

1 **Effect of salt stress and glutamic acid exogenous application on lettuce (*Lactuca sativa* L.)**

2

3 **Giulia Franzoni<sup>1</sup>, Giacomo Cocetta<sup>1\*</sup>, Alice Trivellini<sup>2</sup>, Christian Garabello<sup>3</sup>, Valeria Contartese<sup>3</sup> and**  
4 **Antonio Ferrante<sup>1</sup>**

5 <sup>1</sup> Department of Agricultural and Environmental Sciences, Università degli Studi di Milano, via Celoria 2,  
6 20133 Milano, Italy, [giulia.franzoni@unimi.it](mailto:giulia.franzoni@unimi.it), [giacomo.cocetta@unimi.it](mailto:giacomo.cocetta@unimi.it), [antonio.ferrante@unimi.it](mailto:antonio.ferrante@unimi.it)

7 <sup>2</sup> Institute of Life Sciences, Scuola Superiore Sant'Anna, Piazza Martiri della Libertà 33, 56127, Pisa, Italy,  
8 [alice.trivellini@gmail.com](mailto:alice.trivellini@gmail.com)

9 <sup>3</sup> Green Has Italia SpA, c.so Alba 85/89 12043 Canale (CN) Italy, [c.garabello@greenhasitalia.com](mailto:c.garabello@greenhasitalia.com),  
10 [v.contartese@greenhasitalia.com](mailto:v.contartese@greenhasitalia.com)

11 \* Correspondence: [giacomo.cocetta@unimi.it](mailto:giacomo.cocetta@unimi.it); Tel.: +39-02-503-16612 (G.C.)

12

13

14 **ABSTRACT**

15 Salt stress is a serious environmental issue limiting crop growth and productivity worldwide. Lettuce salad is generally  
16 considered as a salt-sensitive species; however, different cultivars may exhibit different adaptive mechanisms. The  
17 application of biostimulants products has recently proved to be a strategic intervention to ameliorate plant response to  
18 abiotic stresses and foster resilience of plants during their cultivation. This study intended to explore the potential  
19 physiological mechanisms underlying romaine lettuce plant responses to a period of salt stress when exogenously  
20 treated with glutamic acid. The glutamic acid treatment was applied as foliar spray the first time before the beginning of  
21 salt exposure, followed by further three applications during the stress. To understand the effect of salinity and glutamic  
22 acid treatment, physiological and molecular studies have been performed. High salinity induced a general stimulation of  
23 PSII and chlorophyll content in lettuce leaves, however, a reduction of yield (-26,5%) has been observed. Moreover, the  
24 concentration of proline has been stimulated under stressful condition whereas ABA levels decreased. The analyses of the  
25 genes encoding for ROS scavenging enzymes showed a general downregulation in response to salinity with the only  
26 exception of *LsSOD*.

27

28 **Keywords:** abiotic stress, amino acid, antioxidant, salinity, superoxide dismutase.

29

30 **INTRODUCTION**

31 Among environmental stressors, salinity is one of the most detrimental factors leading to severe losses in crops production,  
32 yield and product quality (Aslam et al., 2017; Grieve et al., 2011). According to FAO (FAO, 2015) more than 100 countries  
33 are affected by soils salinization and their extent is estimated at about 1 billion ha, worldwide. Despite the severity of  
34 salinization, no accurate and recent statistic is available about the global extent of the problem. Moreover, several  
35 researches report a constant increase in soil salinization due both to natural causes (such as climate change, increasing  
36 temperatures, rising seawater levels, intrusion of seawater and erosion of minerals), and to improper agricultural practices

37 (Adhikari et al., 2019; Annunziata et al., 2017; Aroca et al., 2013; Freitas et al., 2019; Molina-Montenegro et al., 2020). Soil  
38 salinity is widespread in different climates but it often occurs in irrigated areas, in arid and semiarid regions where  
39 precipitations are not enough to balance crop evapotranspiration and to ensure salt leaching (Connor et al., 2012; FAO,  
40 2015; Pitman and Läuchli, n.d.). In addition to seawater intrusion, agriculture in coastal regions is further exacerbated by  
41 salt spray and salt deposition produced by saline aerosols during storms or high winds (Ferrante et al., 2011; Grieve et al.,  
42 2011). For these reasons, horticultural sector is seriously jeopardised in Mediterranean areas, where more than 40% of  
43 soils is affected by salinity (Colla et al., 2010; Miceli et al., 2003; Nedjimi, 2014). Moreover, vegetables are generally  
44 considered more susceptible than staple crops to stressful environmental conditions including salinity (Shahbaz et al.,  
45 2012; Shannon and Grieve, 1998) and the level of salt in these regions is usually higher than salt tolerance threshold level  
46 (Colla et al., 2010). Soils affected by salts include both those affected by salinity, where the electrical conductivity is higher  
47 than  $4 \text{ dSm}^{-1}$  and those affected by sodicity, where exchangeable sodium exceeds 6 % (FAO, 2015).

48 Salt stress can alter plant's physiological processes, disrupting photosynthesis and respiration, impairing protein  
49 biosynthesis, phytohormones regulation, inducing nutrient imbalance, and damaging cell organelles (Chaves et al., 2009;  
50 Munns, 2002; Nawaz et al., 2010; Yang and Guo, 2018; Zhu, 2000). The negative effects of salt stress can be divided in two  
51 phases: the osmotic phase and the ion toxicity phase (Isayenkov and Maathuis, 2019). The first one is characterised by a  
52 decreased ability of plants to uptake water from the soil. Soluble salts reduce the water potential of soil or substrates, and  
53 plants have to invest energy into water uptake with negative effects on cell metabolism and growth rate. This is the main  
54 reason for stunted growth under salt stress. The osmotic phase involves different processes and plant responses that are  
55 shared with drought stress. Thus, this phenomenon is also known as water-deficit effect of salinity and it usually occurs  
56 after minutes, hours and up to the first days of exposure to high salinity levels. During this time salts are not yet penetrated  
57 in plant tissues. On the contrary, the ion toxicity phase is caused by the excess of ions accumulated inside the plant and is  
58 also called salt-specific effect. Plant growth is limited by the ion toxicity inducing the reduction of nutrient uptake or  
59 transport. Ions accumulate into the vacuoles, but then they move to the cytoplasm, when the concentration is too high,  
60 threatening the metabolic activities and the normal functioning of the enzymes. Even though sodium chloride (NaCl) is the  
61 major compound present in salt affected soils,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  and  $\text{CO}_3^{2-}$  may also contribute to soil salinization (Maas and  
62 R., 1999). High levels of  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  result in less absorption of other minerals such as calcium, manganese, and potassium.  
63 Moreover, high  $\text{Na}^+ : \text{K}^+$  ratio causes the inactivation of the enzymes mainly because  $\text{K}^+$  is replaced by  $\text{Na}^+$  in a series of  
64 biochemical reactions including protein formation, osmoregulation, photosynthesis, and maintenance of cell turgor  
65 pressure (Benito et al., 2014). Nutrient imbalances or deficiencies may also decrease the quality of fruits or other edible  
66 organs reducing the market value of many vegetables. Besides that, salt stress results in oxidative burst due to the  
67 overproduction and accumulation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) in cells, causing damage to nucleic acids, lipids, and  
68 proteins (Das and Roychoudhury, 2014). Stomata closure during the osmotic phase limits the  $\text{CO}_2$  uptake and results in  
69 the production of ROS such as superoxide radical ( $\text{O}_2^-$ ) and hydrogen peroxide ( $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ ) at chloroplasts level.  
70 Photorespiration increases and promotes electron leakage that stimulate ROS production, too. Likewise,  $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$   
71 toxicity affect the electron transport chain leading to a ROS overproduction. Negative effects of salt stress are often  
72 connected to damages in different sections of the photosynthetic apparatus (Mehta et al., 2010). Plants react to high  
73 salinity in different ways and at different levels: by accumulating compatible solutes and osmolytes such as proline, glycine

74 betaine, sugars, and other low weight molecules, to avoid ion toxicity, maintain water uptake, and protect plants from  
75 excessive ROS accumulation (Chen and Jiang, 2010; Shahbaz et al., 2012). In addition, plants can scavenge or detoxify the  
76 excess of ROS through enzymatic and non-enzymatic protective mechanisms. Enzymes with antioxidant ability include  
77 superoxide dismutase (SOD; EC 1.15.1.1), catalase (CAT; EC 1.11.1.6), monodehydroascorbate reductase (MDHAR; EC  
78 1.6.5.4), dehydroascorbate reductase (DHAR; EC 1.8.5.1), ascorbate peroxidase (APX; EC 1.11.1.11), and glutathione  
79 reductase (GR; EC 1.8.1.7), while glutathione (GSH) and ascorbic (AsA) acid are the main non-enzymatic antioxidants,  
80 followed by carotenoids, tocopherols, and phenolic compounds. AsA and GSH are the substrates involved in the  
81 ascorbate-glutathione cycle, allowing the detoxification from H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> through a series of reaction, involving APX, MDHAR,  
82 DHAR, and GR (You and Chan, 2015).

83 The effect of salinity on plants depends on several factors such as the level of salt concentration, the duration of the  
84 exposition, the plant phenological stage and the genotype. These aspects vary among species and even among varieties  
85 of a given crop (Machado and Serralheiro, 2017; Xu and Mou, 2015).

86 Lettuce (*Lactuca sativa* L.) is considered a moderately salt sensitive crop with a threshold limit to 1.3 dSm<sup>-1</sup> (Shannon and  
87 Grieve, 1998). Among leafy vegetables, lettuce is one of the most important species cultivated in the Mediterranean area.  
88 Spain, Italy, and France are the major lettuce-producing countries in the Mediterranean basin reaching a production of  
89 about 2.2 million tonnes in 2019 (FAOSTAT).

