Improvement of Salinity Tolerance Indices and regulation of Na⁺ and K⁺ homeostasis in Hashemi Rice Mutants (Oryza sativa L.)

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4 Abstract

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Salt stress is a serious environmental threat reducing crop yield. Hence, developing any breeding 5 plan requires an understanding of the basic physiology and cell molecular genetic regulation under 6 salinity stress. In this study, we evaluated the effectiveness of gene expression changes on ion 7 homeostasis comprising salt overly sensitive (SOS1) and vacuolar Na+/H+ antiporter (NHX1) 8 along with ion content measurement and proline content in the rice mutants at Rice Research 9 Institute of Iran in 2018-2019. To survey these realities, tolerant mutant genotypes (em_4hs290 and 10 em₄hs84) along with Hashemi parent cultivar, IR28 (sensitive), and FL478 (tolerant) seedlings 11 were treated with 100 mM NaCl. Based on the results of growth indices, the seedling length of 12 Hashemi cultivar and IR28 decreased considerably about 44.7%, and 44.2% reduction to that of 13 the control, and the leaves progressively yellowed. Results showed that proline content and K⁺ and 14 K^+/Na^+ ratio increased about ~2–3-fold higher in the tolerant genotypes than in the susceptible 15 16 ones. Also, the overall amount of the OsNHX1 and SOS1 expression increased in tolerant genotypes compared to the susceptible ones. Accordingly, the compatible solute accumulation significantly 17 advanced resulting in improvement of ionic homeostasis and probably suppresses the stress. 18 Moreover, the variable pattern of gene expression in the two salt-tolerant mutants (em4hs290 and 19 20 em4hs84) and Hashemi parent showed that the induced mutation could increase the salt-tolerant in mutant genotypes through ionic and osmotic homeostasis. Generally, these tolerant mutant 21 genotypes could be applied to develop salt-tolerant varieties in rice breeding programs which can 22 bring on production sustainability. 23

24 Keywords: Gene expression, Mutation, Rice, Salinity, Stress Index.

25 Introduction

Increased food production is undeniably necessary to meet the nutrient needs of the growing world
population to 9 billion in the 2050s. Salt stress as one of the most intense environmental problems

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influences the potential of plant production and induces significant crop loss worldwide (Zhang et 28 29 al., 2018). Previous studies show that climate changes and inappropriate irrigation practices enhance salt accumulation in soil (Pitman & Läuchli, 2002; Roy et al., 2014), and lead to incurring 30 significant costs of approximately \$12 billion per year globally (Pitman & Läuchli, 2002). 31 Identifying traits related to salinity tolerance is required to improve this trait and high-yielding 32 genotypes (Munns & Tester, 2008). Most cultivated rice varieties are susceptible to salinity stress; 33 their salinity threshold is three dSm⁻¹ (Chinnusamy et al., 2005; Munns, 2005). Despite numerous 34 attempts and various strategies to develop salinity tolerance in rice, the achievements are relatively 35 moderate (Hoang et al., 2016). So, the breeding cultivars of salinity tolerant with the ability to grow 36 in salt soils is critical for sustainable agriculture and food security (Zhang et al., 2022). Though 37 achievement of salinity-tolerant rice cultivars is time-consuming (taking at least 6 to 7 years), 38 laborious, and incompetent through traditional breeding programs (Sun et al., 2017) (Wang et al., 39 2019). Therefore, mutation breeding approach is a fast and critical method for creating genetic 40 diversity in favorite traits (Ahloowalia et al., 2004), containing the development of tolerant 41 42 cultivars to biotic and abiotic stress and agronomic traits improvement (Masoabi et al., 2018). In many research, salinity-tolerant rice mutants were created using combining induction mutations 43 44 and in vitro selection (Huong et al., 2020; Yunita et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2019).

