1 Influence of zinc nanoparticles on maize productivity under heat stress caused by

2 climate variability

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27 Abstract

28 Heat stress is among the most devastating abiotic stresses responsible for the reduction of 29 maize yield. Therefore, the application of zinc nanoparticles (ZnNPs) is considered one of the 30 precise and sustainable practices to meet the nutritional and food security demands of the global population. In this context, a field trial was conducted at Agronomy Research Farm, The 31 32 University of Agriculture Peshawar, Pakistan, to assess the effect of ZnNPs, applied as foliar and seed priming, on the growth, biochemical and productivity of maize. The treatments 33 consisted of foliar application of ZnNPs (100 and 150 mg L⁻¹) and seed priming with ZnNPs 34 (100 and 150 mg L⁻¹) along with control. Heat stress indeed hindered the production of maize. 35 36 However, the application of ZnNPs via foliar spray and seed priming showed a positive impact 37 as compared to the control. Foliar spray of ZnNPs at the rate of 150 mg L⁻¹ increased leaf area, 38 plant height, thousand-grain weight, biological yield, grain yield, grain zinc content, and total zinc uptake by 15.25, 9.03, 5.88, 7.54, 7.73, 53.03 and 34.65% as compared to control. 39 40 Similarly, seed priming with 150 mg L^{-1} of ZnNPs improved leaf area, plant height, grains ear⁻¹, thousand-grain weight, biological yield, grain yield, grain zinc content, and total zinc uptake by 41 12.21, 18.47, 6.26, 15.30, 16.71, 9.40, 26.16 and 59.77% as compared to control. In addition, 42 ZnNPs improved chlorophyll pigments (a, b, and carotenoids) and net photosynthetic rate as 43 44 well as stabilized transpiration rate, electrolyte leakage, increased canopy temperature 45 depression (CTD), and reduced heat shock protein (HTPs). Therefore, it is concluded that applying ZnNPs at a rate of 150 mg L⁻¹ via foliar spray and seed priming is an effective strategy 46 47 to enhance maize resilience against heat stress, leading to improved growth and yield 48 components, thereby contributing to food security and agricultural sustainability.

Keywords: Nanoparticle, Maize (*Zea mays*), Photosynthesis, Plant homeothermy, Heat
stress



53 Introduction

54 Maize (Zea mays L.) holds a significant agricultural importance, which grows best in tropical and subtropical climatic conditions (Bayar et al., 2024). Maize is primarily 55 56 used as human food, animal feed and feedstock to produce starches, corn oil, baby corn, corn syrup, flakes, and biofuel industries (Revilla et al., 2022), which makes it a crucial 57 food and feed in many countries (Li et al., 2021; Maitra et al., 2021). However, the 58 59 prevailing global climate change and the depletion of natural resources has risen the 60 day and night temperature that is threatening modern agriculture (Lowery et al., 2019; Tamez et al., 2020). High-temperature stress has a huge impact on the growth cycle, 61 affecting metabolic and morphological traits that cause irreversible losses to maize 62 vield (Shim et al., 2017). 63

Heat stress is the most damaging abiotic factor affecting seasonal growth and 64 65 spatial variations of various crops (Sallam et al., 2018; Magaña Ugarte et al., 2019). The rising global temperatures, driven by population growth and industrial 66 development, have become a significant concern (Baus, 2017). The impact of high 67 68 temperatures varies among different plants and cultivars, also across various developmental stages within the same species. Among agricultural crops, field crops 69 70 are particularly sensitive to high temperatures during their reproductive stage (Ravikiran et al., 2020). Temperatures exceeding 32°C disrupts several metabolic 71 72 processes of maize crop, inhibiting photosynthesis and increasing surface transpiration 73 rate (Sharma et al., 2020), pollen sterility (Gourdji et al., 2013) and shrinking grains 74 (Rezaei et al., 2015), all these leading to a significant yield loss. Heat stress disrupts 75 chlorophyll, electron flow, photosystem II, and carbon fixation that collectively impede 76 photosynthetic function (Hussain et al., 2021). Several techniques are being adapted to

combat heat stress, such as assisting Quantitative Trait Locus (QTL) markers, plant
breeding and genetic engineering as well as agrochemicals application, which require
time and have different ethical, environmental and economic concern.

