Dynamic regulation of protein homeostasis underlies acquired thermotolerance in *Arabidopsis thaliana*

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Abstract

Rapid climate change necessitates the development of heat-stress resilient plants. Elevated temperatures perturb cellular protein homeostasis, and its timely restoration is critical for plant survival post-stress. Thermopriming, which involves pre-exposure to sublethal heat stress, has emerged as a promising approach to enhance heat stress tolerance. However, the impact of thermopriming on protein homeostasis remains unclear. This study demonstrates that priming-mediated short-term acquired thermotolerance involves dynamic regulation of protein maintenance (HSPs) and clearance (autophagy) mechanisms. Priming facilitates an increase in HSP abundance through HSFA1 activation. Concurrently, priming induces autophagy through dynamic modulation of autophagy-negative regulators through IRE1's-mRNA degradation activity. Contrarily, unprimed seedlings fail to exhibit such coordinated regulation, resulting in disrupted proteostasis and fail to survive. While the loss of IRE1 had minimal impact on priming-mediated outcomes, HSFA1 proved essential, as its absence led to lethality under heat stress. This underscores the critical role of protein maintenance mechanisms over clearance pathways in ensuring survival. Taken together, our study demonstrates that thermopriming enhances heat stress resilience by temporally coordinating autophagy and chaperone responses to maintain proteostasis.

Keywords

Autophagy, ER stress, Heat Shock Factor A1, Priming, Thermotolerance

Introduction

In nature, plants often encounter multiple abiotic and biotic stresses which affects their cellular homeostasis. High temperature is one such abiotic stressor that is detrimental to plant growth, productivity and even survival. Heat stress reduces protein, starch, and oil content (Fahad et al., 2017) and can cause substantial economic losses in agriculture (Long & Ort, 2010; Schmitt et al., 2022). Studies have reported that for every 2°C rise in temperature, there could be a 50% decline in crop productivity (Lobell et al., 2012). As sessile organisms, plants cannot escape adverse conditions and must instead preemptively activate protective genes to survive. Recent studies identified that pre-exposure to a stress stimulus (referred to as 'priming') can dramatically improve plant stress tolerance.

'Priming' is a memory-based physiological response in which an organism mounts a heightened defense response to subsequent stresses (Conrath, 2011; Conrath et al., 2007; Wilkinson et al., 2019). Several stimuli including mild environmental stress factors, hormones or chemical moieties can serve as priming agents (Nair et al., 2022). Priming-mediated acquired stress tolerance has been previously studied in the model plant system *Arabidopsis thaliana* along with several crop plants (Balmer et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2021; Samantaray et al., 2023; Song et al., 2015; Westman et al., 2019; Ye et al., 2019). Priming can aid in remodeling the transcriptomic, epigenetic, or metabolic programs, increasing the robustness of plant response to subsequent stress (Catoni et al., 2022; Espinas et al., 2016; Gamir et al., 2014; Serrano et al., 2019; Tugizimana et al., 2018). While several studies focused on understanding the epigenetic regulation underlying priming response (Crespo-Salvador et al., 2018; Kotkar & Giri, 2020; Noh et al., 2021; Turgut-Kara et al., 2020), very little is known about the role of post-transcriptional processes such as protein homeostasis, autophagy and mitochondrial dynamics, which are critical for plant survival (Raffeiner et al., 2023; Selinski et al., 2024; Sun et al., 2021).

Heat stress primarily disrupts protein homeostasis by destabilizing thermolabile protein molecules (Richter et al., 2010). In response, plants activate multiple proteostasis pathways - including molecular chaperones, autophagy, and the ubiquitin-proteasome system (UPS) - to restore protein homeostasis and promote stress tolerance. Upon heat stress, misfolded proteins accumulate thereby activating heat shock response (HSR) in cytosol, and unfolded protein response (UPR) in endoplasmic reticulum (Gao et al., 2023). HSR involves accumulation of heat shock proteins (HSPs), which facilitates the refolding and disaggregation of misfolded proteins (Richter et al., 2010; Rosenzweig et al., 2019). *HSFA2* and *HSFA3* are well-established HSR molecules involved in transcriptional upregulation of chaperones under

acclimatizing heat stress conditions (Friedrich et al., 2021). Additionally, proteotoxic stress also activates degradative pathways- UPS and autophagy. Where UPS is involved in clearance of unfolded/misfolded proteins, autophagy contributes by removing damaged organelles and promotes the recycling of dysfunctional proteins/aggregates during heat stress (Raffeiner et al., 2023; Sharma et al., 2024; Su et al., 2020; Zhou et al., 2013). Autophagy is tightly regulated by signaling pathways involving TOR, SnRK, and IRE1. TOR (Target of rapamycin) inhibits autophagy under nutrient-rich conditions by phosphorylating components of the autophagy initiation complex (Suttangkakul et al., 2011), whereas, SnRK (sucrose non-fermenting 1 (SNF1)-related protein kinase) promotes autophagy during energy deprivation by inhibiting TOR (Soto-Burgos & Bassham, 2017). IRE1 (Inositol-requiring 1), an endoplasmic reticulum (ER) membrane protein, gets activated during ER stress (Nawkar et al., 2018; Pastor-Cantizano et al., 2020) and is proposed to positively regulate autophagy via its mRNA degradation activity (Bao et al., 2018). Additionally, HSFA1a has also been identified to induce autophagy under heat and drought stress by upregulating *ATG* genes (Wang et al., 2015; Xie et al., 2022). Autophagy also plays a role in resetting long-term heat-stress memory (Sedaghatmehr et al., 2019) by degrading specific chaperones HSP21 and HSP90.1, through FtsH6- and NBR1-mediated mechanisms, respectively (Sedaghatmehr et al., 2021; Thirumalaikumar et al., 2020). However, how protein homeostasis mechanisms contribute towards priming-mediated responses remains understudied.

In this study, we examined the regulation of protein homeostasis pathways to gain insights into the post-transcriptional regulatory landscape and its role in short-term heat stress memory. Our findings suggest that thermopriming enhances thermotolerance by concurrently activating protein maintenance and protection through the accumulation of chaperones, as well as facilitates protein clearance via autophagy. Conversely, unprimed seedlings fail to activate the protein protective response, leading to disruption of proteostasis and ultimately failing to survive severe heat stress. Overall, our study offers novel insights into priming-induced heat stress tolerance, highlighting the critical role of protein homeostasis in maintaining cellular resilience under thermal stress.

