Divergence in a stress-associated gene regulatory network underlies differential
growth control in the Brassicaceae family

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Abstract

The use of marginal lands in agriculture is increasingly necessary to support the global
human population. Elevated salinity frequently occurs in degraded soils and hinders
their use due to the negative impact salt stress has on plant growth. While the hormonal
networks controlling growth have been extensively characterized in stress-sensitive
plants, it is unclear how these pathways are rewired in plants that maintain growth in
extreme environments. We have compared the physiological and molecular responses
of four closely related members of the Brassicaceae family including two salt-tolerant
species (*Shrenkiella parvula* and *Eutrema salsugineum*) and two salt-sensitive species
(*Sisymbrium irio* and *Arabidopsis thaliana*) to the salt stress-induced hormone, abscisic
acid (ABA). While ABA inhibits root growth in most species, we uncovered substantial
growth-promoting effects in *Shrenkiella parvula*, due to an enhancement in cell
elongation. Comparative transcriptomics informed by phylogenetic relationships
uncovered lineage and extremophile-specific differences in ABA response. DNA Affinity
Purification followed by sequencing (DAP-Seq) was utilized to establish gene regulatory
networks (GRNs) in each species for the entire ABA-RESPONSIVE ELEMENT
BINDING FACTORS (AREB/ABF) clade. Comparative GRN analysis identified relative
conservation in the core ABA signaling GRN, while the auxin growth-hormone GRN was
highly divergent, revealing how patterns of gain and loss of cis-regulatory elements
mediate novel physiological outcomes. Our findings demonstrate that the targets of
hormone signaling pathways are highly divergent between species and that diametric
inversion of growth regulation is possible, even between closely related species of the
same plant family.

Keywords: abscisic acid, extremophile, AREB/ABF, DAP-Seq, halophyte, Brassicaceae

Introduction

The survival of all organisms depends on their ability to appropriately respond to
environmental signals, which is superbly exemplified by plants, whose physiology and
growth is constantly tuned to suit the context [1]. During periods of environmental stress,
some plants are better able to cope than others [2]. The most widely characterized plants
are typically stress-sensitive, such as the molecular-genetic model *Arabidopsis thaliana*
(At) and domesticated crops. Our limited knowledge of the most effective response
strategies to stress currently limits our ability to maintain agricultural yields in the face of
global climate change [3].
48
Extremophytes (stress-tolerant plants) are plant species that have evolved mechanisms
to cope with various abiotic stresses such as cold, drought, and hypersaline conditions [4]
[5]. Recently, the reduced cost of sequencing has provided new opportunities to study the
genes that underlie these physiological adaptations to extreme environments (**Fig. 1b**) [6]
[7]. Within the Brassicaceae, two halophyte plant species exhibit greater tolerance to soil
salinity than the model plant At. *Eutrema salsugineum* (Es) is tolerant to the effects of
salt and grows along the ocean shorelines of Shandong province in China, while
Schreinkiella parvula (Sp) grows near Lake Tuz in Turkey, and is tolerant to high levels
of Na^+, Li^+, Mg^{2+}, and Boron [8] [9]. While At belongs to Lineage I of the Brassicaceae
family, both extremophytes belong to lineage II, which also contains the stress-sensitive
species *Sisymbrium irio* (Si)[10]. These species, being diploid, with small genomes, and
similar numbers of genes, present new opportunities to understand how stress-
mediated gene networks in extremophytes differ from stress-sensitive plants [11] [12].
62
While salt tolerance in Es has been previously associated with strategies that maintain
growth including effective energy use, regulation of excess electron flow, protective
barriers in the root, and chloroplast protection, salt tolerance in Sp is less well
understood [13] [14]. Many environmental stressors lead to the synthesis and activation of
the abscisic acid (ABA) plant hormone signaling pathway. In At, ABA inhibits
germination, root growth, and gas exchange as a means of limiting growth under abiotic
stress and preserving resources [15] [16] [17].
70
ABA perception triggers a signaling cascade that leads to the phosphorylation of bZIP
transcription factors (TFs) known as ABA-RESPONSIVE ELEMENT BINDING
FACTORS (AREB/ABFs) [18] [19]. ABFs relocalize to the nucleus and activate gene
expression by binding to cis-regulatory elements (CREs) known as *ABA-RESPONSIVE*
*ELEMENT*s (*ABRE*) (**Fig. 1a**). Thousands of genes, in various tissues, are activated
upon ABA treatment to confer its physiological effects in At. We hypothesized that

defining how the architecture of the ABA-mediated gene network varies across species
will elucidate whether environmental-response programs become tuned to extreme
environments over evolutionary timescales [20].
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In this study, we examined the sensitivities of the extremophytes to exogenous ABA
treatment and uncovered substantial differences, most notably in Sp. We conducted
RNA-Seq to capture the transcriptional profile of both root and shoot tissue at short and
long time points to identify genes and pathways that support plant growth during stress
conditions. We also performed DAP-Seq to characterize the transcription factor binding
landscape that mediates the physiological effects of ABA signaling. We applied a
method we termed, swap-DAP to determine the contribution of cis- and trans-regulation
on the transcription factor binding landscape defined by DAP-Seq. Finally, we combined
these data into gene networks to define conserved and species-specific components of
the ABRE/ABF-mediated gene regulatory network and identify genes and subnetworks
that may be important for stress tolerance in extremophytes. Together, this work has
revealed the patterns of variation that differentiate stress tolerant and sensitive species
and identify specific rewiring events that allow Sp to maintain growth despite a stressful
environment.

Results

A comparison of the growth response to ABA treatment reveals a diametric switch in the
behavior of Sp roots.

ABA mediates the regulation of root growth under salinity and drought. We
hypothesized that studying the effects of ABA on root growth would therefore be a
useful approach for interrogating variation in stress response pathways and would avoid
the challenge of comparing transcriptional programs between species using different
stress treatment regimes. As was previously described, we found that At and Si root
growth is dramatically inhibited under elevated concentrations of NaCl, while Sp and Es
exhibit substantial tolerance to these effects (**Fig. 1c**). In contrast, the application of
exogenous ABA revealed that these treatments had inhibitory effects on primary root
growth in all species except Sp, which exhibited a striking promotion of growth at all
concentrations tested (**Fig. 1d**). We characterized the developmental basis for the
observed growth enhancement (**Fig. 1e**) and found that while the meristem size for At
and Sp is reduced upon ABA treatment (**Fig. 1f**), final cell length for Sp increased by
50% (from ~100 μm to ~200 μm) after treatment while no changes occurred in At (**Fig.**
1g-h). These data show that all species tested respond to ABA by differential growth,
but that the direction of this effect can vary dramatically depending on the species and
developmental context.

