

# Regulatory dynamics distinguishing desiccation tolerance strategies within resurrection grasses

Brian St. Aubin<sup>1,2</sup>, Ching Man Wai<sup>1,2</sup>, Sunil K. Kenchanmane Raju<sup>3</sup>, Chad E. Niederhuth<sup>3</sup>, Robert VanBuren<sup>\*1,2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Department of Horticulture, Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI 48824, USA

<sup>2</sup> Plant Resilience Institute, Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI 48824, USA

<sup>3</sup> Department of Plant Biology, Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI 48824, USA

\*Corresponding author: [bobvanburen@gmail.com](mailto:bobvanburen@gmail.com)

## Abstract

Desiccation tolerance has evolved recurrently in grasses using two unique strategies to mitigate photooxidative damage under anhydrobiosis. The grass *Oropetium thomaeum* protects and retains chlorophyll, thylakoids, and the photosynthetic apparatus during desiccation (Homoiochlorophyly), while *Eragrostis nindensis* degrades and resynthesizes these components under desiccation and rehydration (Poikilochlorophyly). Here, we surveyed chromatin architecture and gene expression during desiccation in these two closely related species to identify regulatory dynamics underlying the distinct desiccation tolerance strategies in grasses. In both grasses, we observed a strong association between nearby chromatin accessibility and gene expression in desiccated tissues compared to well-watered, reflecting an unusual chromatin stability under anhydrobiosis. Integration of chromatin accessibility (ATACseq) and expression data (RNAseq) revealed a core desiccation response across these two grasses including many genes with binding sites for the core seed development transcription factor ABI5. *O. thomaeum* had a unique set of desiccation induced genes and regulatory elements associated with photoprotection, pigment biosynthesis, and response to high light, reflecting its adaptation of homoiochlorophyly. A tandem array of early light induced proteins (ELIPs) had massive shifts in gene expression and chromatin openness under desiccation in only *O. thomaeum*, and ELIPs acquired a novel desiccation related cis-regulatory motif, reflecting regulatory neofunctionalization during the evolution of desiccation tolerance. Together, our results highlight the complex regulatory and expression dynamics underlying desiccation tolerance in grasses.

## 34 **Introduction**

35 Water deficit was the most pervasive challenge faced by charophyte green algae during  
36 the colonization of land, and it has been a continual force shaping the evolution and  
37 diversification of plants. Plants have evolved a versatile arsenal of strategies to avoid or  
38 overcome water limitations. At the extreme, a small group of plants can survive prolonged  
39 desiccation for months to years until the return of water. Desiccation tolerance, or the ability to  
40 survive atmospheric drying, has been investigated for more than a century (Bewley, 1979;  
41 Bristol, 1919). Anhydrobiosis, or ‘life without water’, causes cells to enter a glassy or solid state  
42 and puts tremendous stress on all of the macromolecules and organelles. Polysomes are lost  
43 during drying, effectively halting protein synthesis, but they are quickly restored during  
44 rewetting (Bewley, 1979). Mitochondria and chloroplasts of most species swell and become ill  
45 defined during desiccation, and only species able to restore these organelles are associated with  
46 recovery from dry conditions (Sherwin and Farrant, 1998; Wellburn and Wellburn, 1976).  
47 Biochemical, physiological, and molecular mechanisms underlying desiccation tolerance have  
48 been thoroughly described, but comparatively little is known about the regulatory dynamics  
49 controlling this trait and what distinguishes desiccation tolerance from more typical drought  
50 responses (Gechev et al., 2021).

51 Desiccation tolerance requires tight coordination of numerous cellular processes and  
52 pathways to protect plants from the effects of water deprivation and photooxidative damage  
53 under excess light. Various osmoprotectants, heat shock proteins, reactive oxygen species  
54 scavengers, changes in membrane lipid composition, and late embryogenesis abundant (LEA)  
55 proteins have well-documented roles in desiccation tolerance (Hoekstra et al., 2001). Along with  
56 these conserved responses, desiccation tolerant plants utilize two distinct strategies to mitigate  
57 photo-oxidative damage. Homoiochlorophyllous species retain and protect their chlorophyll and  
58 thylakoids during desiccation whereas poikilochlorophyllous species break down and rebuild  
59 chlorophyll, thylakoids, and components of the photosynthetic apparatus under anhydrobiosis  
60 using specialized membrane free plastids (desiccoplasts) (Tuba et al., 1994). These divergent  
61 strategies are associated with distinct rehydration and photosynthetic kinetics and have utility in  
62 different environments.

63 Vegetative desiccation tolerance is thought to have evolved through rewiring pre-existing  
64 pathways, perhaps convergently across independent lineages. Desiccation tolerance mechanisms  
65 are broadly conserved between vegetative tissues and seeds, prompting the long-standing  
66 hypothesis that desiccation tolerance evolved through rewiring existing seed pathways (Illing et  
67 al., 2005; Costa et al., 2017; VanBuren, 2017; VanBuren et al., 2018a). However, recent  
68 comparative experiments suggest this connection is more nuanced, as seed pathways also play an  
69 important role in typical drought responses of desiccation sensitive species (Pardo et al., 2020).  
70 Water deficit responses are broadly regulated by the phytohormone abscisic acid (ABA), and the  
71 ABA regulon has a major role in desiccation tolerance (Gaff and Oliver, 2013; Manfre et al.,  
72 2009; Shinozaki and Yamaguchi-Shinozaki, 2007) and drought responsive pathways

73 (Daszkowska-Golec, 2016). Several transcription factor families including dehydration-  
74 responsive element-binding factor (DREB), basic leucine zipper (bZIP), and NAM-ATAF-CUC2  
75 (NAC) are regulated by ABA and play integral roles in drought and desiccation responses  
76 (Nakashima et al., 2014; Takasaki et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2019; Yoshida et al., 2015). The  
77 unique and overlapping pathways between drought and desiccation and the regulatory machinery  
78 underlying these stress responses remains poorly understood.

79 The regulation of gene activity based on proximity to *cis*-sequences or entire regions has  
80 been a long standing interest of the biological community (Baker, 1968), and has been the source  
81 of significant advancement in our understanding of eukaryotic gene regulation (Eissenberg,  
82 1989). High quality analysis of plant chromatin structure and accessibility has been under  
83 investigation for several decades (Bowler et al., 2004). Recently, the use of assay for transposase  
84 accessible chromatin sequencing (ATAC-seq) has become a powerful tool to reveal binding sites  
85 of transcription factors and correlates well with changes in gene expression in various tissues and  
86 cell types (Lu et al., 2017). ATAC-seq has even been used to draw correlations between species  
87 to identify evolutionarily conserved chromatin regions (Lu et al., 2019). Chromatin dynamics  
88 have been profiled under several abiotic stresses including cold, heat, and flooding (Wang et al.,  
89 2021; Reynoso et al., 2019; Han et al., 2020; Liang et al., 2021), but little is known about  
90 chromatin changes during desiccation. One small scale investigation into *cis*-element activity  
91 found a desiccation-ABARE promoter region to be active in guard cells during desiccation  
92 (Smith-Espinoza et al., 2007). However, that study does not give a clear picture of how  
93 chromatin is affected by the loss of water, or the link between chromatin changes and gene  
94 expression.

