Transcriptional analysis of waterlogging response in barley identifies signatures of waterlogging tolerance/sensitivity

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Highlight

This study identifies 5 barley varieties with different tolerance to waterlogging. We provide the first RNA-seq datasets identifying both conserved and unique transcriptional responses in both waterlogging tolerant and sensitive barley varieties.

Abstract

Waterlogging leads to major crop losses globally, particularly for waterlogging sensitive crops such as barley. Waterlogging reduces oxygen availability and results in additional stresses, leading to the activation of hypoxia and stress response pathways that promote plant survival. Although certain barley varieties have been shown to be more tolerant to waterlogging than others, the molecular mechanisms underlying this trait are mostly unknown. Here, we surveyed 21 barley varieties for the transcriptional activation of conserved hypoxia-response genes under waterlogging. We selected five varieties that showed differential induction of core hypoxia-response genes during waterlogging treatment and further characterized their phenotypic response to waterlogging stress, with the aim of categorizing them as waterlogging sensitive or tolerant varieties. RNA-sequencing to evaluate the transcriptional responses of these selected varieties to waterlogging led to the identification of a set of 98 core waterlogging-response genes in barley. We further identified groups of genes whose expression correlated with the varietal differences in waterlogging tolerance. These datasets identify potential candidates for molecular markers and/or gene targeting to improve waterlogging tolerance in barley.

Keywords

Waterlogging; barley; transcriptomics; RNA-seq

Abbreviations

ACO: 1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylate oxidase 1-like
ADH: alcohol dehydrogenase
AGOUEB: association genetics of UK elite Barley
bHLH: basic helix-loop-helix
CAT: cation exchanger
DEG: differentially expressed gene
ERF-VII: group VII ethylene response factor

GABA-T: γ-aminobutyric acid transaminase

GO: gene ontology

Golden P. /GP: Golden Promise

GS: glutamine synthetase 1

GST: glutathione-S-transferase

GWAS: genome-wide association studies

HB: hemoglobin

HRE: hypoxia responsive ethylene response factor

HRPE: hypoxia-responsive promoter element

Hv: *Hordeum vulgare*

IBSC: international barley sequencing consortium

Inf: Infinity

MAPK: mitogen-activated protein kinase

NAC: NAM (no apical meristem), ATAF1 and −2, and CUC2 (cup-shaped cotyledon)

Pas: Passport

PCA: principal component analysis

PCO: plant cysteine oxidase

PDC: pyruvate decarboxylase

Pil: Pilastro

QTL: quantitative trait locus

RBOH: respiratory burst oxidase

Reg: Regina

ROS: reactive oxygen species

VST: variance stabilising transformations

Introduction

Waterlogging (i.e. the saturation of soil with water) and flooding-related stresses are the cause of major crop losses worldwide. They are predicted to worsen in some countries as a consequence of seasonal increases in rainfall resulting from global climate change (Bailey-Serres *et al.*, 2012a; Bailey-Serres *et al.*, 2012b; Kaur *et al.*, 2020; Langan *et al.*, 2022). Waterlogging and flooding alter biological, physical and chemical parameters in a plant's environment. These combined changes affect negatively different aspects of plant growth, but at the same time contribute to the onset of a multi-faceted response. One of the most important changes caused by waterlogging is the reduction in oxygen availability (hypoxia) to roots, and also to shoots in the case of flooding (Bailey-Serres *et al.*, 2012a; Bailey-Serres *et al.*, 2012b; Sasidharan *et al.*, 2017). Other parameters that change and may affect plants negatively upon waterlogging and flooding include the release of toxic chemical compounds in the soil (e.g. iron) (Setter and Waters, 2003), reduced availability of important nutrients such as nitrates (Setter and Waters, 2003), changes in the soil microbiome (Hartman and Tringe, 2019; Wang *et al.*, 2017), or a decrease in light availability because of flood water turbidity.

In recent years, the study of waterlogging stress and of the resulting hypoxic stress has led to the discovery of essential and conserved oxygen-sensing mechanisms in plants, and of the molecular mechanisms regulating hypoxia response in plants (reviewed in (Doorly and Graciet, 2021; Hammarlund *et al.*, 2020; Holdsworth and Gibbs, 2020)). An important oxygen-sensing mechanism in plants requires a set of oxygen-dependent PLANT CYSTEINE OXIDASE (PCO) enzymes that can oxidize the N-terminus of proteins starting with a cysteine residue (Weits *et al.*, 2014; White *et al.*, 2018; White *et al.*, 2017), including a set of group VII ETHYLENE RESPONSE FACTOR (ERF-VII) transcription factors (White *et al.*, 2018; White *et al.*, 2017) that act as master regulators of the hypoxia response program in plants (reviewed in (Giuntoli and Perata, 2018)). Under normal oxygen conditions, these ERF-VII transcription factors are targeted for degradation by the ubiquitin-dependent N-degron protein degradation pathway, following oxidation of their N-terminal cysteine residue by PCO enzymes (Gibbs *et al.*, 2011; Licausi *et al.*, 2011; Weits *et al.*, 2014). In contrast, under hypoxic conditions, the activity of PCOs is inhibited, thus preventing the oxidation of ERF-VIIs' N-terminal cysteine and their subsequent N-degron-mediated degradation. As a result,