Plants have developed several mechanisms to tolerate salt stress. The most effective mechanism of 45 46 salinity tolerance is selective regulation of Na⁺ uptake and efflux systems with limitation in sodium ions (Na⁺) admission into the cytosol (Ji et al., 2013; Zhu, 2003). Because of resemblances in ionic 47 characteristics, Na⁺ can contest with and absorb through potassium ions (K⁺) uptake systems. Na⁺ 48 efflux from roots and Na⁺ sequestration within vacuoles would occur if cytosolic Na⁺ levels in 49 50 plants decrease (CRAIG PLETT & Møller, 2010). Moreover, proline, as an important osmolyte, plays in the modulation osmotic potential of cells under drought and salinity stresses in some plants 51 (Bagheri et al., 2023). Accumulation of proline could enhance plant salinity tolerance by decreasing 52 the destructive effect of salinity. Many studies demonstrated that the novel salt-tolerant rice 53 genotype increased proline content under salt stress (Nahar et al., 2022, 2023; Koc et al., 2024). 54 The mechanism of salt tolerance is a complicated trait containing several mechanisms of 55 physiological and biochemical (Ganie et al., 2019; Rasel et al., 2021). 56

Both Salt Overlap Sensitive genes in rice (*OsSOS1/OsNHX7*) and Arabidopsis (*AtSOS1/AtNHX7*)
encode a plasma membrane Na⁺/H⁺ antiporter, which has principal roles in Na⁺ extrusion in the

roots under salinity conditions (Chinnusamy et al., 2005; Ding & Zhu, 1997). Therefore, Na⁺/H⁺ antiporters of SOS1 and NHX1 have contained the principal role of Na⁺ exclusion and sequestration, to decrease salinity toxicity in the plant. So, Na⁺ uptake in plants is done using several ion channels and carrier-type transporters, which have been identified. The cation/H⁺ exchange through membranes is catalyzed by identified NHX-type antiporters (Bassil & Blumwald, 2014; Jiang et al., 2010). The compartmentation of Na + ions into the vacuole is mediated conventionally by the function of tonoplast (vacuole membrane) localized NHX-type.

Six family members of rice NHX-type antiporter were recognized as associated with three 66 subclasses with various cellular localizations: SOS1 is located in the plasma membrane (Martínez-67 Atienza et al., 2007) and five other intracellular members comprising OsNHX1 up to OsNHX4 and 68 OsNHX5 are located in the tonoplast and prevacuolar compartment, respectively (Fukuda et al., 69 2011; Fukuda et al., 1999). The previous studies revealed that some plant species advanced salt 70 and drought stress tolerance via NHX1 overexpression (Xue et al., 2004; Xiao et al., 2009; Zhang 71 & Blumwald, 2001; Liu et al., 2010 & Ohta et al., 2002) and K⁺ homeostasis effectively adjusts 72 through NHX1 and NHX2 (Andrés et al., 2014; Barragán et al., 2012). The plasma membrane 73 Na⁺/H⁺ antiporter, Salt Overly Sensitive 1 (SOS1), is the most characteristic Na⁺ efflux protein in 74 plants. (Shi et al., 2000). The Na⁺ effluence at the root surface and Na⁺ transport from root to shoot 75 are mediated by SOS1 (Tester & Davenport, 2003). Then the K⁺/Na⁺ ratio is advanced 76 77 appropriately in leaves as the significant site for performing metabolic activities. So, the SOS3/SOS2 complex activates the Na⁺/H⁺ antiporter promotion and the expression regulation of 78 79 the SOS1 gene for the activity of SOS1 (Sánchez-Barrena et al., 2005). Mutants lacking in SOS2 and SOS3 exhibit salt-sensitive phenotypes analogous to SOS1 plants (Zhu, 2001). 80

This study revealed how the selected EMS mutants improved salinity tolerance. So, the following objectives were investigated under salt stress: (i) evaluation of differences in Na⁺/K⁺ homeostasis among the mutant rice genotypes and control; (ii) Clarifying some of the morphological and biochemical traits at different time points and the expression levels of key genes (*NHX1* and *SOS1*) concerning ionic responses and their rules in the defense strategies in the mutant rice genotypes (*em4hs290* and *em4hs84*) in comparison with the control rice cultivars; (iii) Revealing the importance of mutation in improving tolerance to salt stress in mutant rice genotypes.