90 The application of biostimulant products containing a single amino acid or a combination of amino acids has been shown  
91 to have benefits on plant growth and quality, in particular under adverse environmental conditions (Alfosea-Simón et al.,  
92 2020; Botta, 2012; Matysiak et al., 2020; Rai, 2002; SH SADAK et al., 2014). In plants, amino acids are a source of nitrogen,  
93 they are constituent of proteins and precursors of several metabolites involved in plant growth regulation and in responses  
94 to the external factors. Moreover, they are involved in the formation of pigments (Cho et al., 2009), vitamins (Asensi-  
95 Fabado and Munné-Bosch, 2010), secondary metabolites, and phytohormones (Westfall et al., 2013). They can act as  
96 osmolytes, regulate stomatal opening and ion transport (Rai, 2002). Among amino acids, glutamic acid has a key role in  
97 plant defence including cellular redox, it is a precursor of proline, and it takes part in the biosynthesis of chlorophyll (Schön  
98 et al., 1986).

99 The present study aims to investigate the response of lettuce plants subjected to a period of salt stress and the efficacy of  
100 the application of a glutamic acid solution in counteracting the negative effects of salt stress exposure.

101 The chlorophyll content and chlorophyll *a* fluorescence have been measured to assess the impact of salinity on the health  
102 status and quality of lettuce. The nitrate, proline, and osmolytes levels have been estimated since they are considered as  
103 biochemical indicators of plants responses to stress. Moreover, the expression of some of the key genes encoding for the  
104 enzymes responsible for ROS scavenging have been analysed to determine the responses induced by salt exposure and  
105 glutamic acid applications also at molecular level.

## 106 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### 107 **Plant material, treatments and experimental plan**

108 Two-week old Romaine lettuce (*Lactuca sativa* var. 'longifolia') plantlets were supplied from a local nursery and  
109 transplanted into 2.5 L plastic pots filled with a commercial peaty substrate. A total of 36 plants were grown in an

110 experimental greenhouse under controlled conditions (Temp.  $24 \pm 2$  °C; R.U.  $79 \pm 12$  %) at the Faculty of Agricultural and  
111 Food Science of Milan in 2018.

112 The experimental design was based on a combination of two factors: salt stress and glutamic acid (GA) treatment, each of  
113 them with two levels. After 1 week from the transplant, salinity was imposed by administrating 300 mL of a saline solution  
114 (100 mM NaCl) to a group of plants while tap water was dispensed to the other group (control). Irrigation was carried out  
115 in order to maintain a constant soil moisture in control plants. Treatments were applied by foliar spray 5 days after the  
116 transplant, every ten days for a total of four applications and each plant was treated with 10 mL of product. Treatments  
117 consisted of water and a glutamic acid solution (2 mM).

118 Lettuce plants were harvested at commercial maturity stage. Non-destructive analyses were conducted the same day just  
119 before the harvest. Fresh weight (FW), was determined by cutting the plants at soil level and considering the whole lettuce  
120 head. Fresh leaf tissue was sampled and stored at -20 °C until used for biochemical analyses.

121 Leaf tissues were collected 3 and 6 hours after the last treatment and stored at -80 °C until use for gene expression  
122 analyses.

123

#### 124 **Non-destructive analyses**

125 Chlorophyll measurement *in vivo*

126 A rapid and direct estimation of chlorophyll in lettuce leaves has been performed using the portable chlorophyll content  
127 meter CL-01 (Hansatech Instruments, UK). The instrument estimates the chlorophyll content on the basis of the  
128 absorbance at 620 and 940 nm. The results are express as chlorophyll index (relative units).

129

130 Chlorophyll *a* fluorescence

131 Chlorophyll *a* fluorescence was measured *in vivo* using a hand-portable fluorometer (Handy-PEA, Hansatech Instruments,  
132 UK). Leaves were dark-adapted with leaf clips (4 mm diameter) for 30 minutes before the measurement. Afterwards, an  
133 array of three high-intensity light-emitting diodes produce a saturating light ( $3000 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) for 1 second that hits leaf  
134 tissues. JIP-test equations were applied to obtain derived parameters from the measured data. These parameters, provide  
135 information about the structural and functional status of photosynthetic apparatus (Table S1).

136

137

#### 138 **Destructive measurements**

139 *Abscisic acid*

140 The concentration of abscisic acid (ABA) was determined by an indirect enzyme linked immuno-sorbent assay (ELISA)  
141 (Vernieri et al., 1989). Approximately 1 g of leaf tissue was homogenized (mortar and pestle) with 3 mL of distilled water.  
142 The mixture was centrifuged at 4000 rpm for 15 min at RT, the supernatant was collected and analysed using the Plant  
143 Growth Regulator Immunoassay Detection Kits (Sigma-Aldrich) according to manufacturer instructions.

144

145 *Nitrate*

146 Nitrate concentration was determined by the Cataldo method (Cataldo et al., 1975). Leaf samples were homogenized  
147 (mortar and pestle) with 3 mL of distilled water per gram of fresh tissue. The homogenate was centrifuged at 4000 rpm  
148 for 15 min at RT and the recovered supernatant was used for the colorimetric analysis. About 20  $\mu$ L of the extract were  
149 added to 80 mL of 5% (w/v) salicylic acid in concentrated  $H_2SO_4$  (SA-  $H_2SO_4$ ). Afterward, 3 mL of 1.5 N NaOH were added.  
150 The samples were cooled to RT and absorbance was measured at 410 nm with a spectrophotometer. Nitrate content was  
151 calculated referring to a  $KNO_3$  standard calibration curve and expressed as mg of  $NO_3$ -N per kg of FW.

152

153 *Osmolytes*

154 Fresh leaf tissues were homogenized (mortar and pestle) in distilled water (1 g fresh tissue per 3 mL water). The  
155 homogenate was centrifuged at 4000 rpm for 15 min at RT and the recovered supernatant was analysed. The osmolarity  
156 was measured using an automatic freezing point depression osmometer (Digital Osmometer, Roebbling, Berlin, Germany)  
157 calibrated with sodium chloride solutions.

158

159 *Proline*

160 Proline concentration was determined by the ninhydrin-based colorimetric assay improved by Bates (Bates et al., 1973).  
161 Approximately 1 g of leaf tissue was grinded (mortar and pestle) with 10 mL of 3% sulfosalicylic acid. Samples were  
162 centrifugated at 4000 rpm for 5 min at RT. Afterwards, 100  $\mu$ L of supernatant was added to a reaction mixture prepared  
163 with 3% sulfosalicylic acid (100  $\mu$ L), glacial acetic acid (200  $\mu$ L) and acidic ninhydrin (200  $\mu$ L). The tubes were mixed, each  
164 lid was punctured with a needle to avoid high pressure and the tubes were incubated at 96 °C for 60 min. The reaction  
165 was terminated putting the tubes on ice. The extraction was made adding 1 mL toluene to the reaction mixture. The tubes  
166 were vortexed and leaved on the bench for 5 min to allow the separation between the organic and water phases. The  
167 chromophore phase containing toluene was collected and the absorbance at 520 nm was read using toluene as reference.  
168 Proline concentration was calculated referring a standard calibration curve and expressed as  $\mu$ g per g FW.

169

170 *Total thiols*

171 The concentration of total thiols in lettuce leaves was determined by Leão method (Leão et al., 2014). About 0.5 g of leaf  
172 tissue was grinded with mortar and pestle with 6 mL of a reaction solution containing 0.1 M Tris-HCl buffer (pH 8.0), 1 mM  
173 EDTA, and 1% ascorbic acid. Samples were centrifugated at 4000 rpm for 10 min at 4 °C. the supernatant was collected  
174 and 1.5 mL potassium phosphate buffer (0.2 M, pH 8.2), 0.1 mL Ellman's reagent (0.01 M), and 7.9 mL of methanol were  
175 added. After 15 min of reaction at 37 °C, the absorbance at 412 nm was determined. Total thiols concentration was  
176 calculated using a molar extinction coefficient of 13,100  $M^{-1} cm^{-1}$ .

177

178 **Total RNA isolation and analysis of gene expression**

179 Frozen leaves of lettuce were thoroughly ground with liquid N using cold mortar and pestle. Approximately 100 mg was  
180 transferred to a cryotube and stored at  $-80^{\circ}\text{C}$ . The isolation of total RNA was performed using the Spectrum Plant Total  
181 RNA Kit with on-column DNase-treatment (Sigma-Aldrich, Italy) following the steps of protocol A with a few modifications.  
182 The concentration and the purity of RNA were evaluated by measuring the absorbance at 230 nm, 260 nm and 280 nm  
183 using a NanoDrop N-1000 spectrophotometer (NanoDrop technologies). A ratio of absorbance at 260 and 280  $\approx$  2.0 is  
184 generally accepted as pure for RNA and expected 260/230 values are commonly in the range of 2.0-2.2, usually higher  
185 than the respective 260/280 value. About 3  $\mu\text{g}$  of RNA were reversely transcribed to cDNA using the SuperScript IV cDNA  
186 Synthesis Kit according to the manufacturer's instruction (Invitrogen, Italy). The SYBR<sup>®</sup> Green PCR Master Mix (Applied  
187 Biosystems) was used for the quantitative RT-PCR analysis. The reaction mix was prepared by adding 10  $\mu\text{L}$  of SYBR Green,  
188 0.4  $\mu\text{L}$  of forward and reverse primers, 2  $\mu\text{L}$  of cDNA diluted 1:20, and 7.2  $\mu\text{L}$  of RNase free water. The total volume for  
189 each PCR reaction was 20  $\mu\text{L}$ . Analysis was performed using the ABI7300 (Applied Biosystem) thermocycler and PCR  
190 program. Reactions were run in triplicate from two biological replicates. Gene expression analyses were assessed using  
191 gene-specific primers for: superoxide dismutase [Fe] 3, chloroplastic (*SOD* XM\_023880725.1), catalase (*CAT*  
192 XM\_023874935.1), L-ascorbate peroxidase 6, chloroplastic/mitochondrial (*APX* XM\_023891707.1),  
193 monodehydroascorbate reductase, chloroplastic/mitochondrial (*MDHAR* XM\_023896983.1), dehydroascorbate  
194 reductase (*DHAR* AB158512.1), glutathione reductase, chloroplastic (*GR* XM\_023877582.1). Chloroplastic isoform of each  
195 gene has been chosen to focus the attention on the photosynthetic apparatus. Primers for these genes were designed  
196 using the program Primer-Blast ([www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov)) (Table S2). The gene expression levels were analysed with the AB  
197 software program and results were calculated using the  $2^{-\text{ddct}}$  method described by Livak and Schmittgen (Livak and  
198 Schmittgen, 2001). According to this method, the data are presented as fold change in gene expression normalized to a  
199 housekeeping gene and relative to a calibrator. The Elongation factor 1 alpha (EF1 $\alpha$ ) was used as reference gene  
200 (housekeeping) due to the highest stability in its expression levels, whereas the non-stressed and non-treated sample after  
201 3 hours was chosen as internal calibrator.