Comparative transcriptomics informed by phylogenetic relationships uncovered lineage
and extremophyte-specific differences in ABA response

To more broadly establish how responses to ABA might vary, we performed RNA-Seq
on the roots and shoots of all 4 species, either treated with mock or 10 μM ABA, and
harvested tissues at 3 hours and 24 hours post-treatment. While we captured known
ABA response genes in At and observed the greatest number of genes differentially
expressed (DE) at 3 hours in the root for At, Si, and Es, Sp again stood out with an
almost equal number of DE genes in both 3 hours and 24 hours root samples, while the
greatest number of genes in Sp appear in the shoot at 24 hours (**Fig. 2a**). Upon
clustering DE genes in each species and ranking the clusters from greatest to the
fewest number of genes within each cluster, Sp again appears to exhibit striking
differences in cluster patterns (**Fig. 2b**). While we identified a subset of species-specific
genes, the greater proportion of genes have *Arabidopsis* orthologs which facilitates a
cross-species comparison of gene regulation (**Fig. 2c, Supplementary Dataset 1**).
Using CLfinder, we defined 15,198 unambiguously 1-to-1 orthologous gene groups
across our four species (**Supplementary Fig. 1, Supplementary Dataset 1,2**). We
categorized ABA-responsive genes based on whether they showed broad conservation
or were regulated in a lineage, species, or extremophile-specific manner. In ranking
these categories, we found that conserved responses were the least prevalent while
stress-sensitive or extremophyte associated responses were the most prevalent (**Fig.**
2d). We identified patterns of GO category enrichment for DE genes (DEGs) on a per-
species basis, contrasting ABA-induced and repressed DEGs. Among ABA-induced
DEGs, we found an extensive overrepresentation of "response to abiotic stimulus" and
10 related non-redundant GO terms in all samples and species (**Supplementary Fig. 2,**
Supplementary Dataset 3). These GO terms cumulatively accounted for 20 to 25% of
ABA-induced DEGs in all samples and were not detected among ABA-repressed DEGs.
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The phylogenetic relationship of species studied here provides an opportunity to
systematically detect lineage-specific modifications in pathway regulation. To identify
such patterns, we developed a phylogenetically informed profiling (PiP) approach that
utilizes a correlation metric to establish whether pairs of species exhibit a similar
regulatory program for genes associated with a particular Gene Ontology (GO) category
(**Supplementary Fig. 3a, Supplementary Dataset 4**). The GO term "response to
abscisic acid" showed significant correlations in all species pairs indicating broad
conservation in the valence of gene regulation, likely inherited from the last common
ancestor (**Fig. 2e**). In contrast, orthologous gene pairs associated with protein
translation ("peptide biosynthetic process") exhibited no correlation, or showed
anticorrelation, between Sp and other species in root tissues 3 hours post ABA
treatment. This pattern suggests an Sp-specific change in regulation (**Fig. 2f**). Several
GO terms related to ribosomal function and translation showed the largest variances of

Spearman correlation coefficient (ρ) among species pairs, especially in root samples,
suggesting divergence in the responses of Sp orthologs to ABA (**Supplementary Fig.**
3b). Protein translation is finely orchestrated with the metabolic activity in cells and
corresponds to the growth cellular state [21]. Our data suggest that Sp interprets ABA
signaling as a proxy for environmental stimuli where growth is enhanced, rather than
suppressed as it is in all other species examined here.
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To profile the factors that drive differential gene expression across species, we
analyzed the promoters of highly ABA-responsive DEGs (fold-change ≥ 2) using
Analysis of Motif Enrichment (AME) (McLeay and Bailey 2010). In looking for over-
represented TF binding motifs within 1 Kb of upstream DNA sequence of the promoter
region, we found motifs for ABF1/2/3/4 and an additional 32 TFs, all of which included a
G-box like motif similar to the previously defined ABRE motif 22 (Supplementary Fig. 4,
Supplementary Dataset 5). Interestingly, none of these motifs were found enriched in
the promoters of ABA-repressed DEGs suggesting these motifs are associated with
transcriptional activators. Considering patterns of enrichment in gene functions and
known regulatory motifs, we hypothesized that ABA primarily acts first on the up-
regulation of gene expression through binding of ABFs, while the signal diversifies
through ABF GRNs to create more intricate responses depending on the tissue and
temporal contexts.

The gain and loss of ABREs at the nucleotide level led to differences in the binding
landscape of ABFs

To understand the molecular mechanism underlying the divergence in ABA-induced
transcriptional changes across species, we sought to establish global maps of ABF
binding in Sp, Si, Es, and At. The recent development of DNA affinity purification (DAP-
Seq) provided a method amendable for the study of non-model organisms. In contrast
with ChIP-Seq, DAP-Seq facilitates the direct measurement of TF to genomic DNA
(gDNA) binding without the need to develop TF-specific antibodies or generate
transgenic lines with epitope-tagged TFs [23]. Fortuitously, ABFs have 4 homologs within
each of our model species and 4 paralogs across each species (**Supplementary Fig.**
5). Therefore 16 ABFs were characterized for their ability to bind to the At genome as
well as the genomes of Es, Si, and Sp. A minimum of 2 biological replicates were used
for each pull-down and purified genomic DNA from shoot tissue was used in all cases
due to the low-quality of data obtained using root-derived gDNA. Stringent criteria were
established to ensure a high level of quality amongst the processed samples.
(**Supplementary Fig. 6**).
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To determine if the DNA-binding affinity of ABFs varies across isoforms, we performed
motif analysis on the genomic regions bound by ABF using GEM [24]. Highly similar

ABRE-like motifs were identified as the most predominant binding site indicating that
DAP-Seq is able to uncover the genome-wide binding landscape of ABFs across related
Brassicaceae species (**Fig. 3a**). To determine the specificity of the DAP-Seq assay, we
compared the proportion of ABREs occupied by DAP-Seq peaks to the distribution of
the core sequence (ACGT) that centers the ABRE motif across the genome and found
that ABREs as well as ABF binding occurs in higher proportion in the 5' promoter region
upstream of genes compared to the ACGT sequence, which does not have a feature
preference (**Supplementary Fig. 7, Supplementary Dataset 6**).
201
To further profile differences and similarities in the binding landscape, we compared the
binding positions of the top 3000 ABF binding sites. We found significant overlap for
ABFs within each species, indicating that the ABFs function redundantly to regulate
downstream gene expression. To investigate the role of cis or trans effects, we
swapped the cognate genome for a noncognat genome (*Arabidopsis*) during the pull-
down which we termed swap-DAP. The large overlap of binding positions across
species suggest that the cis-effect from the genome, instead of the TF isoform used,
contributes the greatest difference in ABF binding landscape (**Fig. 3b, Supplementary**
Fig. 8).
211
We assigned significant TF-DNA associations based on the proximity of the binding site
to the nearest gene. This analysis identified 14,374 ABF-target associations for At and
10,558 for Si, 10,197 for Sp, and 20,026 for Es. These data are of particular significance
as no prior information on TF-DNA interactions were available for Si, Sp, and Es. While
we identified large overlaps in ABF function within species, we hypothesize that
differences in ABF binding across species may rewire transcriptional responses and
potentially repurpose gene networks to confer different responses to ABA. Leveraging
the strength of our cross-species datasets, we characterized incidences where the ABF
binding profile is altered in Sp compared to other species. For example, in AT2G21510,
all ABF1/2/3/4 bind to the 5' proximal region of this gene, which is annotated as a
molecular chaperone important for tolerating environmental stress. This is also true for
AT5G42570, which is annotated as B-cell receptor-associated 31-like protein,
previously found to be associated with cold acclimation [25]. However, while At, Si, and Es
show ABF binding, Sp does not. Changes in binding profile are associated with
differences in gene expression, where both AT2G21510 and AT5G42570 have greater
transcript abundance under 10 µM ABA treatment in most species while the Sp
orthologues have greater transcript abundance under control conditions. Our swap-Dap
data set suggest that these changes are due to cis-effects since Sp ABF isoforms are
able to bind these promoter regions in the At genome (**Fig 3c, Supplementary Fig. 9**).
Alignment of the promoter regions across species revealed that, in the two genes
highlighted from our analysis, the core ABRE motif is disrupted in Sp due to a single