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90 Material and method

91 Experimental materials selection

For evaluation of salinity tolerance in the mutant genotypes, we first surface sterilized the seeds of 92 Salt-sensitive and tolerant varieties (IR28 and FL478), two EMS-derived salt-tolerant mutants 93 (em4hs290 and em4hs84) in rice (Orvza sativa, cv. Hashemi) at Rice Research Institute of Iran 94 (Rasht, Guilan province, Iran) in 2018-2019. Forty healthy seeds were placed equally on filter 95 paper in a 9-cm-diameter Petri dish. After four days, the germinated seeds were transferred on 96 perforated Styrofoam floats with a net bottom suspended on buckets in a hydroponic system with 97 Yoshida solution (Yoshida & Coronel, 1976) in the greenhouse. Plants were grown in a greenhouse 98 under structured conditions (25°C, 60% humidity, 16/8 hour light/dark cycle). The nutrient 99 solutions were exchanged every five days. After 14 days, seedlings were grown under normal 100 conditions, then one compartment of the nutrient solutions was treated with 100 mM NaCl 101 solutions (about ECiw 10 dS m⁻¹) based on the test results to determine the appropriate salt 102 concentration of Hashemi rice (Khazaie et al., 2023), while control plants were supplied in a 103 nutrient solution without NaCl (ECiw 0 dS m⁻¹). A part of the samples was immediately frozen in 104 liquid nitrogen at four-time points 6, 24, 48, and 72h after the onset of salinity treatment, chosen 105 to capture both early and late stress responses, and then kept at -80 °C until RNA extraction. 106 Another part of the samples was kept for biochemical, Physiological, and growth parameters 107 108 measurements. Ten seedlings were collected for each time point measurement.

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110 Physiological and growth parameters

111 The root length, and also length of six rice seedlings were measured with a ruler after 14 d of 112 salinity stress. After removing three seedlings of roots, stems and leaves, the fresh weight of each 113 seedling and root was calculated on a scale (± 0.001 g). Besides, the seedlings were oven-dried at 114 40 °C for three days following measurement of dry weights of the seedlings and roots.

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Proline concentration measurement

Fresh shoot tissues of the rice genotypes were collected at different time points (6, 24, 48, and 72h after salinity stress), and then proline content was measured according to the protocol instruction provided by (Bates et al., 1973). The Proline concentration was estimated by a standard curve (Lproline) and read as micrograms per gram of fresh weight.

121 Determination of Na⁺ and K⁺ content

The potassium (K^+) and sodium (Na^+) concentration in shoot tissues was determined using the method developed by (Isaac & Johnson Jr, 2019). After drying and grinding of plant samples, each sample was digested on the digestion unit including a di-acid mixture (20 ml) containing HNO3 and HClO4 acid (9:4) (Turbotherm, Gerhardt analytical systems, Germany) according to the established procedure by (Tandon, 1995). The concentration of K⁺ and Na⁺ samples and the standard solutions were determined by a flame photometer (Systronics FF128).

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129 RNA extraction and semi-quantitative RT-PCR

130 14-old-day leaf samples were collected after 6, 24, 48, and 72h for gene expression analysis. Total

131 RNA was extracted by utilizing RNX-plus TM (Synaclone) and measured using Thermo Scientific

132 NanoDrop 2000 (USA). cDNA synthesis was constructed according to the instructions of Thermo

133 Scientific[™] Fermentas First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit. The housekeeping gene UBQ10 in rice

134 (accession no. AT4G05320) was used as the reference gene (Yang et al., 2012).

The specific gene primers related to ionic homeostasis were designed by Primer3 Input (version 0.4.0) (Table 1). The Real-Time PCR reactions were performed in the iQ5 (Bio-Rad, Palo Alto, USA), and PCR programs were done as follows: at first, an initial denaturation at 95°C for 4 min, then samples were located in a cycling regime of 45 cycles at 95 °C for 30 s, 58-60 °C for 30 s and 72 °C for 30 s. The Quantitative real-time PCR (qRT-PCR) method and data analysis were performed by the method provided by Pfaffl and colleagues (Pfaffl et al., 2002).

Table 1. The applied specific primers for Q Real-time PCR in rice genotypes.							
Gene	Primer sequence $(5' \rightarrow 3')$	Product length (bp)	Melting temperature	Tm (°C)	NCBI accession number		
Ubiquitin10	F- TGGTCACTAATCAGCCAGTTTGG R- CACCACAAATACTTGACCAACAG	81	60.65 61.01	59	XM_015769228.1		
SOS1	F- ACTTGGACGATGAGCCTGTG R- ATTTAGAAGCCGCACACGGA	98	60.04 60.04	58	XM_015763865.2		
OsNHX1	F- TCCAGCCTCCGGATGCT R- ATCAGCGCGTCGTCGAA	77	60.00 59.46	60	XM_006658017.2		

142143 Data analyses

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144 Statistical analysis was performed in a random complete factorial with three repeats using one-way 145 ANOVA followed by Tukey's HSD test to determine significant differences between treatment 146 groups (p < 0.05) through SAS _{ver9.2} software.