202

203 **Statistical analyses**

204 Data were subjected to ANOVA and differences among means were determined by Tuckey post-test ( $P < 0.05$ ). Statistics  
205 were performed using GraphPad Prism version 8 for Windows (GraphPad Software, La Jolla California USA,  
206 [www.graphpad.com](http://www.graphpad.com)). Additional information is reported in each figure's legend.

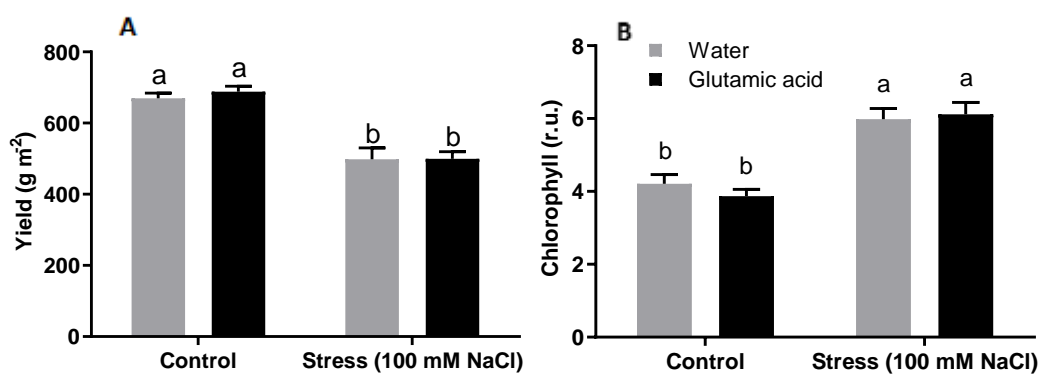
207

208

209 **RESULTS**

210 *Growth, chlorophyll in vivo and chlorophyll a fluorescence*

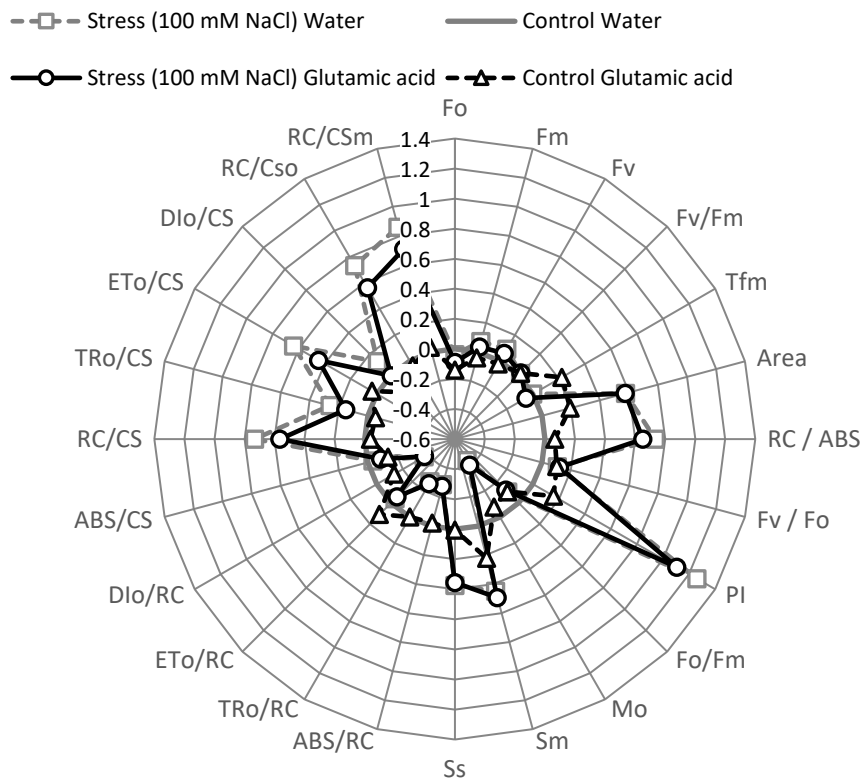
211 Lettuce yield was calculated considering the fresh weight of the entire head at harvest and a density of 10 plants m<sup>-2</sup>. The  
 212 two-way ANOVA showed that the interaction between salinity and treatment was not significant ( $p < 0.05$ ). However,  
 213 considering the effect of each factor, the stress condition shown a significant effect on plants growth for  $p < 0.0001$ ,  
 214 whereas the treatment did not affect the production in a significant way. The somministration/application of high salt  
 215 solution induced a decrease (-26.5 %) in lettuce fresh weight. In particular, the average yields were about 679 g m<sup>-2</sup> and  
 216 499 g m<sup>-2</sup> in plants grown under control and stressful conditions, respectively (Figure 1 A).  
 217 The levels of chlorophyll measured *in vivo* were not affected by the application of the glutamic acid solution, whereas the  
 218 chlorophyll content measured in plants subjected to salt stress were significantly higher ( $p < 0.0001$ ) if compared with  
 219 those grown under control condition, regardless the treatment. Chlorophyll concentrations in lettuce plants grown under  
 220 high salinity were about 2.0 points higher than those measured under control condition (Figure 1 B).



**Figure 1.** Yield (A) and chlorophyll content (B) of lettuce plants grown under non-stressful (Control) and salt stress condition (Stress 100 mM NaCl) and treated with water or a glutamic acid solution (2 mM). Measures were taken at the end of the growing cycle. Values are means  $\pm$  SE (yield:  $n = 6$ ; chlorophyll content:  $n = 30$ ). Data were subjected to two-way ANOVA and Tukey's multiple comparison test was used for evaluating the differences among means. Different letters, where present, represent significant differences ( $p < 0.05$ ).

221 A general response of photosynthesis to salt stress and glutamic acid treatment is presented in the multiparametric graph  
 222 of chlorophyll *a* fluorescence parameters (2). In this chart, all the parameters' values are normalized to 0 -grey solid line  
 223 representing the non-stressed and non-treated plants. Salt stress strongly affected a great number of parameters, as  
 224 shown by the distance of the circle and square symbols from the reference grey line. On the contrary, the treatment with  
 225 glutamic acid did not induce any strong modification in the trends.  
 226 Salt stress induced an up-regulation of PSII function, as shown by the variation of several parameters. The ANOVA results  
 227 for fluorescence parameters are shown in Table S3. A significant increase (+102%) in the performance index (PI) was  
 228 observed in plants grown under salinity, regardless the treatment. In particular, the lowest and the highest values were  
 229 measured in control (1.39) and stressed (3.14) plants treated with water, respectively.  
 230 Furthermore, the density of PSII active reaction centres at  $t_0$  (RC/CS<sub>0</sub>) and at  $t_{max}$  (RC/CS<sub>m</sub>) significantly increased by  
 231 +68.0% and +75.7% in stressed plants. Similarly, the electron transport flux per cross section (ET<sub>0</sub>/CS) (+51.5%), and the  
 232 energy needed to close all reaction centres (S<sub>m</sub>) (+32.5%) were higher in stressed samples compared to control ones. A  
 233 significant interaction between stress and treatment has been shown in S<sub>m</sub> values. At the same time, salt exposition  
 234 induced a significant decrease in the energy dissipation as heat per reaction centres (D<sub>0</sub>/RC) (-32.1%), in the absorbed

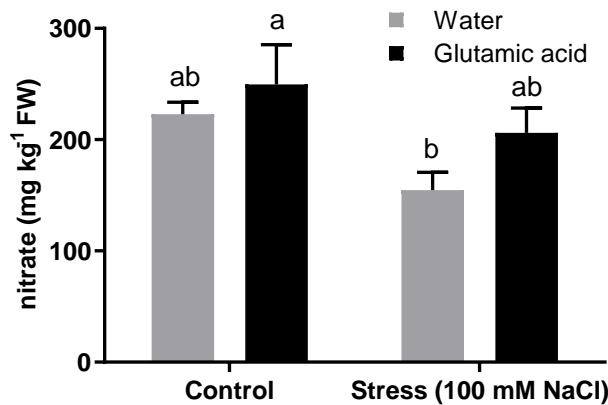
235 energy flux per reaction centres (ABS/RC) (-27.3%), in the trapped energy flux per reaction centres (TRo/RC) (-26.5%), and  
 236 in the net rate of the centres' closure (Mo) (-39.4%).  
 237 On the contrary, minimal fluorescence (Fo), maximal fluorescence (Fm), variable fluorescence (Fv) and maximum  
 238 quantum efficiency of PSII (Fv/Fm) were not significantly affected by the stress and by the treatment. The Fv/Fm values in  
 239 both growing conditions were about 0.86.



**Figure 2.** Chlorophyll a fluorescence parameters of lettuce plants grown under non stressful (Control) and salt stress condition (Stress 100 mM NaCl) and treated with water or a glutamic acid solution (2 mM). Measures were taken at the end of the growing cycle. Values are means  $\pm$  SE (n =6). Data plotted are fluorescence parameters normalized by formulae:  $(F_t - F_{cw})/F_{cw}$ , where "Ft" and "F<sub>cw</sub>" represent the parameter values of the treated plants and control plants treated with water, respectively. Values of "F<sub>cw</sub>" plants were normalized to 0 (control plants treated with water, grey circle = 0).