base pair mutation. Interestingly, the promoters of AT2G21510 and AT5G42570 have
several other ABRE-like sequences that underlie the DAP-seq peak and are fully
conserved in Sp (**Fig 3d, Supplementary Fig. 10**).These other ABREs may not be
sufficient to recruit ABFs due to differences in flanking sequence or higher order
structural features of the locus. Thus, our analysis highlights how DAP-Seq can be used
to profile functional binding site motifs and identify motif-disrupting variants that alter TF
binding and target gene expression.
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To test more broadly how well-correlated ABF binding is to ABA-regulated gene
expression, we tested whether genes including a DAP-seq peak in adjacent genomic
regions were enriched among ABA-induced and repressed DEGs. Among ABA-induced
DEGs, the most significant enrichment was found for the presence of a DAP-seq peak
in the 5' proximal 1Kb regions, followed by 5' distal 1Kb regions, while less to no
significant enrichments were observed for a DAP-seq peak in the 3' region (**Fig 3e**).
This pattern was not observed among ABA-repressed DEGs (**Supplementary Table 1**).
Our method highlights the strength of comparative studies in identifying genetic variants
with molecular functions which could leverage TF-binding landscapes as an emerging
phenotype that can be used to connect genetic variants with differences in growth
strategies.

The gain and loss of ABF-binding has led to the rewiring of GRNs controlled by ABA
signaling
We hypothesized that changes in the regulation of growth by ABA is modulated by
changes in the architecture of the ABF gene regulatory network (GRN) between
species. To test this, we explored rewiring patterns in Sp, compared to At, by first
stratifying the GRN into primary and secondary modules. We used the nodes and edges
of the primary ABA network defined in Song *et al.* as a scaffold to map our DAP-Seq
derived ABF edges on top [26]. We found that a majority (46/53) of the initial nodes of the
network were also predicted ABF targets in At. Among these 46 genes, we found only 3
that were no longer targets of ABFs in Sp (**Supplementary Fig. 11**). Supporting these
observations, we found similar transcriptional responses of these genes when
comparing At and Sp, suggesting deep conservation of the ABF-mediated network.
264
Since ABA crosstalks with other hormone pathways, we hypothesized that divergence
in the ABA GRN might also occur beyond the primary network. We focused on auxin
and ethylene pathways since previous literature has shown that they cross-talk with
ABA in the context of growth control [27][28][29]. We curated a list of genes with roles in
biosynthesis, transport, and signaling pathways for auxin (199 genes) and ethylene (72
genes) [30][31][32][33][34][35][36][37][38][39][40](**Supplementary Fig. 11, 12**). From these datasets, we
found that 33 ethylene and 81 auxin-related genes were targeted by ABFs in at least

one species (At or Sp). 18 out of 33 ethylene-related genes exhibited differences in ABF
binding between At and Sp, however these changes were observed in other lineage II
species as well. Among the differentially wired genes we found only 2 that are rewired in
an Sp-specific manner. In contrast, we observed a larger proportion of auxin-related
genes (15/81) with differences in ABF binding specifically in Sp compared to At.
Additionally, we found an equal number of genes that displayed differential ABF binding
in Sp and one of the other lineage II species. (**Fig. 4a**). Our transcriptome dataset is
aligned with these findings and suggests a repurposing of an auxin related subnetwork
since we observed many Sp orthologs displaying transcriptional patterns that could be
explained by differences in ABF binding (**Fig. 4b**).
282
Auxin inhibits root growth by suppressing the rate of cell elongation [41]. We observed
that a large number of genes that encode enzymes involved in auxin biosynthesis are
rewired in the Sp ABF network (**Fig. 4a**), including *TAA1* and *YUC2*, which mediate the
last steps of auxin biosynthesis. While these genes are induced by ABA in At, this effect
is lost in Sp (**Fig. 4b**), suggesting that the divergence in growth regulation by ABA may,
in part, be mediated by differential control of *TAA1*/*YUC2*. To validate this hypothesis,
we utilized a TAA1 inhibitor, L-Kyruneine [42], to inhibit auxin biosynthesis. In At, L-
Kyruneine reduced the sensitivity of roots to ABA treatment, consistent with previous
work demonstrating the importance of auxin in mediating the response to ABA [43].
Similarly, the TAA1 loss of function allele *wei8-1* [44] exhibited resistance to ABA
treatment (**Fig. 4c**). Together, these data suggest that ABA mediated growth inhibition
depends on TAA1 and auxin biosynthesis (**Fig. 4d**). We hypothesize that in Sp, this
growth inhibitory arm may be strongly diminished since the regulation of TAA1/YUC2 is
no longer targeted by ABFs. Thus, the ultimate physiological outcome of ABA on
primary root growth depends on the degree to which auxin biosynthesis and signaling
are induced by ABF binding and transcriptional regulation.

Discussion

In our study, we aimed to investigate how stress-mediated gene networks differed
between extremophytes and non-extremophile species to elucidate the components by
which plants have altered ancestral networks to gain beneficial traits. We selected
species in the Brassicaceae to take advantage of the extensive gene annotation and
knowledge associated with *Arabidopsis*. Through transcriptional profiling and a
phylogenetically informed bioinformatics approach, we were able to identify networks
and pathways controlling growth with lineage-specific and species-specific differences.
We found that ABFs play a large role in mediating ABA signaling since over 50% of the
ABF binding sites were associated with differential expression.
309

Our study also highlights the first analysis conducted to explore the transcription factor binding landscape in Si, Sp, and Es as well as the use of the swap-DAP assay to distinguish between cis and trans contributions to the binding landscape. These datasets present a new resource for comparative analysis across Brassicaceae species and a model for comparative functional genomics. While our study focused on comparing 1 vs. 1 orthologs across species, these datasets can also be mined to characterize species-specific genes of unknown function and the consequence of gene duplication across species.

Using these methods, we observed several incidences where the gain or loss of ABREs near ABA-responsive genes led to differences in transcript abundance for that gene across species. This correlates with our hypothesis that the gain or loss of CREs is an important mechanism used by plants to rewire ancestral GRNs during the evolution of adaptive traits. Previous work has proven the utility of manipulating the promoter sequences of plant growth regulators to generate agriculturally beneficial traits in crops [45]. The work presented here has identified genes whose promoters have likely been the target of natural selection for extreme stress tolerance and will likely fuel the further implementation of a genetic engineering strategy for crop improvement that targets gene regulatory sequence. Future work to incorporate more Brassicaceae species into our comparative framework will better elucidate the genetic variants that define the specificity of GRNs especially in cell-type specific contexts.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

YS, DO, MD and JRD designed the research. YS and LD performed the experiments. YS, DO, PR, AR and JRD analyzed the data. YS and JRD wrote the manuscript. DO, LD, and PR contributed to the manuscript preparation.