Methods

Plant materials and growth conditions

Arabidopsis thaliana (Col-0-referred to as WT and Ws-0-referred to as Ws-0) seeds were surface sterilized by washing with 80% ethanol for 30 seconds (s) followed by 1% bleach for 3 minutes (min),

and 3x washes with sterile double distilled water. Seeds were then sown on ½ Murashige and Skoog media with 1% sucrose and 0.8% agar powder. The seeds were stratified at 4°C for two days before transferring them to growth chambers with 16 hour (h) light and 8h dark, 65% humidity. The five-day-old *Arabidopsis* seedlings were primed by exposing them to 37°C for 90 min, followed by a recovery at 22°C for 90 min, and heat-triggering at 45°C for 45 min. The unprimed seedlings were directly exposed to 45°C for 45 min. For the primed-control condition, seedlings were only subjected to a 37°C treatment for 90 min and were returned to optimal growth conditions. Control seedlings were maintained at optimal growth conditions (22°C, 16h light and 8h dark, 65% humidity) throughout the experiment. Seedlings were harvested at different stress recovery time points for gene expression and protein analysis. The treatment conditions described above were also used for the analysis of GFP-ATG8a (CS39996), ER-GFP (CS16251), and *bzip60* (CS813074) (all three plant lines were obtained from ABRC (Arabidopsis Biological Resource Center). The *ire1a/b* line was kindly provided by Chen et al., 2013 and Pu et al., 2019. The homozygous *hsfa1a/b/d* (psi00284) line was obtained from RIKEN-BRC.

Phenotypic analysis

To determine the effect of priming or triggering heat stress on growth, seedlings were analysed for leaf number, root length and fresh weight. Data for leaf number (48 seedlings from three independent experiments), primary root length (18 seedlings from three independent experiments) and fresh weight (three biological replicates, where one replicate includes 16 seedlings) were collected and analysed. Root length was measured using the ImageJ software (https://imagej.net/software/fiji/) (Schneider et al., 2012).

Protein extraction and Western blot analysis

Soluble protein was extracted from five-day-old *Arabidopsis* seedlings as previously described in Yamamoto et al. (2018) with a few modifications. About 40-50 mg of seedlings were collected and frozen in liquid nitrogen. The samples were ground using Retsch Miller MM400 at 25Hz for 30 seconds (s) (x2 cycles). After grinding, 200-300µl of 1x RIPA lysis buffer (Merck; 20-188) containing 10% glycerol, 1x phosphatase inhibitor cocktail (PhosSTOP, Roche; 4906837001), and 1x protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche; 4693132001) was added and incubated at 4°C for 1 h at 1500 rpm. The samples were centrifuged at 14000 rpm for 30 min at 4°C, after which the supernatant containing protein was collected and stored at -80°C until further use. Plant protein aggregates were extracted using a standard protocol

as described by Phukan et al. (2023).

For protein analysis, protein concentration was estimated using the BCA method, following the
manufacturer's instructions (Cat. No. 23225). Protein (20 µg per lane) was loaded onto an 8% SDS-
PAGE gel, which was stained using Coomassie Brilliant Blue. Protein bands were visualized after
destaining the gel following a standard protocol ("Destaining Solution for Coomassie Brilliant Blue
R250," 2007). For Western blot analysis, 20 µg of protein was loaded onto 6-12% SDS-PAGE,
following which the proteins were transferred to the nitrocellulose membrane. The blot was blocked
using 5% BSA or 2% skim milk solution for 1 h at room temperature (RT), followed by primary
antibody incubation (overnight at 4°C). The blot was developed after secondary antibody incubation (1
h at RT) using Immobilon Forte HRP substrate (Cat. No. WBLUF0500). α-Tub (CST 3873), ATG8
(Abcam, ab77003), ATG8 (Agrisera, AS14 2769), GFP (CST 2956), HSP70 (Abcam, ab2787), HSP90
(Sigma, CA1023), HSP90 (Agrisera, AS08 346), HSP17.6 (Agrisera, AS07 254), HSP21 (Agrisera,
AS08 285), HSP101 (Agrisera, AS08 287), pS6K (CST 9234), S6K (CST 9202), pAMPK-α (CST
2535), Ubiquitin (CST 3933) and Actin (AS13 2640) were used as primary antibodies. Anti-rabbit (sc-
2313; CST 7074) and anti-mouse (CST 7076) were used as secondary antibodies. Blots were quantified
densitometrically using ImageJ software (https://imagej.net/software/fiji/).

Gene expression analysis

For gene expression analysis, about 40-50 mg of five-day-old *Arabidopsis* seedlings were collected at
several time points (post-priming and triggering, and during recovery) and frozen in liquid nitrogen.
The samples were ground using Retsch Miller MM400 at 25Hz for 30 s (x2 cycles). After grinding,
RNA was isolated from the samples using a combination of TRIzol/chloroform extraction and kit
method (PureLink™ RNA Mini Kit, Thermo; 12183018A). The purified RNA was treated with DNase
I (NEB; M0303) following standard protocol. cDNA was synthesized using 1 µg of RNA following
manufacturer's instructions (1st strand cDNA synthesis kit, Takara; 6110A). RT-PCR was performed
using SapphireAmp® Fast PCR Master Mix (Takara; RR350A), while iTaq™ Universal SYBR® Green
Supermix (Biorad; 1725121) was used for performing qRT-PCR. Gene accession IDs and PCR primers
are described in **Table S1**.

Microscopy

The primed and unprimed ER-GFP seedlings were collected post-triggering heat stress and fixed using

4% paraformaldehyde solution (Himedia; TCL119) containing 0.1% Triton X-100 (Zhu et al., 2020). After adding the fixating solution, the samples were kept in a desiccator for 30-40 seconds by applying vacuum. The process was repeated several times until the seedlings sank. The samples were then incubated with shaking in a fixating solution for 20 min, followed by washing with 1xPBS (3 times) for 5 min. *Arabidopsis* leaf tissue was visualized under 40x magnification using Zeiss LSM 710 confocal microscope. A total of 16 seedlings from four independent experiments were imaged for each time point. Images were analysed using ImageJ software (https://imagej.net/software/fiji/).

Statistical Analysis

The data was plotted using GraphPad Prism 10.0 (https://www.graphpad.com/). The experiments were conducted using three biological replicates unless stated otherwise. The data was analysed using One-way ANOVA (for qPCR data), Two-way ANOVA and student's t-test (for phenotype analysis) to obtain statistical significance. *p* values <0.05 were considered significant (**Dataset S1 and S2**).