under hypoxic conditions, ERF-VIIs accumulate in the nucleus where they bind to *cis*-

regulatory elements to trigger the hypoxia response program. Notably, the promoters of

conserved hypoxia response gene families are not only enriched for *cis*-regulatory elements

bound by transcription factors of the ERF-VII family (e.g. HRPE motif (Gasch *et al.*, 2016)),

but also for motifs bound by basic helix-loop-helix (bHLH), MYB and WRKY transcription

factors (Reynoso *et al.*, 2019), thus suggesting the involvement of other families of

transcription factors in the regulation of the hypoxia response program (Lee and Bailey-

Serres, 2021). This is in agreement with the up-regulation of genes coding for transcription

factors belonging to the different families mentioned above as part of hypoxia response in

plants (Mustroph *et al.*, 2010). Cross-comparison of multiple transcriptomic datasets from

different plant species also allowed the identification of core genes of the hypoxia response

program that are conserved in plants (Mustroph *et al.*, 2010; Mustroph *et al.*, 2009;

Reynoso *et al.*, 2019). These include genes involved in (i) the regulation of carbon

metabolism in order to facilitate ATP production *via* glycolysis and NAD+ regeneration

through fermentation pathways; (ii) the regulation of important signaling pathways (e.g.

MAPK signaling) and molecules (e.g. reactive oxygen species (ROS)) to promote plant

tolerance and survival upon hypoxia.

Numerous transcriptomic studies using either flooding or waterlogging treatments

have been conducted using the model plant *Arabidopsis thaliana* (see list in (Brazel and

Graciet, 2023)). While experimental conditions vary, core aspects of the transcriptional

reprogramming upon waterlogging or flooding overlap with those identified upon hypoxia

(Lee *et al.*, 2011; van Veen *et al.*, 2016). Furthermore, the transcriptomic comparison of 8

different natural accessions of Arabidopsis, which had been previously identified as being

either sensitive or tolerant to flooding (Vashisht *et al.*, 2011), indicated that the

transcriptional response of roots and shoots differ (van Veen *et al.*, 2016). This work

identified sets of shoot or root-expressed genes that might contribute to the flooding

tolerance phenotype of some natural Arabidopsis accessions (van Veen *et al.*, 2016), which

could be relevant to improve crop tolerance to waterlogging/flooding. Notably, the

transcriptional reprogramming in response to hypoxia and flooding is also accompanied by

other genome-wide regulatory mechanisms such as epigenetic changes, chromatin

remodelling (Reynoso *et al.*, 2019), and changes in translation (Lee and Bailey-Serres, 2019;
Reynoso *et al.*, 2019).

Waterlogging (as well as flooding) is an important source of crop losses (de San
Celedonio *et al.*, 2014; Kaur *et al.*, 2020), however, not all crop species are equally affected.
Barley has been identified as a particularly sensitive crop with up to 20-25% crop losses due
to waterlogging (Byrne *et al.*, 2021; de San Celedonio *et al.*, 2016; de San Celedonio *et al.*,
2014; Liu *et al.*, 2020; Miricescu *et al.*, 2021; Setter and Waters, 2003). Losses have been
shown to be more severe if waterlogging occurs at the heading stage (de San Celedonio *et*
al., 2016; de San Celedonio *et al.*, 2014; Liu *et al.*, 2020; Setter and Waters, 2003), but also
at early developmental stages (de San Celedonio *et al.*, 2016; de San Celedonio *et al.*, 2014).
The multifaceted nature of waterlogging stress, as well as the complexity of plant responses
to this stress, have made it difficult to identify marker genes of waterlogging tolerance, as
well as target genes that could be modified to improve crop tolerance to waterlogging.
Nevertheless, in recent years, genetic approaches, as well as linkage mapping and genome-
wide association studies (GWAS) have led to the identification of potential QTLs and target
genes to improve barley tolerance to waterlogging (Bertholdsson *et al.*, 2015; Borrego-
Benjumea *et al.*, 2020; Broughton *et al.*, 2015; Gill *et al.*, 2019; Li *et al.*, 2008; Manik *et al.*,
2022; Zhang *et al.*, 2017; Zhang *et al.*, 2016; Zhou, 2011). In agreement with the complex
response to waterlogging, these QTLs have been identified based on a wide range of
phenotypic traits, including leaf yellowing, chlorophyll fluorescence, yield traits,
adventitious root formation, aerenchyma formation and ROS levels. QTLs relating to root
traits, including the ability to form adventitious roots and aerenchyma under waterlogged
conditions (Manik *et al.*, 2022; Zhang *et al.*, 2016), may be of particular relevance
considering their known roles in facilitating water and nutrient uptake as well as in oxygen
distribution during waterlogging (Zhang *et al.*, 2015).