80 Nanotechnology have transformed agriculture by increasing crop yield and provide significant potential for elevating plant tolerance against abiotic stresses (Arif 81 et al., 2020). One innovative method involves the use of zinc nanoparticles (ZnNPs) 82 83 that has recently attracted significant research attention due to its unique properties and diverse applications across various fields (Sturikova et al., 2018). Zinc NPs are 84 considerably more effective in enhancing crop productivity and Zn absorption to its 85 high surface area to volume ratio (Khan et al., 2021). The optimal dosage and 86 application methods of ZnNPs are being reported for enhancing growth, yield and 87 nutritional status of different crops while minimizing potential environmental risks 88 (Jalal et al., 2022; 2023a, b, c). 89

Zinc NPs are applied either to soil, foliar, or seeds (Abbasi et al., 2020), 90 however, foliar and seed treatments are considered the most effective in terms of leaf or 91 92 plant nutritional status (Tabesh et al., 2020). Foliar spray of Zn can mitigate oxidative stress caused by factors like extreme temperature (Khan et al., 2023). Zinc NPs enhance 93 94 antioxidant defense system to scavenge free radicals by altering microRNA expression and regulating various morphological, physiological, and metabolic processes of the 95 96 plant (Kambe et al., 2021). Seed Zn nano-priming has the capability to activate a 97 germination process and genes expression related to plant stress tolerance (An et al., 2020). Alfalfa seed priming with ZnNPs altered the ultrastructure of chloroplasts, 98 99 mitochondria, and cell walls, thereby preventing heat-induced damage and promoting 100 plant growth (Kareem et al., 2022a).

101 Based on the comprehensive overview, where the existing studies have highlighted the potential of ZnNPs in enhancing plant tolerance mechanisms under 102 103 abiotic stress. However, there is still lack of focused research on the performance of maize in response to application methods of ZnNPs under heat stress conditions. There 104 105 is a need for systematic investigation into the comparative effectiveness of these application methods under heat stress scenarios in maize. Therefore, this research 106 107 assessed the growth rate, chlorophyll content, photosynthetic efficiency, and yield performance to determine the efficacy of ZnNPs via foliar spray and seed priming in 108 109 enhancing maize resilience.

110 2. Materials and methods

111 2.1 Description of experimental site and design

112 A field experiment was performed at Agronomy Research Farm, The University of 113 Agriculture, Peshawar, during the kharif season of 2022, which is located at 34.01° N, 114 71.35° E, at an altitude of 350 m above sea level in the Peshawar valley. The weather 115 data of the experimental site is presented in Fig. 1.



Fig. 1. Mean monthly averaged meteorological data during the summer growing season of
2022.

The experiment aimed to examine how maize crops reacted to zinc 119 nanoparticles (ZnNPs) applied as foliar application and seed priming in response to the 120 growth and yield of maize crops under high temperatures. The experiment was 121 conducted in a randomized complete block design having four replications. Each plot 122 exhibited dimensions of 3.75 by 3 meters, comprising five rows with R-R and P-P 123 distances set at 75 and 20 centimeters, respectively. The maize variety 'Azam 1984' 124 obtained from Cereal Crop Research Institute Pirsabak was sown at a rate of 30 125 kilograms per hectare. For seed priming, maize seeds were treated with varying 126 concentrations of ZnNPs (P1= Control, P2=100 and P3=150 mg L⁻¹) while a foliar 127 spray of ZnNPs was applied at V8 stage at various levels (F1= Control, F2= 100 mg L^{-1} 128 and F3= 150 mg L⁻¹). For Zn priming and foliar at 0 mg L⁻¹, distilled water was used. 129 The recommended dose of NPK were applied as a basal dose of 150, 90 and 60 kg ha^{-1} 130 131 from urea, diammonium phosphate and muriate of potash. Three irrigations were applied during crop growing season at V4, V8 and milking stage. Hand weeding was 132

135 2.2. Soil Analysis

A composite of soil sample was made by homogeneously mixing thirty random 136 samples that were taken from the field site before the experiment started. Following air 137 drying, powdering, and sieving through a 2 mm sieve, the composite sample was 138 139 subjected to the physical and chemical properties as listed in Table 1. Wet digestion method by Jackson (1968) used to determine the total amount of organic matter in the 140 soil. The pipette method, as outlined by Avery and Bascomb (1974), was used to 141 determine the texture of the soil. According to McLean (1982), soil pH and electrical 142 conductivity were measured in each sample. Following the Soltanpour and Schwab 143 (1977) methodology, the available P, K, and Zn were estimated. The Kjeldahl method 144 was used to calculate the nitrogen content, according to the Bremner and Mulvaney 145 146 (1982) methodology.