Results

Priming improves survival from severe heat stress

To understand the mechanism driving short-term acquired thermotolerance, we exposed the five-day-old Arabidopsis wild-type (WT) seedlings to 37°C (for 90 min) and allowed them to briefly recover at optimum conditions (for 90 min) before exposing them to triggering heat stress (45°C for 45 min) (**Figure 1A**). Hereafter, this condition is referred to as 'primed'. The effect of thermopriming was analysed by comparing the impact of lethal heat stress on primed *vs.* naive (unprimed: directly exposed to triggering heat stress) seedlings. Post heat stress, we recorded the seedling growth as a function of time under all the conditions tested (control, primed and unprimed) (**Figure 1B**). Post-exposure to triggering heat stress, primed seedlings displayed a halt in growth; however, the growth resumed quickly, which was found to be significantly higher than the unprimed, quantified as leaf number, root length and fresh weight (**Figure 1, C-E**). Five days post heat stress, unprimed seedlings display a visibly complete loss of chlorophyll and fail to survive (**Figure 1B**). To summarise, heat stress affects growth in both primed and unprimed conditions. However, primed plants can mount a better response, aiding in resuming growth swiftly post-heat stress.

Thermopriming mitigates heat stress-induced protein damage

To determine whether priming-mediated seedling survival upon heat stress is associated with efficient maintenance of proteins, we analysed the total protein content in heat-treated/untreated seedlings across all conditions (**Figure 2A**). The protein content in the control (grown at optimal conditions at 22°C), primed control (subjected to only priming stimulus at 37ºC and returned to optimal conditions) and primed seedlings was found to be similar across all the time points analysed post-heat stress (**Figure 2B**). On the other hand, unprimed seedlings display a consistent drop in total protein levels from 1 to 3 days post stress (DPS), indicating a loss in total protein content (**Figure 2B**). These results suggest that priming-mediated heat stress tolerance may involve efficient maintenance of the protein pool/homeostasis.

Priming modulates proteostasis through temporal regulation of autophagy and chaperones

We next assessed the status of protein homeostasis maintenance pathways – autophagy and chaperone response during the heat stress paradigm. We analysed chaperone levels (HSP70 and HSP90) post-heat stress across all conditions. Exposure to the priming stimulus (AP) results in increased accumulation of HSP70 and HSP90, which persists until 1 DPS post-exposure to triggering heat stress in the primed compared to the control (**Figure 2, C and D**). However, the unprimed seedlings fail to mount such a response, with the levels of HSPs being lower than the control seedlings (**Figure 2, C and D**). In addition, we analysed the abundance of other heat stress inducible proteins HSP17.6, HSP21 and HSP101 (Bäurle, 2016; Friedrich et al., 2021) at all the time points stated above. Increased levels of all three HSPs were detected in the primed, but not in the unprimed or control seedlings (**Figure 2, E and F**). Immediately upon exposure to priming (AP), an increased abundance of HSP17.6, HSP21 and HSP101 was detected (**Figure 2E**), which persisted until 3 DPS (**Figure 2F**). HSP101 and HSP17.6 were retained longer compared to HSP21 in the primed control (**Figure 2F**). Furthermore, to assess whether the HSP abundance observed thus far parallels transcript levels across all conditions, we profiled the expression of these *HSPs* (**Figure 2G**). In the primed seedlings, the abundance of HSPs correlated with their elevated transcript levels compared to those of the control. Surprisingly, unprimed seedlings displayed a gradual increase in *HSPs* transcript abundance post-heat stress (**Figure 2G**), which does not correlate with the protein levels observed (**Figure 2, C-F**). Nonetheless, primed controls display increased *HSP* expression, which gradually declines with time (**Figure 2G**).

We next quantified the autophagy response post-heat stress by using ATG8 as a marker. ATG8 is an autophagosome membrane protein crucial for autophagosome formation (Shpilka et al., 2011), and

elevated ATG8 levels correlate with increased autophagy (Upadhyaya et al., 2020). We observed that exposure to the priming temperature itself could induce autophagy (**Figure 3A**). However, immediately post-exposure to triggering heat stress (0h), ATG8-PE levels increased in both unprimed and primed seedlings compared to the control (**Figure 3A**). To assess if the heat stress-induced autophagy sustains, declines or surges with time, we checked the ATG8 levels from 1 to 3 DPS. In the unprimed seedlings, the ATG8-PE levels increased further by 1 DPS, which continued until 2 DPS (**Figure 3B**). Notably, the visible decline in ATG8 levels (at 3 DPS) correlates with the reduced protein content in the unprimed seedlings (**Figure 2B**). However, in the primed seedlings, ATG8-PE levels declined by 1 DPS to levels comparable to the control (**Figure 3B**). No difference in ATG8 levels was detected in the primed control compared to the control (**Figure 3B**). An increase and decrease in ATG8-PE levels in the unprimed *vs.* primed, respectively, by 1 DPS, suggests dynamic regulation of autophagy in the primed seedlings between 0 and 1 DPS. We also measured the autophagy flux across our paradigm using the GFP-ATG8 processing assay (Kang et al., 2018; Shin et al., 2014). Autophagy flux, as measured by free-GFP to total-GFP ratio, was high in unprimed, indicating highly active autophagy compared to primed and control, post-heat stress (**Figure 3, C and D**). Such a decrease or increase/sustenance of autophagy in the primed *vs.* unprimed, respectively, suggests priming-mediated dynamic regulation of autophagy.

Our findings indicate that priming-mediated heat stress tolerance involves the accumulation of HSPs and dynamic activation of autophagy, which may contribute to the effective maintenance of protein homeostasis under stress. To test this, we examined the proteostasis state by analysing for ubiquitin-conjugated protein aggregates at 1 DPS, the time at which we observed differential autophagy between the primed and unprimed conditions (**Figure 3B**). The unprimed seedlings displayed elevated ubiquitin-conjugated aggregates compared to primed or control (**Figure 3, E and F**). Collectively, these findings suggest that priming aids in the timely activation of chaperone and autophagy responses to maintain protein homeostasis, thereby enhancing plant heat stress tolerance. In contrast, unprimed seedlings display sustained autophagy with very low to undetectable HSP levels, resulting in perturbed proteostasis and fail to survive.

Regulation of autophagy under heat stress is TOR and SnRK-independent

Previous studies have identified the role of TOR and SnRK in the regulation of autophagy under stress (Pu et al., 2017; Soto-Burgos & Bassham, 2017; Yang et al., 2023). We wondered if TOR/SnRK are involved in the priming-mediated regulation of autophagy under heat stress. To test this, we analysed

the phospho-S6K (pS6K) levels as a measure of TOR kinase activity (Raught et al., 2001; Upadhyaya

et al., 2020) and active-SnRK (pAMPK: using phospho-AMPKα antibody) for SnRK activity (Baena-

González et al., 2007; Belda-Palazón et al., 2020). Interestingly, neither pS6K **(Figure S1, A-D)** nor the

pAMPK levels **(Figure S1, E-H)** were altered at any of the time points across all the conditions. These

findings suggest that priming- and heat stress-mediated regulation of autophagy (as observed in **Figure**

3, A-B) is independent of TOR and SnRK.