147 **Results**

148 Effects of salt stress on rice seedling growth

After treating the two-old-week seedlings with 100 mg NaCl, the onset of morphological damage 149 was observed after three days. On the seventh day, morphological changes such as a rolling leaf, 150 whitening of the leaf tip, growth limitation, and finally death were found in the plants, while the 151 plants grew normally under control conditions. The lentgh of IR28 and Rice Hashemi seedlings 152 was considerably decreased (respectively about 44.7%, and 44.2% reduction to that of the control), 153 and the leaves progressively yellowed. Nevertheless, the mutant genotypes (em4hs290 and 154 em₄hs84) and FL478 were not almost affected after 3 to 5 days. IR28 and Hashemi genotypes 155 gradually died after 3 to 5 days of salt stress, whereas the older leaves of the mutant genotypes and 156 FL478 just started to yellow. The mutant genotypes and FL478 were able to grow and produce new 157 leaves after seven days of the salinity stress (Fig. 1). Thus, the genotype's survival was graded as 158 $em_4hs290 > em_4hs84 > FL478 > Hashemi cultivar > IR28$ (Table 2). These results illustrated that 159 the mutant genotypes and FL478 are more tolerant than the Hashemi cultivar and IR28. 160

161	Table 2. Effect of salt stress	on morphological tra	its of the mutant rice gen	otypes and control
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Rice genotypes	Stem length (cm)		Root length (cm)		Stem fresh weight (g)		Root fresh weight (g)		Stem dry weight (g)		Root dry weight (g)	
8 11	Control	10 dS	Control	10 dS	Control	10 dS	Control	10 dS	Control	10 dS	Control	10 dS
Fl478	51.9	24.75	10.5	11	0.46	0.125	0.51	0.185	0.07	0.03	0.02	0.015
IR28	42.5	19	8	6.3	0.405	0.07	0.34	0.115	0.11	0.02	0.03	0.01
Hashemi	48.4	21.5	9.1	7.5	0.43	0.1	0.475	0.125	0.065	0.02	0.02	0.01
em3hs84	55.5	30	12.95	10.75	0.9	0.185	0.835	0.275	0.135	0.03	0.04	0.02
em3hs290	54.2	37.5	13.8	13.2	1.11	0.33	0.81	0.645	0.15	0.06	0.03	0.025



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Fig. 1. Growth and developmental status of the studied genotypes under salinity stress. A: The rice
 genotypes at normal conditions B: The mutant rice genotypes under salinity stress C: IR28 and
 Hashemi under salinity stress.

167 Ion content changes in shoots of the genotypes under salt stress

The K⁺ and Na⁺ content and K⁺/Na⁺ ratio displayed a significant (P<0.01) difference among the 168 mutant genotypes and the control cultivars under the salinity stress. Regardless of the type of tissues 169 and genotypes, salinity stress reduced K^+ content. The K^+ content in the leaves of *em*₄*hs*290 and 170 em4hs84 reached from 4.05 % to 4.25 %, which is higher than IR28 and Hashemi cultivars (2.81 171 and 3.11%) (Fig. 2a). The Na⁺ content in both mutants was 0.23%, which is lower than that of IR28 172 and Hashemi cultivar (0.59 and 0.48%) (Fig. 2b). The Na⁺ accumulation in leaves and stems of all 173 evaluated genotypes was extremely higher or lower under stress conditions. Plants may develop 174 different approaches to achieve salinity tolerance by regulating via regulation of osmotic 175 adjustment, tissue tolerance adaptation, restriction in Na⁺ ion loading and accumulation in tissues, 176 or Na⁺ exclusion from the cytosol (Shabala et al., 2010; Cuin et al., 2011; Shahzad et al., 2022). 177 Moreover, the potassium/sodium (K⁺/Na⁺) ratio in different parts of all genotypes reduced under 178 salinity stress. The K⁺/Na⁺ ratio in R28 and Hashemi cultivars (0.22 and 0.15% respectively) was 179 180 higher than that of the mutant genotypes (0.051 to 0.054) and FL478 (0.062). The ability of salinity tolerant genotypes to decrease Na⁺ net uptake and maintain K⁺ uptake triggered desirable 181 K⁺/Na⁺ratio in all tissues (Fig. 2c). 182

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Fig. 2. Mean comparison of salt stress effects on cellular ion and mineral accumulation in shoot. Changes in Na concentration (a), K concentration (b), and Na/K ratio (c) in rice genotypes under 100 mM NaCl treatment over time using Tukey's test (P < 0.05).

