface-  
248 adhered electrolytes. Leaf samples were submerged in 15 ml of deionized water in 50  
249 mL conical tubes and kept at  $20^\circ\text{C}$  for 1 h. The electrical conduction of the effusion was  
250 then measured with a DDS-12 conductivity meter (Lida Inc., Shanghai, China) and  
251 recorded as R1. The tissue samples were killed by heating tubes in a boiling bath for 40  
252 min, cooled to  $20^\circ\text{C}$ , and the electrical conduction of the effusion was measured again  
253 which recorded as R2. The MI was evaluated using the formula  $\text{MI} (\%) = \text{R1}/\text{R2} \times 100\%$ .

254 **Measurement of ROS levels**

255 The  $\text{O}_2^-$  contents were measured as described by Elstner and Heupel (1976) by  
256 monitoring nitrite formation from hydroxylamine in the presence of  $\text{O}_2^-$ , with some  
257 modifications as described by Jiang and Zhang (2001). Absorbance values at 530 nm  
258 were calibrated to calculate the contents of  $\text{O}_2^-$  from the chemical reaction of  $\text{O}_2^-$  and  
259 hydroxylamine.

260 The  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  contents were measured as described by monitoring the  $A_{415}$  of the  
261 titanium-peroxide complex (Brennan and Frenkel 1977). Absorbance values were  
262 calibrated to a standard curve generated with known concentrations of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ . The  
263 analytical reagent used to measure the  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  and  $\text{O}_2^-$  contents were acquired from the  
264 determination kit, according to the manufacturer's instructions (Comin Biotechnology  
265 Co., Ltd. Suzhou, China) (Zhang et al. 2017; Liu et al. 2019).

## 266 **RNA isolation and quantitative real-time PCR (qRT-PCR)**

267 Rice leaves were sampled in liquid nitrogen and ground using a bench-top ball-mill  
268 (Scientz-48, Ningbo Scientz Biotechnology Co. Ltd., Ningbo, China) at 50 Hz for 30 s.  
269 Total RNA was extracted with TRIzol reagent (TaKaRa Bio Tokyo, Japan) and first-  
270 strand cDNA was synthesized using M-MLV reverse transcriptase (Thermo, Carlsbad,  
271 CA, USA) according to the manufacturer's protocols. Quantitative real-time PCR (qRT-  
272 PCR) was performed to determine the transcriptional expression of genes, including  
273 nine *OsRboh* family genes (*OsRboh1-OsRboh9*) (Liu et al. 2012), two ABA-response  
274 genes, *Salt* and *OsWsi18*; two ABA-biosynthesis genes, *OsNCED3* and *OsNCED4*;  
275 four heat shock-related genes, *OsHSP23.7* (Zou et al. 2012), *OsHSP17.7* (Sato and  
276 Yokoya 2008), *OsHSF7* (Liu et al. 2009) and *OsHsfA2a* (Wang et al. 2013); and 20  
277 ROS-scavenging genes (R1-R20) (Fang et al. 2015; Liu et al. 2019). Gene-specific  
278 primers were designed using Primer 5.0 software (Table S1; Table S2 and Table S3).

279 The housekeeping gene  $\beta$ -actin (GenBank ID: X15865.1) was used as an internal  
280 standard. PCR was conducted in a 20  $\mu$ L reaction mixture containing 1.6  $\mu$ L of cDNA  
281 template (50 ng), 0.4  $\mu$ L of 10 mM specific forward primer, 0.4  $\mu$ L of 10 mM specific  
282 reverse primer, 10  $\mu$ L of 2 $\times$  SYBR<sup>®</sup> *Premix Ex Taq*<sup>™</sup> (TaKaRa, Bio Inc.), and 7.6  $\mu$ L  
283 of double-distilled H<sub>2</sub>O in a PCR machine (qTOWER2.2. Analytic Jena. GER). The  
284 procedure was performed as follows: 1 cycle for 30 s at 95°C, 40 cycles for 5 s at 95°C,  
285 and 20 s at 60°C, and 1 cycle for 60 s at 95°C, 30 s at 55°C, and 30 s at 95°C for melting  
286 curve analysis. The level of relative expression was computed using the  $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$  method  
287 (Livak and Schmittgen 2001).

## 288 **Experimental design and statistical analyses**

289 All of the experiments were conducted in a controlled growth chamber with five  
290 biological replicates, each consisting of 3 cups of rice seedlings, with eighteen seedlings  
291 each cup. Statistical analyses were performed using the statistical software SPSS 21.0  
292 (IBM Corp., Armonk, NY). Based on one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA),  
293 Duncan's multiple range test (DMRT) was used to compare differences in the means  
294 among treatments. The significance level was  $P < 0.05$ .

## 295 **Results**

### 296 **ABA priming rescued rice seedling from wilting and death under heat** 297 **stress**

298 There was no significant difference of leaf withering with or without ABA pretreatment  
299 at 24 and 48 h of high-temperature stress (Fig. 1A, B). While pretreatment with  
300 exogenous ABA significantly rescued rice seedling from wilting and death as shown by  
301 the lower withered leaf rates of seedlings pretreated with ABA at 72 and 96 h of high-  
302 temperature stress (Fig. 1C-E), withered leaf rate of rice seedlings was decreased by  
303 28.5% and 15.8% by ABA pretreated under heat stress condition (Fig. 1F). Rice  
304 seedlings pretreatment with ABA significantly increased chlorophyll content by 11.3%,  
305 25.9% and 13.8%, compared with without ABA pretreatment under heat stress  
306 condition (Fig. 1G).