Unprimed seedlings exhibit sustained ER stress

We next checked if the abrogated accumulation of HSPs in the unprimed seedlings is associated with

the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) stress, as dysregulation in protein homeostasis is known to impact ER

functional status (Humbert et al., 2012). The IRE1 protein is involved in the maintenance of proteostasis

in the ER (Nawkar et al., 2018; Pastor-Cantizano et al., 2020). Upon stress, IRE1 activation leads to the

splicing of *bZIP60u* (unspliced), forming *bZIP60* spliced form (*bZIP60s*), which is known to

transcriptionally modulate genes involved in unfolded protein response (Bao et al., 2018; Deng et al.,

2011; Humbert et al., 2012). To examine the ER stress levels, if any, we analysed the transcript

abundance of *bZIP60s* across all the conditions at different time points post-priming/triggering stress.

Interestingly, exposure to priming temperature itself triggered ER stress (*bZIP60s* form visible at AP;

Figure 4A). Post-triggering heat stress, although primed seedlings display ER stress initially (AT/0

DPS), they recover by 1 DPS **(Figure 4, A and B; S2A)**. In contrast, the unprimed seedlings display

elevated and sustained *bZIP60s* levels post-exposure to triggering heat stress, suggesting high ER stress

(Figure 4, A and B; S2A) compared to the control (*bZIP60s* undetectable).

To further examine the ER status, we used an ER-specific GFP marker as a visual marker (Nelson et

al., 2007). In the unprimed, GFP signal was visible immediately post-triggering heat stress (0 DPS),

which dramatically reduced to undetectable levels from 1 to 3 DPS **(Figure S2B)**. Contrarily, the primed

seedlings display the ER-GFP signal similar to that of the control at all the time points tested. These

results suggest that priming aids in the efficient maintenance of ER under heat stress, which is absent

in the unprimed, potentially resulting in the disruption of the ER. Taken together, these findings indicate

that thermopriming mitigates the heat stress-induced ER stress, promoting seedling survival.

ER-associated IRE1 modulates autophagy during priming

291 In addition to regulating *bZIP60* splicing, IRE1 also modulates autophagy by fine-tuning the RIDD

(Regulated IRE1-dependent decay of mRNA) activity (Li & Howell, 2021; Maurel et al., 2014). Notably, RIDD leads to the downregulation of inhibitors of autophagy, such as *BGLU21*, *ROSY1* and *PR-14,* by targeting those mRNAs for degradation (Bao et al., 2018). We surmised that reversal to basal level *vs.* more sustained autophagy in the primed and unprimed, respectively, may involve RIDD-mediated regulation. Therefore, we examined *BGLU21*, *ROSY1* and *PR-14* transcript levels across all the conditions and time points tested. At the time points- post priming (AP), before triggering (BT) and after triggering (AT: 0 DPS), primed seedlings showed a significant reduction in the transcript levels of all three genes compared to the control (**Figure 4, C-E**). However, by 1-2 DPS, we observed a recovery in their transcript abundance (**Figure 4, C-E**). Contrary to this, the transcript levels of *BGLU21* and *PR14* significantly remained lower in unprimed seedlings at all the time points compared to the control (**Figure 4, C-E**). Whereas, except for *BGLU21* after triggering stress time-point, no significant difference in transcript abundance was observed in the primed control compared to control seedlings (**Figure 4, C-E**). Particularly, these changes in the transcript abundance correlate with the ATG8/ATG8-PE levels in these seedlings (**Figure 3, A-B**). For instance, in the primed, reduced transcript abundance of these autophagy inhibitors correlates with the induced autophagy (at AP, BT, AT). By 1-2 DPS, when the transcript abundance of these inhibitors reverts to near control level (**Figure 4, C-E**), autophagy was found to return to basal level in the primed (**Figure 3, A-B**). Contrarily, sustained induction of autophagy aligns with reduced transcript abundance of the autophagy inhibitors in the unprimed, post-exposure to triggering heat stress (**Figure 3, A-B; Figure 4, C-E**). These observations suggest that priming modulates autophagy, potentially through the IRE1-RIDD-mediated regulation.

Loss of bZIP60 or IRE1 leads to a delay in priming-mediated heat stress recovery

We next analysed the response of *bzip60* and *ire1a ire1b* (referred to as *ire1a/b*) homozygous mutants (**Figure S3, A-B**) to heat stress with or without priming. When directly exposed to triggering heat stress (unprimed), both *bzip60* and *ire1a/b* seedlings failed to survive (**Figure S3, C-D**), which was similar to wild-type (WT) (**Figure 1B**). However, the growth of primed seedlings was found to be slower in the mutants. When observed seven days post heat stress, the root length was found to be significantly lower in the primed *bzip60* and *ire1a/b* compared to their respective control, while the root length of primed WT was found to be similar to that of its control (**Figure 5A**).

Further, we assessed whether the autophagy dynamics are affected in the *bzip60* and *ire1a/b* mutants

upon exposure to heat stress. We observed that the autophagy was induced in the *bzip60* and *ire1a/b* mutants (**Figure S4, A-B**) and its dynamics remain similar to that of WT (**Figure 3, A-B**). Loss of IRE1A/B and bZIP60 did not seem to disrupt autophagy induction during heat stress. This was surprising as we observed thus far that high temperature induces ER stress, which activates IRE1, thereby regulating autophagy. However, autophagy was still being induced in the absence of IRE1A/B and bZIP60. These findings suggest a partial role for IRE1-bZIP60 and may involve alternate autophagy regulatory mechanisms operating during heat stress.

We next analysed the HSP levels in *bzip60* and *ire1a/b* mutants. Primed *bzip60* and *ire1a/b* seedlings display elevated levels for all the HSPs tested (**Figure 5B**). However, slight differences still exist in the abundance of HSPs across genotypes. For instance, HSP17.6 and HSP21 show similar induction patterns across WT and *ire1a/b*, wherein both the HSPs reach maximal induction by 1 DPS, whereas the *bzip60* mutant displayed a maximum level of HSP21 at 2 DPS (**Figure 5C**). Nonetheless, primed WT shows a slightly higher abundance of both HSP17.6 and HSP21 at 0 DPS compared to *bzip60* and *ire1a/b*. Similarly, both mutants displayed differences in the induction of HSP70 and HSP101 compared to WT. For HSP70, the level of induction in the mutants and WT was minimal at all the time points tested (**Figure 5C**). However, HSP101 was highest in WT compared to the mutants at 0 DPS post-heat stress, which declined from 0 to 3 DPS. Both the mutants displayed the highest abundance only at 1 DPS, while *bzip60* showed a steady decline from 1 to 3 DPS (**Figure 5C**). The unprimed *bzip60* and *ire1a/b* displayed no detectable level of HSPs (**Figure 5B**), similar to the unprimed WT. To assess if the protein level changes parallel transcript level changes, we determined the *HSPs* expression in both mutants. As expected, all the *HSPs* tested displayed elevated transcript levels post-priming in both *bzip60* and *ire1a/b* (**Figure 5D**). Unprimed *bzip60* and *ire1a/b* also displayed a delayed increase in *HSP* transcript levels (**Figure 5D**), similar to WT (**Figure 2G**).