95 Here, we surveyed changes in chromatin architecture, gene expression, and regulatory  
96 dynamics under desiccation in two related resurrection grasses with contrasting photoprotective  
97 strategies. We collected parallel datasets from the homoiochlorophyllous (chlorophyll retaining)  
98 model resurrection grass *Oropetium thomaeum* and the poikilochlorophyllous (chlorophyll  
99 degrading) grass *Eragrostis nindensis*. These species are found in the Chloridoideae subfamily of  
100 grasses, a group of diverse, stress tolerant species that includes the important underutilized  
101 crops tef (*Eragrostis tef*) and finger millet (*Eleusine coracana*). *Oropetium* has the smallest  
102 diploid sequenced genome among grasses (~250 Mbp) (VanBuren et al., 2018b). Studies using  
103 *Oropetium* as a model for desiccation have revealed metabolic characteristics common among  
104 organisms capable of anhydrobiosis such as changes in sugar metabolism and these changes are  
105 specific to desiccation compared to other stresses (Bartels and Mattar, 2002). Previous studies in  
106 *O. thomaeum* showed an induction of gene families such as ELIPs and LEAs during desiccation,  
107 and we sought to test if there were similarities in chromatin accessibility near these genes  
108 (VanBuren et al., 2017). Using this comparative system, we show that significant shifts in  
109 chromatin architecture are associated with desiccation and photoprotective responses in  
110 resurrection grasses. We identified a core set of genes, open chromatin peaks, and *cis*-regulatory  
111 elements that underly conserved desiccation tolerance responses across these two grasses. We

112 also found distinct regulatory dynamics that are associated with the different strategies of  
113 retaining or degrading the photosynthetic apparatus under anhydrobiosis.

114

## 115 **Results**

### 116 *Dynamic patterns of chromatin accessibility under desiccation*

117 We surveyed the changes in chromatin architecture and gene expression underlying  
118 desiccation tolerance using a combination of ATAC-seq and RNAseq in *O. thomaeum* and *E.*  
119 *nindensis*. Mature plants were slowly desiccated over a period of ten days without watering, and  
120 samples for RNAseq and ATACseq were collected in parallel from leaves of desiccated and  
121 well-watered plants (Figure 1). Expression dynamics were profiled using RNAseq, and quality  
122 trimmed reads were pseudo-aligned to the *O. thomaeum* and *E. nindensis* gene models using  
123 Kallisto (Bray et al., 2016). Differentially expressed genes were identified using Sleuth  
124 (Pimentel et al., 2017). In *O. thomaeum*, comparison of RNA-seq data from well-watered and  
125 desiccated plants revealed 5,187 genes with higher expression under desiccation and 5,354 genes  
126 with lower expression compared to well-watered ( $q < 0.05$ ). Similar timepoints in *E. nindensis*  
127 had 8,071 genes with higher expression under desiccation and 8,971 genes with lower expression  
128 compared to well-watered. This represents roughly one third of the genes in the *O. thomaeum*  
129 genome and almost half of the genes with detectable expression. In *E. nindensis*, the  
130 differentially expressed genes represent about 15% of all genes and 30% of the genes with  
131 detectable expression. This highlights the complex transcriptional reprogramming required for  
132 the successful deployment of desiccation tolerance. The *O. thomaeum* genes with the highest  
133 expression in desiccation include dehydrins (Ot\_Chr8\_n39154), early light induced proteins  
134 (ELIPs; Ot\_Chr8\_39125, Ot\_Chr8\_n38842), and other proteins with well-characterized roles in  
135 desiccation and abiotic stress responses (Supplemental Table 1). Genes with the highest  
136 differential expression in *E. nindensis* desiccated plants included two late embryogenesis related  
137 proteins (En\_0084954, En\_0002557), an aldehyde dehydrogenase (En\_0060658), and a glucosyl  
138 transferase (En\_0017075; Supplemental Table 2).

139 Using ATAC-seq, we were able to quantify chromatin openness in desiccation and well-  
140 watered conditions for the same tissue analyzed by RNA-seq. Nuclei were isolated from flash  
141 frozen samples and ~50,000 nuclei were used to construct ATACseq libraries with two  
142 biological replicates per treatment. Trimmed reads were aligned to the *O. thomaeum* V2 or *E.*  
143 *nindensis* V2 genomes using bowtie2 (Langmead and Salzberg, 2012) with the overall alignment  
144 rates varying from 85% to 97% across all samples. Peaks of open chromatin were called using  
145 Genrich (Gaspar) and visual inspection of the aligned ATACseq reads in a genome  
146 browser (Supplemental Figure 1 and 2). Peaks are strong and consistent across replicates and  
147 treatments after removal of regions likely to be chloroplast contamination, indicating the libraries  
148 are high quality. Differential peak calling with DiffBind (Stark et al., 2011) provided a Fraction  
149 of Reads in Peaks (FRiP) of between 0.27 and 0.49. The well-watered samples all have lower

150 FRiP than the desiccated samples, however fewer open regions were detected in desiccated  
151 samples with 18,112 vs. 28,538 in *O. thomaeum*, and 59,514 vs. 107,593 in *E. nindensis*.

152 In total, we identified 30,134 accessible chromatin regions (ACRs) in *O.thomaeum* and  
153 121,999 ACRs in *E. nindensis* occupying 4.6 % and 7.0 % of the genome respectively (Figure 1).  
154 Roughly 85% and 82% of all ACRs were near expressed genes in *O. thomaeum* and *E. nindensis*,  
155 respectively. For both species, the 0-500 bp bin upstream of the transcription start site (TSS) has  
156 an over-representation of ACRs based on the relative proportion of the genome occupied by this  
157 range (Figure 1b, d). We also observed that ACR density decreases with distance from the TSS.  
158 The *O. thomaeum* and *E. nindensis* genomes are highly compact compared to other grasses  
159 (VanBuren et al., 2015, 2020; Pardo et al., 2020), and expressed genes and their flanking regions  
160 (10kb upstream to 1kb downstream) cover 65.8% and 59.4% of the grass genomes respectively.  
161 Not all ACRs were found near canonical genes. Of the open regions, 7.2% and 14.2% are near  
162 non-expressed genes and 7.5% and 21.5% of the regions were not near any genes. We inspected  
163 the sequences of the regions not near genes and found several motifs present in multiple regions.  
164 This could imply an evolutionary significance for these regions that will need to be investigated  
165 at a future time.

166

### 167 ***Chromatin architecture is tightly linked to the regulation of desiccation responsive genes***

168 Since chromatin openness is believed to impact the expression level of nearby genes, we  
169 investigated the relationship between chromatin openness and gene expression changes due to  
170 desiccation using two different methods. Expressed genes typically have open chromatin near the  
171 TSS (Figure 1b, d), and we used deepTools (Ramírez et al., 2016) to aggregate the genomic  
172 regions near differentially expressed genes. On average, we found small chromatin regions near  
173 TSSs which often extend beyond 1kb upstream of the gene and slightly into the gene body (50-  
174 100bp) that have significantly more openness when the gene has higher expression (Figure 2).  
175 This effect was most pronounced for genes with higher expression in desiccation in both *O.*  
176 *thomaeum* and *E. nindensis*. Genes with upregulated expression in well watered tissue had a  
177 distinct peak in openness near the TSS, but this was less pronounced than desiccation induced  
178 genes. We then looked at differentially expressed genes that had a differentially accessible region  
179 in each bin and plotted the best-fit line for each combination. The  $R^2$  value for that line-fit drops  
180 off inside the 5000 to 2000bp region and is highest for the 0 to 500bp region upstream of the  
181 TSS (Supplemental Figure 3).

182 To better understand gene expression during desiccation and the impacts that open  
183 chromatin may have on expression dynamics, we split the differentially expressed genes into  
184 four categories depending on the direction of differential gene expression and chromatin  
185 openness. There are 18,344 expressed genes in *O. thomaeum*, and 15,880 (86.6 %) have an ACR  
186 nearby. Of the 10,542 differentially expressed genes, we found 9,213 (87.4%) to have an ACR  
187 nearby. Genes with higher expression in one treatment were more likely to have a chromatin

188 region that was more open nearby. Well-watered samples had 2,330 cases, and desiccated  
189 samples had 3,314 cases where a higher expressed gene was near a more open ACRs. Whereas  
190 there were only 424 and 1,307 cases of higher expression in desiccation with more open ACRs in  
191 well-watered or vice-versa. In *E. nindensis* there were 65,205 expressed genes with 41,756  
192 (64.0%) having an ACR nearby. We found 17,043 differentially expressed genes with 13,894  
193 (81.5 %) having an ACR nearby. The well-watered samples had 459 cases and desiccated  
194 samples had 3,609 cases where a higher expressed gene was near a more open ACR. The genes  
195 with higher expression in desiccation but a more open region when well-watered included 47  
196 cases, and there were 786 with the reverse.