Despite the progress made in recent years in the identification of QTLs for
waterlogging tolerance and the realization that transcriptomics may be used to identify
potential candidate genes relevant to waterlogging tolerance (Lee *et al.*, 2011; Reynoso *et*
al., 2019; van Veen *et al.*, 2016), only few such studies have been conducted with barley.
One recent study has characterized the transcriptomic response of two waterlogging-
tolerant varieties (Borrego-Benjumea *et al.*, 2020). The authors showed a high degree of

conservation between the waterlogging response program in barley and that of other plants

(e.g., Arabidopsis). Furthermore, they identified a handful of genes that could be of

importance for waterlogging tolerance mechanisms in barley (Borrego-Benjumea *et al.*,

2020). In another study, a comparative proteomic analysis of one waterlogging-sensitive and

one waterlogging-tolerant variety identified proteins that accumulate differently in

waterlogging sensitive or tolerant germplasms (Luan *et al.*, 2018a; Luan *et al.*, 2018b). These

proteins included pyruvate decarboxylase (PDC) and an 1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylate

oxidase 1-like (ACO) protein, which accumulated to higher levels in the waterlogging

tolerant variety. In addition, correlation between protein levels and gene expression using

RT-qPCR analyses indicated that some genes (*e.g. PDC*, glutamine synthetase (*GS1*), *ACO*

and some glutathione-S-transferases (*GSTs*)) are more strongly up-regulated in the

waterlogging tolerant variety (Luan *et al.*, 2018b). To our knowledge, no transcriptomic

studies have attempted to compare the genome-wide gene expression response of

waterlogging-sensitive and tolerant varieties in barley, despite the fact that this approach

could lead to the identification of transcriptional signatures that correlate with waterlogging

tolerance or sensitivity.

Here, to identify barley varieties that are waterlogging sensitive or tolerant, we used

varieties from the Association Genetics Of UK Elite Barley (AGOUEB) population, which

consists of barley varieties that have been commercialized on the UK National and

Recommended List trials between 1988 and 2006 (Thomas *et al.*, 2014). Next, we

characterized selected varieties, using a previously established controlled-condition

waterlogging protocol (Miricescu *et al.*, 2021). We then dissected the transcriptomic

response of two 2-row and two 6-row winter barley varieties that were moderately sensitive

and tolerant to waterlogging in order to identify genes whose expression may be associated

with these traits. Our study focused on the transcriptomic response of roots, because of

their central role in mediating waterlogging tolerance (Zhang *et al.*, 2015). We identified

core waterlogging response genes in barley, as well as sets of genes whose expression is

specific to either waterlogging-sensitive or waterlogging-tolerant varieties. The datasets

presented therefore serve as a reference for the study of waterlogging stress response in

barley and provide insights into potential target genes and new avenues of research to

understand tolerance to waterlogging in this crop.

Materials and Methods

Plant material

Cultivars used in this study included winter varieties that originated from the 'Association Genetics of UK Elite Barley' (AGOUEB) population of barley (Thomas *et al.*, 2014), as well as the model spring variety *Golden Promise* and a winter variety, *Infinity*, which has been on the recommended list at the time of an initial field trial whose results were taken into account for varietal selection (Byrne *et al.*, 2021). Both 2-row and 6-row varieties were included (Supp. Table S1). Selected varieties for further characterization, including transcriptome profiling, were *Golden Promise* (spring variety, 2-row), *Regina* and *Infinity* (winter varieties, 2-row), *Passport* and *Pilastro* (winter varieties, 6-row).

Plant growth conditions

Plants were grown in a plant growth room under long-day conditions (16 h light/8 h dark) at 15°C (constant temperature), approximately 45% relative humidity. Light intensity was determined to be ~138 µmol/m^2/s and was provided by LED bulbs (Philipps LED tubes High Output, T8 20W/865).

Soil preparation and seed germination

Commercial John Innes N°2 (Vitax; UK) soil was soaked in water after filling round pots of 9-cm diameter and 9-cm height without compressing the soil. Untreated seeds were sown directly in soil at a depth of 2 cm. The sown seeds were stratified in the dark for 14 d at 4°C to ensure homogenous germination. After cold treatment, the pots were transferred to the plant room for germination and growth.

Waterlogging

Plants were grown as indicated above for ten days (corresponding to L1/L2 stage) for transcriptomic experiments, and for 10-14 d (corresponding to L1/L2 stage) for phenotypic

characterization. The pots were then transferred to a large tub, which was subsequently

filled with tap water up to 1 cm above soil level. The water level was kept constant

throughout the duration of the experiment (Figure 1A). The plants were kept in the same

growth conditions and were treated for 15 d for phenotypic characterization, or for shorter

periods of time, as indicated in the text. Control plants were left in the same growth

conditions but received normal watering (every two days, avoiding any standing water in

the trays). For the recovery period, plants were taken out of the water and kept in the same

growth conditions with a normal watering regime.