### 307 **ABA priming mitigated membrane injury induced by heat stress**

308 Exogenous ABA pretreatment significantly mitigated cell injury as shown by a lower  
309 accumulation of MDA and MI (Fig. 2A, B). Compared to HS treatment, MDA content  
310 was decreased by 22.4%, 22.1% and 10.8%, and MI was decreased by 14.1%, 13.2%  
311 and 7.9%, at 48, 72 and 96 h of heat stress, respectively (Fig. 2A, B). In addition, a cell  
312 death suppressor, *OsBII*, was significantly downregulated and the cell death-related  
313 genes, *OsKOD1*, *OsCPI1*, *OsNAC4*, were significantly upregulated by ABA pretreated  
314 under heat stress condition (Fig. 2C-F). The relative expression level was increased by  
315 37.1%, 47.2% and 50.2% with ABA pretreatment at 48, 72 and 96 h of heat stress  
316 condition, respectively (Fig. 2C).

### 317 **ABA priming decreased ROS accumulation and improved ROS-savaging** 318 **capacity under heat stress**

319 Pretreatment with exogenous ABA significantly inhibited ROS accumulation as shown  
320 by lower  $O_2^-$  and  $H_2O_2$  content in rice leaves under heat stress condition (Fig. 3).  
321 Compared to HS treatment, content of  $O_2^-$  was decreased by 5.9%, 19.6% and 22.2%  
322 (Fig. 3A), and content of  $H_2O_2$  was decreased by 8.3%, 16.5% and 16.1% with ABA  
323 pretreatment at 48, 72 and 96 h, respectively (Fig. 3B).

324 ABA pretreatment also suppressed the transcriptional expression of *OsRboh* genes.  
325 As shown in Fig. 4, an obvious upregulation was showed in the *OsRbohs* family genes  
326 by heat stress, and the relative expression level of *OsRboh1*, *OsRboh4*, *OsRboh5*,  
327 *OsRboh6* and *OsRboh7* was reached to a higher level. Among these *OsRbohs* family  
328 genes, *OsRboh2*, *OsRboh3*, *OsRboh5* and *OsRboh7* was significantly suppressed by  
329 ABA pretreatment (Fig. 4).

330 We further analyzed the relative expression levels of 20 ROS-scavenging genes,  
331 as shown in Fig. 5, almost the all ROS-scavenging genes were upregulated by heat  
332 stress. Furthermore, ABA pretreatment significantly super-upregulated the expression  
333 level of 16 ROS-scavenging genes except for R5, R7, R13 and R20 (Fig. 5).

### 334 **Exogenous ABA biosynthesis inhibitor (Fluridone) suppressed rice** 335 **seedlings growth under heat stress**

336 As shown in Fig.6A, growth condition of rice seedlings with application of fluridone  
337 (treatment of Fluridone+HS), an ABA biosynthesis inhibitor, was similar to the HS  
338 treatment. The withered leaf rate and chlorophyll content were not statistically  
339 significant between Fluridone+HS and HS treatment (Fig.6B, C), as well as the  
340 accumulation of  $O_2^-$  and  $H_2O_2$  (Fig. 6F, G). Accumulation of MDA and MI with  
341 application of fluridone was significantly higher than that of HS treatment at 48, 72 h  
342 of heat stress condition, respectively (Fig.6D, E).

### 343 **Application of exogenous antioxidant (Proantho cyanidins, PC) rescued** 344 **rice seedlings from leaf withering induced by heat stress**

345 In this study, application of exogenous PC significantly rescued rice seedlings from leaf  
346 withering as shown by a decrease of 47.8%, 44.7% and 33.5% of leaf withered rate at  
347 48, 72 and 96 h, compared to HS treatment (Fig. 6A, B). Content of chlorophyll was  
348 increased by 13.6%, 31.3% and 34.8% with application of PC under heat stress  
349 condition, compared to HS treatment (Fig. 6C). In addition, membrane injury was  
350 significantly mitigated by PC as shown by a lower accumulation of MDA content and  
351 MI in rice seedlings of PC+HS treatment (Fig. 6D, E). Consistently, accumulation of  
352  $O_2^-$  and  $H_2O_2$  was decreased by 25.3%-41.1% and 39.8%-45.6% with application of  
353 PC, compared to HS treatment (Fig. 6F, G).

### 354 **ABA pretreatment upregulated stress tolerance-related genes under heat** 355 **stress**

356 ABA signaling pathway was exactly activated by heat stress and ABA pretreatment as  
357 shown by an upregulation of two ABA-responsive genes, *Salt* and *OsWsi18* (Fig.7A,  
358 B). While the expression levels of *Salt* and *OsWsi18* was significantly superinduced by  
359 34.2%-47.8% and 25.9%-26.9% with ABA pretreatment, compared to HS treatment  
360 (Fig.7A, B). The expression levels of two ABA biosynthesis genes, *OsNCED3* and  
361 *OsNCED4*, were increased by 40.8%-71.3% and 32.5%-54.0% by ABA pretreatment,

362 compared to HS treatment (Fig.7C, D).

363 To gain further insights into the mechanism of ABA pretreatment for heat stress,  
364 two heat shock protein (HSP) genes, *OsHSP23.7* and *OsHSP17.7*, and two heat shock  
365 transcription factors (HSF), *OsHSF7* and *OsHsfA2a*, were analyzed in this study. All  
366 these stress tolerance-related genes were significantly upregulated by ABA, HS and  
367 ABA+HS treatment, while the relative expression levels of these four genes were  
368 significantly super-upregulated by ABA pretreatment under heat stress condition (Fig.7  
369 E-H). The gene relative expression levels of *OsHSP23.7*, *OsHSP17.7*, *OsHSF7* and  
370 *OsHsfA2a* was increased by 28.4%-36.9%, 32.9-49.7%, 31.0%-42.6% and 33.3%-50.5%  
371 with ABA pretreatment under heat stress condition, respectively (Fig.7E-H).