197 To enable detailed comparisons across species, we utilized a set of syntenic orthologs  
198 between the two species for expression comparisons (Pardo et al., 2020). Of the 13,417  
199 differentially expressed syntenic genes in *E. nindensis*, 49.8% (6685) have a syntelog in *O.*  
200 *thomaeum* that is also differentially expressed in the same direction (Figure 4a). Whereas 6.9%  
201 (932) of the differentially expressed syntenic genes in *E. nindensis* had opposing expression  
202 patterns in *O. thomaeum*. In *O. thomaeum*, we found a similar 48.2% (4,460 of 9,252) of  
203 differentially expressed syntelogs with the same expression pattern in *E. nindensis*, and 7.9%  
204 (735) with the opposite pattern. We also analyzed sets of differentially expressed genes that also  
205 contained differential ACRs nearby. Genes with overlapping expression and accessibility  
206 dynamics are associated with the same GO-terms with a few differences noted below.

207 We searched for patterns of functional enrichment of syntelogs with similar chromatin  
208 and expression dynamics that could indicate conserved underlying desiccation responses in  
209 grasses. Enriched GO-terms of upregulated syntelogs in both species include response to water  
210 deprivation and other abiotic stresses, fatty acid biosynthesis, golgi organization, proteasomes,  
211 and respiration (Supplemental Table 9). GO-terms associated with syntelogs that are similarly  
212 down-regulated in desiccation are related to photosynthesis, core and secondary metabolism, cell  
213 wall processes and hormone metabolism (Supplemental Table 9).

214

### 215 ***Cis-regulatory elements associated with desiccation tolerance***

216 Using these datasets of open chromatin regions and gene expression, we identified  
217 putative *cis*-regulatory elements that are involved in the regulation of desiccation responses. We  
218 extracted sequences within differential ACRs near expressed genes in *O. thomaeum* and *E.*  
219 *nindensis* and searched for enriched motifs within each set. We utilized the Simple Enrichment  
220 Analysis (SEA) algorithm from Multiple Em for Motif Elicitation (MEME) to identify motifs  
221 with similar sequences to those that have been previously investigated (Bailey and Grant, 2021).  
222 We also identified novel motifs in the open regions using the Sensitive, Thorough, Rapid,  
223 Enriched Motif Elicitation (STREAM) algorithm from MEME. The motifs found using  
224 STREAM with the smallest *p*-values were sent to TOMTOM to search against the Arabidopsis

225 transcription factor motif database (Bailey, 2020; Bailey et al., 2009; Gupta et al., 2007;  
226 O'Malley et al., 2016). We identified 327 and 251 enriched (E-value  $\leq 10$ ) motifs from regions  
227 that were more open in desiccation and close to genes with higher expression under desiccation  
228 in *O. thomaeum* and *E. nindensis*, respectively (supplemental dataset 1). We found 180 and 46  
229 enriched motifs in more accessible regions near upregulated genes in well-watered *O. thomaeum*  
230 and *E. nindensis* leaves, respectively. 68 and 17 enriched motifs were identified from regions  
231 that were more open in well-watered and close to genes with higher expression in desiccation in  
232 *O. thomaeum* and *E. nindensis*. 274 and 232 enriched motifs from regions that were more open  
233 in desiccation and close to genes with higher expression in well-watered in *O. thomaeum* and *E.*  
234 *nindensis* were identified respectively. Enriched motifs under desiccation in *O. thomaeum* and *E.*  
235 *nindensis* are similar (Figure 3), and resemble motifs for transcription factors associated with  
236 response to water stress (CAMTA1, ABF2), heat stress (SPL1), seedling development (AREB3,  
237 ABI5), and UV protection/light signaling (BES1, PTF1, FAR1) (Kim et al., 2002) (Figure 3).  
238 STREAM identified 15 novel motifs from the *O. thomaeum* desiccation samples including a  
239 highly enriched motif with no homology in Arabidopsis, Mouse, or Fruitfly datasets  
240 (TA(G/C)TA(G/C)TA; 883 of 2932 sites; E-value of 1.0E-06) (Bailey, 2020). This motif was  
241 also found in 434 of 3384 sites in *E. nindensis*, however it was not significantly enriched (E-  
242 value of 1.7E+0). This motif may play a central role in anhydrobiosis related processes in  
243 grasses.

244

#### 245 ***Regulatory dynamics distinguishing photoprotective strategies under desiccation***

246 *O. thomaeum* and *E. nindensis* utilize different strategies to mitigate photooxidative  
247 damage under anhydrobiosis. *O. thomaeum* retains and protects while *E. nindensis* degrades and  
248 resynthesizes chlorophyll, thylakoid membranes, and components of the photosynthetic  
249 apparatus during desiccation and rehydration cycles. We searched for unique ACRs, expression  
250 dynamics, and putative *cis*-regulatory elements that distinguish the distinct desiccation tolerance  
251 strategies in these two grasses. The sets of syntenic orthologs and ACRs between *O. thomaeum*  
252 and *E. nindensis* were used for comparative analyses.

253 Syntelogs or species-specific genes that are uniquely upregulated in *O. thomaeum* had  
254 functions related to response to heat and high light, photoprotection, protein localization to  
255 chloroplast, regulation of seed germination, and regulation of cell cycle (Supplemental table 9).  
256 Upregulated genes with more open ACR in *O. thomaeum* have similar enrichment patterns  
257 including regulation of chlorophyll biosynthetic process and cellular response to blue light  
258 (Supplemental table 8). Uniquely downregulated genes under desiccation in *O. thomaeum* were  
259 enriched in GO terms associated with pollen germination, translation, vitamin B6 biosynthesis,  
260 and small GTPase mediated signal transduction (Supplemental Table 9).

261 Genes that are uniquely upregulated in *E. nindensis* under desiccation include enriched  
262 GO terms related to endocytic recycling, glyoxylate cycle, hormone processes, response to  
263 hypoxia, and salt stress responses (Supplemental Table 9). Uniquely downregulated genes under  
264 desiccation in *E. nindensis* are enriched in GO terms associated with regulation of photosynthetic  
265 acclimation, regulation of cell death, response to jasmonic acid, auxin efflux, terpenoid transport  
266 and catabolic process, and pectin catabolic process (Supplemental Table 9).

267 The evolution of desiccation tolerance is associated with massive duplication of early  
268 light induced proteins (ELIPs), which play a central role in photoprotection under anhydrobiosis  
269 (VanBuren et al., 2019). All sequenced resurrection plants contain large tandem arrays of ELIPs  
270 including *O. thomaeum* (20 ELIPs) and *E. nindensis* (27), but chlorophyll retaining species  
271 typically have more ELIPs when accounting for ploidy (VanBuren et al., 2019). The 20 ELIPs in  
272 *O. thomaeum* are among the most highly expressed genes under desiccation, with on average >  
273 20 fold higher expression compared to well-watered (Figure 5a). The ELIPs have no significant  
274 open chromatin peaks under well-watered conditions, but have massive peaks of open chromatin  
275 upstream of the TSS under desiccation. All but four of the ELIPs in *O. thomaeum* are found in a  
276 single tandem array with high sequence homology. Interestingly, some genes within this array  
277 have unique peaks in different positions upstream of the TSS, likely corresponding to changes in  
278 non-coding sequences during their duplication. In the conserved peak upstream of each ELIP  
279 TSS, we found a highly enriched *cis*-regulatory motif for the central ABA responsive drought  
280 transcription factor AP2/DREB (Figure 5b). This motif is notably absent from the two  
281 Arabidopsis ELIPs, and may be related to the evolution of desiccation tolerance. Several other  
282 enriched *cis*-regulatory motifs were identified in a subset of peaks near ELIPs related to light  
283 responses (FAR1), ABA signaling (STZ, C2H2), and development (MYB88) (Figure 5b). The 27  
284 ELIPs in *E. nindensis* have a diverse response to desiccation. We found two ELIPs to have no  
285 RNA expression, 14 with no differential expression between treatments, seven down regulated  
286 under desiccation, and four up regulated under desiccation (Supplemental Figure 6). Two of the  
287 23 open chromatin regions near *E. nindensis* ELIPs were significantly more open under  
288 desiccation and near genes with higher expression in desiccation, but the remainder showed no  
289 changes. These two differentially-open regions contain sequences similar to the AP2/DREB  
290 motifs found near the *O. thomaeum* ELIPs. However, a search for enriched motifs among open  
291 regions near all *E. nindensis* ELIPs did not result in an overlap with motifs found in *O. thomaeum*  
292 ELIP open regions. Together, this highlights the important role that ELIPs play in chlorophyll  
293 retaining species and a possible regulatory neofunctionalization during the evolution of  
294 desiccation tolerance.