Height measurements

Plant height was taken from the soil surface to the tip of the tallest leaf at the indicated

time points.

Total RNA extraction

Roots of plants grown under control conditions or subjected to waterlogging for were rinsed

under running tap water, and frozen in liquid nitrogen. The tissue was ground in liquid

nitrogen and total RNA was extracted using Spectrum™ Plant Total RNA kit (Sigma-Aldrich).

Reverse transcription coupled to quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR)

Total RNA was reverse transcribed using an oligo(dT)$_{18}$ primer and the RevertAid reverse

transcriptase (Thermo) according to the manufacturer's instructions. For reverse

transcription reactions, 1 µg of total RNA was used. cDNA obtained was used for qPCR with

a Lightcycler 480 (Roche). Each PCR reaction mix contained 5 µL of 2x SYBR green master 1

(Roche), 1 µL cDNA, 1 µL of 10 µM primers and 3 µL of molecular biology grade water.

LightCycler melting curves were obtained to check for single peak melting curves for all

amplification products. The second derivative maximum method was used to analyze the

amplification data. The resulting Cp values were converted into relative expression values

using the comparative Ct method (Livak and Schmittgen, 2001). All primer sequences are

provided in Supp. Table S2. One reference gene (Hv*ACTIN*) was used to normalize the RT-

qPCR data following the screening of a set of reference genes during waterlogging (Supp.
Fig. S1).

Next-generation sequencing of RNA samples

For RNA-seq analysis, waterlogging treatment was applied as outlined above for 24 h. For
each independent replicate and each condition (waterlogged or untreated), the root
systems of 3 plants were pooled prior to grinding for RNA extraction. Following RNA
extraction, RNA integrity was assessed using an Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent). All RNA
samples had RIN values > 7.0. Library preparation and next-generation sequencing were
performed by BGI Genomics (Hong Kong) using the DNBseq sequencing platform.

Analysis of RNA-seq data

The third release (Morex V3) of the Morex barley genome was downloaded from e!DAL -
Plant Genomics and Phenomics Research Data Repository (PGP) (https://edal-pgp.ipk-
gatersleben.de/) (Mascher, 2021). Raw RNA-sequencing reads were aligned to Morex V3
using *bowtie2* (v2.4.5) (Langmead and Salzberg, 2012). Files were converted from .sam to
.bam files and indexed using *samtools* (v1.15.1) (Danecek *et al.*, 2021). Gene abundance was
estimated using *stringtie* (v2.1.7) (Pertea *et al.*, 2015) (Supp. Table S3). Differential gene
expression analysis was performed using the Bioconductor package *DeSeq2* (Love *et al.*,
2014) in *R* (Team, 2022) using a design in which the factors Variety and Treatment were
combined into a single factor to model multiple condition effects. The results of multiple
comparisons were extracted and filtered by adjusted *p*-value < 0.05 (Supp. Table S4).
Principal component analysis (PCA) was performed using *pcaExplorer* (v2.20.2) (Marini and
Binder, 2019) in *RStudio* (v2022.02.0+443). Gene ontology (GO) analysis was performed
using *ShinyGO* (v0.75c) (Ge *et al.*, 2020). Read count values were transformed by variance
stabilising transformations (VST) to normalise for library size and composition (Supp. Table
S5). Venn diagrams were generated using InteractiVenn (Heberle *et al.*, 2015).

The means of VST read counts from 3 independent replicates generated from
DeSeq2 were filtered for *k*-means clustering as follows. *Deseq2* DEG analysis was performed
and results for the 25 comparisons shown in Supp. Fig S6A were extracted. A list of all

11,613 DEGs filtered by adjusted *p*-value < 0.05 was generated by combining DEGs from waterlogged to control samples from the same variety, DEGs from each control to every other control sample and DEGs from each waterlogged to every other waterlogged sample. Next, the DEGs with a mean of <10 normalised reads were removed leaving 10,882 genes for clustering analysis. Clustering analysis was performed using the *k*-means function in *R* (v3.6.2) with the arguments centers=25, nstart = 1000, iter.max = 300 and algorithm = "Lloyd" (gene cluster assignment annotated in (Supp. Table S4)). Clustering heatmaps were generated using *ComplexHeatmap* (v2.10.0) (Gu *et al.*, 2016) in *R*. Plots were generated using *ggplot2* (v3.3.6) (Wickam, 2016) and modified for style in Adobe Illustrator 2022.