372

### 373 **Discussion**

374 Heat stress is characterized by extreme or lasting high-temperature climate for a long  
375 time, which has become an enormous meteorological disaster for crop production (Xu  
376 et al. 2021). Heat stress results in severe inhibition in crop growth and yield formation  
377 as shown by increasing leaves withering and death (Wei et al. 2012; Kilasi et al. 2016;  
378 Liu et al. 2018), damaging cell membrane and photosynthetic structure (Essemine et al.  
379 2017; Soda et al. 2018), impairing pollen swelling (Endo et al. 2009; Das et al. 2014;  
380 Wang et al. 2019), reducing spikelets (Fu et al. 2016; Zhang et al. 2018) and the final  
381 grain filling (Chen et al. 2017; Suriyasak et al. 2017). Recently, it was shown that  
382 application of exogenous phytohormones alleviated heat-induced damage in plants and  
383 enhanced plant heat tolerance (Li et al. 2021). ABA plays an important role in crops  
384 response to environmental stress. Previous studies have reported the priming effect of  
385 exogenous ABA on tolerance to alkaline stress in rice seedlings (Wei et al. 2015, 2017;  
386 Liu et al. 2019). And we previous showed rice seeds soaked with exogenous ABA  
387 significantly improved seed growth under lasting high temperature stress condition  
388 (Yang et al. 2021). In the present study, we have firstly shown that rice seedlings  
389 pretreated with exogenous ABA significantly mitigated the heat-induced leaf withering  
390 (Fig. 1), membrane injury (Fig. 2) and overaccumulation of ROS (Fig. 3, 4), and  
391 improved ROS-scavenging capability (Fig. 5). In addition, there was some evidence  
392 showed that application of the ABA biosynthesis inhibitor, fluridone, compromised  
393 tolerance to heat stress in rice seedlings (Fig. 6), while application of the antioxidant,  
394 PC, improved tolerance of the seedlings to heat stress (Fig. 6). Pretreatment with ABA

395 also upregulated gene expression levels related to ABA signal and heat shock and  
396 transcription factor (Fig. 7). These data collectively suggest that improving ROS-  
397 scavenging capability and upregulating heat shock related genes are important  
398 mechanism of exogenous ABA priming for heat tolerance in rice seedlings (Fig. 8).

399 ABA is an important “stress phytohormone” in plants, which has been evidenced  
400 by the action in various stress conditions as drought, salt, alkali, cold and heat  
401 temperature (Dar et al. 2017; Vishwakarma et al. 2017). Exogenous ABA plays a vital  
402 in the improvement of stress tolerance by multiple methods, such as foliage spray,  
403 adding into solution or seed soaking (Gurmani et al. 2011, 2013; Wang et al. 2013).  
404 Another important mechanism of ABA for enhancing stress tolerance in plants is the  
405 priming effect, which help plants to acquire a potential capacity to enhance defense  
406 response to subsequent stress factors (Pastor et al. 2013; Aranega-Bou et al. 2014). This  
407 priming effect has recently been validated in rice response to salt or alkali stress as  
408 shown by seed presoaking or root drenching with exogenous ABA significantly  
409 improved the survival rate, plant growth and grain yield of rice (Gurmani et al. 2011;  
410 Wei et al. 2015, 2017). Application of exogenous ABA plays active effect in plants  
411 response heat stress (Islam et al. 2018). However, few studies have reported on the  
412 priming effect of ABA in the heat stress responses. We previously reported that ABA  
413 primes rice seeds for enhanced heat stress tolerance as shown by ABA presoaking  
414 improved ROS-scavenging capacity, inhibiting ROS overaccumulation and mitigating  
415 membrane injury (Yang et al. 2021). Results of the present study showed that the ABA  
416 responsive genes, *Salt* and *OsWsi18* (Fig. 7A-7B), and ABA-biosynthesis genes,  
417 *OsNCED3* and *OsNECD4* (Fig. 7C-7D), were significantly upregulated by heat stress,  
418 and application of the ABA inhibitor suppressed rice seedlings growth (Fig. 6), which  
419 indicated that the ABA signal was indeed participated in the response to heat stress in  
420 rice seedlings. However, rice seedlings were withered or eventually dead induced by  
421 heat stress for more than 4 days (Fig. 1), indicating that this activation levels of ABA  
422 induced by heat stress may not be sufficient to effectively cope with the heat stress  
423 factor. Nevertheless, ABA pretreatment upregulated the expression of ABA-responsive  
424 and ABA-biosynthesis genes to a higher degree (Fig. 7), as well as a great increasing  
425 of ROS-scavenging genes (Fig. 5), heat shock-related genes (Fig. 7), and a remarkable  
426 decrease of ROS accumulation (Fig. 3) and cell death in rice seedlings under heat stress  
427 condition (Fig. 2). In addition, we previously reported that ABA soaking on rice seeds  
428 efficiently improved seed viability and bud growth under continuous heat stress

429 condition (Yang et al. 2021). These results suggest that exogenous ABA enhances  
430 tolerance to heat stress in rice seedlings by the priming effect which potentiate multiple  
431 downstream pathways response to heat stress.