295

## 296 Discussion

297 Desiccation tolerance has evolved recurrently across the tree of life as a common adaptation to  
298 survive anhydrobiosis in water-limited environments. Tolerance is not a static or monolithic trait,



299 and it has been repeatedly gained, lost, or modified across plant evolution. Here, we surveyed  
300 changes in chromatin architecture and gene expression in two related resurrection grasses that  
301 utilize different photoprotective strategies under anhydrobiosis. *O. thomaeum* and *E. nindensis*  
302 have conserved gene content and relatively small monoploid genome sizes (250 and 500 Mb,  
303 respectively), enabling detailed comparative genomic analyses and associations between putative  
304 cis-regulatory elements and gene function. Open chromatin regions were found in largely genic  
305 regions, and desiccation induced shifts in chromatin accessibility for 7.4 Mb (3.1%), and 16.9Mb  
306 (1.7%) of the *O. thomaeum* and *E. nindensis* genomes respectively. These shifts in accessibility  
307 are highly correlated with gene expression dynamics, and these high-quality datasets allowed us  
308 to explore the unique biophysical constraints of anhydrobiosis and the regulatory evolution of  
309 this complex adaptation.

310

### 311 ***Chromatin architecture and anhydrobiosis***

312 Chromatin dynamics have not been described for desiccated vegetative tissues, but chromatin is  
313 highly condensed and compacted in desiccated seeds (van Zanten et al., 2011). Differential  
314 chromatin accessibility is established in developing seeds and gene level modifications enable  
315 rapid transcription for germination related processes upon hydration (Fransz and de Jong, 2011).  
316 We observed a high signal-to-noise ratio (FRiP) of the open chromatin regions in desiccated leaf  
317 tissue stemming from a significantly lower background level of reads compared to well-watered  
318 leaf tissue. This enrichment resulted in a higher abundance of reads in open peaks, potentially  
319 indicating a major difference in chromatin state in the nucleus of desiccated cells.

320 We hypothesize several factors that may contribute to the low background signal and  
321 robust peaks observed under desiccation. The first is that all nuclei in the desiccated plants are  
322 more condensed either due to crosslinking or the presence of additional factors that prevent the  
323 Tn5 from sometimes cutting. The more parsimonious explanation is that the desiccated nuclei are  
324 in a more stable state with fewer cells in the sample actively undergoing transient processes that  
325 open the DNA, such as transcription or replication. Under desiccation, different cell types must  
326 arrest their normal developmental or metabolic functions and enact a series of highly coordinated  
327 responses to successfully prepare for anhydrobiosis and subsequent rehydration. In turn, this  
328 would ‘synchronize’ cells and produce the observed tight coordination between expression  
329 dynamics and chromatin architecture that is typically only found in single cell data (Farmer et  
330 al., 2021). Drying of this magnitude is experienced by all cells and risky processes such as  
331 growth and photosynthesis during the stresses of anhydrobiosis would be detrimental and  
332 preferentially avoided. Thus, a clear, tightly regulated signal from all cells in the desiccated  
333 samples is achieved. This is supported by the massive transcriptional reprogramming we  
334 observed and the clear enrichment of GO terms related to photoprotective and anhydrobiosis  
335 processes with comparatively few background pathways. This pattern of clearer peaks and more

336 accessible chromatin under desiccation contrasts what has been observed under drought and  
337 salinity (Raxwal et al., 2020), but is similar to cold stress (Zeng et al., 2019).

338

### 339 ***Evolutionary dynamics of photoprotective strategies under desiccation***

340 *O. thomaeum* and *E. nindensis* are found within the Chloridoideae subfamily of grasses, a  
341 group of stress tolerant C4 species with superior drought, heat, and salinity tolerance (Marcum,  
342 1999; Peterson et al., 2001). Evolutionary access to existing resilience traits within this  
343 subfamily likely enabled the independent evolution of desiccation tolerance in *O. thomaeum* and  
344 *E. nindensis* (Pardo and VanBuren, 2021). Using detailed comparative genomics approaches  
345 with syntenic orthologs, we identified a core set of genes and *cis*-regulatory regions that are  
346 induced during desiccation in *O. thomaeum* and *E. nindensis*. Integration of ATACseq and  
347 RNAseq data allowed us to filter out spurious associations, and induced genes include many with  
348 previously described roles in desiccation. Among the stress responsive *cis*-elements, we  
349 identified numerous binding motifs for the seed desiccation transcription factor ABI5, supporting  
350 the hypothesis that vegetative desiccation tolerance evolved from rewiring existing seed pathways  
351 (Oliver et al., 2000, 2005). This hypothesis is contentious, and previous work in the monocot  
352 *Xerophyta humilis* failed to find evidence linking desiccation processes to the canonical seed  
353 development transcription factor network of LEC1, ABI3, ABI5 and others (Lyll et al., 2020).  
354 Our results provide a direct link between expression dynamics and regions of accessible  
355 chromatin with seed related regulatory motifs, but this association needs to be further tested  
356 using transcription factor binding data.

357 Species-specific changes in chromatin architecture and expression dynamics during  
358 desiccation reflect the distinct strategies that *E. nindensis* and *O. thomaeum* utilize to mitigate  
359 photooxidative damage. We identified a cluster of desiccation associated GO terms related to  
360 chlorophyll processes, UV-A responses, photoprotection, and pigment metabolism that was  
361 unique to *O. thomaeum*. These orchestrated responses in *O. thomaeum* reflect  
362 homoiochlorophyly, or the strategy to protect chlorophyll and photosynthesis related  
363 macromolecules during desiccation. Consistent with this, *O. thomaeum* has more early light  
364 induced proteins than *E. nindensis* (when accounting for ploidy) and all of the ELIPs have  
365 massive shifts in chromatin accessibility and high expression under desiccation. By comparison,  
366 only two ELIPs in *E. nindensis* have associated open chromatin regions, and few are  
367 differentially expressed under desiccation. Instead, ELIPs in *E. nindensis* have high expression  
368 during rehydration and likely function in protecting leaves as they resynthesize and repair their  
369 photosynthetic apparatus (Pardo et al., 2020).

370 We identified a *cis*-regulatory motif associated with the drought transcription factor  
371 DREB upstream of each ELIP in *O. thomaeum*. This motif is missing from the Arabidopsis ELIP  
372 orthologs and may represent a regulatory neofunctionalization to induce ELIP accumulation  
373 under desiccation. Nearly all plants have retained desiccation tolerance in their seeds and/or

374 pollen, so the genes and regulatory elements needed to protect cells from anhydrobiosis are  
375 already in place. Tolerance may have evolved in resurrection plants through simply shifting the  
376 timing and cell specificity of existing desiccation pathways through cis-regulatory elements, and  
377 our findings in ELIPs may be evidence of this process in action.