To compare the datasets obtained to a previously published RNA-seq dataset, data presented in the supplementary materials of Borrego-Benjumea *et al*. were collated (Borrego-Benjumea *et al.*, 2020). This list included a subsection of DEGs of interest filtered by adjusted *p*-value < 0.05. To directly compare the data presented here to the results from Borrego-Benjumea *et al*. (Borrego-Benjumea *et al.*, 2020), raw RNA-sequencing reads were aligned to the same version of the barley genome used in this previous study as described above (Supp. Table S6, Supp. Table S7). The second release (Morex IBSC 2 V1 2016) of the Morex Barley genome was downloaded from the IPK Galaxy Blast Suite.

Results

Identification of barley varieties sensitive or tolerant to waterlogging

It has been shown that plants constitutively expressing hypoxia response genes are more tolerant to waterlogging than wild-type plants (*e.g.* N-degron pathway mutant plants that constitutively accumulate ERF-VII transcription factors (Gibbs *et al.*, 2011; Licausi *et al.*, 2011; Mendiondo *et al.*, 2016)). Plants ectopically expressing specific hypoxia response genes such as *HEMOGLOBIN1 (HB1)* (De Castro *et al.*, 2022; Thiel *et al.*, 2011)) are also more tolerant to waterlogging, and in the case of *HB1*, there also appears to be a positive correlation between the level of gene expression and waterlogging tolerance. Other genes of interest, whose expression is important for hypoxia tolerance, include *ALCOHOL DEHYDROGENASE 1 (ADH1)* and *PYRUVATE DECARBOXYLASE 1 (PDC1)*, both of which are involved in ethanol fermentation (Banti *et al.*, 2013) and the plants' ability to continue

producing ATP *via* glycolysis during waterlogging. Prior to monitoring the expression of

these selected hypoxia response genes with the aim of screening for barley varieties that

show differential up-regulation of these genes (*i.e.* that are potentially either sensitive or

tolerant to waterlogging), we tested 5 different reference genes previously used in barley

(Mendiondo *et al.*, 2016; Walling *et al.*, 2018) to identify those whose expression was stable

in waterlogged roots. To this end, barley plants of the *Golden Promise* variety were

subjected to waterlogging stress for 8 h, 1 d or 4 d, and roots were collected for RNA

extraction and RT-qPCR analysis. This analysis identified Hv*ACTIN* as a suitable reference

gene in waterlogged roots (Supp. Figure S1).

Next, we monitored the expression of Hv*HB*, Hv*ADH1* and Hv*PDC1* in root tissue at

different time points after the beginning of waterlogging treatment. Four different varieties

were used in order to determine the suitability of these genes to screen for differential

expression between varieties. This analysis indicated that (i) the expression of these 3

hypoxia response genes peaked around 1 d after the onset of waterlogging treatment; (ii)

there were differences between the 4 varieties in terms of the amplitude of the

transcriptional up-regulation (Supp. Figure S2). For example, at 1 d after the beginning of

the waterlogging treatment, Hv*HB* was expressed at higher levels in *Pilastro* compared to

Arma, *Tapir* and *Masquerade*. In addition, the up-regulation of Hv*HB* and Hv*ADH1* was

stronger than that of Hv*PDC1*, possibly making these first two genes more suitable to

identify varieties with differential regulation of the hypoxia response program and

potentially revealing differences between varieties for their tolerance/sensitivity to

waterlogging.

We next tested the expression of Hv*HB*, Hv*ADH1* and Hv*PDC1* in 20 different winter

barley varieties from the AGOUEB collection, which were selected because of their

differential response to waterlogging in field experiments (Byrne *et al.*, 2021). The variety

Golden Promise was also included, as a model (spring) barley variety that is widely used in

the community to generate targeted mutations using *Agrobacterium*-mediated

transformation. Plants were subjected to waterlogging for 24 h, at which time point, the

roots were harvested for RNA extraction and gene expression analysis (Figure 1A). Under

normal watering conditions (mock treatment), most varieties had low levels of expression

for each of the hypoxia-response genes tested (Figures 1B, 1C and Supp. Figure S3). One

exception was *Pilastro*, which had a higher expression level of Hv*HB* under normal watering.

This may be relevant to *Pilastro*'s ability to tolerate waterlogging stress, as plants having

constitutively higher expression of hypoxia-response genes or ectopically expressing *HB*

have been shown to be more tolerant to waterlogging (De Castro *et al.*, 2022; Mendiondo *et*

al., 2016; Thiel *et al.*, 2011). Waterlogging stress for 24 h triggered the up-regulation of the

three hypoxia response genes tested, with some varieties showing a stronger induction. As

previously (Supp. Figure S2), differences were more marked with Hv*HB* and Hv*ADH1* (Figure

1B, C) compared to Hv*PDC1* (Supp. Figure S3). The latter gene was therefore not further

considered to distinguish between varieties that could be more sensitive or tolerant to

waterlogging. After 1 d of waterlogging, some varieties reached higher expression levels

than the average expression observed for these genes in the population of 21 varieties.