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189 Physiological modulations under salt stress

The compatible solute accumulation such as proline, is one of the most important mechanisms involved in crop plant response to abiotic stresses like drought and salinity (Singh et al., 2018). The results illustrated that IR28 and Hashemi cultivars accumulated lower proline in comparison to the mutant genotypes and FL478 (Fig. 3a). After applying the stress, the proline concentration increased in *em*₄*hs*290 (0.96) and *em*₄*hs*84 (0.77) rather than IR28 (0.42) as compared to the control plants (Fig. 3a). Therefore the tolerant plants accumulated proline to survive against the salt stress, compared to the respective controls (Fig. 3b).



Fig. 3. Mean comparison of proline content in the rice genotypes (a) and the interaction of genotype×stress×time (b). Different letters in each rice line show significant differences using Tukey's test at (P < 0.05).

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- 202 Effect of salinity stress on the expression of ion transport-related genes
- 203 Based on QRT-PCR results, the changes in relative gene expression levels confirmed the
- 204 relationship between ion transport regulation and salt stress (Fig. 4).



Fig. 4. Relative gene expression analysis of the ion transport-related (a: *OsNHX1* and b: *SOS1*)
 genes by Q real-time PCR among three biological replicates in the rice genotypes. The studied
 reference gene was Ubiquitin10. Expression levels of genes in salt-stressed plants were normalized
 concerning those in non-stressed plants.

The induction of OsNHX1 and SOS1 expression was slightly higher in the tolerant genotypes, and 211 reached a peak at 72 h after stress initiation (Fig. 4). The expression of SOS1 increased in IR28 and 212 213 Hashemi rice cultivars during 48h and 72h. However, the expression of OsNHX1 elevated in IR28 at 48 h after the stress induction (Fig. 4a). The expression of OsNHX1 and SOS1 enhanced in 214 tolerant genotypes compared to the susceptible genotype after 6 h of salinity stress. Despite this, 215 after prolonged stress, a significant difference between tolerant and susceptible genotypes was 216 detected. However, the expression levels of SOS1 increased in em4hs290 and FL478 (Fig. 4b). The 217 218 tolerant genotypes also demonstrated early and higher expression in ion transport-related genes (NHX1 and SOS1) compared to the sensitive genotypes. After 6 h, the expression of genes 219 (OsNHX1 and SOS1) started to increase and presented the most meaningful increase in SOS1 220 expression, with above a 10-fold increase in shoot tissue after 48 h of salt stress (Fig. 5). After 221 222 applying salt, the expression levels of OsNHX1 and SOS1 genes significantly up-regulated in all genotypes. Remarkably, expression levels of SOS1 and OsNHX1 were considerably up-regulated 223

under 48 h salt treatment in all genotypes. It is generally recognized that Na⁺ and K⁺ transporter

gene families such as SOS and NHX play a significant role in cellular or whole plant Na⁺ exclusion,

sequestration, and planta movement (El Mahi et al., 2019; Martínez-Atienza et al., 2007; Shabala
& Munns, 2017; Shabala et al., 2010).



Fig. 5. The relative gene expression levels of *OsNHX1* and *SOS1* genes in the studied genotypes
under salinity stress conditions by Q real-time PCR among three biological replicates in the rice
genotypes. The applied reference gene was Ubiquitin10.