378 The GO-terms we found imply desiccated plants were under stress responding to  
379 desiccation, and a general down-regulation of photosynthesis and carbon fixation in desiccated  
380 plants compared to the well-watered. Both species also have an increase in genes associated with  
381 production of vitamin B6 under desiccated conditions. While vitamin B6 is associated with  
382 scavenging reactive oxygen it is unclear if B6 levels are higher in desiccated tissues or what  
383 function these compounds are performing. Desiccation in *O. thomaeum* also resulted in several  
384 GO-terms implying responses to high light intensity, and a preservation of light-harvesting and  
385 dealing with cellular stresses of excess light, whereas in *E. nindensis* there were more terms  
386 pertaining to catabolism of branched-chain amino-acids, endocytic recycling, and autophagy.  
387 Additionally, while both species had a down regulation of photosystem I, *E. nindensis* also had a  
388 down-regulation of photosystem II. These differences highlight the fact that while both species  
389 respond to the loss of water similar to many other plants, they also have processes that seem  
390 specific to each of them.

391 Genes with higher differential expression in drought typically have a nearby chromatin  
392 region that is also differentially open during desiccation. However, there are some differentially  
393 expressed genes that have opposing open chromatin regions and these genes are enriched in  
394 house-keeping processes such as polysaccharide biosynthesis, ATP mediated transport, rRNA  
395 biosynthesis, and nuclear envelope organization (Supplementary table 8). This implies  
396 coordinated gene expression that is contrary to the simplistic thinking of “more open chromatin  
397 results in more transcript abundance”. This observation could be attributed to repressors binding  
398 in or near these open sites, post-transcriptional control of mRNA levels, or priming of gene  
399 expression for returning to a hydrated state. A time course of expression through the desiccation  
400 process could help identify what is happening in these cases.

401

402

## 403 **Methods**

### 404 ***Plants, samples, and growth conditions***

405 *Oropetium thomaeum* and *Eragrostis nindensis* plants were grown from seed for ~60  
406 days for each experiment in a growth chamber with 28 °C (day)/22 °C (night) and 12 hr light/12  
407 hr dark cycle. Desiccated samples were collected from plants where water was withheld for 10  
408 days, causing the leaf relative water content to drop below 10%. Each replicate consisted of 3  
409 mature plants grown in the same pot, and two replicates were collected for well-watered and  
410 desiccated time points. Two grams of leaf tissue was collected from each plant and frozen in

411 liquid nitrogen immediately. Tissues were ground into coarse powder and aliquoted into multiple  
412 1.5 mL tubes with ~100 mg per tube. The samples were then subjected to nuclei isolation for  
413 ATAC-seq, or RNA extraction for RNA-seq.

#### 414 ***RNA-seq library construction***

415 RNA was extracted using Zymo research Direct-zol RNA miniprep kit according to the  
416 manufacturer's protocol with on-column DNase digestion. RNA yield was quantified using a  
417 Qubit RNA BR kit and RNA integrity was quantified by gel electrophoresis. One microgram of  
418 RNA was used to construct the RNA-seq libraries using Illumina TruSeq stranded mRNA kit,  
419 according to the manufacturer's protocol. The multiplexed libraries were sequenced at Michigan  
420 State University RTSF Genomics Core with HiSeq4000 150 bp paired end mode for *O.*  
421 *thomaeum* and 100 bp paired end mode for *E. nindensis*.

422

#### 423 ***ATAC-seq library construction***

424 Crude nuclei extracts were prepared using the protocol reported in Liu et al. (2017) (Lu et  
425 al., 2017). Nuclei were stained with 4,6-Diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) and counted using a  
426 Nikon Eclipse Ni-Upright microscope with 40X differential interference contrast objective lens.  
427 50,000 nuclei were subjected to 2  $\mu$ L of Tn5 enzyme digestion for 30 min at 37 °C. DNaseq  
428 libraries were constructed from the resulting digested nucleosomes using the Illumina Nextera  
429 XT kit, according to the manufacturer's protocol. The multiplexed libraries were sequenced at  
430 Michigan State University RTSF Genomics Core with HiSeq4000 150 bp paired end mode.

431

#### 432 ***RNAseq analysis***

433 Paired-end raw reads were trimmed using Trimmomatic (v0.33) (Bolger et al., 2014) to  
434 remove adapters and low-quality bases. Reads were pseudo-aligned to the *O. thomaeum* v2.1, or  
435 *E. nindensis* v2.1 transcriptome using Kallisto (0.46.0) (Bray et al., 2016). Differential expressed  
436 genes (q-value < 0.05) between well-watered and drought conditions were identified using  
437 Sleuth (Pimentel et al., 2017).

438

#### 439 ***ATAC-seq analysis***

440 Paired-end raw reads were trimmed using Trim\_galore (v0.6.6) to remove Nextera  
441 adapters and low-quality bases (Krueger, 2018). Filtered reads were then aligned to *O. thomaeum*  
442 v2.1, or *E. nindensis* v2.1 genome using Bowtie2 with dovetailing reads enabled and the  
443 resulting SAM files were converted to BAM format and sorted based on query name using  
444 Picard Tools (v2.18.1) (Institute, 2016). Mapped reads were manually visualized using the  
445 Integrative Genomics Viewer (Robinson et al., 2011), to determine uniformity of coverage. A

446 blackout list of genomic regions with abnormal read coverage was generated by investigating  
447 genes near large regions with greater than 100x coverage relative to other parts of the  
448 chromosome. Regions with both exceptionally high coverage and genes associated with the  
449 chloroplast were considered chloroplast contamination in the build of the genome. A total of 25  
450 regions consisting of about 1.5 Mbp of the ~236 Mbp *O. thomaeum* genome, and 772 regions  
451 consisting of about 3.5 Mbp of the ~986 Mbp *E. nindensis* genome, were added to the blackout  
452 lists.

453 Peaks associated with accessible chromatin regions (ACR) were called using Genrich  
454 (Gaspar) with options specific for ATACseq. The resulting narrowPeak files and the read files  
455 (bam format) were used in the R library DiffBind (Stark et al., 2011; Ross-Innes et al., 2012) to  
456 determine differentially open regions. Running the analysis with bFullLibrarySize=FALSE both  
457 edgeR (Robinson et al., 2010) and DESeq2 (Love et al., 2014) produced similar outcomes in *O.*  
458 *thomaeum* so the more conservative edgeR results were used for downstream analyses. In *E.*  
459 *nindensis* the results were more lopsided so the better distributed DESeq2 results were used.  
460 (Supplemental tables)

461

#### 462 ***Integrating ATACseq and RNAseq datasets***

463 A genome-wide assessment of ACR distribution was performed using deepTools  
464 (Ramírez et al., 2016). ACRs were classified into different groups based on their proximity to  
465 genes and comparisons of peak openness and differential gene expression were performed. These  
466 correlations were used as input for gene ontology and cis-element enrichment analyses.

467 We identified genes near ACRs using bedTools version 2.29.2 (Quinlan, 2014). ACRs  
468 were grouped into different categories based on their distance to genic elements including: 10000  
469 to 5001, 5000 to 2001, 2000 to 1001, 1000 to 501, 500 to 0 bp upstream (5') of the transcription  
470 start site (TSS), overlapping with the gene, and 0 to 1000bp downstream (3') of the transcription  
471 termination site (TTS). Based on the distribution and correlation of chromatin openness and gene  
472 expression patterns, we chose the range of 0-3000 bp upstream of gene TSSs as the cutoff of  
473 associating ACRs with specific genes for further analysis. The *O. thomaeum* and *E. nindensis*  
474 genomes are relatively compact compared to other grass species, and putative cis-regulatory  
475 regions are in close proximity to genes.