432 Reactive oxygen species (ROS) plays vital role in the regulation of plants response  
433 to various stress factors (Choudhury et al. 2017; Mittler 2017). ROS serve as the  
434 signaling messenger in a series of physiological processes required for the growth  
435 regulation and stress response at low levels (Sewelam et al. 2016; Mittler 2017).  
436 However, environmental stress induces overaccumulation of ROS in cells, which result  
437 in oxidative stress and even cell death in plants (Choudhury et al. 2017; Zhang et al.  
438 2017). In rice, excessive accumulation of ROS has been identified as a key causal factor  
439 in the inhibition of seed germination and seedlings growth under various stress  
440 conditions due to the result of oxidative stress, especially for the severe cellular damage  
441 to roots (Guan et al. 2017; Zhang et al. 2017). Heat stress caused multiple physiological  
442 effects to rice including membrane and photosynthesis damage, disturbance of ROS  
443 accumulation and carbohydrate (Xu et al. 2021). We previously showed that increasing  
444 of ROS intracellular was the primary for the inhabitation of seed germination and bud  
445 growth under lasting heat stress condition (Yang et al. 2021). In the present study, heat  
446 stress caused a remarkable increase of ROS in rice seedlings as shown by a gradually  
447 rising accumulation of  $O_2^-$  and  $H_2O_2$  in leaves at the indicated time (Fig. 3A, B), as  
448 well as the upregulation of a series of *OsRboh* genes (Fig. 4). Meanwhile, rice seedlings  
449 presented a significant membrane injury as shown by the increase of MDA and MI (Fig.  
450 2A, B), as well as a number of cell death-related genes, *OsKOD1*, *OsCPI* and *OsNAC4*,  
451 (Fig. 2D-F) under heat stress condition. In addition, several ROS-scavenging genes  
452 were significantly upregulated by heat stress (Fig. 5). These results indicated that ROS  
453 signal pathway was activated in the response to heat stress in rice seedlings; however,  
454 the ROS levels was too high in turn led to severe injury to cell membrane, and final  
455 resulted in withering and even death of rice seedlings (Fig. 1). Application of exogenous  
456 antioxidant, PC, significantly rescued rice seedlings from death by decreasing the ROS  
457 content and membrane injury (Fig. 6), indicating that overaccumulation of ROS is an  
458 important mechanism for inhibiting rice seedlings induced by heat stress. Nevertheless,  
459 rice seedlings pretreatment with ABA significantly improved antioxidative defense  
460 capacity as shown by a series of ROS-scavenging genes (Fig. 5), and decreased the  
461 ROS accumulation (Fig. 3A, B) and membrane injury (Fig. 2), which achieved the  
462 similar effect with the PC. On the contrary, application of fluridone was noneffective

463 to decrease the ROS accumulation and membrane injury (Fig. 6). These data  
464 demonstrate that ABA primes for enhanced heat tolerance in rice seedlings mainly by  
465 improving of the ROS-scavenging capacity, which is accordant to our previous study  
466 in alkaline stress (Liu et al. 2019).

467 The ROS levels in plants is codetermined by the ROS formation which mainly  
468 regulated by the RBOH genes, and scavenging pathway that constituted by antioxidant  
469 enzymes (Choudhury et al. 2017). The ROS formation may be induced by various stress  
470 factors, as well as ABA, while ROS levels would affect the ABA biosynthesis and  
471 catabolism (Ishibashi et al. 2012, 2015; Suriyasak et al. 2017). Thus, the “cross-effect”  
472 of ROS and ABA levels play a vital role in plants response to environmental stress  
473 conditions (Ye et al. 2011; Liu et al. 2019). In this study, almost all these *OsRboh* genes  
474 were upregulated during the heat stress process, indicating that heat stress resulted in  
475 accumulation of ROS by inducing the transcriptional expression of *OsRboh* genes in  
476 rice seedlings. Among these *OsRboh* genes, *OsRboh1*, *OsRboh4*, *OsRboh6*, *OsRboh8*  
477 and *OsRboh9* was induced by ABA priming and heat stress, which indicated that ABA  
478 induced the expression of *OsRboh* genes to increasing ROS levels in the regulation of  
479 plant growth and response to stress factors (Li et al. 2021). Nevertheless, *OsRboh2*,  
480 *OsRboh3*, *OsRboh5* and *OsRboh7* was suppressed by ABA pretreatment under heat  
481 stress (Fig. 4), which may demonstrated another potential mechanism in the “cross-  
482 effect” of ROS and ABA in plants response to environmental stress, that was ABA  
483 priming may inhibit the expression of *OsRboh2*, *OsRboh3*, *OsRboh5* and *OsRboh7* to  
484 decrease ROS formation under heat stress condition. In further studies, it would be  
485 interesting to gain further insights of the correlation between ROS formation and ABA  
486 levels by using the mutants or transgenic plants in ROS or ABA pathways.

487 Reprograming the gene expression is an important pathway for plants to cope with  
488 multiply environmental stress conditions. Recently, a number of genes have been  
489 identified for enhancing heat tolerance in plants (Hoang et al. 2019; Su et al. 2019).  
490 Heat shock proteins and heat shock transcription factor are known as the vital defense  
491 mechanism for plants or animals to resist heat stress condition and numerous studies  
492 have demonstrated that overexpression of the HSP or HSF genes contributed to improve  
493 stress tolerance in rice (Zou et al. 2009, 2012; Cheng et al. 2015; Liu et al. 2015). ABA  
494 has a potential regulation effect in genetic network in plants response to the stresses  
495 (Liu et al. 2019). In this study, the ABA-responsive genes and ABA biosynthesis genes  
496 were superinduced by ABA pretreatment under heat stress (Fig. 7A-D), indicating the

497 ABA signal pathway was indeed activated by ABA priming. In addition, two HSP genes,  
498 *OsHSP23.7* and *OsHSP17.7*; and two HSF genes, *OsHSP23.7* and *OsHSP17.7* were  
499 significantly upregulated by ABA-priming under heat stress (Fig. 7E-H). These data  
500 represented another important mechanism of ABA-priming effect, indicating that ABA  
501 was involved in the multiple gene transcriptional regulatory network in plant under  
502 stress conditions.