147	Table 1	Pre-harvest	soil ph	ysiochen	nical pro	operties.
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Soil Analysis	Concentration
Texture	Silt loam
Sand	3 %
Silt	71 %
Clay	26 %
pH	7.1
Electric conductivity	0.33 dSm ⁻¹
Organic matter	0.93%
Nitrogen	0.18%
Phosphorus	0.06%
Potassium	0.24%
Zinc	1.09 mg kg ⁻¹

148 2.3. Preparation of zinc nanoparticles from clove bud extract

Plant materials (clove buds) were collected and ground into a powder using an 149 electric grinder. In a beaker, 20 g of the clove bud powder was combined with 100 ml 150 151 of distilled water. The solution was microwaved for 130 to 150 seconds at 1000 watts. The extract was then cooled to 21 °C and filtered (Bangar et al., 2023). For the 152 preparation of the reagent, 0.65 g of zinc was dissolved in 100 ml of water. Ten 153 milliliters of the plant extract were mixed with ten milliliters of a pre-prepared zinc 154 155 sulfate solution. After four hours, the mixture was examined. One milliliter of the solution was then transferred to an Eppendorf tube and centrifuged for 10 minutes at 156 157 10,000 rpm. The resulting pellets were dissolved in 1 ml of pure water using a vortex mixer. To purify the nanoparticles, the centrifugation procedure was repeated 3-4 times 158 with distilled water. The pellets were then stored for future use (Panwar et al., 2023). 159

160 2.4. Parameters related to the growth and yield of maize

161 2.4.1. Crop phenology

The number of days to tasseling was determined by counting the days from seed emergence to the point when 80% of the plants in each subplot had produced tassels. Similarly, the days to silking were recorded from the time of sowing until 80% of the plants in each subplot had produced silks. In last, the duration to reach physiological maturity was measured from the sowing date, when 80% of the plants in each subplot developed a black scar at the base of their grain.

168 2.4.2. Growth Parameters

169 To determine the leaf area within each plot, five plants were randomly selected 170 at the tillering stage. Leaf length and width were measured using a measuring tape, and 171 these measurements were then multiplied by a correction factor (0.75), as prescribed by Mutisya and Geadelmann (1988). Moreover, in each subplot, the heights of eight
randomly chosen plants were measured starting from the plant's top and going down to
the ground.

175 $LA = Leaf length \times leaf width \times 0.75$

176 2.4.3. Yield characteristics

The average length of ten randomly selected ears from each plot was recorded 177 178 to determine ear length. Additionally, ten ears were randomly chosen in each subplot, and the average number of grains per ear was determined and recorded. Each plot seed 179 180 lot was sampled three times for 1000 grains, which were weighed and averaged. To 181 find out biological yield four rows were selected and harvested with sickle from every experimental plot and sundried at harvest maturity. The dry material, after weighting, 182 was then converted into kg ha⁻¹ using equation 1. The plants harvested for biological 183 yield were threshed, and the grains were separated from the cobs. The grains were then 184 weighed by digital balance, and the sample data were converted to kg ha⁻¹ using 185 equation 1 to determine grain yield. 186

187 Biological and grain yield (kg ha⁻¹) = <u>BY/GY of four central rows</u> × 10000 _(equation 1) 188 R-R distance × No. of rows × row length

189 2.4.4. Zinc nutrition and biochemical attributes

To determine grain zinc content, grain samples from each seed lot were washed with water and dried in an oven at 70°C for 48 hours. They were then ground in a Wiley mill and digested in a di-acid mixture of nitric acid (HNO₃) and perchloric acid (HClO₄) as described by Jackson (1973). The zinc concentration in the aqueous extracts of the digested plant material was then measured using an atomic absorption spectrophotometer. To measure zinc uptake by the plant, the following equation wasused.

197

198 Zinc uptake by the plant (g ha⁻¹) = <u>Plant zinc concentration × Dry weight of the plant</u>

199

1000

200 To determine zinc use efficiency in plants the following equation was employed.

201	Zinc use efficiency $(\text{kg kg}^{-1}) =$	Dry weight of plants
202	(Т	otal zinc uptake× Total zinc supplied)

203 2.5. Parameters for evaluating heat stress in maize

204 2.5.1 Photosynthetic pigments

The photosynthetic pigment in maize leaves at the onset of the flowering stage 205 (30 DAS) was measured using a spectrophotometer (Lichtenthaler, 1987). The Spector-206 photometric method was used to determine the chlorophyll (Chl a and b) and 207 208 carotenoid content. A 200 mg sample of freshly harvested leaf material was submerged in an 8 ml solution composed of 80% acetone (volume/volume). This mixture was kept 209 at a frigid temperature of -4 °C in complete darkness for a duration of 48 hours. The 210 211 concentration of carotenoid, total chlorophyll, and chlorophyll (Chl a and Chl b) were measured at absorbance (A) of wavelength 663.2, 646.8, and 470 nm. The 212 concentrations of carotenoids, Chl a, and Chl b, were calculated using protocols of 213 Lichtenthaler 1987, and expressed in mg g^{-1} of fresh leaf weight (FW). 214