476 Genes were grouped by their differential expression patterns and ACR openness and gene  
477 ontology term (GO-term) enrichment analyses were performed using the R library topGO (Alexa  
478 and Rahnenführer, 2009). Six different sets of genes from each species were used as inputs for  
479 GO term enrichment including up and down-regulated genes under desiccation with no  
480 comparison to ACRs, and the four categories of gene expression and ACR openness association  
481 including: (1) upregulated genes near more open ACRs under desiccation, (2) less open ACRs

482 and downregulated expression (3) less open ACRs and upregulated expression or (4) upregulated  
483 expression less open ACRs.

484 Putative *cis*-regulatory motifs within ACRs were identified using Multiple Em for Motif  
485 Elicitation (MEME) (Bailey et al., 2009; Bailey, 2020). Motifs associated with ACRs within 3  
486 Kbp upstream of differentially expressed genes were identified and the Simple Enrichment  
487 Analysis (SEA) algorithm was used to identify enriched motifs in our data and associate these  
488 motifs with known transcription factor binding sites (Bailey and Grant, 2021). Sensitive Through  
489 Rapid Em Motif Elicitation (STREME) was used for denovo motif identification (Bailey, 2020)  
490 for enriched motifs with no homology to known transcription factor binding sites.

#### 491 ***Comparative genomic analyses***

492 Comparative genomic analyses were conducted between *O. thomaeum* and *E. nindensis*  
493 to identify shared and species-specific sets of differentially expressed genes and ACRs  
494 dynamics. Syntenic orthologs were identified between the two closely related grasses using the  
495 python version of MCScan ([https://github.com/tanghaibao/jcvi/wiki/MCscan-\(Python-version\)](https://github.com/tanghaibao/jcvi/wiki/MCscan-(Python-version)))  
496 (Wang et al., 2012) . The chromosome scale *O. thomaeum* genome was used as an anchor and  
497 the two sets of homeologous genes in the *E. nindensis* genome were mapped to the single  
498 corresponding syntenic ortholog in *O. thomaeum*. Genes in each species were then classified as  
499 syntenic or non-syntenic and these two designations were incorporated with differential  
500 expression analyses, ACR dynamics, and enriched motif analyses. Enriched GO terms and  
501 putative *cis*-element motifs were identified for syntenic orthologs with conserved and species-  
502 specific expression patterns as described above.

503

#### 504 **Data availability:**

505 The raw RNAseq and ATACseq data are available from the National Center for Biotechnology  
506 Information (NCBI) Short Read Archive. Raw data for this project can be found under  
507 BioProject accession no. PRJNA807505.

508

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511

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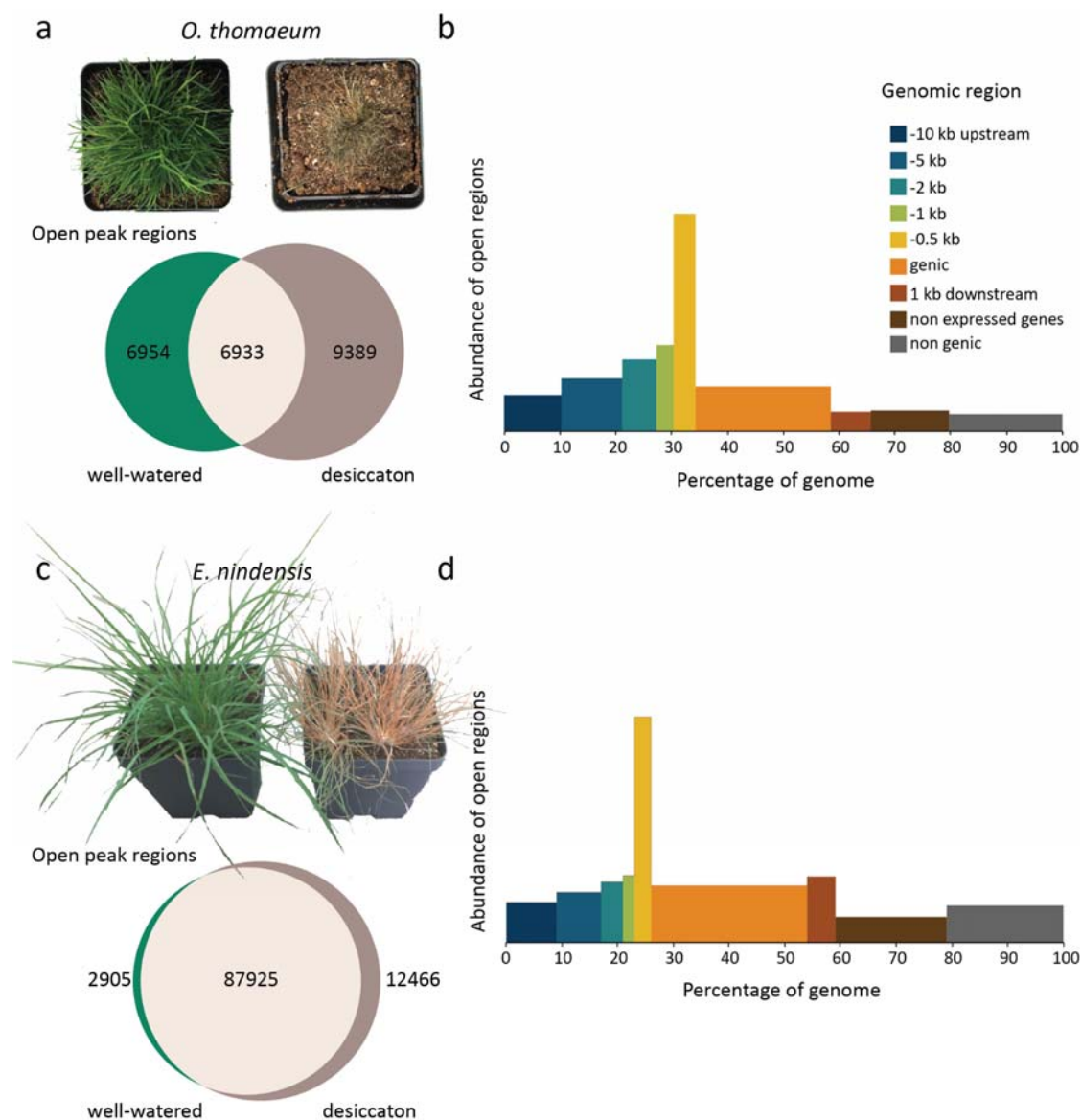
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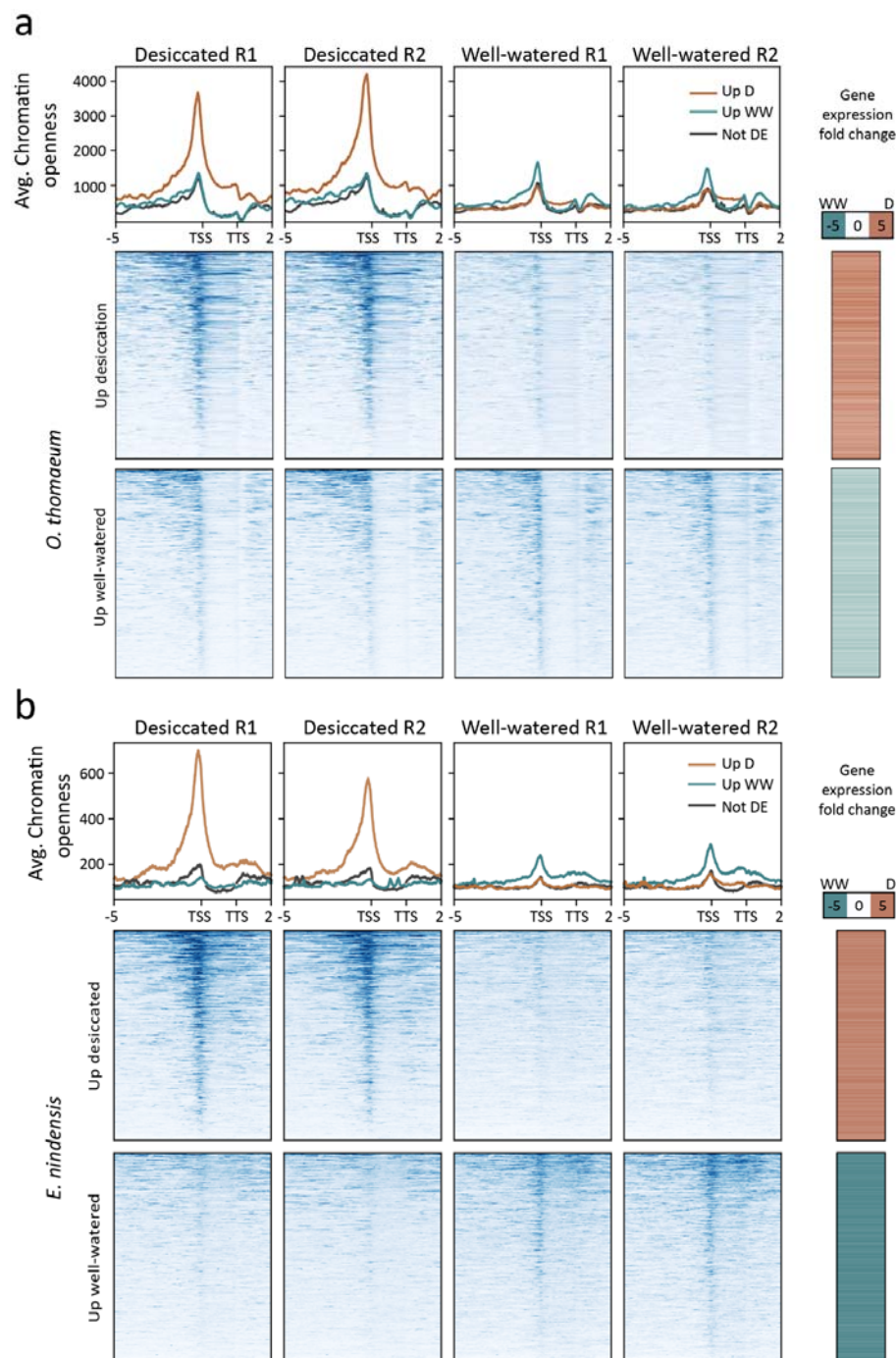
691 **Figures and tables**