240





**Figure 3.** Nitrate content measured in lettuce leaves under non stressful (Control) and salt stress condition (Stress 100 mM NaCl) and treated with water or a glutamic acid solution (2 mM). Measures were taken at the end of the growing cycle. Values are means  $\pm$  SE (n=6). Data were subjected to two-way ANOVA and Tukey's multiple comparison test was used for evaluating the differences among means. Different letters, where present, represent significant differences ( $P < 0.05$ ).

242

243 Nitrate concentration in lettuce leaves was significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) affected by the salt stress. In particular, the lower level  
 244 was measured in untreated plants grown under high salinity (Figure 3). However, no significant differences emerged  
 245 comparing the treatments, except between the control plants treated with the glutamic acid solution and the stressed  
 246 plants treated with water. In general, nitrate concentration values ranged from 115 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> FW and 409 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> FW.

247

248 *Proline, osmolytes, and abscisic acid*

249 Proline levels were measured in order to assess its potential role in defining lettuce tolerance to NaCl in combination with  
 250 glutamic acid treatment. Without salt, lettuce plants contained the same amount of proline in leaves, regardless the  
 251 treatment (Table 2). Salt stress significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) affected the levels of proline and osmolytes in lettuce leaves (Table  
 252 ). In particular, the proline average value was about 11.8  $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$  in plants grown under non-stressful condition and about  
 253 63.9  $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$  in stressed plants. A significant difference was observed between control and stressed plants treated with  
 254 water. However, the high variability did not allow to see any significant effect of the glutamic acid treatment in stressed  
 255 samples.

256 Salinity induced a significant increase (+52.2%) of osmolytes concentration in plants treated with glutamic acid, whereas  
 257 no significant difference was observed in plants treated with water, as reported in Table 1.

258 Likewise, a significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) effect of the salt stress resulted in the concentration of abscisic acid in lettuces leaves. ABA  
 259 levels were generally low in plants grown under high salinity compared to those grown under control condition. In  
 260 particular, salt stress induced a significant decrease (-56%) in plants treated with the glutamic acid solution while it had no  
 261 significant effect on non-treated plants (Table 2). Probably, similarly to those observed in proline concentration, the high  
 262 variability of the results reduced the statistical power.

263

264 **Table 1.** Proline, osmolytes and abscisic acid concentration in lettuce leaves under non stressful (Control) and salt stress  
 265 condition (Stress 100 mM NaCl) and treated with water or a glutamic acid solution (2 mM). Measures were taken at the  
 266 end of the growing cycle. Values are means  $\pm$  SE (n =6). Data were subjected to two-way ANOVA and Tukey's multiple  
 267 comparison test was used for evaluating the differences among means. Different letters, where present, represent  
 268 significant differences (P < 0.05).

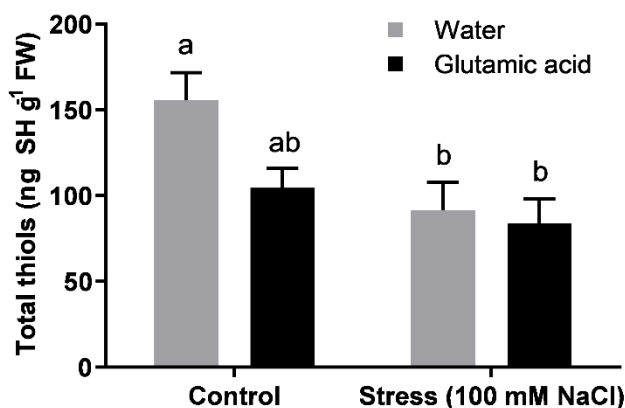
Stress	Treatment	Proline ( $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ FW)	Osmolytes (mOsm $\text{kg}^{-1}$ $\text{g}^{-1}$ FW)	Abscisic acid (ng $\text{g}^{-1}$ FW)
CONTROL	WATER	12.5 $\pm$ 1.5 b	0.208 $\pm$ 0.021 ab	288.5 $\pm$ 117.8 ab
	GLUTAMIC ACID	11.1 $\pm$ 1.4 b	0.184 $\pm$ 0.025 b	417.3 $\pm$ 170.4 a
STRESS	WATER	44.8 $\pm$ 5.9 a	0.244 $\pm$ 0.019 ab	176.3 $\pm$ 72.3 b
	GLUTAMIC ACID	37.9 $\pm$ 8.0 a	0.280 $\pm$ 0.022 a	182.0 $\pm$ 74.3 b

269

270 *Total thiols*

271 The two-way ANOVA showed a significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) effect of salinity on thiols concentration in lettuce leaves (Figure 4). A  
 272 slight decrease in their accumulation has been observed in plants treated with the glutamic acid solution and grown under  
 273 non-stressful condition. On the contrary, the same treatment did not induce any modification in stressed plants since the  
 274 thiols concentration in control plants treated with glutamic acid was already lower than that observed in plants treated  
 275 with water and grown under the same condition. In particular, the average value of total thiols measured in plants exposed  
 276 to salinity was about -43.7% if compared with control samples treated with water.

277



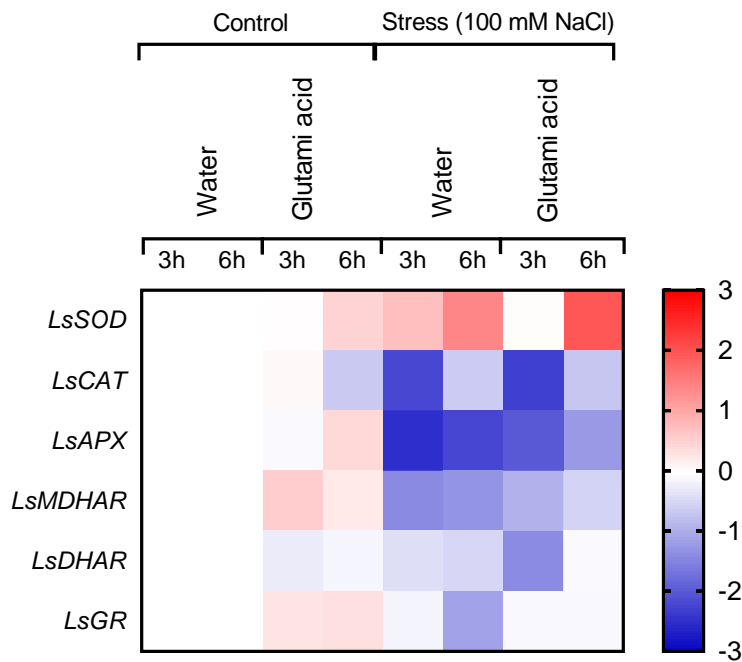
**Figure 4.** Total thiols concentration in lettuce leaves grown under non stressful (Control) and salt stress condition (Stress 100 mM NaCl) and treated with water or a glutamic acid solution (2 mM). Measures were taken at the end of the growing cycle. Values are means  $\pm$  SE (n =12). Data were subjected to two-way ANOVA and Tukey's multiple comparison test was used for evaluating the differences among means. Different letters, where present, represent significant differences (P < 0.05).

278

279

280 *Expression analyses of LsSOD, LsCAT, LsAPX, LSMDHAR, LsDHAR, and LsGR genes*

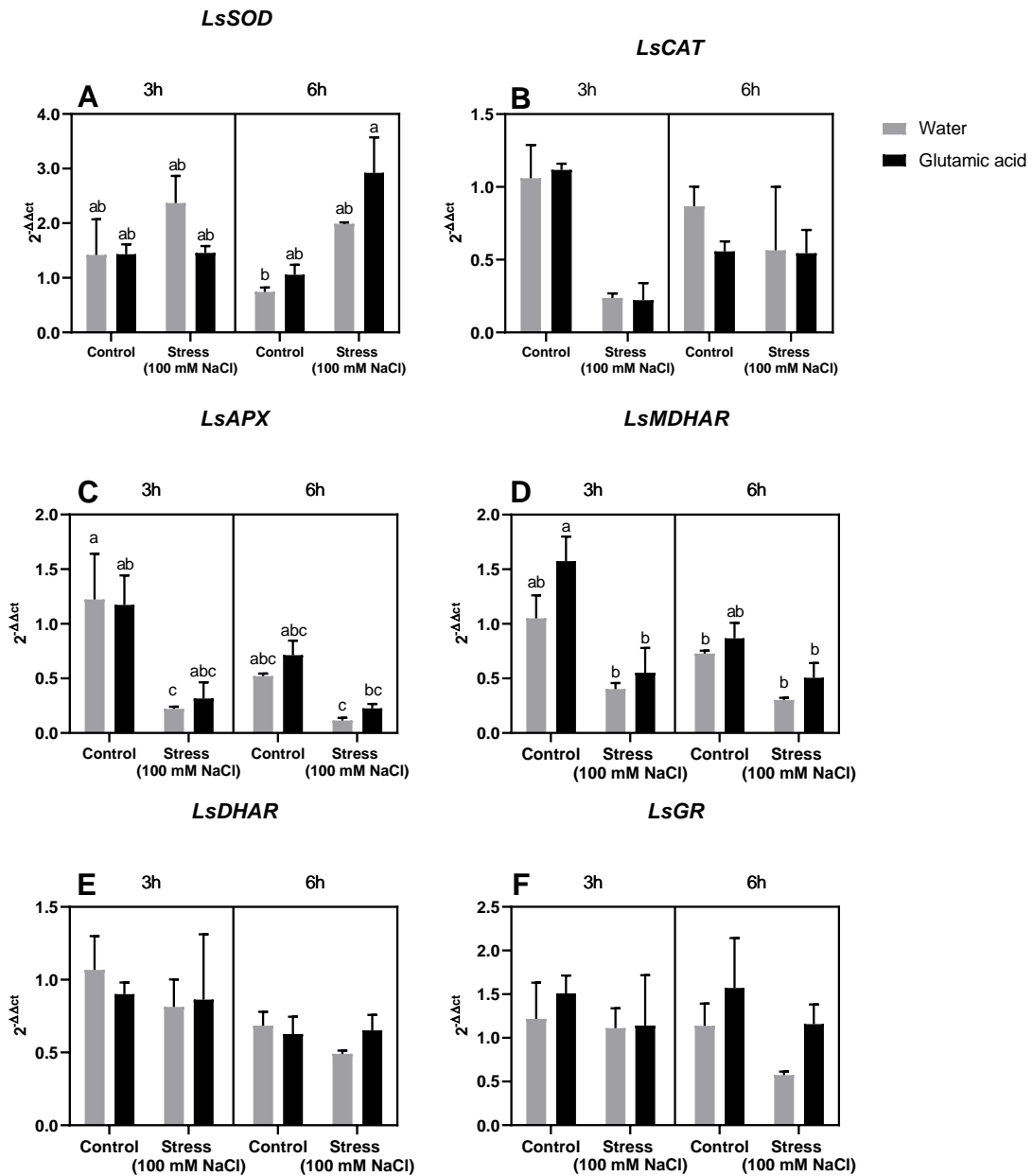
281 The changes in the expression of the genes involved in antioxidant defence system have been clustered into a heatmap  
 282 (**Error! Reference source not found.**). Moreover, a graph representing the expression analysis of each gene is presented  
 283 (Figure 6**Error! Reference source not found.**). Different trends resulted in response to salt stress, treatments and during  
 284 time. Under control condition the expression levels of the genes were similar between plants treated with water and  
 285 plants treated with the glutamic acid solution, both after 3 and 6 hours. On the contrary, salt stress induced a general  
 286 down-regulation of the genes, except for *LsSOD*, as shown by the colour shades in the heatmap. A strong decrease was  
 287 observed especially in the transcripts of *LsCAT*, *LsAPX*, and *LsMDHAR* after 3 h (Figure 6 B, C, and D). At the same timepoint  
 288 the expression of *LsSOD* increased in plants treated with water whereas the glutamic acid treatment did not induce any  
 289 change if compared with the control. A three-fold increase was measured in *LsSOD* transcripts of plants treated with  
 290 glutamic acid only after 6 hours (Figure 6 A).  
 291 The expression levels of *LsCAT*, *LsAPX*, *LsMDHAR*, and *LsDHAR* were strongly downregulated by the salt  
 292 stress especially after 3h (Figure 5).  
 293