503 In summary, in this study, ABA priming super-increased the ABA signal in rice  
504 seedlings under heat stress, so as to greatly upregulate ROS-scavenging capability and  
505 expression of heat shock-related genes, for an increasing adaptive response to heat  
506 stress.

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### 513 **Author contributions**

514 Xiaolong Liu and Ping Ji designed the study; Ping Ji, Qizhou Chen, Fang Lu, Yunyun  
515 Yang, Xin Chen, Xiaobo Zhang and Hongtao Yang performed the laboratory  
516 experiments; Xiaolong Liu and Ping Ji performed the data collection, statistical analysis  
517 and figure mapping; Xiaolong Liu and Ping Ji wrote the manuscript; Xiaolong Liu,  
518 Changjie Jiang and Zhengwei Liang participated in the modification of the manuscript;  
519 Xiaolong Liu provided scientific expertise.

### 520 **Declarations**

521 **Conflict of interest** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

522

523

### 524 **References**

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772 **Statements and Declarations**

773 We declare that we have no financial and personal relationships with other people or  
774 organizations that can inappropriately influence our work, there is no professional or  
775 other personal interest of any nature or kind in any product, service and/or company  
776 that could be construed as influencing the position presented in, or the review of the  
777 manuscript.

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779 The authors declare that they have no competing financial interests.

780

781 **Figure legends**

782 **Fig. 1** ABA priming rescued rice seedlings from wilting under high temperature stress.  
783 Two-week-old rice seedlings were root-drenched with or without 10  $\mu$ M ABA for 24 h,  
784 and then subjected to unstress or high temperature stress conditions. Photographs of  
785 seedling growth (**A, B, C, D**) were taken at 24, 48 h, 72 h, and 96 h, respectively.  
786 Photograph of leaf wilting (**E**) was taken at 72 h. Withered leaf rate (**F**) and chlorophyll  
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790 **Fig. 2** ABA priming mitigated cell injury under high temperature stress. Two-week-old  
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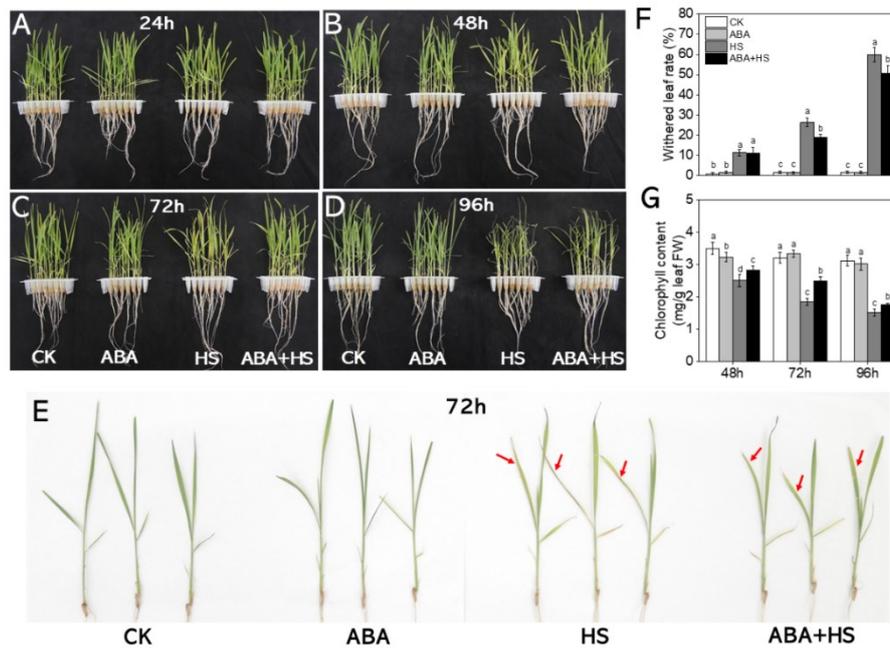
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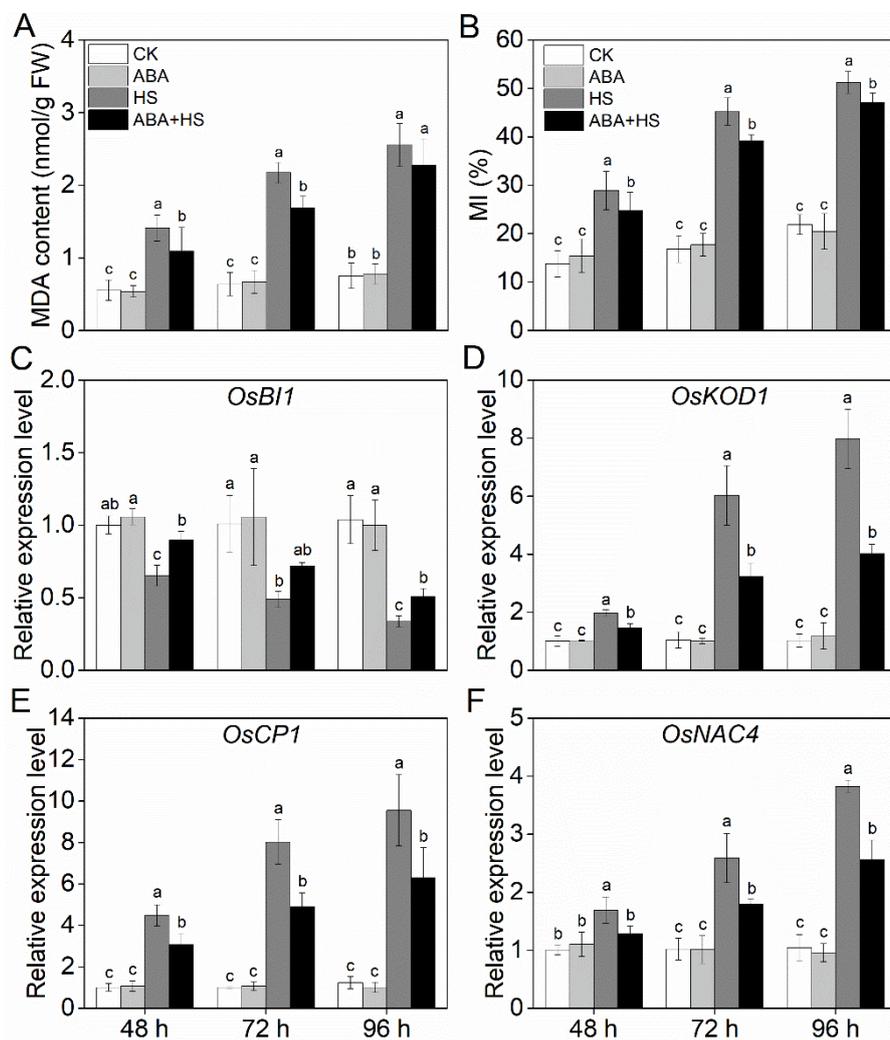
848 **Fig. 8** A schematic mechanism of ABA in response to heat stress in rice seedlings.  
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850 **Figure 1**  
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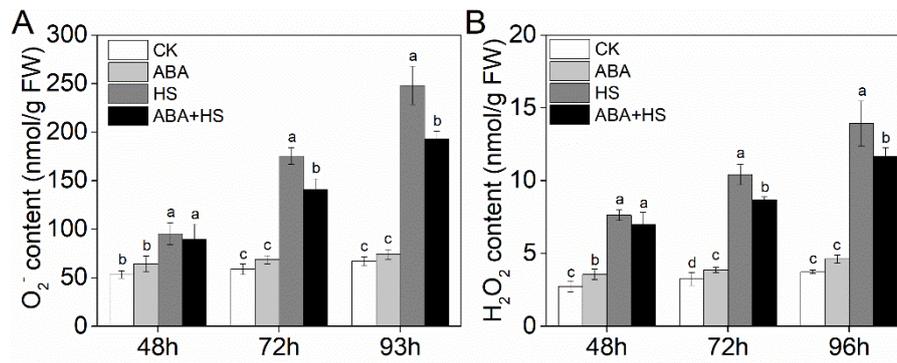