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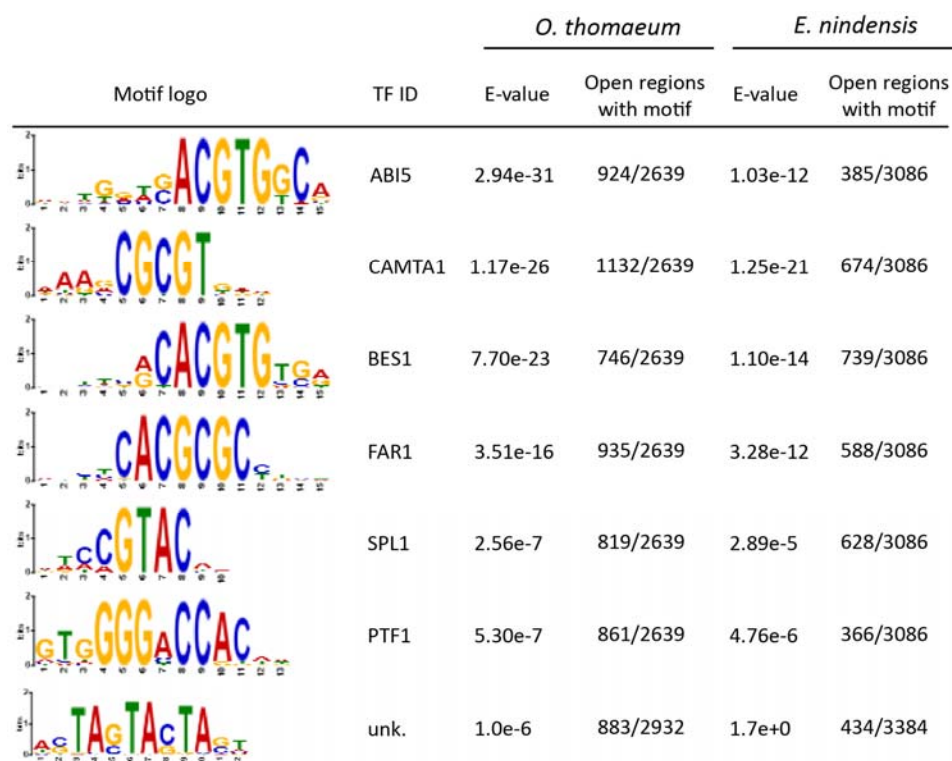
693

694 **Figure 1. Chromatin architecture changes underlying desiccation responses in resurrection**  
695 **grasses.** (a) Overlapping (beige) open chromatin regions between well-watered (green) and  
696 desiccated (dark grey) *O. thomaeum* plants. Representative well-watered (left) and fully  
697 desiccated (right) *O. thomaeum* plants are shown. (b) Landscape of open chromatin regions  
698 across the *O. thomaeum* genome. The abundance of open chromatin regions is shown on the Y  
699 axis and percentage of the genome corresponding to upstream, genic, downstream, intergenic,  
700 and genes with no detectable expression is shown on the X axis. (c) Overlapping (beige) open  
701 chromatin regions between well-watered (green) and desiccated (dark grey) *E. nindensis* plants.  
702 Representative well-watered (left) and fully desiccated (right) *E. nindensis* plants are shown. (b)  
703 Landscape of open chromatin regions across the *E. nindensis* genome.



704

705 **Figure 2. Chromatin architecture and gene expression associations under desiccation.** The  
706 average chromatin openness is plotted for genes upregulated under desiccation (orange) or  
707 upregulated under well-watered (blue) for the two replicates in each sample for *O. thomaeum* (a)  
708 and *E. nindensis* (b). The log<sub>2</sub> fold change of expression in desiccated / well-watered is plotted  
709 on the right for each gene. Openness is plotted 5 kbp upstream to the TSS, on the gene is  
710 between TSS and TTS, and TTS to 2 kbp downstream. TSS: Transcriptional start site, TTS:  
711 transcription termination site.