294  
 295 **Figure 5.** Heatmap showing temporal expression of selected genes in lettuce plants grown under non stressful (Control)  
 296 and salt stress condition (Stress 100 mM NaCl) and treated with water or a glutamic acid solution (2 mM). Data  
 297 represent the log<sub>2</sub>FC of the selected genes. The rows are the genes, and within each row the blue shaded areas indicate  
 298 lower expression, whereas the red shaded areas indicate higher expression. No differences were visualized by white  
 299 squares.

300

301



302

303 **Figure 6.** Changes in the expression of *LsSOD* (A), *LsCAT* (B), *LsAPX* (C), *LsMDHAR* (D), *LsDHAR* (E), *LsGR* (F) in lettuce  
 304 leaves grown under non stressful (Control) and salt stress condition (Stress 100 mM NaCl) and treated with water or a  
 305 glutamic acid solution (2 mM). Measures were taken at the end of the growing cycle. Values are means ± SE (n =6). Data  
 306 were subjected to three-way ANOVA and Tukey's multiple comparison post-test was used for evaluating the differences  
 307 among means. Different letters, where present, represent significant differences (P < 0.05).

308

309

### 310 DISCUSSION

311 Salt stress severely affects plant growth, development, and quality by altering physiological and chemical processes. It  
 312 represents a serious problem for commercial horticulture, especially in Mediterranean regions where the use of water

313 from the ground wells causes seawater intrusion. Here, the high levels of EC in water used for irrigation easily overcome  
314 the threshold tolerated by most of the species (Miceli et al., 2003; Xu and Mou, 2016). The severity of salinity stress is also  
315 enhanced by the high temperature and lower water availability in summer season. Moreover, the reduction of water in  
316 soil increases the concentration of soluble salts and the stress intensity.

317 Several approaches have been used to increase plant growth and productivity under abiotic stresses. An important  
318 strategy is breeding for stress tolerance, however, developing tolerant plants through genetic is a long-term process.  
319 Another approach is the induction of salt tolerance through the exogenous application of different bioactive molecules.  
320 The application of amino acids alone or in a mixture and products containing amino acids as a strategy to face the negative  
321 effect of salt stress has been widely evaluated (Alfosea-Simón et al., 2020; SH SADAK et al., 2014). Authors observed that  
322 the application of a plant-derived protein hydrolysate on lettuce salad increased the fresh yield, dry biomass and plant  
323 performance under salinity conditions (NaCl 25 mM) if compared to untreated plants, probably due to a more extensive  
324 roots apparatus (Lucini et al., 2015).

325 In our experiment the yield was significantly affected by the high salinity of the growing media. Lettuce yield response to  
326 the salt level of nutrient solution was in agreement with the findings of All-Maskri (Al-Maskri et al., 2010) and coherent  
327 with the stunted growth phenotype due to the reduce ability of plants exposed to high salinity levels to absorb water from  
328 the growing media. Indeed, the first phase of salt stress is represented by the osmotic stress and it similar to those caused  
329 by drought (Machado and Serralheiro, 2017). Moreover, the low yield of lettuce plants grown under salt stress conditions  
330 could be attributed to a decrease in the nutrient uptake. The lack of effect observed in response to the glutamic acid  
331 treatment could be due to the severity of the salt stress condition imposed in our experiment, where the NaCl  
332 concentration in the nutrient solution was 100 mM, much higher than the level tested in the paper mentioned before  
333 (Lucini et al., 2015).

334 Chlorophyll fluorescence can be used as non-invasive indicator of the physiological status of plant photosynthetic function.  
335 The level of chlorophyll measured *in vivo* and the PI increased in lettuce plants grown under high salinity condition. The PI  
336 is an indicator of the sample vitality and the increase observed in lettuce leaves is probably linked to the increase of the  
337 amount of the photosynthetic reaction centres (RC/ABS) measured in the same samples. Moreover, the Fv/Fm ratio was  
338 not significantly affected in high salt treatment, in accordance with the observation of Xu and Mou (Xu and Mou, 2015)  
339 and Adhikari (Adhikari et al., 2019). Since the decrease of Fv/Fm usually suggests damages of PSII blocking the electron  
340 transport, the stressful condition imposed by this study did not inhibit the electron flow of PSII (Shu et al., 2013).  
341 Additionally, an increase in the electron transport flux (ETo/CS), in the Area, and a decrease in the energy dissipation  
342 (Dlo/RC) was observed. Similar results were reported in *Cucumis sp.*, *Salvinia auriculata*, *Dunaliella salina*, and rice  
343 subjected to different levels of salt stress (Asch et al., 2000; Gomes et al., 2017; Kuşvuran et al., 2008; Sedjati et al., 2019).  
344 Likewise, the increase of the PI in response to salinity stress due to an increase of the efficiency of primary photochemistry  
345 and photochemical efficiency of photosynthetic electron transport associated with a decreased Dlo/RC was observed in  
346 one hybrid of *Brassica napus* (Bacarin et al., 2011). The measurement of chlorophyll *in vivo* correlates the green colour of  
347 the leaves with the content of chlorophyll. It is well established that chlorophyll *a* represents the main pigment involved  
348 in the photosynthetic activity whereas chlorophyll *b* act as accessory pigment. Moreover, chlorophyll *a* absorbs energy  
349 from wavelengths of blue-violet and orange-red light and it is responsible for the green colour of the leaves while

350 chlorophyll *b* absorbs energy from wavelengths of green light. An increase in chlorophyll *a* and a decrease in chlorophyll *b*  
351 content in response to salt stress was observed (Gomes et al., 2017). This is in line with other studies reporting that salt  
352 stress affect more chlorophyll *b* than chlorophyll *a* (Houimli et al., 2010). Moreover, since the first step in the degradation  
353 of chlorophyll *b* is its conversion in chlorophyll *a* (Fang et al., 1998), this might explain the high levels of greenness measured  
354 in lettuce leaves in our experimental conditions.

355 Nitrate concentration is an indicator of nutritional quality of leafy vegetable and its maximum level for commercialization  
356 is limited by the EC regulation 1258/2011. The concentration of nitrate in lettuce leaves was significantly decreased in  
357 plants grown under high salinity. This effect has been reported also by other authors and it may be due to the inhibition of  
358 nitrate absorption, and to a reduction in the nitrate reductase activity (Meloni et al., 2004; Scuderi et al., 2009; Shimomachi  
359 et al., 2008). The reduction of nitrate uptake in plants growing under salt stress conditions could be related to the decrease  
360 of water absorption or to the high level of chloride reducing nitrate accumulation (Abdelgadir et al., 2005; Miceli et al.,  
361 2003).

362 The NaCl stress induced a significant increase of proline levels in lettuce leaves. This is a common response of plants upon  
363 salt stress, as reported by several studies (Agarwal and Pandey, 2004; Eraslan et al., 2007; Jimenez-Bremont et al., 2006;  
364 Karabal et al., 2003; Santander et al., 2020). It is known that soil salinization leads to a decrease of water uptake causing  
365 ions imbalance, ions toxicity, and osmotic stress. The accumulation of compatible solutes in the cytosol such as proline is a  
366 common plants response to withstand salt stress. High levels of proline are usually linked to a higher tolerance of plants to  
367 a stressful condition. Moreover, proline is accumulated especially in leaves where it is involved in the protection of  
368 photosynthetic activity maintaining the chlorophyll level and cell turgor (Silva-Ortega et al., 2008). In our experiment, the  
369 high levels of proline observed in lettuce plants subjected to salt stress might have contributed to the health status of  
370 photosynthetic apparatus, as shown by the chlorophyll fluorescence parameters. However, unlike proline trend, the  
371 osmolytes levels increased only in stressed plants treated with the glutamic acid solution. This could mean an involvement  
372 of proline in different mechanisms other than osmoregulation. Moreover, the glutamic acid is a common substrate in the  
373 biosynthesis of several amino acids and its application might have been stimulated the production/accumulation of amino  
374 acids which in turn act as compatible osmolytes in plants (Forde and Lea, 2007). However, it has been reported that a high  
375 concentration of osmolytes is not always associated with a tolerance toward stress and it seems to be specific to a species  
376 or a particular growth condition or stage (Forni et al., 2017).