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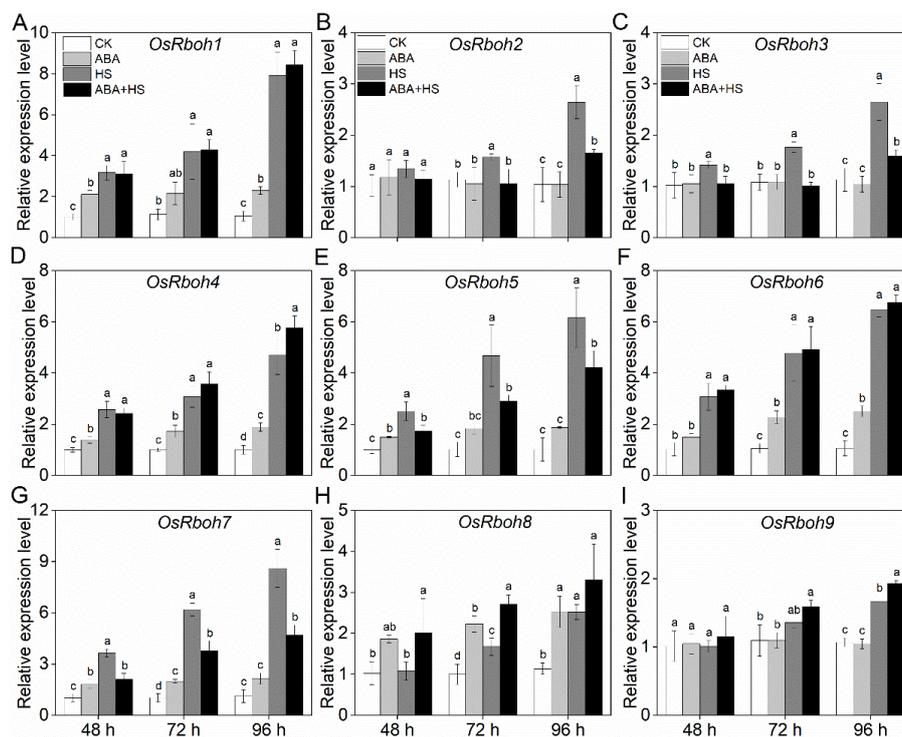
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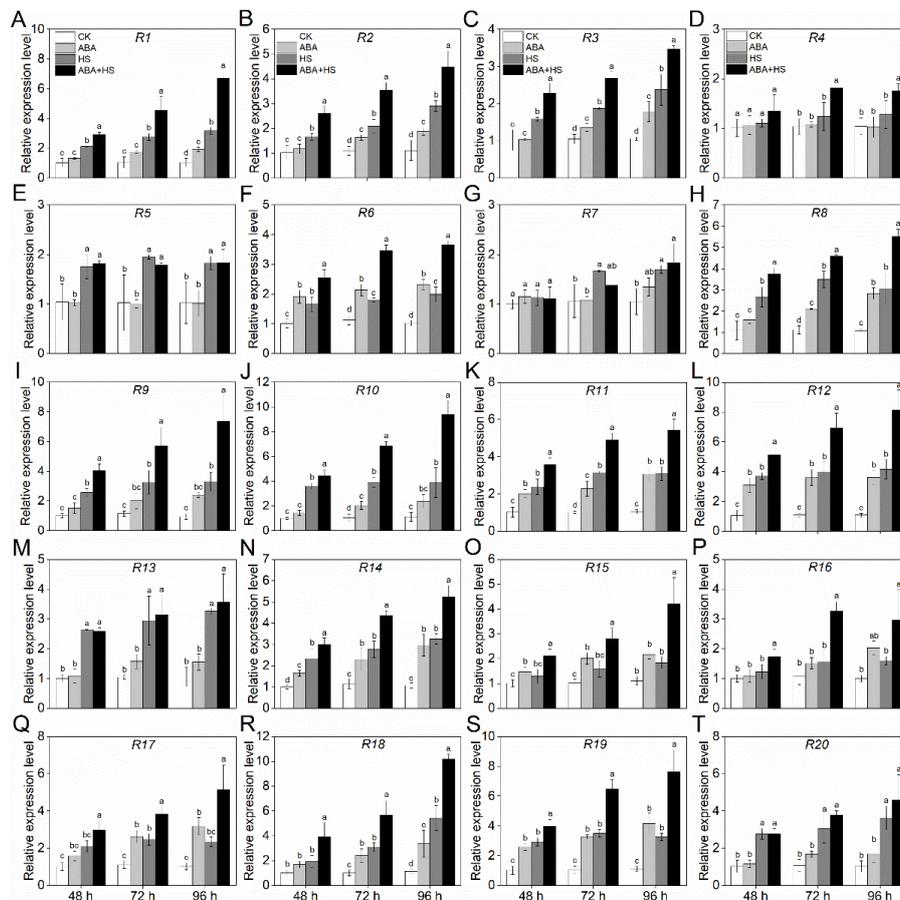
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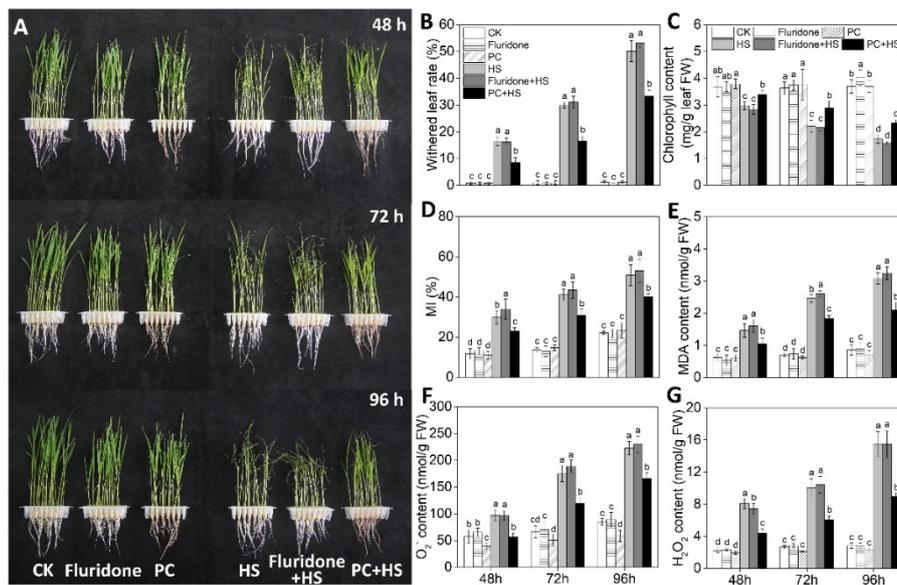