233 The results showed that the SOS1 transcript profile was similar among all genotypes as they all appeared to have an expression peak at 48 h after stress. While a significant difference was not 234 observed in SOS1 expression among genotypes after 6 h salinity exposure (Fig. 4b). Salt-tolerant 235 genotype (FL478) showed ~5–6-fold higher expression of SOS1 when compared to Hashemi rice 236 at 48 h and 72 h after stress. Also, em4hs290 and Fl478 reached the highest level of SOS1 transcript 237 ~3–4-fold transcript levels after 72 h salt treatment. However, IR28 and *em₄hs84* mutant genotypes 238 showed similar expression patterns under salt stress, nevertheless, the results illustrated a peak of 239 expression level at 48 h after stress and then showed a sharp decrease after salt treatment at 72 h. 240 The higher expression of the SOS1 gene was detected in the salt-resistant genotypes, while the 241 expression was decreased considerably in the sensitive genotypes (Fig. 4b). 242

The results exhibited that the *SOS1* transcript levels were dissimilar among five rice genotypes. IR28 and em_4hs84 showed the highest *OsNHX1* expression after salt stress, reaching a peak 48 h after stress initiation and then decreasing at 72 h after stress. Hence, em_4hs290 mutant genotype, Hashemi rice, and Fl478 showed a decrease at 48 h after stress. The results illustrated that a peak in the expression levels of *SOS1* in FL478 and em_4hs290 was more intense than in Hashemi cultivar

at 48 h after stress and then showed a sharp increase after salt treatment at 72 h. Moreover, the
resistant genotypes under the control conditions (0 mg NaCl) indicated a higher expression in *OsNHX1* transcript levels compared to the salt-susceptible variety IR28.

In general, the mutant tolerant genotypes were able to have had different physiological and biochemical responses to salt stress with comparison to control cultivars: em_4hs290 and em_4hs84 showed a K⁺ high content in leaves, a high proline content, and absorbed more K⁺ in the response to salinity. Moreover, The two mutants (em_4hs290 , em_4hs84) showed up-regulation of responsive genes and the inhibition of ion transport.

256

257 Discussion

Salt stress restrains crop production through various processes including ionic, osmotic, and 258 oxidative stress. Its direct target is cytoplasmic concentrations via increasing sodium and chloride 259 and disruption of membrane ion transport on cellular processes that could inhibit plant growth and 260 development. The results exhibited that genotype and salinity stress caused meaningful effects on 261 morphological, physiological, and molecular responses. Hence, the results indicated that the mutant 262 genotypes and FL478 might use different mechanisms in response to stress; because each rice 263 variety could employ one or two salt-tolerance mechanisms (Ganie et al., 2019) to decrease the 264 damage of salt stress by adjusting physiological and biochemical mechanisms (Pental, 2019; Rasel 265 et al., 2021; Peng et al., 2016). 266

The salinity stress imposed at the seedling stage led to a significant decrease in growth indices in Hashemi rice and IR28 cultivar under salinity stress intensively, while the responses of mutant genotypes and FL478 to salinity stress varied also observed by Zhang et al., (2018) and Khatun et al., (2023).

As discussed in the results section, Na⁺ content significantly increased at all time points. This aligns with previous studies by Zhang et al. (2022), indicating a common stress response. The results also showed that the mutant genotypes could manage the ion uptake in the shoots by absorbing more K^+ , decreasing the Na⁺ concentration and the Na⁺/K⁺ ratio. These results are in accord with the findings of Nakhoda et al (2012) and Shahzad et al (2022) (Table 3).

The expression of *SOS1* was up-regulated under salinity in tolerant genotypes in leaf tissues, which could be associated with simplifying the exclusion of toxic Na⁺ into root apoplast and their ability to maintain a higher K⁺/Na⁺ ratio of leaves (Figs. 2, 3a) (Shahzad et al, 2022). An increase in the

279 relative expression of OsNHX1 was observed in mutant genotypes and a decrease in IR28 relative 280 expression at 6 h after stress. The high reaction was observed in the tolerant genotypes at the earliest hours after stress, whereas the sensitive genotype response varied with time. Therefore, these 281 results revealed that the sensitive genotype takes a longer time to operate stress-responsible genes, 282 which could be a factor for delayed hemostasis and high damage due to salinity stress. 283 Nevertheless, it has already been demonstrated that the expression patterns of NHX-type genes in 284 salt-sensitive and salt-tolerant plants are varied mainly, rather than probable differences in gene 285 sequences (Hamada et al., 2001; Gong et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2008; Xia et al., 2002;). 286