377 Abscisic acid plays a central role in plant responses to stress, both in the regulation of several gene expression and in the  
378 mechanism of stress signal transduction, and it usually increases in response to salt stress (Fricke et al., 2004; Sah et al.,  
379 2016; Zhang et al., 2006). In our experiment ABA content did not change in water-treated plants in response to salt stress  
380 while it decreased in plants treated with glutamic acid and subjected to high salinity. ABA levels measured in non-stressed  
381 and non-treated plants were in line to other experiments in lettuce leaves (Aroca et al., 2008). Lettuce plants may have  
382 been activated ABA-independent signalling responses to salt stress, for example the osmotic adjustment in order to  
383 restore the cellular homeostasis, as observed in the increase in osmolytes level in the same plants. So far there is no report  
384 of a direct link between glutamic acid and abscisic acid in plants under normal or stressful conditions.

385 Lettuce plants grown subjected to high salinity had lower levels (-25%) of total thiols if compared to non-stressed and non  
386 -treated plants, regardless the application of the glutamic acid solution. Thiols are a group of molecules involved in plant

387 responses to almost all stress factors, protecting the cell from oxidative stress and preventing the damage caused by  
388 reactive oxygen species. They take part in the non-enzymatic antioxidant defence system working in plants to control and  
389 protect plant cells from oxidative damages (Pivato et al., 2014). In most studies different thiols compounds increase in  
390 response to stressful conditions and it has been associated with stress tolerance (Zagorchev et al., 2013). The decreased  
391 concentration of total thiols observed in stressed plants might be due to their conversion on other compounds or might  
392 indicate a toxic effect of salt stress on thiols metabolism.

393 The expression of the genes involved in antioxidant defence system decreased in plants subjected to high salinity. The only  
394 exception was the expression of *LsSOD* which acts as first line of defence to cope with ROS production, catalysing the  
395 reaction transforming the superoxide anion ( $O_2^-$ ) to hydrogen peroxide ( $H_2O_2$ ) and oxygen ( $O_2$ ). The expression of *LsSOD*  
396 was induced by salinity, especially after 6 hours of stress and the treatment with glutamic acid amplified this response, as  
397 shown in Figure 6A. Our results are similar with other observations (Kalhor et al., 2018; Santander et al., 2020) in lettuce  
398 plants.  $H_2O_2$  is a versatile molecule in plants, it acts as signal at normal levels, whereas it induces oxidative damages at toxic  
399 concentrations. The enzymes APX and with less affinity CAT are able to detoxify  $H_2O_2$  through different mechanisms. In  
400 our experiment, 100 mM of NaCl in the nutrient solution induced a decrease in the *LsCAT* and *LsAPX* gene expression. This  
401 indicate that the  $H_2O_2$  produced might not have reached toxic levels to induce *LsAPX* or *LsCAT* overexpression and the  $H_2O_2$   
402 eventually produced by *LsSOD* is involved in different biological processes. Moreover, CAT is one of the major ROS  
403 scavenging enzymes in plants and considering a cause/effect relationship between CAT production and ROS  
404 concentration, it can be said that lower levels of CAT indicate lower levels of ROS, meaning a less oxidative stress and *vice*  
405 *versa* (Milne et al., 2012). An inhibition of CAT activity under stress condition has been reported also in other plants (Khedr,  
406 2003; Kohler et al., 2009). At the same time, different studies report the increase of the activity of these enzymes in  
407 response to high salinity conditions (Shams et al., 2016). The expression of *LsMDHAR* showed the same trend of *LsAPX*.  
408 Both these enzymes are involved in the conversion and restore of Asa into monodehydroascorbate and *vice versa*. A  
409 general decrease in their expression was observed over time, probably due to a circadian regulation of these genes.  
410 Moreover, the salt condition imposed in our experiment caused a further decrease right after 3 hours of stress. These  
411 observations, together with the unchanged expression of *LsDHAR* and *LsGR* might indicate a minor involvement of  
412 ascorbate-glutathione cycle in plant response to stress and it is reasonable hypothesize the involvement of detoxification  
413 mechanisms different from antioxidant enzymes.

414

#### 415 **Conclusion**

416 Collectively, the results obtained in this experiment confirm that Romaine lettuce variety is moderately tolerant to salt  
417 stress (De Pascale and Barbieri, 1995) based on the less severe stress responses activated both at physiological and  
418 molecular levels. However, it is important to remember that sensitivity of lettuce to salinity may differ among cultivars. For  
419 example, Romaine lettuce was found more tolerant to NaCl than another variety by different authors (Nasri et al., 2011;  
420 Pasternak et al., 1986). The application of the glutamic acid didn't show a strong effect on lettuce plants neither under  
421 optimal nor in stressful condition. We might suppose that the lack of a clear response is related to the tolerance of this  
422 cultivar to the stressful condition tested in our experiment. Interestingly, the induction of *LsSOD* expression in response to  
423 salt stress and to the treatment with this amino acid solution might indicate a link between glutamic acid and this enzyme.

424 A similar result, suggesting a connection between the glutamic acid and *LsSOD* was also observed in a previous work where  
425 glutamic acid was applied on lettuce plants subjected to a period of water deprivation (Franzoni et al., 2021). Moreover,  
426 further experiments aimed to clarify this aspect are necessary.

427

428

#### 429 **Declaration of competing interest**

430 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have  
431 appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

432

#### 433 **References**

434 Abdelgadir, E.M., Oka, M., Fujiyama, H., 2005. Characteristics of nitrate uptake by plants under salinity. *J.*  
435 *Plant Nutr.* 28, 33–46. <https://doi.org/10.1081/PLN-200042156>

436 Adhikari, N.D., Simko, I., Mou, B., 2019. Phenomic and physiological analysis of salinity effects on lettuce.  
437 *Sensors (Switzerland)* 19. <https://doi.org/10.3390/s19214814>

438 Agarwal, S., Pandey, V., 2004. Antioxidant Enzyme Responses to NaCl Stress in *Cassia angustifolia*. *Biol.*  
439 *Plant.* 48, 555–560. <https://doi.org/10.1023/B:BIOP.0000047152.07878.e7>

440 Al-Maskri, A., Al-Kharusi, L., Al-Miqbali, H., Khan, M.M., 2010. Effects of salinity stress on growth of lettuce  
441 (*Lactuca sativa*) under closed-recycle nutrient film technique. *Int. J. Agric. Biol.* 12, 377–380.

442 Alfosea-Simón, M., Zavala-Gonzalez, E.A., Camara-Zapata, J.M., Martínez-Nicolás, J.J., Simón, I., Simón-  
443 Grao, S., García-Sánchez, F., 2020. Effect of foliar application of amino acids on the salinity tolerance  
444 of tomato plants cultivated under hydroponic system. *Sci. Hortic. (Amsterdam)*. 272, 109509.  
445 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scienta.2020.109509>

446 Annunziata, M.G., Ciarmiello, L.F., Woodrow, P., Maximova, E., Fuggi, A., Carillo, P., 2017. Durum wheat  
447 roots adapt to salinity remodeling the cellular content of nitrogen metabolites and sucrose. *Front.*  
448 *Plant Sci.* 7, 1–16. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpls.2016.02035>

449 Aroca, R., Ruiz-Lozano, J.M., Zamarreño, Ángel M., Paz, J.A., García-Mina, J.M., Pozo, M.J., López-Ráez, J.A.,  
450 2013. Arbuscular mycorrhizal symbiosis influences strigolactone production under salinity and  
451 alleviates salt stress in lettuce plants. *J. Plant Physiol.* 170, 47–55.  
452 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jplph.2012.08.020>

453 Aroca, R., Vernieri, P., Ruiz-Lozano, J.M., 2008. Mycorrhizal and non-mycorrhizal *Lactuca sativa* plants  
454 exhibit contrasting responses to exogenous ABA during drought stress and recovery. *J. Exp. Bot.* 59,  
455 2029–2041. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jxb/ern057>

456 Asch, F., Dingkuhn, M., Dorffling, K., 2000. Salinity increases CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation but reduces growth in field-  
457 grown, irrigated rice. *Plant Soil* 218. <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1014953504021>

458 Asensi-Fabado, M.A., Munné-Bosch, S., 2010. Vitamins in plants: occurrence, biosynthesis and antioxidant  
459 function. *Trends Plant Sci.* 15, 582–592. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tplants.2010.07.003>



460 Aslam, M., Ahmad, K., Akhtar, M.A., Maqbool, M.A., 2017. Salinity Stress in Crop Plants: Effects of stress,  
461 Tolerance Mechanisms and Breeding Strategies for Improvement. *J. Agric. Basic Sci.* 2, 70–85.

462 Bacarin, M.A., Deuner, S., da Silva, F.S.P., Cassol, D., Silva, D.M., 2011. Chlorophyll a fluorescence as  
463 indicative of the salt stress on *Brassica napus* L. *Brazilian J. Plant Physiol.* 23, 245–253.  
464 <https://doi.org/10.1590/S1677-04202011000400001>

465 Bates, L.S., Waldren, R.P., Teare, I.D., 1973. Rapid determination of free proline for water-stress studies.  
466 *Plant Soil* 39, 205–207. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00018060>

467 Benito, B., Haro, R., Amtmann, A., Cuin, T.A., Dreyer, I., 2014. The twins K<sup>+</sup> and Na<sup>+</sup> in plants. *J. Plant Physiol.*  
468 171, 723–731. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jplph.2013.10.014>

469 Botta, A., 2012. Enhancing plant tolerance to temperature stress with amino acids: An approach to their  
470 mode of action. *Acta Hortic.* 1009, 29–36.