These included *Pilastro* and *Regina* for both Hv*HB* and Hv*ADH1*, as well as *Dura*, *Vesuvius*,

Siberia, *Mahogany* and *Tamaris* for Hv*ADH1*. These varieties could potentially have better

waterlogging tolerance. In contrast, some varieties had a reduced up-regulation of hypoxia

response genes. For example, varieties such as *Golden Promise*, *Passport*, *Isa*, *Louise* and

Retriever had lower expression levels of both Hv*HB* and Hv*ADH1* compared to the average

of the population. These could be potential waterlogging sensitive barley varieties. Other

varieties, such as *Infinity*, had average expression levels of Hv*HB* and Hv*ADH1* after 1 d of

waterlogging treatment.

Based on these results, *Pilastro* and *Regina* were chosen as 6-row and 2-row

varieties, respectively, for the further characterization of possible waterlogging tolerant

varieties, while *Passport* was selected as a 6-row variety that might be more sensitive to

waterlogging. To select a 2-row variety that could be potentially more sensitive to

waterlogging, we also took into account previously published phenotypic data that had

identified *Infinity* as being waterlogging sensitive (Miricescu *et al.*, 2021). *Golden Promis*e

was also included as a reference variety.

Effect of waterlogging on the growth of selected varieties

The selected varieties were subjected to waterlogging for 2 weeks and were then returned

to normal watering for an additional 6-week period. We have previously shown that under

these conditions, waterlogging tolerant and sensitive varieties can be distinguished

(Miricescu *et al.*, 2021). Height measurements showed that the growth of *Infinity* and

Passport was more affected by waterlogging than that of *Pilastro*, *Regina* and *Golden*

Promise, whose height was mostly unaffected relative to control plants (Figure 2A). Tiller

count after a 6-week recovery period indicated that *Golden Promise*, *Infinity* and *Pilastro*

produced fewer tillers, whereas *Regina* was largely unaffected (Figure 2B). The effect

observed for *Passport* was not statistically significant. Because root traits have been shown

to be important for waterlogging tolerance (Zhang *et al.*, 2015), we determined the length

of the primary root, as well as the number of seminal roots after 2 weeks of waterlogging.

We found that the length of the primary root was reduced upon waterlogging stress for all

varieties except *Regina* (Supp. Figure S3B). In contrast, in response to waterlogging, the

number of seminal roots increased in all varieties and the difference was statistically

significant for all except *Infinity* (Figure 2C). Hence, this phenotypic characterization largely

confirmed the initial variety selection for RNA-seq analysis: (i) *Pilastro* and *Regina* as 6-row

and 2-row varieties (respectively) that are waterlogging tolerant; and (ii) *Passport* and

Infinity as 6-row and 2-row (respectively) waterlogging-sensitive varieties. Finally, based on

the data obtained, *Golden Promise* can be considered as a putative waterlogging-sensitive

variety (Figure 2D).

Overview of transcriptional responses to waterlogging in root tissue of selected varieties

To determine the transcriptional response of *Pilastro*, *Regina*, *Passport*, *Infinity* and *Golden*

Promise to waterlogging, we subjected these varieties to waterlogging for 24 h. We then

extracted RNA from roots and performed RNA-seq analysis. Reads obtained were aligned to

the Morex barley genome (version 3; Supp. Table S3) and differential gene expression

(adjusted *p*-value < 0.05) was determined for each of the waterlogged varieties relative to

the corresponding untreated variety (Supp. Table S4). A Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

on sample expression profiles (Figure 3 and Supp. Figure S4) indicated that the samples can

be separated based on (i) the treatment itself (PC1: 35.82% variance) (Figure 3A); (ii)

whether they are winter or spring varieties (PC2: 15.64% variance; Supp. Figure S4D); or (iii)

whether they are 2-row or 6-row varieties (PC3: 11.34% variance; Supp. Figure S4E).

Notably, the different samples could also be separated based on whether the varieties had

been categorized as either sensitive or tolerant (Figure 3B; PC4: 9.92% variance), thus

providing a validation for the selection and categorization of the varieties.

The number of DEGs we detected under waterlogging in the different varieties

varied considerably: for *Golden Promise* and *Passport* we identified 220 and 592 DEGs

(respectively), while *Infinity*, *Pilastro* and *Regina* had a substantially higher number of DEGs

(1,307, 1,512, and 1,233, respectively). In all varieties tested, the proportion of up-regulated

genes was higher than that of down-regulated genes (Figure 3C). We verified in our datasets

the expression of the Hv*HB*, Hv*ADH1* and Hv*PDC1* genes whose up-regulation was used to

monitor the response of the different varieties to waterlogging, and compared the RNA-seq

results to those of the RT-qPCR experiments (Figure 1). Induction of all three genes upon

waterlogging was found (Figure 3D). Although relative differences between varieties were

not always identified for Hv*ADH1*, the relative behaviour of the different varieties for Hv*HB*

expression was conserved, including the higher expression of Hv*HB* in *Pilastro* in the

absence of waterlogging. We further identified additional homologs of Hv*ADH1* and Hv*HB*

and confirmed that these homologs were also up-regulated in response to waterlogging

(Supp. Figure S5A and B).