350
351   SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION
352
353   List of Supplementary Text, Figures, Tables, and Datasets
354

389
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391

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394   **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

Plant Material and growth conditions

Arabidopsis thaliana Col-0 ecotype was used in this study. *Sisymbrium irio* was obtained from Chris Pires, University of Missouri (KM 88-34-20-14). *Eutrema salsugineum* ecotype Shandong and *Schrenkiella parvula* ecotype Lake Tuz were from *Arabidopsis* Biological Resource Center (CS22504 and CS22663, respectively).

Seeds were surface sterilized by washing in a 95% ethanol solution for 5-min in 1.5 mL Eppendorf tubes followed by a 5-min wash in a 20% bleach/ 0.1% Tween-20 solution with gentle rocking at each step. Seeds were then rinsed with sterile deionized water four times and stored in water for 7 days at 4°C in the dark.

After stratification, sterilized seeds were grown on 10 x 10 cm petri dish plates containing sterile 0.7% Gelzan media containing ¼ x MS nutrients (MSP01-50LT; Caisson), 1% sucrose, and 0.05% MES was adjusted to pH 5.7 with 1M KOH (this will be termed "standard media"). The media was then sterilized using a liquid cycle for 30 min. 60 mL of media was used per plate.

Seedlings were grown for 6 days before transfer to standard media supplemented with NaCl (Sigma-Aldrich) or ABA (Sigma- Aldrich). Methanol was used to dissolve and dilute ABA to a stock solution of 100 mM and added to standard media before pouring into plates. Growth of seedlings was performed in a Percival CU41L4 incubator at constant temperature 24'C with light conditions 14 h light and 10 h dark at 130 µmol m^{-2} s^{-1} light intensity. Plates were partially sealed with parafilm (Alcan Packaging) on three sides, while the top of the plate was sealed with micropore tape (3M) to allow for gas exchange. Plates were placed vertically in the chamber, so roots grow vertically along the surface of the media.

For root growth assays, 20-25 seeds were placed in a row across the plate with a 1000 mL pipette tip. After 6 days of growth under standard media conditions, the seedlings were transferred either to standard media plates again or to plates with supplements. The position of the root tip was marked at the time of transfer of the root to distinguish the development of the root before transfer and after transfer.
For tissues collected for NGS, sterilized mesh (about 10 x 10 cm squares) were first laid on the media plates. 3 rows of seeds (~100 seeds) were then plated using a 1000 mL pipette tip. The entire mesh would then be transferred with forceps to the plate after 6 days and the tissues were then separated at the root/shoot junction by a razor blade.

Phenotypic analysis of primary root growth
After seedlings are transferred to media containing various supplements, images of seedlings were captured using a CanonScan 9000F flatbed scanner (Canon). Images

435   were quantified using Fiji [46]. Scale was set as 237 pixels/cm and the image was
436   measured using the segmented line tool. Two-way ANOVA and data visualization were
437   done using R.
438
RNA-Seq library preparation and high-throughput sequencing
Total RNA was extracted from the root and shoot tissue using RNeasy plant mini kit
(Qiagen 74904) according to the manufacturer's instructions for three biological
replicates sampled from experiments performed on a separate day. RNA quantity was
checked by Qubit (Q32852 Qubit® RNA Assay Kit). RNA quality of each sample was
assessed with a 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent) and fragment analyzer. RNA-Seq libraries
were made using NuGen Universal Plus mRNASeq according to the manufacturer's
instructions. Lo Bind plastic was used at every step. AMPure XP Beads (Beckman
Coulter, Cat A63987 or A63881) were used for the final purification steps. NuGen
barcodes (Barcode Version: L2V22DR) were used for multiplexing. Samples were
sequenced on Illumina NextSeq (single-read 75-bp run) with the multiplexed samples
described above on 3 lanes.
451
DAP-Seq library preparation and high-throughput sequencing
The coding sequence of the ABF orthologs were identified using reciprocal blast and
defined regions of synteny across species. Gateway cloning compatible primers will be
designed to amplify each coding sequence from cDNA and clone the coding sequence
into TOPO entry vectors [47]. Four nucleotides were added to the forward strand of the
primer to facilitate directional cloning. After the reaction, the plasmids were transformed
into chemically competent cells then grown overnight at 37ºC. Colony PCR and
sequencing were done to validate the cloned sequence. The confirmed entry clones
were then recombined into a destination vector with LR clonase to generate a vector
with an N-terminal HaloTag that is translationally fused to ABF. The HaloTag is a
mutated hydrolase that covalently binds to Halolink resin which allows for stringent
washing and the generation of an affinity matrix with the transcription factor [48]. We
found that using rabbit reticulocyte (TnT® T7 Coupled Reticulocyte Lysate System,
Recombinant RNasin® Ribonuclease Inhibitor- Promega) instead of wheat germ extract
for in vitro transcription and translation of the ABFs significantly reduces the background
noise and increased the quality of peaks that are able to be pulled down from DAP-
Seq.To confirm the successful expression and synthesis of each ABF, an immunoblot
with anti-halo antibody (Anti-HaloTag® Monoclonal Antibody-Promega) was performed
to confirm protein expression and binding efficiency for each TF. This ensures at least
50 ng of protein was used for each DAP-Seq pull down.
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The quality of the TF- affinity matrix was assayed by using western blots to quantify the
abundance of the TF before and after binding to the affinity matrix. GST-Halo was used

as a protein standard (Promega). Incubate 1 µL of reticulocyte extract before binding
with beads and 2 µL of extract after the binding was used for each western on a precast
gel (4–20% Criterion™ TGX™ Precast Midi Protein Gel, 12+2 well, 45 µl, BioRad).
Before loading, Samples were mixed with Lamneii buffer and heated for 5 min at 95'C.
Samples were run at 20 mA for 30 min then at 100 V until the bottom was reached. 5x
Running buffer is made using Tris 15.1 g, Glycine 94 g, 50 mL 10% SDS. After running,
proteins were transferred onto the nitrocellulose membrane using a midrange, semi-dry
system (invitrogen). 10X TBS- 1L (80 g NaCl, 2 g KCL, 30 g Tris base, pH 8 with HCL
autoclave for 30 min was diluted to 1X TBST with 0.05% Tween-20 and sodium azide.
This was mixed with milk powder to make a 5% blocking buffer. The membrane was
blocked for at least 1 hour at room temperature or overnight at 4'C. After 152 blocking,
10 µL of anti-halo was added to 15mL blocking buffer (10 µg) for primary antibody
incubation. After incubation, the membrane was washed 5x for 5 min each in 1x TBST.
The membrane was then incubated for 1 hour with secondary anti-mouse- HRP
1:10,000 in 5% milk-TBST (2 µL in 20 mL blocking buffer). The membrane was washed
again 5x for 5 min each in 1x TBST. Chemiluminescent reagent in 1:1 ratio was added
to the membrane afterward and Chemi (ECL) signal was detected using Sapphire
biomolecular imager. Image processing and labeling was done in Fiji.
493
Shoot tissues from 6-day old seedlings were used to generate the genomic DNA library.
gDNA was extracted from root and shoot tissue by grinding tissues with cold mortar and
pestle then using DNeasy Plant Maxi Kit (Qiagen). gDNA was then concentrated using
ethanol precipitation. gDNA was incubated for 10-15 min with 10% NaOAC, 200% cold
100% ethanol. After precipitation, the sample was washed with 80% ethanol then dried
into a pellet then redissolved. gDNA was fractionated using the COVARIS system under
the settings (mode: Frequency sweeping, Duty cycle: 10%, intensity: 5, Cycles burst:
200, Time: 60 seconds, and number of cycles: 3). Another round of ethanol precipitation
is done in the same manner as above. End repair (End-it kit; epicentre cat # ER0720 or
ER81050- we used this one) and A-tailing (100mM dATP; bioPioneer inc, Klenow; (3'- 5'
exo- NEB) # M0212L (1,000 units) (5,000 U/mL) was done prior to ligating fractionated
gDNA with partial next-generation sequencing adaptors using Y adaptors. Y adaptors
were made by combining Adapter A with Adapter B then incubating the oligo mixture to
86'C for 2 minutes before allowing the reaction to return to room temperature.
508
Quality of DAP library was assayed using qPCR. 2 µL of (5 ng/µL) DNA template was
added to 18 µL master mix made with 4µL Phusion high Fidelity DNA polymerase
(M0530S, ThermoFisher), 1 µL of 10 mM dNTP, 0.4 µL of 10mM Illumina TruSeq
Universal primer and TruSeq Index primer, Phusion enzyme, 10x SYBR Green I (diluted
in DMSO), and H2O. DNA without adaptor ligation and water is used as a negative
control. Each sample was repeated 3x and on 384 qPCR plates. Thermocycling settings