471 Cataldo, D.A., Maroon, M., Schrader, L.E., Youngs, V.L., 1975. Rapid colorimetric determination of nitrate in  
472 plant tissue by nitration of salicylic acid. *Commun. Soil Sci. Plant Anal.* 6, 71–80.  
473 <https://doi.org/10.1080/00103627509366547>

474 Chaves, M.M., Flexas, J., Pinheiro, C., 2009. Photosynthesis under drought and salt stress: regulation  
475 mechanisms from whole plant to cell. *Ann. Bot.* 103, 551–560. <https://doi.org/10.1093/aob/mcn125>

476 Chen, H., Jiang, J.G., 2010. Osmotic adjustment and plant adaptation to environmental changes related to  
477 drought and salinity. *Environ. Rev.* 18, 309–319. <https://doi.org/10.1139/A10-014>

478 Cho, J., Lee, E.J., Yoo, K.S., Lee, S.K., Patil, B.S., 2009. Identification of Candidate Amino Acids Involved in the  
479 Formation of Blue Pigments in Crushed Garlic Cloves (*Allium sativum* L.). *J. Food Sci.* 74, C11–C16.  
480 <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1750-3841.2008.00986.x>

481 Colla, G., Roupael, Y., Leonardi, C., Bie, Z., 2010. Role of grafting in vegetable crops grown under saline  
482 conditions. *Sci. Hortic. (Amsterdam)*. 127, 147–155. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scienta.2010.08.004>

483 Connor, J.D., Schwabe, K., King, D., Knapp, K., 2012. Irrigated agriculture and climate change: The influence  
484 of water supply variability and salinity on adaptation. *Ecol. Econ.* 77, 149–157.  
485 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2012.02.021>

486 Das, K., Roychoudhury, A., 2014. Reactive oxygen species (ROS) and response of antioxidants as ROS-  
487 scavengers during environmental stress in plants. *Front. Environ. Sci.* 2, 1–13.  
488 <https://doi.org/10.3389/fenvs.2014.00053>

489 De Pascale, S., Barbieri, G., 1995. Effects of soil salinity from long-term irrigation with saline-sodic water on  
490 yield and quality of winter vegetable crops. *Sci. Hortic. (Amsterdam)*. 64, 145–157.  
491 [https://doi.org/10.1016/0304-4238\(95\)00823-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/0304-4238(95)00823-3)

492 Eraslan, F., Inal, A., Savasturk, O., Gunes, A., 2007. Changes in antioxidative system and membrane damage  
493 of lettuce in response to salinity and boron toxicity. *Sci. Hortic. (Amsterdam)*. 114, 5–10.  
494 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scienta.2007.05.002>

495 Fang, Z., Bouwkamp, J.C., Solomos, T., 1998. Chlorophyllase activities and chlorophyll degradation during  
496 leaf senescence in non-yellowing mutant and wild type of *Phaseolus vulgaris* L. *J. Exp. Bot.* 49, 503–

497 510. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jxb/49.320.503>

498 FAO, 2015. Intergovernmental Technical Panel on Soils. Status of the World's Soil Resources.,  
499 Intergovernmental Technical Panel on Soils.

500 Ferrante, A., Trivellini, A., Malorgio, F., Carmassi, G., Vernieri, P., Serra, G., 2011. Effect of seawater aerosol  
501 on leaves of six plant species potentially useful for ornamental purposes in coastal areas. *Sci. Hortic.*  
502 (Amsterdam). 128, 332–341. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scienta.2011.01.008>

503 Forde, B.G., Lea, P.J., 2007. Glutamate in plants: metabolism, regulation, and signalling. *J. Exp. Bot.* 58,  
504 2339–2358. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jxb/erm121>

505 Forni, C., Duca, D., Glick, B.R., 2017. Mechanisms of plant response to salt and drought stress and their  
506 alteration by rhizobacteria. *Plant Soil* 410, 335–356. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11104-016-3007-x>

507 Franzoni, G., Cocetta, G., Ferrante, A., 2021. Effect of glutamic acid foliar applications on lettuce under  
508 water stress. *Physiol. Mol. Biol. Plants* 27, 1059–1072. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12298-021-00984-6>

509 Freitas, W.E. de S., Oliveira, A.B. de, Mesquita, R.O., Carvalho, H.H. de, Prisco, J.T., Gomes-Filho, E., 2019.  
510 Sulfur-induced salinity tolerance in lettuce is due to a better P and K uptake, lower Na/K ratio and an  
511 efficient antioxidative defense system. *Sci. Hortic.* (Amsterdam). 257, 108764.  
512 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scienta.2019.108764>

513 Fricke, W., Akhiyarova, G., Veselov, D., Kudoyarova, G., 2004. Rapid and tissue-specific changes in ABA and  
514 in growth rate in response to salinity in barley leaves. *J. Exp. Bot.* 55, 1115–1123.  
515 <https://doi.org/10.1093/jxb/erh117>

516 Gomes, M.A. da C., Pestana, I.A., Santa-Catarina, C., Hauser-Davis, R.A., Suzuki, M.S., 2017. Salinity effects  
517 on photosynthetic pigments, proline, biomass and nitric oxide in *Salvinia auriculata* Aubl. *Acta Limnol.*  
518 *Bras.* 29. <https://doi.org/10.1590/s2179-975x4716>

519 Grieve, C.M., Grattan, S.R., Maas, E. V., 2011. Plant salt tolerance, Agricultural Salinity Assessment and  
520 Management: Second Edition. <https://doi.org/10.1061/9780784411698.ch13>

521 Houimli, S.I.M., Denden, M., Mouhandes, B.D., 2010. Effects of 24-epibrassinolide on growth, chlorophyll,  
522 electrolyte leakage and proline by pepper plants under NaCl-stress. *EurAsian J. Biosci.* 96–104.  
523 <https://doi.org/10.5053/ejobios.2010.4.0.12>

524 Isayenkov, S. V., Maathuis, F.J.M., 2019. Plant Salinity Stress: Many Unanswered Questions Remain. *Front.*  
525 *Plant Sci.* 10. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpls.2019.00080>

526 Jimenez-Bremont, J.F., Becerra-Flora, A., Hernandez-Lucero, E., Rodriguez-Kessler, M., Acosta-Gallegos, J.A.,  
527 Ramirez-Pimentel, J.G., 2006. Proline accumulation in two bean cultivars under salt stress and the  
528 effect of polyamines and ornithine. *Biol. Plant.* 50, 763–766. [https://doi.org/10.1007/s10535-006-](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10535-006-0126-x)  
529 [0126-x](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10535-006-0126-x)

530 Kalhor, M.S., Aliniaiefard, S., Seif, M., Asayesh, E.J., Bernard, F., Hassani, B., Li, T., 2018. Enhanced salt  
531 tolerance and photosynthetic performance: Implication of  $\gamma$ -amino butyric acid application in salt-  
532 exposed lettuce (*Lactuca sativa* L.) plants. *Plant Physiol. Biochem.* 130, 157–172.  
533 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.plaphy.2018.07.003>

534 Karabal, E., Yücel, M., Öktem, H.A., 2003. Antioxidant responses of tolerant and sensitive barley cultivars to  
535 boron toxicity. *Plant Sci.* 164, 925–933. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0168-9452\(03\)00067-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0168-9452(03)00067-0)

536 Khedr, A.H.A., 2003. Proline induces the expression of salt-stress-responsive proteins and may improve the  
537 adaptation of *Pancreaticum maritimum* L. to salt-stress. *J. Exp. Bot.* 54, 2553–2562.  
538 <https://doi.org/10.1093/jxb/erg277>

539 Kohler, J., Hernández, J.A., Caravaca, F., Roldán, A., 2009. Induction of antioxidant enzymes is involved in  
540 the greater effectiveness of a PGPR versus AM fungi with respect to increasing the tolerance of lettuce  
541 to severe salt stress. *Environ. Exp. Bot.* 65, 245–252.  
542 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envexpbot.2008.09.008>

543 Kuşvuran, Ş., Yaşar, F., Abak, K., Ellialtıoğlu, Ş., 2008. Changes occur in lipid peroxidation, chlorophyll and  
544 ion contents of some salt tolerant and sensitive *Cucumis* sp. genotypes grown under salinity stress. *J.*  
545 *Agric. Sci.* 18, 13–20.

546 Leão, G.A., de Oliveira, J.A., Felipe, R.T.A., Farnese, F.S., Gusman, G.S., 2014. Anthocyanins, thiols, and  
547 antioxidant scavenging enzymes are involved in *Lemna gibba* tolerance to arsenic. *J. Plant Interact.* 9,  
548 143–151. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17429145.2013.784815>

549 Livak, K.J., Schmittgen, T.D., 2001. Analysis of Relative Gene Expression Data Using Real-Time Quantitative  
550 PCR and the 2– $\Delta\Delta$ CT Method. *Methods* 25, 402–408. <https://doi.org/10.1006/meth.2001.1262>

551 Lucini, L., Roupheal, Y., Cardarelli, M., Canaguier, R., Kumar, P., Colla, G., 2015. The effect of a plant-derived  
552 biostimulant on metabolic profiling and crop performance of lettuce grown under saline conditions.  
553 *Sci. Hortic. (Amsterdam)*. 182, 124–133. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scienta.2014.11.022>

554 Maas, E. V., R., G.S., 1999. Crop yields as affected by salinity. *Agronomy* 38, 55–110.

555 Machado, R., Serralheiro, R., 2017. Soil Salinity: Effect on Vegetable Crop Growth. *Management Practices*  
556 *to Prevent and Mitigate Soil Salinization. Horticulturae* 3, 30.  
557 <https://doi.org/10.3390/horticulturae3020030>

558 Matysiak, K., Kierzek, R., Siatkowski, I., Kowalska, J., Krawczyk, R., Miziniak, W., 2020. Effect of Exogenous  
559 Application of Amino Acids L-Arginine and Glycine on Maize under Temperature Stress. *Agronomy* 10,  
560 769. <https://doi.org/10.3390/agronomy10060769>

561 Mehta, P., Jajoo, A., Mathur, S., Bharti, S., 2010. Chlorophyll a fluorescence study revealing effects of high  
562 salt stress on Photosystem II in wheat leaves. *Plant Physiol. Biochem.* 48, 16–20.  
563 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.plaphy.2009.10.006>

564 Meloni, D.A., Gulotta, M.R., Martínez, C.A., Oliva, M.A., 2004. The effects of salt stress on growth, nitrate  
565 reduction and proline and glycinebetaine accumulation in *Prosopis alba*. *Brazilian J. Plant Physiol.* 16,  
566 39–46.