Both conserved and divergent transcriptional reprogramming occurs in response to

waterlogging in barley

Our RNA-seq experiment identified 2,865 genes that were differentially expressed (adjusted

p-value < 0.05) in at least one variety under waterlogged conditions compared to control

plants (Supp. Table S4). The variety with the highest proportion of unique DEGs was *Pilastro*

(>50% unique DEGs), while the majority of DEGs identified for *Golden Promise* and *Passport*

were shared with other varieties (Figure 4A) (<25% unique DEGs in these 2 varieties).

Among these 2,865 DEGs, 1,078 genes were called as differentially expressed in more than

one variety. Except for 7 genes, the directionality of gene expression change was the same

in all the different varieties. As expected based on the transcriptional response of

Arabidopsis to waterlogging, Gene Ontology (GO) analysis on the 1,811 DEGs that were up-

regulated under waterlogging in at least one variety identified over-represented terms

related to hormone and stress responses, oxidoreductase activity, kinase activity, as well as

carbohydrate metabolic processes (Figure 4B and D). GO analysis of the 1,061 DEGs that

were down-regulated in response to waterlogging identified terms related to lipid and carbohydrate metabolism, transmembrane transporter activities and cell periphery, as well as oxidoreductase activity and proteolysis (Figure 4C and E). All of these terms are consistent with functional GO categories known to be central to the transcriptional response of plants to waterlogging.

A total of 98 genes were detected as differentially expressed in all varieties tested (Figure 4A). In addition, the directionality of the observed expression changes was the same across all datasets. Hence, these genes may be used to define a set of core waterlogging response genes in barley. The majority of these genes were up-regulated in response to waterlogging (82 genes; Figure 4B and Supp. Table S4) and included homologs of known core hypoxia response genes in Arabidopsis (Mustroph *et al.*, 2009) such as *ADH1* (HORVU.MOREX.r3.4HG0345760, HORVU.MOREX.r3.1HG0082960 and HORVU.MOREX.r3.4HG0345740), *PDC1* (HORVU.MOREX.r3.4HG0384560), *HB1* (HORVU.MOREX.r3.4HG0394960, HORVU.MOREX.r3.7HG0715010) and a respiratory burst oxidase (*RBOH*) (HORVU.MOREX.r3.5HG0444960). Furthermore, this set included homologs of ERF-VII transcription factors, such as *HRE1* (HORVU.MOREX.r3.4HG0405650 and HORVU.MOREX.r3.4HG0405650), *HRE2* (HORVU.MOREX.r3.5HG0497970) and *RAP2.3*, (HORVU.MOREX.r3.1HG0060770). This result is in agreement with the central role of ERF-VII transcription factors as master regulators of hypoxia and waterlogging response. Sixteen DEGs common to all datasets were down-regulated in response to waterlogging (Figure 4C), including three peroxidase genes (HORVU.MOREX.r3.2HG0215440, HORVU.MOREX.r3.2HG0119650, HORVU.MOREX.r3.2HG0119630) a nitrate transporter (HORVU.MOREX.r3.7HG0700030), and an aldehyde dehydrogenase (HORVU.MOREX.r3.2HG0173750). GO analysis of the core set of 98 DEGs (Figure 4F) revealed largely similar terms to those identified for all up-regulated DEGs (Figure 4D), including GO terms such as oxidoreductase activity, carbohydrate metabolic process, and hormone-mediated signaling.

We next compared our RNA-seq results to a previously published RNA-seq dataset and to QTLs identified based on waterlogging-related root and yield traits. In a recent publication, Borrego-Benjumea *et al*. analyzed the transcriptomic response of 2-week-old *Yerong* and *Deder2* barley roots waterlogged for 72 or 120 h (Borrego-Benjumea *et al.*,