215 Chl a (mg g⁻¹) = $12.25A_{663.2} - 2.79A_{646.8}$

216 Chl b (mg g⁻¹) =
$$21.50A_{646.8} - 5.10A_{663.2}$$

218 2.5.2. Net photosynthetic and transpiration rate

Net photosynthesis rate (CO₂ umol m⁻² s⁻¹) and transpiration rate (H₂O mmol m⁻² ² s⁻¹) were measured using a portable infrared gas exchange analyzer, model Li-6400 (Li-Cor, USA).

222 2.5.3. Electrolyte leakage and heat shock protein analysis

The topmost expanded leaves of maize during the anthesis stage in every plot 223 224 were washed in deionized water, and the leaf discs, 5 mm in diameter, were then 225 punched out. The leaf discs were cut into slices and submerged in 30 ml of deionized 226 water for 2 hours at 25 °C. Following the incubation period, the electrical conductivity was measured using a conductometer at 25 and 100 °C. Then electrolyte leakage was 227 calculated using the formula: electrolyte leakage = $(C1/C2) \times 100$, where C1 is the 228 conductivity at 25 °C and C2 is the conductivity at 100 °C (Hniličková et al., 2019). The 229 heat shock protein (HSP) levels in leaves were measured using the Heat Shock Protein 230 Assay Kit (ab284527) from BioVision. The absorbance for HSP was recorded at OD 231 450 nm and expressed in ng g^{-1} of fresh weight (Hussain et al., 2019). 232

233 2.5.4. Canopy temperature depression

Canopy temperature depression (CTD) was measured by recording the canopy
temperature of plants under study using an infrared thermometer during midday (11:00
AM to 1:00 PM) on cloud-free days. The ambient air temperature was simultaneously
recorded at the same height as the canopy during anthesis stage. CTD was calculated as

the difference between ambient air temperature and canopy temperature (Awika et al.,239 2017).

240 2.6. Statistical analysis

Data on all parameters of maize were sample by Randomized Complete Block Design procedures and outlined by (Jan et al., 2009) was submitted to analysis of variance (ANOVA), and average between treatments was compared using LSD (least significant difference).

245 **3. Results**

246 3.1. Maize phenology and growth parameters

Plant phenology and growth of maize were positively influenced by foliar spray and seed priming with zinc nanoparticles (ZnNPs), while the interaction was significant only for leaf area and plant height (Supply file 1). The number of days to tasseling, silking and maturity were delayed by 1, 3 and 5 days, respectively, with foliar-applied ZnNPs at 150 mg L^{-1} as compared to the control. Seed priming with 150 mg L^{-1} also delayed tasseling, silking and maturity by 1, 2 and 3 days, respectively as compared to the control.

Leaf area of maize was increased with application of ZnNPs via both foliar spray and seed priming. Application of ZnNPs at the rate of 150 mg L⁻¹ via foliar and seed priming increased leaf area of maize by 15.25% and 12.21% respectively as compared to control. Seed priming with ZnNPs at the rate of 150 mg L⁻¹ was observed with greater leaf area, which was statistically not different from the interactive effect of foliar spray at 150 mg L⁻¹ of ZnNPs together with seed priming at the rate of 150 mg L⁻¹ as compared to the other treatments (Figure 2a). The interaction of water priming and foliar spray at the rate of 100 mg L⁻¹ was observed with small leaf area. In terms of plant height, 100 and 150 mg L⁻¹ foliar ZnNPs led to tallest plants compared to the control while among priming treatments, 150 mg L⁻¹ ZnNPs resulted in taller plants as compared to control. The interactive effect showed that seeds primed at 150 mg L⁻¹ ZnNPs without foliar treatment produced tallest plant that was also comparable to seeds primed with 100 and 150 mg L⁻¹ ZnNPs together with 150 mg L⁻¹ of foliar applied ZnNPs (Figure 2b).