Activation of the protein protective response is crucial for heat stress tolerance

As we posit that alternate mechanisms may operate to regulate autophagy, we looked at HSFA1a, a transcription factor previously shown to induce autophagy under abiotic stress conditions (Wang et al., 2015; Xie et al., 2022). To examine if HSFA1 is involved, we first assessed if it is active during the priming/triggering regime. The HSFA1-mediated response is primarily executed through the induction of its downstream targets *HSFA2* and *HSFA3* (Friedrich et al., 2021; Ohama et al., 2017). Therefore, we profiled the expression levels of *HSFA1a*, *HSFA2,* and *HSFA3* post-priming/triggering heat stress.

We observed that *HSFA1a* levels do not significantly change, except at the AT/1DPS timepoint in unprimed, across the time points tested (**Figure 6A**). Our observations were in line with previous reports where *HSFA1a* levels did not significantly change under ER stress (Löchli et al., 2023), likely because HSFA1 regulation under heat stress is predominantly controlled at the post-translational level (Mesihovic et al., 2022; Ohama et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2023). In contrast, the downstream targets *HSFA2* and *HSFA3* were upregulated in both primed and unprimed following heat stress (**Figure 6A**). Notably, *HSFA2* induction persisted even at 2 DPS, whereas *HSFA3* induction returned to basal levels by 1 DPS in primed seedlings (**Figure 6A**).

To overcome the functional redundancy of the HSFA1s in *Arabidopsis*, we used a previously reported *hsfa1a/b/d* triple mutant line (Yoshida et al., 2011) for our analysis. The unprimed *hsfa1a/b/d* and Col-0/Ws-0 did not show any difference in their heat stress response (**Figure 6B**). However, even upon priming, the *hsfa1a/b/d* mutants failed to display survival post-heat stress, unlike the Col-0/Ws-0 seedlings (**Figure 6B**). When we probed to assess autophagy in *hsfa1a/b/d*, we observed that autophagy remains highly induced in both primed and unprimed, even after 2-3 DPS (**Figure 6C**). Moreover, the priming-mediated HSP induction was abolished in the *hsfa1a/b/d* mutant in contrast to WT (**Figure 6D**).

These observations suggest that the absence of protein protective response (chaperone), as seen in unprimed (all genotypes) and primed (*hsfa1a/b/d* mutant), leads to persistent activation of clearance response (autophagy) to resolve proteotoxic stress, but ultimately leads to lethality. Taken together, our study identifies that timely modulation of protein homeostasis through the accumulation of HSP and activation of autophagy underpins heat stress tolerance following thermopriming. While IRE1 is involved in the regulation of the priming response, HSFA1 is crucial in determining the priming-mediated heat stress response outcomes.

Discussion

In the current study, we demonstrate that efficient regulation of protein homeostasis underlies priming-mediated short-term acquired thermotolerance in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. Heat stress exerts a profound impact on the thermolabile molecular complexes, resulting in protein dysfunction and aggregation (McLoughlin et al., 2019; Mittler et al., 2012; Rosenzweig et al., 2019). Maintaining proteostasis under stress requires a fine balance between timely refolding of proteins via robust chaperone activity and the

efficient clearance of irreversibly damaged proteins through the action of disaggregases, autophagy, or the UPS (Hartl et al., 2011; McLoughlin et al., 2019; Mogk et al., 2018). Disruption of this balance can lead to proteotoxic stress, ultimately compromising cellular viability. In this study, we observed that direct exposure to heat stress severely impacts protein content in the unprimed seedlings, which is alleviated in the primed seedlings. These observations are consistent with the previous reports showing that protein content reduces upon exposure to noxious heat stress (Gulen & Eris, 2004; Nagy-Réder et al., 2022). We found that thermopriming facilitates a dynamic autophagy response (quantified as ATG8-PE levels and RIDD target expression) alongside an increase in chaperone abundance, which together contribute to the maintenance of protein homeostasis. Previous reports on long-term acquired thermotolerance also observed autophagy to be induce post-priming stimulus (Sedaghatmehr et al., 2019, 2021).

Contrastingly, unprimed seedlings display induced autophagy even at 2 DPS, and fail to accumulate HSPs at the protein level despite a significant expression at the transcript level. We posit that such failure may stem from either HSP sequestration within aggregates or impaired translation post-stress. Notably, HSP101, a critical disaggregase that coordinates with other HSPs to resolve proteotoxic stress (McLoughlin et al., 2019), was detected only in the primed condition (**Figure S5**). This suggests that the chaperone protein is likely not synthesized in the unprimed seedlings upon heat stress. In addition, the unprimed seedlings displayed high levels of ubiquitinylated insoluble proteins, a trend also reported in HSP101 deficient plants during heat stress (McLoughlin et al., 2019). Priming has also been shown to protect the global translational potential under heat stress, whereas direct heat exposure leads to preferential co-translational decay of ER-translated mRNAs (Dannfald et al., 2025). Together, these findings underscore the importance of maintaining a delicate balance between protein -folding and -clearance machineries to restore cellular homeostasis following stress. In unprimed seedlings, the collapse of this balance, as evidenced by failure to accumulate chaperones, aggregate buildup, and excessive autophagy, impacts their growth and survival.

Given the difference in autophagy response between primed and unprimed, we examined the role of TOR/SnRK-dependent pathways, previously known to be involved in regulating autophagy (Signorelli et al., 2019; Soto-Burgos & Bassham, 2017; Yang et al., 2023), However, we did not detect any changes in TOR/SnRK activity under our thermopriming/heat stress regime, suggesting that alternative pathways might be at play. Indeed, TOR-independent mechanisms have been reported to modulate

autophagy during oxidative and ER stress conditions (Pu et al., 2017). Since we observed thermopriming to induce ER stress, we explored the potential involvement of IRE1. IRE1-RIDD activity has been previously associated with autophagy induction under tunicamycin treatment (ER-stress inducing agent), wherein RIDD-mediated degradation of autophagy inhibitors was shown to promote autophagy (Bao et al., 2018). Findings from this study show that thermopriming facilitates the dynamic degradation of RIDD target transcripts, which correlate with the induction of autophagy in primed seedlings. Similarly, in unprimed, the prolonged autophagy induction was associated with sustained downregulation of autophagy inhibitors. While these observations suggest that RIDD activity influences autophagy by modulating the abundance of specific inhibitors, the precise mechanism remains to be explored. Bao et al. (2018) suggests that BGLU21 (β-glucosidase 21), ROSY1 (interactor of synaptotagmin 1), and PR-14 (pathogenesis-related protein 14) proteins might interfere with the lipidation of ATG8, a crucial step for autophagosome formation, thereby affecting autophagy.