were 2 min at 95'C, 30s at 98'C, 30 cycles of (15s at 98'C, 30 s at 60'C, 1 min at 72'C),
followed by hold at 4'C. Quality of the library was assessed by looking at the
amplification curve by plotting the curves in excel as CT vs relative fluorescence unit
(RFU). If the curve plateaus within 10 cycles, then the library is good. However, if the
curve plateaus after 20 cycles, then the library will not work in the final sequencing.
520

Final DNA is quantified using Qubit (broad range) and incubated with the ABF affinity
matrix (Magne HaloTag beads, 20% slurry, promega, G7281 Lot 000243828, PBS, Ph
7.4 (homemade): Dissolve 8 g NaCl, 0.2 g KCL, 1.44g Na2HPO4 and 0.24 g KH2PO4
in 800 mL sterile water. Adjust pH to 7.4 with HCL. Add water to 1 liter and sterilize by
autoclaving. Add 200 µL of 25 % NP40 and mix well., Magnetic rack, DYNAL magnetic
bead separations, Invitrogen) to pull down genomic DNA that bind to each ABF.
527

528   Full adaptors containing unique 6 bp barcodes was ligated to each eluted fraction of
529   gDNA and multiplexed for high-throughput Next-generation sequencing. These were
530   originally designed by Muching Yee. Samples were sequenced on Illumina Hi-Seq
531   (paired-read 150-bp run) with the multiplexed samples.
532

Genomes and the use of genomes for bioinformatic analysis
The genomes and gene models for *A. thaliana* was obtained from TAIR (Araport11),
while genomes and gene models for *S. parvula* (version 2.2) and *E. salsugineum*
(version 1.0) were from Phytozome (Phytozome ID 574 and 173, respectively). For *S.*
irio, we updated the previously published gene models [10] with an updated version using
evidence-assisted *ab initio* gene model prediction by the MAKER v. 2.31.10
(https://www.yandell-lab.org/software/maker.html) based on *S. irio* BUSCO-trained
parameters [49] and RNA-seq data from the current study.
541

RNA-Seq data analysis
Raw reads were filtered and trimmed using TRIMGALORE which also generated
FASTQ files for each of the libraries. Filtered reads were aligned to the reference
genome using HISAT2 v. 2.2 and the expression of each primary gene model was
estimated with StringTie v. 2.0.1 with default parameters[50]. Differentially expressed
genes were estimated using DESeq2[51]. For comparative analyses, primary protein-
coding gene models from the four species were compared using CLfinder pipeline[52] with
MMSeqs2[53] as the aligner, to identify ortholog pairs and groups between pairs of
species as well as for all four species. Gene Ontology (GO) annotation for *A. thaliana*
was obtained on July 1st, 2020, from the GO consortium (http://geneontology.org/). For
non-*Arabidopsis* species, protein-coding gene models that cover more than 70% of an
Arabidopsis protein with alignment identified by MMSeqs2 with maximum sensitivity
('mmseqs -S 7.5' and e-value <0.001) were considered sharing the GO annotation with

the *Arabidopsis* protein. We used BiNGO[54] to identify GO terms enriched in up- and
down-regulated DEGs. Redundant GO terms sharing more than 80% of their members
were further consolidated using the GOMCL pipeline[55].
558
For Phylogenetically informed Profiling, we calculated Spearman's rank correlation of
the fold-change of ABA responses for all ortholog pairs annotated with a GO term,
between a pair of species. The significance of positive correlation was estimated for all
pairs of species, using scipy.stats.spearmanr [56] and subsequently corrected for multiple
testing (Bejamini-Hochberg) for all GO terms and all RNA-seq samples. Genes without
a DEG among their ortholog pair partners in all species, genes failed to pass the Cook's
distance test by DESeq2 [51], and genes showing larger than 2-fold changes with
adjusted *P*-value>0.05 (DESeq2), were excluded from the analysis. The matrix of
presence or absence of positive correlation between orthologs were superimposed to
the species tree, generated using the Agalma pipeline [57], to identify function- and
lineage(s)-specific modifications in gene regulations.
570
DAP-Seq data analysis
At least 5 million reads per each sample were filtered to remove adaptors, low-quality
reads, and reads mapping to multiple locations and aligned to respective genomes
using Bowtie (version 2.3). GEM version 3.4 was used for peak calling after normalizing
libraries to both input and empty vector controls. Only peaks with q-value <0.01 was
used for peak annotation.
577
For each ABF in each species, DAP-seq peaks from different biological replicates
whose center positions were within three nucleotides from each other were merged with
'bedtools merge' (https://bedtools.readthedocs.io/). We considered merged DAP-seq
peaks supported by minimum two biological replicates as high-confident ABF-binding
sites, and counted their occurrences, as well as co-occurrence of their center positions
with an ACGT-core or ABRE motif, within the 1~1kb (proximal) or 1001~2Kb (distal)
regions of the 5' and 3' side of each primary protein-coding gene models, using a
custom script (https://github.com/dinnenylab/BrassicaceaeGRN). The coordinates of all
high-confident ABF-binding sites are available as Supplementary Dataset 6. For
determining co-occupancy of DAP-seq peak positions by different ABFs (e.g. in swap
DAP-seq experiment), we selected two to three replicates with comparable library sizes
and ranked all peaks based on the sum of -$\log_{10}$ (q-values) and normalized peak heights
estimated by GEM across all selected replicates.
591
Designing primers
Primers were designed to amplify the CDS from different species. TM calculator was
used to check that the TM is under 72'C and within 1-2'C apart from each other. CACC