268FwatarF100F150FwatarF100F150269Fig. 2. Interactive effect of foliar application and seed priming with ZnNPs on leaf area and
plant height of maize. Fwater, F100 and F150 is foliar ZnNPs at the rate of 0, 100 and 150 mg
L⁻¹ whereas, Pwater, P100 and P150 is seed priming done with 000, 100 and 150 mg L⁻¹271L⁻¹ whereas, Pwater, P100 and P150 is seed priming done with 000, 100 and 150 mg L⁻¹272ZnNPs, respectively. The bars represent standard deviation and different letters on the bars
showed significant variation between means of same group. (n= 4 replications).

274 3.2. Yield and yield component of maize

The application of Zens via foliar and seed priming cause significant disparity 275 $(P \le 0.05)$ in yield and related components of maize (Supply file 1). The combined 276 effect of these treatments was also significant for the yield and yield-related traits. 277 However, foliar applied ZnNPs has no significant effect on grains ear⁻¹ of maize. On 278 the other hand, seeds primed with 100 and 150 mg L⁻¹ ZnNPs produced 6.26% and 279 4.47% maximum grains ear⁻¹, respectively, as compared to the control. The combined 280 effect of foliar applied and seed primed with ZnNPs showed that foliar applied ZnNPs 281 at 150 mg L⁻¹ together with seed priming of 100 and 150 mg L⁻¹ resulted in the highest 282

grains ear⁻¹ that was also statistically similar to foliar application at 100 mg L^{-1} when applied in combination with primed seeds (Figure 3a).

Heavier thousand grains (5.88%) were produced as compared to the control 285 when 100 mg L^{-1} ZnNPs was applied, which were statistically similar to foliar 286 application at 150 mg L⁻¹. In terms of priming, seeds primed with 150 mg L⁻¹ ZnNPs 287 produced 15.31% highest thousand grain weight compared to control. Interactive effect 288 showed that thousand grains weight was improved when foliar 100 mg L⁻¹ ZnNPs was 289 applied together with primed seeds at 150 mg L⁻¹ ZnNPs that was at statistical parity 290 with 150 mg L^{-1} ZnNPs applied via foliar along with primed seeds at 150 mg L^{-1} 291 (Figure 3b). Grain and biological yield were substantially improved with application of 292 ZnNPs both as foliar and seed priming. Foliar application of ZnNPs at 100 and 150 mg 293 L^{-1} increased biological yield by 7.53% and 7.54% respectively, as compared to 294 control, while seed priming with ZnNPs at 100 and 150 mg L⁻¹ significantly increased 295 biological yield by 6.96% and 16.72% respectively, as compared to control. Interactive 296 effect showed that seeds primed at 150 mg L⁻¹ ZnNPs without any foliar treatment 297 recorded highest biological yield that was similar to foliar application of 150 mg L⁻¹ 298 ZnNPs together with 150 mg L^{-1} ZnNPs primed seeds (Figure 3c). Similarly, foliar 299 application of ZnNPs at 100 and 150 mg L^{-1} produced 10.83% and 7.74% more grain 300 yield as compared to control. Similarly, seed priming with ZnNPs at 100 and 150 mg 301 302 L^{-1} increased grain yield by 7.84% and 9.41% respectively, compared to control. Moreover, grain yield improved the most with 100 and 150 mg L^{-1} ZnNPs without any 303 foliar treatment that was also comparable to foliar application of 150 mg L⁻¹ ZnNPs 304 together with 150 mg L^{-1} ZnNPs primed seeds (Figure 3d). 305



Fig. 3. Interactive effect of foliar application and seed priming with ZnNPs on yield and yield components of maize. Fwater, F100 and F150 is foliar ZnNPs at the rate of 0, 100 and 150 mg L^{-1} whereas, Pwater, P100 and P150 is seed priming done with 0, 100 and 150 mg L^{-1} ZnNPs, respectively. The bars represent standard deviation and different letters on the bars showed significant variation between means of same group. (n= 4 replications).

314 3.3. Zinc nutrition and biochemical attributes

Foliar application of ZnNPs and seed priming with ZnNPs resulted significant 315 316 variation (P \leq 0.05) in terms of zinc absorption by maize with significant interaction among different treatments (Supply file 1). Application of 150 mg L⁻¹ZnNPs as a foliar 317 318 increased 53.03% zinc content in the grain as compared to the control. Similarly, seed priming with 150 mg L⁻¹ ZnNPs, produced 26.16% maximum zinc content in the grain 319 as compare to the control. According to interactive effect, grain zinc content was 320 321 recorded highest with 150 mg L⁻¹ foliar combined with seed priming done with 150 mg L⁻¹ZnNPs compared to control plots (Figure 4a). In case of zinc uptake, application of 322

150 mg L⁻¹ ZnNPs both as a foliar and seed priming resulted in 34.65 and 59.77% respectively, higher uptake as compared to the control as also clear from their interaction (Supply file 1; Fig 4b). Zinc use efficiency was higher in control plots over foliar applied and seed priming treatments (Supply file 1; Fig 4c). Chlorophyll a, b and carotenoid contents were recorded highest with application of 150 mg L⁻¹ZnNPs both as a foliar and seed priming and the same results were also reflected in interactive effect (Supply file 1; Fig 4d, e).