567 Miceli, A., Moncada, A., D’Anna, F., 2003. Effect of salt stress in lettuce cultivation. *Acta Hortic.* 609, 371–  
568 375. <https://doi.org/10.17660/ActaHortic.2003.609.56>

569 Milne, C.J., Laubscher, C.P., Ndakidemi, P.A., Marnewick, J.L., Rautenbach, F., 2012. Salinity induced changes  
570 in oxidative stress and antioxidant status as affected by applications of silicon in lettuce (*Lactuca*

571 sativa). *Int. J. Agric. Biol.* 14, 763–768.

572 Molina-Montenegro, M.A., Acuña-Rodríguez, I.S., Torres-Díaz, C., Gundel, P.E., Dreyer, I., 2020. Antarctic  
573 root endophytes improve physiological performance and yield in crops under salt stress by enhanced  
574 energy production and Na<sup>+</sup> sequestration. *Sci. Rep.* 10, 1–10. [https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-020-](https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-020-62544-4)  
575 62544-4

576 Munns, R., 2002. Comparative physiology of salt and water stress. *Plant, Cell Environ.* 25, 239–250.  
577 <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.0016-8025.2001.00808.x>

578 Nasri, N., Kaddour, R., Rabhi, M., Plassard, C., Lachaal, M., 2011. Effect of salinity on germination, phytase  
579 activity and phytate content in lettuce seedling. *Acta Physiol. Plant.* 33, 935–942.  
580 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11738-010-0625-4>

581 Nawaz, K., Hussain, K., Majeed, A., Khan, F., Afghan, S., Kazim, A., 2010. Fatality of salt stress to plants:  
582 Morphological, physiological and biochemical aspects. *African J. Biotechnol.* 9, 5475–5480.

583 Nedjimi, B., 2014. Effects of salinity on growth, membrane permeability and root hydraulic conductivity in  
584 three saltbush species. *Biochem. Syst. Ecol.* 52, 4–13. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bse.2013.10.007>

585 Pasternak, D., De Malach, Y., Borovic, I., Shram, M., Aviram, C., 1986. Irrigation with brackish water under  
586 desert conditions IV. Salt tolerance studies with lettuce (*Lactuca sativa* L.). *Agric. Water Manag.* 11,  
587 303–311. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0378-3774\(86\)90046-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/0378-3774(86)90046-6)

588 Pitman, M.G., Läuchli, A., n.d. Global Impact of Salinity and Agricultural Ecosystems, in: *Salinity:*  
589 *Environment - Plants - Molecules.* Kluwer Academic Publishers, Dordrecht, pp. 3–20.  
590 [https://doi.org/10.1007/0-306-48155-3\\_1](https://doi.org/10.1007/0-306-48155-3_1)

591 Pivato, M., Fabrega-Prats, M., Masi, A., 2014. Low-molecular-weight thiols in plants: Functional and  
592 analytical implications. *Arch. Biochem. Biophys.* 560, 83–99.  
593 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.abb.2014.07.018>

594 Rai, V.K., 2002. Role of amino acids in plant response to stresses. *Biol. Plant.* 45, 481–487.

595 Sah, S.K., Reddy, K.R., Li, J., 2016. Abscisic Acid and Abiotic Stress Tolerance in Crop Plants. *Front. Plant Sci.*  
596 7, 1–26. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpls.2016.00571>

597 Santander, C., Ruiz, A., García, S., Aroca, R., Cumming, J., Cornejo, P., 2020. Efficiency of two arbuscular  
598 mycorrhizal fungal inocula to improve saline stress tolerance in lettuce plants by changes of  
599 antioxidant defense mechanisms. *J. Sci. Food Agric.* 100, 1577–1587.  
600 <https://doi.org/10.1002/jsfa.10166>

601 Schön, A., Krupp, G., Gough, S., Berry-Lowe, S., Kannangara, C.G., Söll, D., 1986. The RNA required in the  
602 first step of chlorophyll biosynthesis is a chloroplast glutamate tRNA. *Nature* 322, 281–284.  
603 <https://doi.org/10.1038/322281a0>

604 Scuderi, D., Giuffrida, F., Noto, G., 2009. EFFECTS OF SALINITY AND PLANT DENSITY ON QUALITY OF LETTUCE  
605 GROWN IN FLOATING SYSTEM FOR FRESH-CUT. *Acta Hortic.* 219–226.  
606 <https://doi.org/10.17660/ActaHortic.2009.843.28>

607 Sedjati, S., Santosa, G., Yudiati, E., Supriyantini, E., Ridlo, A., Kimberly, F., 2019. Chlorophyll and Carotenoid

608 Content of *Dunaliella salina* at Various Salinity Stress and Harvesting Time. IOP Conf. Ser. Earth  
609 Environ. Sci. 246, 012025. <https://doi.org/10.1088/1755-1315/246/1/012025>

610 SH SADAK, M., ABDELHAMID, M.T., SCHMIDHALTER, U., 2014. EFFECT OF FOLIAR APPLICATION OF  
611 AMINOACIDS ON PLANT YIELD AND PHYSIOLOGICAL PARAMETERS IN BEAN PLANTS IRRIGATED WITH  
612 SEAWATER. *Acta Biológica Colomb.* 20, 140–152. <https://doi.org/10.15446/abc.v20n1.42865>

613 Shahbaz, M., Ashraf, M., Al-Qurainy, F., Harris, P.J.C., 2012. Salt Tolerance in Selected Vegetable Crops. CRC.  
614 Crit. Rev. Plant Sci. 31, 303–320. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07352689.2012.656496>

615 Shams, M., Yildirim, E., Ekinçi, M., Turan, M., Dursun, A., Parlakova, F., Kul, R., 2016. Exogenously applied  
616 glycine betaine regulates some chemical characteristics and antioxidative defence systems in lettuce  
617 under salt stress. *Hortic. Environ. Biotechnol.* 57, 225–231. [https://doi.org/10.1007/s13580-016-](https://doi.org/10.1007/s13580-016-0021-0)  
618 0021-0

619 Shannon, M.C., Grieve, C.M., 1998. Tolerance of vegetable crops to salinity. *Sci. Hortic. (Amsterdam)*. 78,  
620 5–38. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0304-4238\(98\)00189-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0304-4238(98)00189-7)

621 Shimomachi, T., Kawahara, Y., Kobashigawa, C., Omoda, E., Hamabe, K., Tamaya, K., 2008. EFFECT OF  
622 RESIDUAL SALINITY ON SPINACH GROWTH AND NUTRIENT CONTENTS IN POLDER SOIL. *Acta Hortic.*  
623 419–424. <https://doi.org/10.17660/ActaHortic.2008.797.60>

624 Shu, S., Yuan, L.Y., Guo, S.R., Sun, J., Yuan, Y.H., 2013. Effects of exogenous spermine on chlorophyll  
625 fluorescence, antioxidant system and ultrastructure of chloroplasts in *Cucumis sativus* L. under salt  
626 stress. *Plant Physiol. Biochem.* 63, 209–216. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.plaphy.2012.11.028>

627 Silva-Ortega, C.O., Ochoa-Alfaro, A.E., Reyes-Agüero, J.A., Aguado-Santacruz, G.A., Jiménez-Bremont, J.F.,  
628 2008. Salt stress increases the expression of p5cs gene and induces proline accumulation in cactus  
629 pear. *Plant Physiol. Biochem.* 46, 82–92. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.plaphy.2007.10.011>

630 Vernieri, P., Perata, P., Armellini, D., Bugnoli, M., Presentini, R., Lorenzi, R., Ceccarelli, N., Alpi, A., Tognoni,  
631 F., 1989. Solid Phase Radioimmunoassay for the Quantitation of Abscisic Acid in Plant Crude Extracts  
632 Using a New Monoclonal Antibody. *J. Plant Physiol.* 134, 441–446. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0176-](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0176-1617(89)80007-0)  
633 1617(89)80007-0

634 Westfall, C.S., Muehler, A.M., Jez, J.M., 2013. Enzyme Action in the Regulation of Plant Hormone Responses.  
635 *J. Biol. Chem.* 288, 19304–19311. <https://doi.org/10.1074/jbc.R113.475160>

636 Xu, C., Mou, B., 2016. Responses of Spinach to Salinity and Nutrient Deficiency in Growth, Physiology, and  
637 Nutritional Value. *J. Am. Soc. Hortic. Sci.* 141, 12–21. <https://doi.org/10.21273/JASHS.141.1.12>

638 Xu, C., Mou, B., 2015. Evaluation of Lettuce Genotypes for Salinity Tolerance. *HortScience* 50, 1441–1446.  
639 <https://doi.org/10.21273/HORTSCI.50.10.1441>

640 Yang, Y., Guo, Y., 2018. Elucidating the molecular mechanisms mediating plant salt-stress responses. *New*  
641 *Phytol.* 217, 523–539. <https://doi.org/10.1111/nph.14920>

642 You, J., Chan, Z., 2015. ROS Regulation During Abiotic Stress Responses in Crop Plants. *Front. Plant Sci.* 6, 1–  
643 15. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpls.2015.01092>

644 Zagorchev, L., Seal, C.E., Kranner, I., Odjakova, M., 2013. A central role for thiols in plant tolerance to abiotic

645 stress. *Int. J. Mol. Sci.* 14, 7405–7432. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms14047405>

646 Zhang, J., Jia, W., Yang, J., Ismail, A.M., 2006. Role of ABA in integrating plant responses to drought and salt

647 stresses. *F. Crop. Res.* 97, 111–119. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fcr.2005.08.018>

648 Zhu, J.-K., 2000. Genetic Analysis of Plant Salt Tolerance Using Arabidopsis: Fig. 1. *Plant Physiol.* 124, 941–

649 948. <https://doi.org/10.1104/pp.124.3.941>

650