was added to the 5' end of the forward primer to make the PCR product compatible with
gateway cloning. The reverse complement of the reverse primer was checked to make
sure it is not complementing with overhanging sequence GTGG at the 5'end. To make
sure that the fused product is going to be in-frame, plasmid maps were 160 generated
and the sequence from the ATG of the protein to VP16 was translated using Expasy
protein translation. Primers were ordered from IDT and diluted to 100µM with sterile
water prior to use.
602
Gene regulatory network
To construct the gene regulatory network (GRN), we first manually curated a list of
genes that were involved in the perception, biosynthesis and signaling of the different
hormones (ABA, ethylene and auxin) as well as genes that were involved in the control
of cell elongation and root growth by auxin and ethylene. Among these genes, only
those with orthologs in the four species were considered for further analysis. The GRN
was constructed using BioTapestry with genes that showed a significant fold change in
response to ABA in at least one of the four species according to Supplementary Dataset
S1. To construct the GRN regulatory network for *S. parvula*, we first identified genes
that showed high-confidence ABF-binding, as defined in Supplementary Dataset S1, in
either *A. thaliana* or *S. parvula* or in both. The changes in ABF binding are represented
based on comparison to *A. thaliana*. For example, if a locus exhibited the presence of
an ABF DAP-seq peak in *A. thaliana* but lacked an ABF DAP-seq peak in *S. parvula*,
this was considered to be a loss of ABF binding (dotted lines). On the other hand, the
absence of a peak in *A. thaliana* but presence in *S. parvula* at an orthologous locus was
considered to be a gain in ABF binding (thick lines). The changes in position or number
of DAP-seq peaks were not considered for this analysis. Based on these criteria, we
identified changes in ABF binding that were specific to *S. parvula* and those that were
present in other species of lineage II. The GRNs were constructed using Biotapestry.
622
623

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Figure Legends

Fig.1: S. parvula responds differently to ABA. a, ABA signaling pathway in
Arabidopsis. ABA functions to regulate cellular and tissue level responses to
environmental stress such as cold, salt, and drought. ABA signaling alters cellular
responses by activating the transcription of many genes. **b,** A simplified phylogenetic
tree representing an overview of how the diploid species from Brassicaceae relate to
one another and a summary of their comparative genome size, number of

chromosomes, and number of coding sequences. **c,d,** Quantification of primary root
growth of At, Si, Sp, and Es seedlings after transfer to media containing control, 100,
150, 200 mM NaCl (**c**), or 1, 5, 10 µM ABA (**d**) for 2 days. Asterisks mark significant
changes based on two-way ANOVA, $*P < 0.05$, $**P < 0.01$, $***P < 0.001$, n>6. **e,**
Confocal microscopy images of both At and Sp primary roots grown on standard media
or media containing 10 µM ABA. Blue bars label the stabilized cortex cell length. Red
arrows point to the end of meristem. Scale bars = 100 µm. **f,** Quantifications of root
meristem size, by counting the total cortex cell number within the meristem, for both At
and Sp under control and 1 or 10 µM ABA treatment. Significance test is based on
pairwise T-test, $***P < 0.001$, n = 5. **g,h,** Quantification of cortex cell length for both At
(**g**) and Sp (**h**) under control, 1 or 10 µM ABA treatment (n = 5). The x-axis indicates cell
number starting from the quiescent center (QC).
790
Fig.2: RNA-Seq identifies genes regulated by ABA across species. a, Bar chart
summarizing the number of differentially expressed (DE) genes across species. Log_2
fold change was used to quantify the total number of up and down- regulated genes for
each species. Only genes with a p-value <0.05 are displayed. Red indicates up-
regulated genes, blue indicates down-regulated genes. **b**, Heatmap of log_2 fold change
of differentially expressed genes. Each species was clustered separately using Ward's
hierarchical clustering method. Clusters are then arranged in descending order. **c**, Lists
of DE genes from each species are compared with DE genes from *Arabidopsis* and
categorized into 4 separate categories (1) Genes with ortholog in At, (2) Genes specific
to species, (3) Genes specific to species with phenotypes in At, (4) Genes specific to
species with unknown function. **d**, Cluster analysis of 1:1 Ortholog Groups (OGs) and
number of genes associated with each pattern. Total 15,198 1:1 OGs were defined
where all ortholog pairs were reciprocally best homologs among themselves
(**Supplementary Fig. 1**) and used to associate differential gene expression. The top 9
categories of gene expression are shown in descending order. Pink indicates
orthologous genes across species. **e,f,** Phylogenetically-informed profiling (Pip)
highlights the regulatory traits that show the most significant lineage(s)-specific
modifications. While ortholog pairs annotated with GO-term "response to abscisic acid"
showed significant positive Spearman correlation (ρ) of ABA-responsive expression
fold-changes (* adjusted $p<10^{-7}$) in all species pairs (**e**), the correlation disappeared in
GO term "peptide biosynthetic process" in species pairs including *S. parvula* (Sp), due
to a subset of Sp genes regulated in the opposite direction (yellow arrows), signifying a
lineage-specific modification (red arrow in the species tree) (**f**). Among all tested,
conserved ABA-response (**e**) was the most frequent profile (3,424 GO-sample), while
unique modification in Sp (**f**) was among the next most frequent (123 GO-sample)
(**Supplementary Fig. 3a**). The GO term "peptide biosynthetic process" in root 3hr ABA
treatment sample represents one of the biggest variance in ρ among larger GO terms

(**Supplementary Fig. 3b**) See **Supplementary Dataset 4** for Pip results for all GO
terms and samples.
820
Fig.3: Differences in the transcriptional response are partially due to differences
in the ABF binding landscape across species. a, Experimental set up to profile
differences in AREB/ABF function and target genes across species for DAP-Seq and
Swap-Dap. The ABRE is the enriched motif under the peaks associated with ABF
binding. 16 ABF orthologs are displayed based on the phylogenetic association of their
amino acid sequence. For each ABF, the enriched motif is represented as a position
weight matrix (PWM). **b**, Overlap of DAP-seq peak positions bound by ABFs. Upper
panel shows overlaps among top 3000 DAP-seq peak positions in each Brassicaceae
genome bound by ABF1/2/3/4. In the lower panel, ABFs from four Brassicaceae species
were applied to the *Arabidopsis thaliana* genome in swap-DAP-seq experiments. Co-
occupancy by ABFs from different species for top 1000 peak positions was plotted for
each ABF. Top DAP-seq peak positions were identified by ranking based on the
significance and normalized peak heights, as detailed in methods. A summary of how
peaks overlaps over different numbers of top peak positions is in Supplementary Fig. 6.
c, A genome browser summary to highlight an example gene where ABF binding is lost
in Sp but not in other species, which correlates with gene expression differences. The
gene IDs associated for each species are (At) AT2G21510.2, (Si) Si_s2286_00530.m,
(Sp) Sp4g00670.a, and (Es) Thhalv10000223m.v1.0. Y-axis on IGV coverage track is
adjusted for each track to show the maximum height for the depth of coverage while the
gene model is proportional to what is observed in a 10,000 bp window. For Sp tracks, y-
axis was adjusted to the lower range of 50 to confirm no peaks were present. Panels
show peak signal vs. empty vector and input control, differences in ABF binding across
species, similarities in binding sites in swap-dap data, and corresponding gene
expression data for transcripts. At, Si, and Es show positive $\log_2$ fold change while Sp
shows negative fold change upon ABA treatment. **d**, A nucleotide alignment of
sequences in the 5' promoter of At, Si, Sp, and Es. The reverse complement was used
for the alignment since the gene is in the reverse strand. Alignment was performed in
MUltiple Sequence Comparison by Log- Expectation (muscle). Blue boxes highlight the
ABRE motif. Red letter nucleotide change that leads to the mutation and loss of the core
ABRE motif. **e**, We tested whether genes including a DAP-seq peak in different genomic
regions were enriched among ABA-induced DEGs compared to genes not regulated by
ABA (background). Percent enrichment, compared to background, for genes
significantly ABA-induced in any of the four samples (up-DEG in any sample, i.e. root or
shoot tissues treated with ABA for 3hr or 24hr) and in all four samples (up-DEG in all
samples) were plotted separately. Genomic regions are divided into 5' distal (5pD), 5'
proximal (5pP), genomic coding sequences (gCDS), 3' proximal (3pP), and 3' distal
(3pD), where proximal regions are within 1Kb of the coding sequence of a gene model