Fig. 4. Interactive effect of foliar application and seed priming with ZnNPs on Zinc nutrition and biochemical attributes. Fwater, F100 and F150 is foliar ZnNPs at the rate of 0, 100 and 150 mg L⁻¹ whereas, Pwater, P100 and P150 is seed priming done with 000, 100 and 150 mg L⁻¹
ZnNPs, respectively. The bars represent standard deviation and different letters on the bars showed significant variation between means of same group. (n= 4 replications).

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- 341 3.4. Heat stress indicators
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ZnNP application via foliar and seed priming has a significant effect on heat 343 stress indicators (Supply file 1). Net photosynthetic rate was higher in foliar treated 344 plots with 100 and 150 mg L⁻¹ ZnNPs along with seeds primed with 150 mg L⁻¹ as 345 compared to control (Figure 5a). The application of 150 mg L^{-1} ZnNPs via foliar and 346 seed primed significantly reduced transpiration rate as compared to 100 mg L⁻¹ ZnNPs 347 and control (Figure 5b). Electrolyte leakage was higher in control plot that was 348 significantly lowered with the application of 100 and 150 mg L⁻¹ ZnNPs both as a foliar 349 and seed priming (Figure 5c). The value of heat shock protein was highest in control 350 plot that was significantly lowered with 100 and 150 mg L⁻¹ ZnNPs foliar application 351 and seed priming with the respective levels (Figure 5d). Canopy temperature depression 352 353 (CTD) that represents the difference between canopy and ambient temperature differed significantly. Higher CTD was noted in plots that were treated with 150 mg L⁻¹ ZnNPs 354 as a foliar and seed primed with 100 and 150 mg L⁻¹ ZnNPs (Figure 5e). 355



Fig. 5. Interactive effect of foliar application and seed priming with ZnNPs on heat stress indicators. Fwater, F100 and F150 is foliar ZnNPs at the rate of 0, 100 and 150 mg L⁻¹ whereas, Pwater, P100 and P150 is seed priming done with 0, 100 and 150 mg L⁻¹ ZnNPs, respectively. The bars represent standard deviation and different letters on the bars showed significant variation between means of same group. (n= 4 replications).

365 3.5. Interaction of different treatments

366 Correlation analysis was performed between all the evaluated traits that 367 included phenological traits, yield and yield components, zinc nutrition and

biochemical attributes and heat stress indicators when treated with ZnNPs as a foliar 368 and seed priming under the influence of heat stress. It was revealed that maize 369 phenology (Days to tasseling, silking and maturity) was positively correlated with 370 371 maize growth, its yield and related components i.e. delayed phenology improved growth, yield and related components. Moderate to weak correlation was observed 372 373 between grain zinc content and yield along with related components however, zinc 374 uptake was strongly correlated with it. Similarly, plant photopigments also revealed positive correlation with yield. On the other hand, net photosynthetic rate, transpiration 375 376 rate and electrolyte leakage was negatively correlated with yield i.e. increase it that parameters caused decrease in yield and its components. Moreover, heat shock protein 377 had a negative effect on all the studied traits except transpiration rate and electrolyte 378 leakage while, CTD had a moderate to weak correlation with evaluated parameters 379 (Figure 6). 380



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Fig. 6. Pearson correlation analysis between yield and yield component, zinc absorption andstress indicating indices of maize under foliar application and seed priming with ZnNPs.