Furthermore, analysis of the *bzip60* and *ire1a/b* knockout mutants under primed conditions revealed reduced growth recovery post-stress compared to WT. Although primed *bzip60* and *ire1a/b* seedlings displayed an increase in HSP levels, their response was delayed compared to WT. This aligns with earlier findings that *ire1a/b* mutants exhibit severe growth retardation and attenuated protein translation under ER stress, effects that could be mitigated by synthetic chaperones (Pu et al., 2019; Yoo et al., 2024). Notably, despite the loss of IRE1A/B or bZIP60, autophagy induction was still observed post-heat stress. This concurs with the previous report that shows bZIP60 to be dispensable for IRE1-dependent autophagy induction during ER stress (Bao et al., 2018), and *ire1b* mutants can induce autophagy following 42°C heat treatment (Yang et al., 2016). As *ire1b* and *ire1a/b* have been shown not to induce autophagy under ER stress from DTT or tunicamycin (Bao et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2012) and given that autophagy was still activated in *ire1a/b*, we suggest that alternative regulatory pathways may mediate heat-induced autophagy.

One such potential regulator is HSFA1a, a transcriptional activator of autophagy in tomato under heat and drought stress (Löchli et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2015; Xie et al., 2022). We found that HSFA1a remains highly active in our paradigm, as its downstream targets *HSFA2* and *HSFA3* are significantly induced following heat stress. However, we observed that in the *hsfa1a/b/d* mutant, autophagy remains highly induced in both primed and unprimed, even at 2-3 DPS. Previous studies have implicated the involvement of NBR1 (next-to-BRCA1) and ATI3 (ATG8-interacting 3) for autophagy response under

heat stress (Jung et al., 2020; Thirumalaikumar et al., 2020; Zhou et al., 2018), suggesting that autophagy response involves multilayered regulation, a feature advantageous for sessile organisms to tackle challenging environments. Moreover, the *hsfa1a/b/d* mutant fails to survive heat stress even upon exposure to a priming stimulus, unlike Col-0/Ws-0. Such failure to mount the priming-mediated response to heat stress could be due to the inability to induce HSPs, implying that efficient protein maintenance (by chaperones) is a critical determinant towards stress response outcomes. An earlier report suggested that autophagy contributes to the degradation of HSP, as autophagy mutants showed prolonged chaperone accumulation (Sedaghatmehr et al., 2019). However, our findings indicate that autophagy and chaperone response may act cooperatively to modulate protein homeostasis, with the impairment of one pathway potentially amplifying the activity of the other to mitigate proteotoxic stress.

In conclusion, our study highlights that the efficient maintenance of protein homeostasis through the accumulation of chaperones and dynamic autophagy response evoked by thermopriming, aids in seedling survival and growth upon heat stress (**Figure 7**). In the absence of priming, this balance is disrupted, leading to a dysregulation of proteostasis and ultimately seedling death. Further, we identify that IRE1-mediated regulation operates during thermopriming, but it is not essential. However, HSFA1 is indispensable for mounting priming-mediated heat stress tolerance. Collectively, these findings reveal that precise and coordinated regulation of protein folding and clearance pathways is a key determinant of thermotolerance in *Arabidopsis thaliana*.

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Authors Contribution

MB: Designing the experiments, performing the experiments, interpretation of results, preparation of the figures, writing the manuscript; **ADA:** conceptualization of the research question, supervising the

work, designing the experiments, interpretation of results, writing and editing the manuscript, funding acquisition; **BJR:** conceptualization of the research question, supervising the work, designing the experiments, interpretation of results, writing and editing the manuscript, funding acquisition.

Competing Interests

The authors have no competing interest.

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Figure Legends

Figure 1: Priming improves survival from severe heat stress. (A) The experimental paradigm is schematized where 37°C was used as a priming stimulus, followed by recovery at 22°C (optimal growth temperature), and then exposed to 45°C heat-triggering stimulus for indicated time durations. Control (untreated) and unprimed seedlings (subjected to only 45°C) were compared in parallel. (B) Representative seedling images from primed, unprimed and control conditions were monitored over multiple days at 22°C during the stress recovery period. Scale bar, 0.5cm. The growth recovery was quantified based on (C) the number of leaves per plant (n=3 biological replicates, with 16 seedlings per replicate), (D) root length (n=2 biological replicates, with 5 seedlings per replicate), and (E) fresh weight (n=3 biological replicates, with 16 seedlings pooled per replicate) at the indicated time points. Despite an initial growth halt (as observed in root length), primed seedlings resumed growth similar to the control, whereas unprimed plants exhibited complete growth arrest and ultimately failed to survive. Data are presented as mean ± SEM (for leaves per plant) and mean ± SD (for root length and fresh weight). Statistical significance was determined using two-way ANOVA, where the asterisk (** p 0.0036; **** p <0.0001) indicates significant differences between primed and unprimed samples.

Figure 2: Priming leads to an increase in chaperone abundance post-heat stress. (A) The schematics of the experimental paradigm are represented. 0-3 DPS denote time points where samples were collected (PS-Priming Stimulus, TS-Triggering Stimulus). (B) SDS-PAGE analysis indicates that unprimed seedlings undergo a loss in total protein content by the end of 3 DPS, compared to primed and control (n=2 biological replicates). (C-F) Western blot analysis of HSP17.6, HSP21, HSP70, HSP90, and HSP101 proteins for various samples post-heat stress reveals that priming leads to an increase in the abundance of HSPs, which persist even after the removal of stress. In contrast, unprimed seedlings do not show any increase in HSP abundance compared to the control (n=3 biological replicates). α-Tubulin served as a loading control. (G) Expression of *HSP21*, *HSP22*, *HSP70* and *HSP101* reflects fold change compared to control. In the primed, *HSPs* get highly induced upon priming and triggering compared to the control. In contrast, in the unprimed, induced expression for most of the *HSPs* is observed in only 1 DPS. Induced expression of *HSPs* was detected in the primed control (only exposed to 37°C) at after the triggering time point, which subsides with time. The data are presented as mean ± SD (n=3 biological replicates). Statistical significance was calculated using one-way ANOVA (**** p <0.0001; *** p <0.001; ** p <0.01; * p <0.05; ns – not significant).