and distal regions the next 1Kb blocks beyond the proximal regions. Significance of
enrichment (g-test with Benjamini-Hochberg correction) was marked for adjusted p-
value < 10^{-5} (*), <10^{-20} (**), and <10^{-50} (***). Significant enrichment of genes containing a
DAP-seq peak in most genomic regions was not observed among ABA-repressed
DEGs (**Supplementary Table 1**).
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864
Fig.4: Rewiring of ABF-Auxin biosynthesis regulatory network is responsible for
altered growth response in S. parvula. a, Gene regulatory network for auxin
biosynthesis, transport, signaling, and cell wall are composed based on data from
previous published literature. A list of binding sites from ABF 1-4 were consolidated to
draw the gene network in Arabidopsis. Sp data was overlaid onto the Arabidopsis
network. Species-specific differences are highlighted as well as the presence or
absence of a peak based on ABF binding. **b,** Heatmap summarizing the RNA-Seq data
across At and Sp for species-specific and lineage-specific data highlighted in previous
GRN. Genes are clustered based on differences observed between At and other
species. **c,** Quantification of primary root growth for WT and wei8-1 mutants treated with
control, 1 µM ABA, as well as WT with 1µM L-Kyn, and 1 µM L-Kyn + 1 µM ABA.
Asterisk indicate significance by 2-way ANOVA. ∗∗∗P < 0.001, n>30. **d,** A schematic
mechanism we proposed for the differential regulation in primary root growth in Sp
compared with At.
879
Supplementary Fig.1: Genome versions used in current study and detection of all
1-to-1 ortholog groups.
a, The genome versions used as well as gene loci, percent of loci in large scaffolds, and
the Benchmarking Universal Single-Copy Orthologs (BUSCOs) analysis are shown
along with an updated gene model annotation for *Sisymbrium irio*. **b,** A schematic
example of OrthNet constructed for the four crucifer species. Protein-coding gene
models from each species were paired with their best homologs in other species. Pairs
of homologs were organized into OrthNet, each OrthNet representing orthologs likely
derived from a single ancestral locus (Oh and Dassanayake, 2019). Within each
OrthNet, a quartet of orthologs unambiguously find each other as reciprocal best
homologs is defined as "all 1-to-1 ortholog group (OG)" (red dashed box). We identified
15,198 all 1-to-1 OGs among the four cru.cifers, and used them as the framework for
cross-species comparisons. RNA-seq and DAP-seq results for all 1-to-1 OGs are in
Supplementary Dataset 1, while the same data for all genes, organized as OrthNets
including all duplicated paralogs, are in Supplementary Dataset 2.
[a] Percentage of 1,375 BUSCOs (embryophyte ortholog database version 10) detected
in each genome; C, Complete; S, Single-copy; D, Duplicated; F, Fragmented; M,
Missing BUSCOs

[b] Using the updated *S. irio* gene models, the number of unambiguous all-1-to-1 ortholog
groups in the four crucifer species increased to 15,198, compared to 14,526 when the
original version of *S. irio* gene models by Haudry, et al. (2013) was used.

Supplementary Fig.2: Enrichment of Gene Ontology (GO) term "response to
abiotic stimulus" and related GO terms among ABA-induced Differentially
Expressed Genes (DEGs). a, The GO term "response to abiotic stimulus" and ten
related non-redundant GO terms (presented in the heatmap in the bottom panel) were
the only GO terms showed significant enrichment among ABA-induced DEGs (up-
DEGs) in all samples, i.e. 3hr ABA treatment, root tissue (R3); 24hr, root tissue (R24);
3hr, shoot tissue (S3); and 24hr, shoot tissue (S24) for all species, i.e. *Arabidopsis*
thaliana (At), *Sisymbrium irio* (Si), *Schrenkiella parvula* (Sp), and *Eutrema salsugineum*
(Es). The top panel shows the proportion of up-DEGs that are annotated with any of the
"response to abiotic stimulus" and the ten related GO terms, compared to the mean
proportion in all genes of the four species, i.e. the background (dashed line). Bottom
panel shows the significance of enrichment, estimated with a hypergeometric test with
Benjamini-Hochberg correction as a heatmap. The entire GO terms showing enrichment
of any of the ABA-induced or repressed DEGs are compiled in Supplementary Dataset
3.

Supplementary Fig. 3: Phylogenetically informed Profiling (PiP) analysis of ABA-
responses
1.**a**, For all non-redundant GO terms, we determined if there is a significant positive
Spearman correlation (+corr) of ABA responses among ortholog pairs for all six pairs of
the four species, i.e. *Arabidopsis thaliana* (At), *Sisymbrium irio* (Si), *Schrenkiella parvula*
(Sp), and *Eutrema salsugineum* (Es). The matrix of presence (1) and absence (0) of
+corr was calculated for ABA-responsive fold change of gene expression in each of the
four samples, i.e. root and shoot tissues with 3 and 24hr ABA treatment. In panel **a**, we
show the number of GO-sample pairs with the indicated +corr patterns across all pairs
of species. The most frequent +corr pattern (3,425 GO-sample pairs) represented GO-
sample pairs with no modification in any lineage ("Conserved in all"). The next dominant
+corr pattern (123 GO-sample pairs) that matches a phylogenetic profile showed a
modification of ABA responses uniquely in Sp ("Unique@Sp"). Phylogenetic profiles
"AtEs-SiSp" mirrors the divergence of Si and Sp clades from the other two species,
while "AtSi-vs-SpEs" indicates potential division between glycophytes (At and Si) and
halophytes (Sp and Es). For all GO-sample pairs, we plotted the Variance of Spearman
correlation coefficients among the six species pairs against the number of ortholog pairs
used for PiP analyses. **b,** While in general the magnitude of variance was greater for
smaller GO terms, "peptide biosynthetic process" and related GO terms at root 3hr ABA