385 4. Discussion

Rising temperatures and extreme heat stress are causing a worldwide decrease 386 in maize production (El-Sappah et al., 2022) and this effect can be weakened by 387 adaptation of modern approches such as nanotechnology (Mahakham et al., 2017). Our 388 research revealed significant results when maize was treated with ZnNPs under 389 390 elevated temperatures. In our research, the phenology of crop was delayed in terms of days to tasseling, silking and maturity by supplementation of ZnNPs via foliar and seed 391 priming (Supply file 1). However, growth stages were shortened in control plots and 392 that reduction in the life cycle is usual response of plants towards heat stress (Cohen et 393 al., 2021). Prolong growth stages in ZnNPs treatments (foliar or seed priming) could be 394 due to enhanced zinc availability and uptake (Elshayb et al., 2021), which is important 395 for enzyme activation, protein synthesis, and growth regulation (Saleem et al., 2022). 396 Broader leaves and taller plants was observed under the influence of combine 397 treatments of foliar and primed seeds with ZnNPs especially at the rate of 150 mg L⁻¹ 398 over control plots (Supply file 1; Fig. 2a,b). This enhancement can be attributed to 399 ZnNPs role in influencing the biosynthesis of phytohormones such as cytokinins and 400 401 gibberellins that increases internodes per plant leading to taller plants (Tondey et al. 2021; Zakirov et al. 2018). Moreover, enhanced cell elongation, increased plant height 402 and leaf area of maize (Sturikova et al., 2018). While no supplementation of ZnNPs in 403 control plots would have reduced leaf area and plant height due to the production of 404 reactive oxidation species in maize above 35 °C (Ashkiani et al., 2020; Djalovic et al., 405 406 2024; Poudela et al., 2024).

Heat stress reduces photosynthetic efficiency by damaging the photosynthetic 407 apparatus, which in turn limits carbohydrate production, an essential process for growth 408 409 and nutrient transport (Fahad et al., 2017). Moreover, heat stress can cause nutrient competition and imbalances, as plants may prioritize the uptake of certain nutrients like 410 potassium to maintain osmotic balance, thereby reducing the uptake of other essential 411 macronutrients such as nitrogen, phosphorus and magnesium (Bisht et al., 2023). Zinc 412 413 is a vital element for cell development, multiplication, and pollen fertility, which are crucial for proper plant establishment, growth, and reproduction. Zinc, being a cofactor 414 415 for nitrate reductase and glutamine synthetase ensure these enzymes function optimally, enhancing nitrogen assimilation and utilization (Maret, 2013). ZnNPs can facilitate the 416 availability of growth promoting nutrients and improve plant resilience and efficiency 417 in nutrient uptake and utilization enabling roots to absorb more nutrients from the soil 418 (Wang et al., 2018). ZnNPs boost the plants antioxidant defense system by activating 419 enzymes like superoxide dismutase (SOD) and catalase (CAT), reducing oxidative 420 damage and maintaining cellular function for efficient nitrogen uptake (Li et al., 2019). 421 Therefore, the current results verified that yield and its components were improved 422 especially with foliar application of 150 mg L⁻¹ ZnNPs and seed priming done with 100 423 and 150 mg L⁻¹ ZnNPs whereas control produced lowest results possibility due to more 424 425 vulnerability to elevated temperatures (Supply file 1; Fig. 3a,b,c and d). Our results are 426 consistent with the findings of Afzal et al. (2013) and Raza et al. (2023) who reported an improvement in maize yield and yield components as a result of nutrient seed 427 priming with ZnSO₄. The increase in 1000-grain weight with Zn application to seeds 428 may be attributed to the enhanced bioavailability of this element and its direct 429 translocation to young seedlings (Choukri et al., 2022). Similarly, a study by 430 Rameshraddy et al. (2018) showed an increase in grain yield with the application of 431

zinc nanoparticles compared to ZnSO₄ treatment. The application of ZnO nanoparticles
increased grain yield by enhancing the yield related characteristics of the treated plants
(Tondey et al., 2021). The yield increase can be attributed to a rise in chlorophyll
content, which leads to improved photosynthetic efficiency. This enhancement can be
specifically linked to increases in soluble protein content, starch content, and dry mass
(Kolenčík et al., 2019).

Plant zinc concentrations and uptake were notably enhanced by the application 438 of ZnNPs especially by interactive effects of foliar and seed priming, as reported in 439 similar study on wheat (Ahmed et al., 2023). However, the main effect showed that 440 more improvement was done by foliar application (Supply file 1; Fig. 4a, b). 441 Mechanistically, ZnNPs foliar spray is more effective because it provides a direct and 442 immediate route for zinc uptake through the leaf cuticle and stomata (Mohapatra et al., 443 2023). In contrast, seed priming with zinc nanoparticles involves initial absorption by 444 seeds and subsequent translocation during germination and early growth (Yu et al. 445 2022), which can be less efficient due to soil interactions and environmental factors. 446 447 ZnNPs also enhance photosynthetic efficiency, and our current experiment observed their positive effect on plant photopigments (Supply file 1; Fig. 4d, e). Similar, 448 449 improvements in chlorophyll and photosynthesis were observed by different researcher under heat and other type of abiotic stresses (Rai-Kalal and Jajoo, 2021; Azmat et al., 450 451 2022; Khan et al., 2023; Seleiman et al., 2023). Higher transpiration rate was notable in untreated plots (Supply file 1; Fig. 5b) that were likely due to high vapour pressure 452 453 deficit created due to high atmospheric temperatures that created physiological drought 454 (See tharam et al., 2021). While on the other hand, transpiration was stabilized by the application of ZnNPs (foliar or seed priming) as exogenous application of ZnNPs 455 increased the production of antioxidants and osmolytes (Kareem et al., 2022). As per 456