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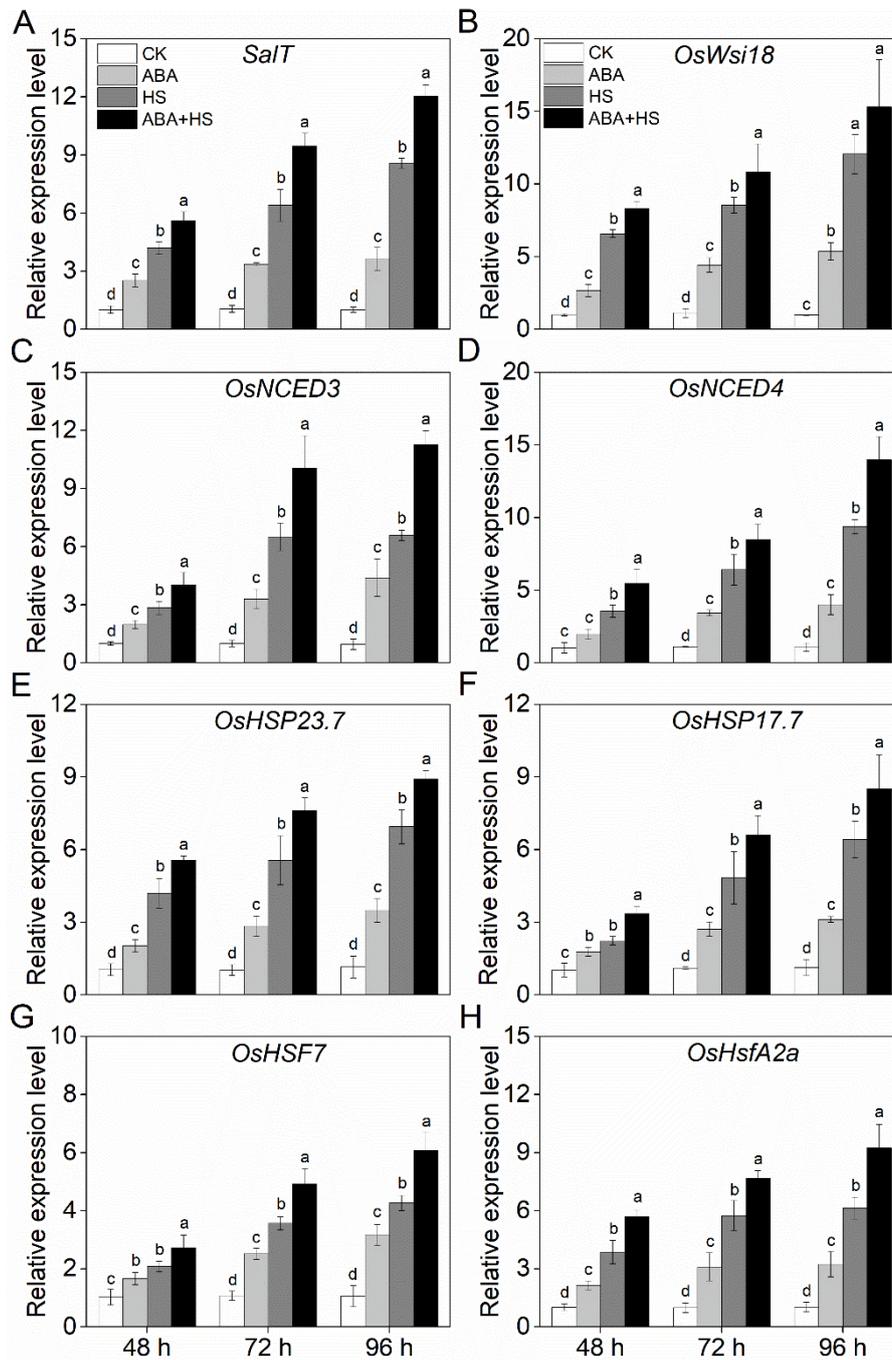
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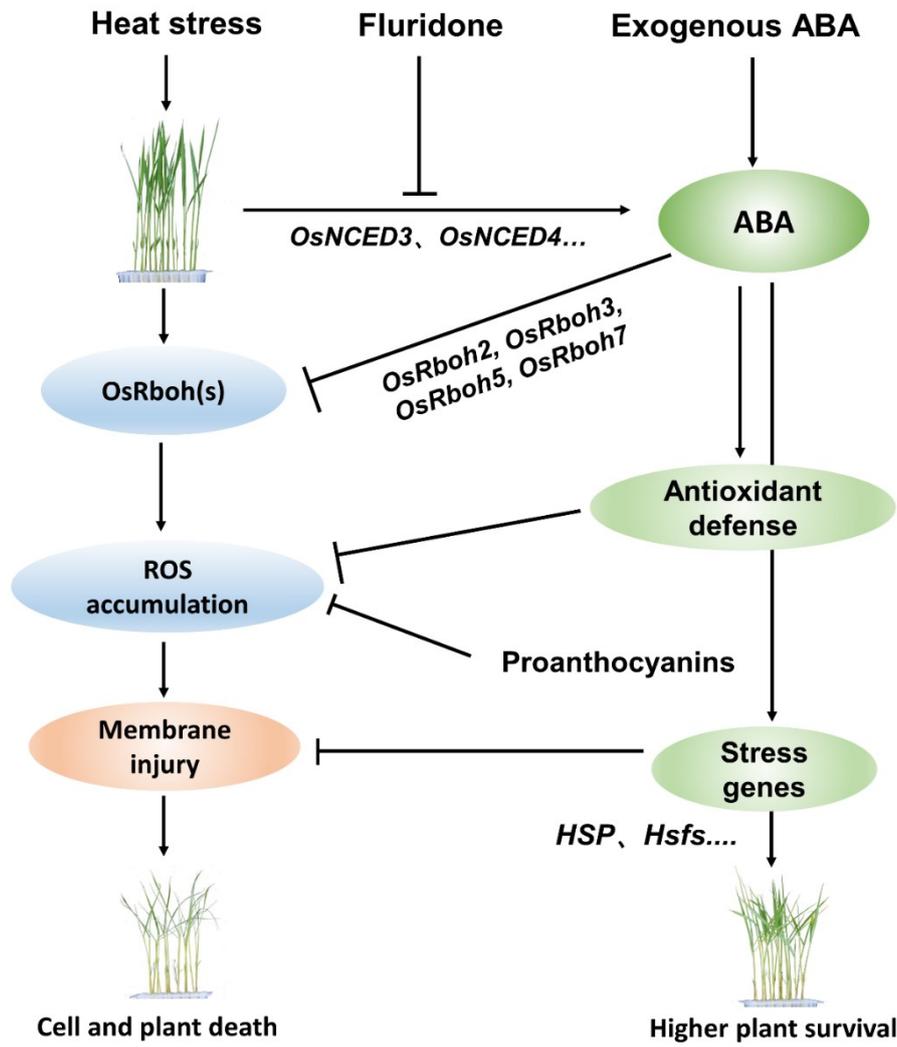


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**Fig. 8** A schematic mechanism of ABA in response to heat stress in rice seedlings.

## Supplementary Files

This is a list of supplementary files associated with this preprint. Click to download.

- [SupplementalMaterials.pdf](#)