treatment samples were outliers with greater variances among larger GO terms (marked
red). Results of PiP analysis for all GO-sample pairs are in Supplementary Dataset 4.
940
Supplementary Fig. 4: Transcription factor (TF)-binding motifs enriched among
ABA-induced DEGs. a, For the 1Kb upstream regions of all ABA-induced and
repressed DEGs, we searched for enrichment of known TF-binding motifs (from
JASPAR database). The four ABFs and other G-box-binding TFs (G-box TFs) were the
only TFs whose known binding motifs showed significant enrichment (determined using
AME) in promoters of ABA-induced DEG promoters in all samples. **b,** Proportion of
promoters including an ABF or G-box TF-binding motif is shown in panel b, for both
DEGs ABA-induced (Up-DEGs) and repressed (Down-DEGs), with the mean proportion
among non-DEGS shown as dotted lines (G-Box TF) and dashed lines (ABFs). The
enrichment profiles of all JASPAR TF-binding motifs are in Supplementary Dataset 5.
951
952 **Supplementary Fig.5: AREB/ABFs of different species cluster together based on**
953 **protein sequence and have conserved DNA-binding and protein-protein**
954 **interaction domains. a,** Alignment was generated using CLUSTALW with the amino
955 acid sequences for each species. Black box highlights the conservation of the DNA
956 binding domain and the protein-protein interaction domain for ABFs across species.
957
Supplementary Fig.6: Quality control checks to confirm the DAP-Seq assay works
as expected. a, DAP-Seq peaks associated with ABI1 and RD29A, which are marker
genes for ABA response, are found across all species. Genome browser view shows
binding sites represented as "peaks". Dotted lines connect orthologous genes across
species. ABREs are labeled in red and the data range for X axis was standardized to
10,000bp. Corresponding differential gene expression data (ABA treatment vs. control
from RNA-Seq for each gene ortholog across species is shown as log_2 fold change. **b**,
Proteins synthesized by in vitro transcription/ translation (IVT) runs to expected size
within typical yields as described in O'Malley *et al*. anti-HALO monoclonal antisera was
used for detection of HALOtag used to generate the affinity matrix. GST-HALOTag
(Halo protein) was used as positive control.
969
Supplementary Fig.7: Distribution of ACGT and ABRE motifs and proportions
occupied by a DAP-seq peak. a, On the left panels, occurrences per kilobase (Kb) of
the ACGT, ACGT sequences that are not a part of an ABRE (ACGT – ABRE), and
ABRE motif, are plotted for different genomic regions adjacent to protein-coding gene
models. Genomic regions are divided into 5' distal (5pD), 5' proximal (5pP), genomic
coding sequences (gCDS), 3' proximal (3pP), and 3' distal (3pD), where proximal
regions are within 1Kb of the coding sequence of a gene model and distal regions the
next 1Kb blocks beyond the 1Kb regions. Intergenic regions are those not within 2Kb of

any gene model. For each motif, percent proportions occupied by an ABF-binding DAP-
seq peak are shown on the right panel. Motif logos indicate the definition of ACGT and
ABRE motif. Genomic coordinates of all high-confidence DAP-seq peaks, together with
their coincidence with ACGT or ABRE motifs and genomic regions adjacent to protein-
coding gene models, are in Supplementary Dataset 6.

Supplementary Fig. 8: Ranks and overlap of DAP-seq peaks. a, DAP-seq peaks
were ranked based on significance and peak heights as detailed in Methods. We
selected the top N ranked DAP-seq peaks from each experiment and compared their
overlaps among ABF1/2/3/4 within each species (A) or among ABF orthologs derived
from At/Si/Sp/Es for each ABF in swap DAP-seq experiment. **b,** Percentages of DAP-
seq peak positions shared by all four ABFs (intersection) among all peak positions
(union) were plotted over different N values.

Supplementary Fig.9: ABF binding in AT5G42570 and orthologs across species is
lost in *S. parvula.*
a, genome browser view showing binding sites represented as "peaks". Data shows
loss of binding in Sp compared to binding in all other samples. The gene IDs associated
for each species are (At) AT5G42570, (Si) Si_s118_00070.m, (Sp) SpUn0014_0110,
and (Es) Thhalv10003268m.v1.0. Y-axis on IGV coverage track is adjusted for each
track to show the maximum height for the depth of coverage while the gene model is
proportional to what is observed in a 10,000 bp window. For Sp tracks, y-axis was
adjusted to the lower range of 50 to confirm no peaks were present. Swap-DAP data
indicates the peak loss is due to cis since SpABFs are able to bind to the 5' promoter
region in the At genome. RNA-Seq data corresponds to peak patterns where the
presence of a peak suggests transcriptional activation.

1004

Supplementary Fig.10: Core ABRE is mutated in Sp ortholog of AT5G42570
a, An alignment of sequences in the promoters of AT5G42570 and corresponding
orthologs. The reverse complement for each sequence was taken since genes are in
the reverse strand then aligned with MUltiple Sequence Comparison by Log-
Expectation (muscle). Blue boxes indicate the ABRE motif, the red letter indicate the
nucleotide sequence change in Sp at the ABRE leading to the loss of the binding site for
Sp.

1012

Supplementary Fig.11: Integration of ABF transcription factors into hormone
(ABA and Ethylene) gene regulatory networks in *S. parvu*la. Gene regulatory maps
were drawn using BioTapestry, with a solid arrow line indicating correlation between
ABF binding (DAP-Seq) and gene expression (RNA-Seq). **a**, A Map for *Arabidopsis*
ABF-mediated gene regulatory network was drawn with overlapping transcription factors

and targets from ChIP-Seq (Song et al., 2016). DAP-Seq and RNA-Seq data from
different species were overlaid and differences are highlighted: dotted arrow indicates
loss of ABF binding, bold arrow indicates gain of ABF binding, and colors indicate
differences that are lineage II specific, Sp-Si specific, Sp-Es specific, or Sp specific.
Heatmap indicates differential gene expression patterns in all tissue types and time
points for all nodes used to construct the GRN. **b**, An overlay of ABF-mediated GRN
using ethylene regulatory network curated from previously published literature is shown.
Of the 72 genes identified, 50 were responsive to ABA, and 33 had ABF DAP peaks in
either At, Sp, or both which were used to construct the GRN. Among these however,
only 2 were specific to Sp (ACS7 and ERF2) while the other 20 showed lineage II, Sp-
Es, or Sp-Si specific differences. Heatmap indicates differential gene expression
patterns in all tissue types and time points for all nodes used to construct the GRN.
LFC_2 indicates $\log_2$ fold change.
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Supplementary Fig.12: Comparison between *A. thaliana* and *S. parvula* data sets
reveal changes in ABF mediated auxin gene regulatory network. **a,** A total of 199
genes were curated for the analysis. 117 of the 199 genes related to primary auxin
signaling in roots were present in our RNA-Seq data. 81 of these genes had ABF DAP
peaks in either At or Sp or in both suggesting ABF mediate gene regulation and shown
in this GRN as nodes. The same parameters were used as in Supplementary Fig.8 to
highlight lineage, Sp-Si, Sp-Es, or Sp specific differences compared to At.

Figure 1: *S. parvula* responds differently to ABA.

Figure 2: RNA-Seq identifies genes regulated by ABA across species.

Figure 3: Differences in the transcriptional response are partially due to differences in the AREB/ABF binding landscape across species.

Figure 4: Rewiring of ABF-Auxin biosynthesis regulatory network is responsible for altered growth response in *S. parvula.*