Disante et al. (2011), the reduction of reactive oxygen species by ZnNPs decreased
oxidative damage and lipid peroxidation by facilitating Cu/Zn-SOD (an anti-oxidative
defense mechanism), thus preserving the integrity of cell membranes, including those in
the stomata.

Electrolyte leakage, revealing membrane damage and mechanisms of cell death, 461 was observed to be higher in control plots (Table 5; Fig. 5c). However, the percentage 462 463 of damage was reduced by ZnNPs, particularly under the highest levels of ZnNPs applied through foliar and seed priming. ZnNPs create existing antioxidant defense 464 system stronger that likely reduce electrolyte leakage as also noted in other crops like 465 wheat (Azmat et al., 2022), rice (Yan et al., 2021), cucumber (Ghani et al., 2022) and 466 soybean (Ahmad et al., 2020). Moreover, elevated values for heat shock protein were 467 observed in untreated plots in response to heat stress at grain filling stage (Table 5; 468 figure 5d). Perras and Sarhan (1989) observed that at 40°C, normal cellular metabolism 469 declines, leading to disruptions in regular protein production and structure (Monjardino 470 et al., 2005). This stress response triggers the increased heat shock proteins, which help 471 472 plants tolerate high temperatures. However, less heat shock proteins observed with ZnNPs treated plots, indicated that plants can better cope with high-temperature stress 473 474 because ZnNPs enhance antioxidants and osmolytes, reducing reactive oxygen species and lipid peroxidation, which ultimately decreases the need for heat shock proteins in 475 476 plants under heat stress conditions (Kareem et al., 2022; Vinay et al., 2023). The recorded temperature difference between atmosphere and canopy showed variation 477 478 under ZnNPs treatments (foliar and seed priming) compared to control (Supply file 1; 479 Fig. 5e). Maize plants have poor homeotherm behavior (Sobejano-Paz et al., 2023) that led to higher canopy temperatures and reduce cooling efficiency causing lower canopy 480 temperature depression. Plots treated with 150 mg L⁻¹ foliar applied and seed primed 481

ZnNPs and this could be due to improvement in chlorophyll content and photosynthetic 482 pigments as discussed above. This increased CO₂ assimilation and subsequent 483 484 carbohydrate production, which can cool the plant canopy through increased transpiration and metabolic activity. However, the direct impact of ZnNPs on canopy 485 temperature depression has not been examined. In this context, the current research 486 indicated a positive correlation between maize phenology and its growth, yield, and 487 488 components, with delayed phenology enhancing these factors. These findings highlight the potential of nanotechnology in modern agriculture, particularly in regions prone to 489 490 extreme heat stress, and contribute to the broader goal of achieving global food security. 491

492 **5.** Conclusions

The research demonstrated that the application of zinc nanoparticles (ZnNPs) via foliar 493 spray and seed priming significantly enhances maize resilience against heat stress, 494 leading to improved growth, yield, and biochemical properties. Specifically, foliar 495 application and seed priming at 150 mg L⁻¹ increased growth parameters, grain yield, 496 497 zinc content, and overall zinc uptake compared to the control. Additionally, ZnNPs also mitigate heat shock protein expression, contributing to improved plant health and 498 499 productivity under elevated temperatures, making this approach a viable and sustainable strategy to improve maize productivity under heat-stress conditions, thereby 500 501 supporting global food security efforts. However, a significant gap remains between 502 laboratory research and field applications, which often hinders the widespread adoption 503 of nanotechnology in agriculture. Bridging this gap requires collaboration among 504 scientists and with business and political stakeholders to unlock the transformative 505 potential of nanoparticles, fostering agricultural and economic prosperity while 506 maintaining the commitment to global food production.

507 Conflicts of interest/Competing interests

- 508 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
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519 All the data will be made available on the request.

520 Authors' contributions

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522 Jalal Bayar: Software; Shereen Magdy Korany: Software, Formal analysis; Uzair

523 Ahmad: Conceptualization; Atia Gul: Investigation; Waleed Khan: Visualization;

- 524 Arshad Jalal: Writing review & editing, Resources, Project administration; Emad A
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