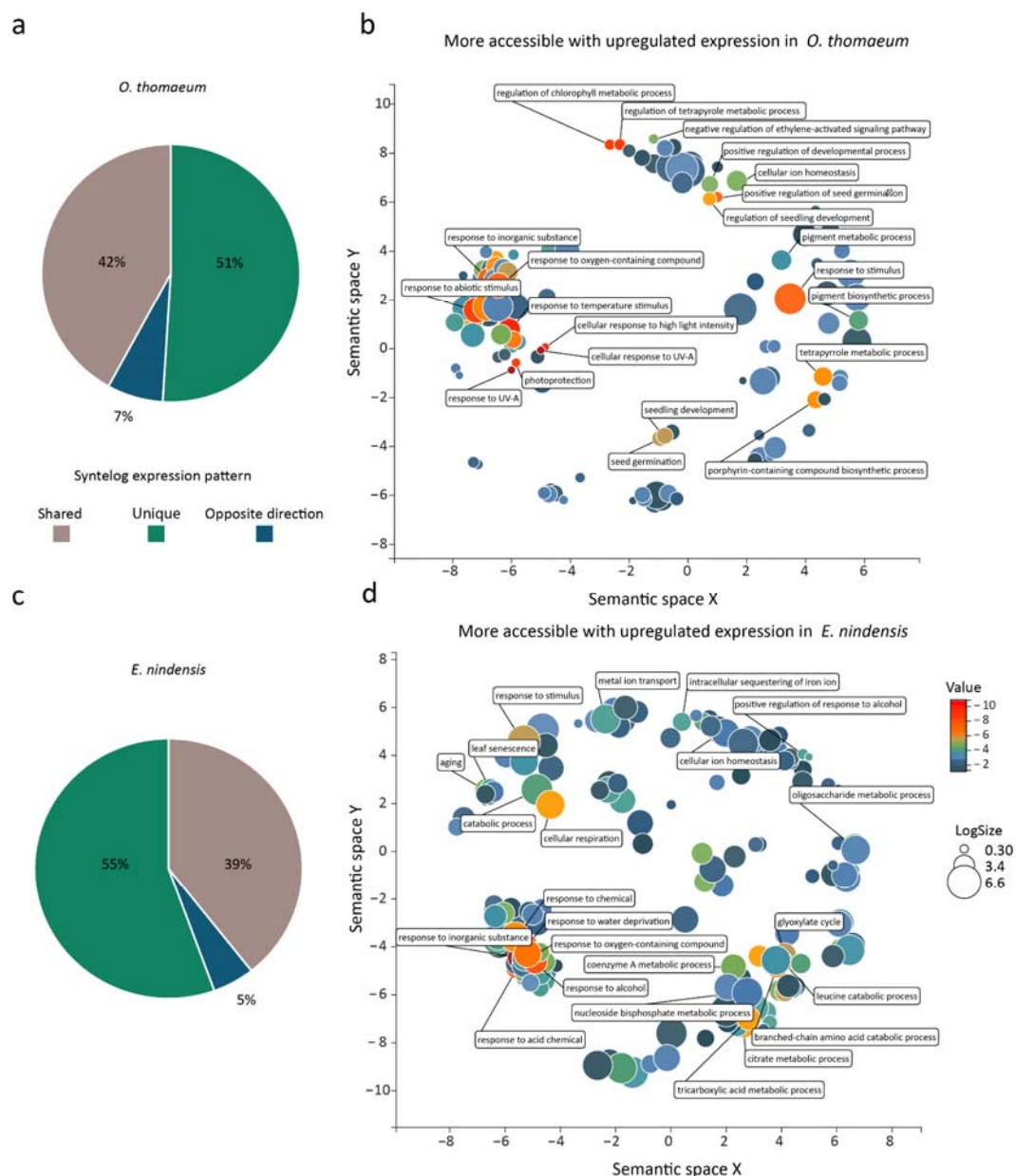


712

713 **Figure 3. Enriched regulatory motifs associated with desiccation responsive genes.**

714 Enriched *cis*-regulatory element motifs in open chromatin regions of genes upregulated under  
 715 desiccation in both grasses are shown. The last logo (TF ID: unknown) was obtained from a de  
 716 novo search for motifs. The motif logo, most closely associated transcription factor, statistical  
 717 significance (E-value), and number of open regions with each motif is shown for *O. thomaeum*  
 718 (left) and *E. nindensis* (right).

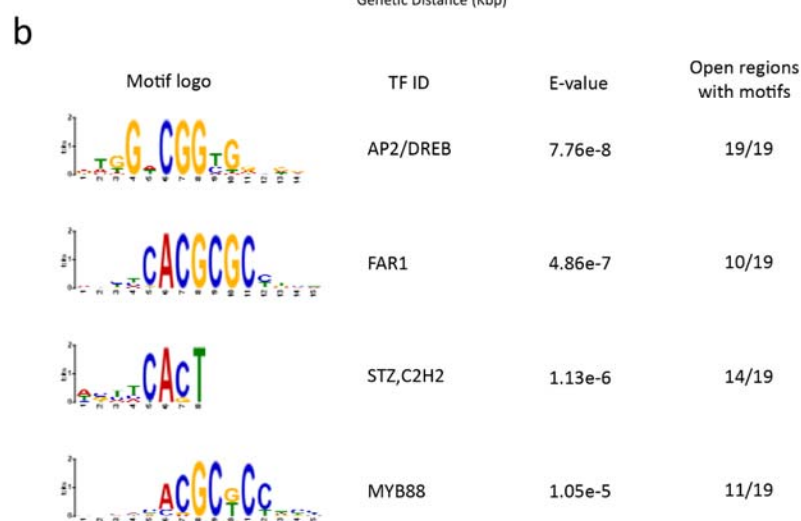
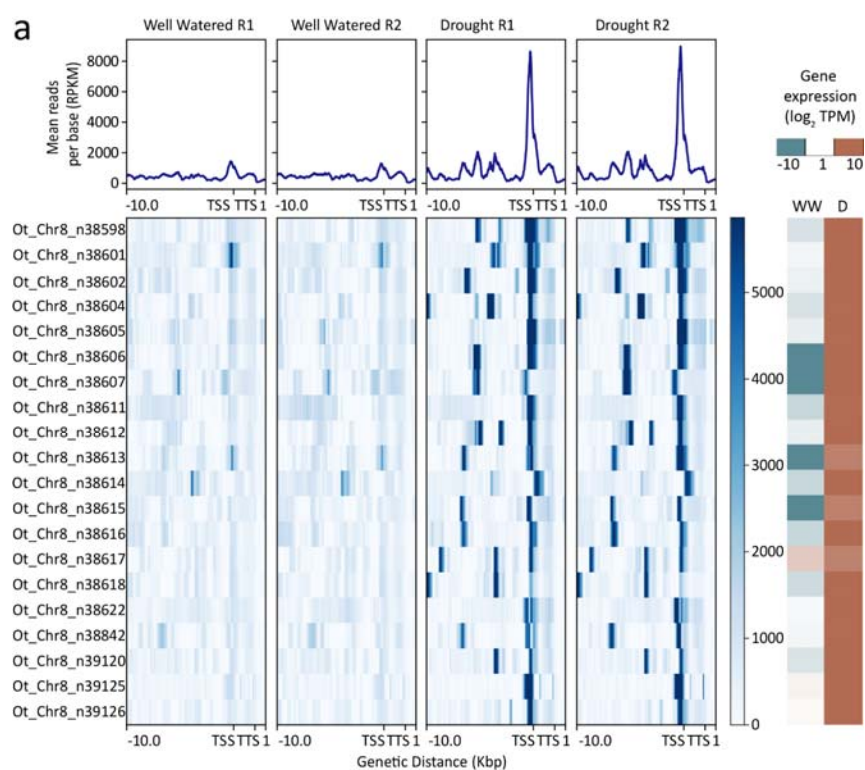
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720

721 **Figure 4. Contrasting enrichment patterns of desiccation-associated genes in *O. thomaeum***  
 722 **and *E. nindensis*.** (a) The proportion of syntelogs with similar, unique, or opposing expression  
 723 patterns is plotted for *O. thomaeum* (left) and *E. nindensis* (right). Enriched GO terms for genes  
 724 that have more open chromatin and higher expression under desiccation are plotted for *O.*  
 725 *thomaeum* (b) and *E. nindensis* (c). GO terms are transformed using Multidimensional Scaling to  
 726 reduce dimensionality and terms are grouped by semantic similarities. GO terms with previously  
 727 characterized roles in desiccation and photoprotection responses are highlighted. The color of the  
 728 circles represent significance and size represents the number of genes in that group.





729

730 **Figure 5. Regulatory dynamics of early light induced proteins (ELIPs) under desiccation.**

731 (a) Chromatin architecture and expression dynamics of ELIPs in well-watered and desiccated *O.*

732 *thomaeum* samples. The mean mapped read depth of ATACseq reads (in RPKM) is plotted for

733 10 kb upstream to 1 kb downstream regions for each of the ELIPs in the *O. thomaeum* genome.

734 Log<sub>2</sub> transformed RNA expression (in TPM) for each ELIP is shown on the right under well-

735 watered and desiccated conditions. (b) Enriched putative *cis*-element motifs in open chromatin

736 regions upstream of ELIP TSSs in *O. thomaeum*. The motif logo, associated transcription factor

737 (TF ID), e-value, and number of open regions with each motif are shown.

738

739