Therefore, the results of the experiments obviously demonstrated that mutant genotypes could 287 perform better than IR28 and Hashemi rice under salinity level of 10 dSm-1 at early seedling stage. 288 In rice, the salt tolerance in the seedling stage varies with the salinity tolerance during the other 289 growth periods and may not be associated with each other (Jenks et al., 2007; Singh et al., 2010). 290 For this reason, we need to characterize the rice salinity tolerance during the entire growth period 291 in the field. These results contribute to understanding salinity tolerance mechanisms in rice by 292 293 highlighting the role of SOS1 and NHX1 gene expression in Na+ and K+ homeostasis. However, further research is needed to elucidate these pathways fully. The results of this research and other 294 studies illustrated that the breeding by mutation method has the potential to create new cultivars 295 with desirable morphological characteristics. This study highlights the potential of Hashemi rice 296 297 mutants in improving salinity tolerance. Considering the results from all of the experiments, EMS effectively induced variation in salt tolerance in Hashemi rice and was a successful method for 298 299 developing salt-tolerant varieties and yield sustainability in rice.

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481	بهبود شاخصهای تحمل به شوری و تنظیم هموستازی یونهای +Na و +K در موتانتهای برنج هاشمی
482	لیلا خزائی، و رضا شیرزادیان خرمآباد
483	چکیدہ
484	تنش شوری یک تهدید بزرگ زیست محیطی برای توسعه عملکرد محصول است. از این رو، توسعه هر طرح اصلاحی نیاز
485	به درک اولیه فیزیولوژی و ژنتیک سلولهای تحت تنش شوری دارد. در این مطالعه، ما پروفایل بیان ژنهای موثر بر
486 197	هموستاری یونی شامل حساسیت بیش از حد نمک (SOSI) و اننی پورتر ۲۰۳/۳ و اخونلی (NHXI) همراه با انداز مخیری محتمای دون م محتمای در مارن در غذه تدریهای جوش دافته متحمل در موسیه متحققات در نج کشور در سال های 1307 1308
407 488	محتوری یون و محتوری پرویش در ریونیپهای جهس یاف منعمن در موسب حجیجات بریخ کشور در سانهای ۱۶۶۶-۱۶۶۶ مورد بر رسی قرارگرفت بهمنظور بر رسی این و اقعیتها، ژنوتیبهای چهش یافته متحمل (69.6m/ng و 68.4m/ng) همر او
489	با رقم والد هاشمی، IR28 (حساس) و FL478 (مقاوم) تحت تنش 100 میلیمولار NaCl قرار گرفتند. بر اساس نتایج
490	شاخص های رشد، طول ساقه رقم هاشمی و IR28 به طور قابلتوجهی حدود 44/7 درصد و 44/2 درصد نسبت به شرایط
491	شاهد کاهش داشتند و برگها به تدریج زرد شدند. نتایج نشان داد که محتوای پرولین و نسبت +K و K+/Na در ژنوتیپهای
492	متحمل حدود ۲ تا ۳ برابر بیشتر از ژنوتیپهای حساس با قرار گرفتن در معرض تنش شوری افزایش یافت. همچنین، میزان علی از ۱۳۷۸ می ۱۹۹۹ در ارتزار تا با شتر از با ترا
493 101	کل بیان USINHXI و SOBI در ارقام منحمل بیستر از ارقام حساس بود. بسابر این، بیان بالای رن های مرتبط با دروه بودی (SNHV1) م SOS1 م SOS1 در بدگ ثنوند، های جعش دافته 6200 م 684 م م 584 م تجمع املاح سازگار دهطور قال توجه .
495	اف الله ، مـ دهد و همو ستازی بوني را از تقاء مـ دهد و احتمالاً تنش را مهار مـ کند الگوی متغیر بدان ژنهای مور د مطالعه
496	در دو ژنوتیپ جهشیافته متحمل به نمک (em4hs290 و em4hs84) و والد هاشمی نشان داد که جهش میتواند توانایی

497	ژنوتیپ جهشیافته متحمل به نمک را در استفاده از هموستاز یونی و اسمزی در پاسخ به تنش شوری تغییر دهد. بهطور کلی،
498	اين ژنوتيپهاي جهشيافته متحمل را ميتوان براي توسعه واريتههاي متحمل به شوري در برنامه هاي اصلاحي برنج انتخاب
499	کرد که میتواند پایداری تولید را به همر اه داشته باشد.
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