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Figure 4: Primed seedlings recover from ER stress while the unprimed seedlings exhibit sustained ER stress. (A-B) *bZIP60* spliced form (*bZIP60s*) was used as a marker to detect ER stress. RT-PCR of *bZIP60s*, *bZIP60u* and *ACT2* for all the conditions at given time points post heat stress suggests that primed seedlings initially experience ER stress but recover by 1 DPS to control levels. However, unprimed seedlings experience sustained ER stress as seen from the presence of high *bZIP60s*. Box plot represents quantification for *bZIP60*(s) / *bZIP60*(s+u(unspliced)), where the dotted line denotes control values (n=2 biological replicates). (C-E) Expression of autophagy inhibitors, *BGLU21*, *PR-14* and *ROSY1* is represented as fold change compared to control across conditions. In primed, expression of autophagy inhibitors was found to be downregulated at AP, BT and AT timepoints, but it comes back to basal levels by 1 DPS. However, in unprimed, autophagy inhibitors are continuously maintained at lower levels post-stress. The data are presented as mean ± SD (n=2 biological replicates). Statistical significance was calculated using one-way ANOVA (**** $p < 0.0001$; *** $p < 0.001$; ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$; ns – not significant).

Figure 5: Loss of bZIP60 or IRE1A/B leads to delayed recovery post-priming in response to heat stress. (A) Primary root length measurements indicate a significant difference between *bzip60* primed vs. control, and *ire1a/b* primed vs. control, compared to wild-type primed vs. control at seven days post-stress, indicating a delay in growth recovery in both mutants. Data are presented as median ± SD (n=3 biological replicates, with 6 seedlings per replicate). Statistical significance was calculated using Student's t-test (**** $p < 0.0001$; ns – not significant). (B) Western blot analysis of HSP17.6, HSP21, HSP70, HSP90, and HSP101 proteins for all the conditions across timepoints post-heat stress reveals that priming leads to an increase in the abundance of HSPs in *bzip60* and *ire1a/b* mutants, which persist even after the removal of stress. Unprimed *bzip60* and *ire1a/b* seedlings do not show any increase in HSP levels, similar to unprimed wild-type (n=3 biological replicates). (C) Quantification of immunoblots revealed that HSP17.6 displays a similar pattern of increase in protein levels post-priming, across genotypes, compared

to WT. A delay in the maximal induction of other HSPs was observed in the mutants compared to WT. (D) Expression of *HSP21*, *HSP22*, *HSP70* and *HSP101* in *bzip60* and *ire1a/b* lines across all the conditions at indicated time points (AP – After priming, BT - Before triggering, AT - After triggering (Day 0), DPS - Days post-stress). In the primed, *HSPs* get highly induced upon priming and triggering, whereas in the unprimed, induced expression for most of the *HSPs* is observed only by 1 DPS. Heat map represents mean expression values (n=2/3 biological replicates). Statistical significance was calculated using one-way ANOVA (**** $p < 0.0001$; *** $p < 0.001$; ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$; ns – not significant).

Figure 6: HSFA1 is essential for priming-mediated heat stress tolerance. (A) Expression analysis of *HSFA1a*, *HSFA2* and *HSFA3* was performed for WT across all the conditions. *HSFA1a* expression (except AT/1 DPS in unprimed) does not significantly change across time points, whereas *HSFA2* and *HSFA3* expression significantly increases immediately after priming (n=3 biological replicates). Statistical significance was calculated using one-way ANOVA (**** $p < 0.0001$; ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$; ns – not significant). (B) Phenotypic images of *hsfa1a/b/d* (referred to as *a/b/d*), Col-0 and Ws-0 at 6 DPS. The impact of priming on heat stress response was lost in the *a/b/d* mutant compared to Col-0/Ws-0. Unprimed *a/b/d* fail to survive, similar to that of Col-0/Ws-0 post-heat stress (n=3 biological replicates). (C) Immunoblotting for ATG8 shows that autophagy remains highly induced in both primed and unprimed *a/b/d* mutants post-heat stress (n=3 biological replicates). Numbers below denote intensity values post-normalisation with respect to corresponding control timepoint. (D) Immunoblot analysis for HSPs revealed that primed-WT displayed an increased abundance post-priming, while primed *a/b/d* failed to display HSP abundance, potentially contributing to their lethality (n=3 biological replicates). These observations suggest that failure to activate protein protective (chaperone) response can lead to persistent induction of autophagy following severe heat stress.

Figure 7: Schema representing priming-induced regulation of proteostasis aiding in mounting acquired thermotolerance. Upon heat stress, thermoprimed Arabidopsis seedlings experience ER stress, which activates the ER membrane protein IRE1. Activated IRE1, through its RIDD activity, degrades autophagy inhibitors (*BGLU21*, *ROSY1*, and *PR-14*), dynamically regulating autophagy induction under stress. Concurrently, heat stress leads to an increase in the abundance of heat shock proteins (HSPs), mediated by HSFA1 activation. These processes - dynamic autophagy and the HSP response - work in a temporally coordinated manner to maintain protein homeostasis, promoting seedling survival. Additionally, other unidentified regulators may potentially influence autophagy during thermopriming. In contrast, unprimed seedlings lack sufficient HSPs, which may result in persistent autophagy to clear misfolded/damaged proteins. However, this prolonged autophagy causes an imbalance in protein homeostasis, and may ultimately lead to lethality in unprimed seedlings. Created with BioRender.com.

Supplementary Figures

Figure S1: Priming-mediated autophagy response is TOR/SnRK independent. Immunoblot analysis of pS6K, S6K, and pAMPK for all the conditions at the given time points. (A-D) TOR kinase activity, as measured by pS6K/S6K levels, does not significantly change post-priming and triggering across conditions compared to control during priming/heat stress. Box plot represents normalised mean intensity

for pS6K/S6K where the dotted line denotes control value (n=2 biological replicates). (E-H) The
pAMPK/α-Tub levels do not significantly change post-priming and triggering across conditions compared
to control, indicating that SnRK activity remains similar during priming/heat stress. Box plot represents
normalised mean intensity for pAMPK/α-Tub where the dotted line denotes control value (n=2 biological
replicates). α-Tubulin served as a loading control. Statistical significance was calculated using one-way
ANOVA, where the differences were identified to be not significant. (AP- After Priming, DPS - Days Post
Stress, C - Control, P - Primed, UP - Unprimed, PC - Primed Control).

Figure S2: Unprimed seedlings exhibit sustained ER stress. (A) ER stress was determined by checking
the presence of *bZIP60* spliced form (*bZIP60s*). Expression analysis of *bZIP60s* using qPCR suggests that
primed seedlings initially experience ER stress but recover by 1 DPS, whereas unprimed seedlings
experience sustained ER stress (n=2 biological replicates). (B) Confocal images of ER-GFP displaying
the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) in the leaves of seedlings across different conditions. Primed seedlings
exhibit GFP signals similar to the control, whereas the loss of GFP in unprimed suggests degradation of
the ER. Scale bar, 20μm. (n=16 seedlings were imaged from 4 biologically independent experiments).

Figure S3: Identification and testing of homozygous knockout *bzip60* and *ire1a/b* lines for their
priming-induced heat stress response. (A) Samples b1 to b10 represent different *bzip60* mutant lines,
WT1/4 represent wild-type, and NTC is no template control. Seeds harvested from samples b7, b8 and
b10 identified as homozygous *bzip60* knockout lines were used for the experiments. (B) Samples 1-1 to
3-4 represent different *ire1a/b* mutant lines, WT is wild-type, and NTC is no template control. Seeds
harvested from samples 1-3, 2-1, 2-2, 2-3 and 2-4 identified as homozygous *ire1a/b* knockout lines were
used for the experiments. The *bzip60* and *ire1a/b* homozygous lines were subjected to the priming
paradigm. Primed (C) *bzip60* and (D) *ire1a/b* knockout mutants were observed to survive severe heat
stress post-priming, whereas unprimed seedlings failed to survive.

Figure S4: Autophagy remains induced in *bzip60* and *ire1a/b* mutants post-heat stress. Western blot
probing for ATG8 in (A) *bzip60* and (B) *ire1a/b* mutants post-heat stress reveals that autophagy is induced
post-triggering (0 DPS) in primed seedlings; however, it reverts back to control levels during the stress
recovery period (1-3 DPS). However, in unprimed (*bzip60* and *ire1a/b*), autophagy is induced post-
triggering stress and stays high even after removal of stress (n=2/3 biological replicates). α-Tubulin served
as a loading control.

Figure S5: Unprimed samples may experience protein translational arrest post-heat stress.
Immunoblot analysis shows induced levels of HSP101 in primed (both soluble and insoluble fractions)
post-stress compared to control. HSP101 was undetectable in both the fractions of the unprimed seedlings,
indicating a possible arrest in protein translation following heat stress (n=2 biological replicates).

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Figure 7: Schema representing priming-induced regulation of proteostasis aiding in mounting acquired thermotolerance. Upon heat stress, thermoprimed *Arabidopsis* seedlings experience ER stress, which activates the ER membrane protein IRE1. Activated IRE1, through its RIDD activity, degrades autophagy inhibitors (*BGLU21*, *ROSY1*, and *PR-14*), dynamically regulating autophagy induction under stress. Concurrently, heat stress leads to an increase in the abundance of heat shock proteins (HSPs), mediated by HSFA1 activation. These processes - dynamic autophagy and the HSP response - work in a temporally coordinated manner to maintain protein homeostasis, promoting seedling survival. Additionally, other unidentified regulators may potentially influence autophagy during thermopriming. In contrast, unprimed seedlings lack sufficient HSPs, which may result in persistent autophagy to clear misfolded/damaged proteins. However, this prolonged autophagy causes an imbalance in protein homeostasis, and may ultimately lead to lethality in unprimed seedlings. Created with BioRender.com.

Figure S1: Priming-mediated autophagy response is TOR/SnRK independent. Immunoblot analysis of pS6K, S6K, and pAMPK for all the conditions at the given time points. (A-D) TOR kinase activity, as measured by pS6K/S6K levels, does not significantly change post-priming and triggering across conditions compared to control during priming/heat stress. Box plot represents normalised mean intensity for pS6K/S6K where the dotted line denotes control value (n=2 biological replicates). (E-H) The pAMPK/α-Tub levels do not significantly change post-priming and triggering across conditions compared to control, indicating that SnRK activity remains similar during priming/heat stress. Box plot represents normalised mean intensity for pAMPK/α-Tub where the dotted line denotes control value (n=2 biological replicates). α-Tubulin served as a loading control. Statistical significance was calculated using one-way ANOVA where the differences were identified to be not significant. (AP- After Priming, DPS - Days Post Stress, C - Control, P - Primed, UP - Unprimed, PC - Primed Control).

Figure S2: Unprimed seedlings exhibit sustained ER stress. (A) ER stress was determined by checking the presence of *bZIP60* spliced form (*bZIP60s*). Expression analysis of *bZIP60s* using qPCR suggests that primed seedlings initially experience ER stress but recover by 1 DPS, whereas unprimed seedlings experience sustained ER stress (n=2 biological replicates). (B) Confocal images of ER-GFP displaying the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) in the leaves of seedlings across different conditions. Primed seedlings exhibit GFP signals similar to the control, whereas the loss of GFP in unprimed suggests degradation of the ER. Scale bar, 20µm. (n=16 seedlings were imaged from 4 biologically independent experiments).

Figure S3: Identification and testing of homozygous knockout *bzip60* and *ire1a/b* lines for their priming-induced heat stress response. (A) Samples b1 to b10 represent different *bzip60* mutant lines, WT1/4 represent wild-type and NTC is no template control. Seeds harvested from samples b7, b8 and b10 identified as homozygous *bzip60* knockout lines were used for the experiments. (B) Samples 1-1 to 3-4 represent different *ire1a/b* mutant lines, WT is wild-type and NTC is no template control. Seeds harvested from samples 1-3, 2-1, 2-2, 2-3 and 2-4 identified as homozygous *ire1a/b* knockout lines were used for the experiments. The *bzip60* and *ire1a/b* homozygous lines were subjected to the priming paradigm. Primed (C) *bzip60* and (D) *ire1a/b* knockout mutants were observed to survive severe heat stress post-priming, whereas unprimed seedlings failed to survive.

Figure S4: Autophagy remains induced in *bzip60* and *ire1a/b* mutants post-heat stress. Western blot probing for ATG8 in (A) *bzip60* and (B) *ire1a/b* mutants post-heat stress reveals that autophagy is induced post-triggering (0 DPS) in primed seedlings; however, it reverts back to control levels during the stress recovery period (1-3 DPS). However, in unprimed (*bzip60* and *ire1a/b*), autophagy is induced post-triggering stress and stays high even after removal of stress (n=2/3 biological replicates). α-Tubulin served as a loading control.

Figure S5: Unprimed samples may experience protein translational arrest post-heat stress. Immunoblot analysis shows induced levels of HSP101 in primed (both soluble and insoluble fractions) post-stress compared to control. HSP101 was undetectable in both the fractions of the unprimed seedlings, indicating a possible arrest in protein translation following heat stress (n=2 biological replicates).