2020). Both varieties had been chosen because of their tolerance to waterlogging (Li *et al.*, 2008; Takeda, 1989). To facilitate the comparison between the different datasets, we repeated the analysis of our RNA-seq data using the same version of the barley genome that was used by Borrego-Benjumea *et al* (*i.e*. Morex version 1). This resulted in the identification of 1,726 up-regulated genes and 1,236 down-regulated genes in at least one of the varieties in our experiment (adjusted *p*-value <0.05). Despite the differences in the barley varieties, in the age of the plants and in the duration of the waterlogging treatment, a statistically significant overlap was observed between both the up and down-regulated genes in our datasets and in the list of DEGs presented by Borrego-Benjumea *et al*. (Supp. Figure S5C and Supp. Table S7) (Borrego-Benjumea *et al.*, 2020). GO analysis of the 52 DEGs that were up-regulated in all datasets identified terms related to alcohol dehydrogenase activity, metabolism and detoxification (Supp. Figure S5D), again in agreement with known key aspects of plant responses to waterlogging. Genes associated with nitrate transport and oxygen response were found among the 11 shared down-regulated genes. We also compared our data to a list of 28 genes located in QTLs for waterlogging tolerance that were identified following a screen of nearly 700 barley varieties with a specific focus on root traits known to be relevant (*i.e.* the formation of adventitious roots and of root cortical aerenchyma) (Manik *et al.*, 2022). Two potassium transporter genes that are part of these 28 genes were down-regulated in *Regina* after waterlogging (Supp. Table S7), which may be of relevance to the previously shown importance of potassium flux during waterlogging (Gill *et al.*, 2018). Comparison with another list of 48 candidate genes located in QTLs identified in a waterlogging field trial focused on growth and yield parameters with nearly 250 barley varieties identified a single gene with unknown function (HORVU2Hr1G011650) that was significantly down-regulated in *Pilastro* under waterlogging (Supp. Table S7). This particular gene was also identified as a candidate that contained significant SNPs associated with waterlogging tolerance under control conditions (Borrego-Benjumea *et al.*, 2021).

Identification of unique expression signatures in putative waterlogging-tolerant and sensitive varieties

To compare the responses to waterlogging between varieties, *k*-means clustering was performed on 10,882 genes identified as differentially expressed (adjusted *p*-value <0.05) in:

(i) at least one variety when comparing waterlogged to control samples for each variety, or

(ii) between the control samples (*i.e.* these have intrinsic differential expression between at

least 2 varieties in the absence of waterlogging), or (iii) between the waterlogged samples

from different varieties (*i.e.*, genes that are differentially expressed between at least 2

varieties under waterlogging) (Supp. Figure S6). Clustering analysis revealed distinct gene

expression patterns between samples (Figure 5A). A number of clusters contained genes

that were up-regulated in multiple varieties in response to waterlogging compared to

untreated plants (*i.e.* clusters 4, 7, 8, 14, and 21). Cluster 14 comprised 802 genes, the

largest in any of these clusters (Supp. Table S4). The centroid expression of genes in cluster

14 was consistently higher in response to waterlogging in all varieties (Figure 5B and Supp.

Figure S7). Cluster 14 included homologs of known hypoxia response genes such as those

described above in the core set of up-regulated DEGs in barley, as well as homologs of

Arabidopsis *RAP2.12* (HORVU.MOREX.r3.5HG0481240), additional homologs of *RAP2.3*,

(HORVU.MOREX.r3.2HG0112960), and homologs of *ADH1* (HORVU.MOREX.r3.2HG0115170,

HORVU.MOREX.r3.3HG0252910) (Supp. Figure S5A and B). Furthermore, a number of

transcription factors (TFs) from the ERF, bHLH, bZIP (basic leucine zipper), NAC (NAM,

ATAF1,2, CUC2) and WRKY families were also identified in cluster 14 (Supp. Table S4).

Notably transcription factors belonging to these families have established and conserved

roles in the regulation of hypoxia response (Lee and Bailey-Serres, 2021; Mustroph *et al.*,

2010; Reynoso *et al.*, 2019). GO analysis of the 802 genes in cluster 14 identified terms

related to hormone and stress responses, oxidoreductase and kinase activity and

metabolism (Figure 5C).

Clusters comprising genes that are down-regulated in response to waterlogging in

multiple varieties include clusters 5, 9, 13, 15, 20 and 24. Cluster 9 contained 435 genes that

were down-regulated in response to waterlogging (Figure 5D and Supp. Figure S7), including

14 of the 16 genes that were down-regulated in waterlogged samples from all varieties

(Supp. Table S4). Among these genes was an aminotransferase

(HORVU.MOREX.r3.2HG0190680), whose top-scoring Arabidopsis homolog is γ-

aminobutyric acid transaminase (GABA-T; AT3G22200). In Arabidopsis, the expression of this

gene is reduced in response to hypoxia, leading to an accumulation of GABA (Branco-Price

et al., 2008). Another member of cluster 9 whose expression was downregulated in all

varieties in response to waterlogging is a cation exchanger

(HORVU.MOREX.r3.3HG0266310). In Arabidopsis, the closely related Ca^{2+}/proton exchanger

11 (CAX11) is important to maintain cytosolic Ca^{2+} homeostasis and was shown to be down-

regulated in response to hypoxia and waterlogging (Wang *et al.*, 2016). Multiple

transcription factors from the heat-shock and MYB transcription factor families were also

found in cluster 9. This is consistent with the observation that differentially expressed MYB

transcription factors were predominantly found to be down-regulated in response to

waterlogging in *Yerong* and *Deder2* (Borrego-Benjumea *et al.*, 2020). GO analysis of the 435

genes in cluster 9 showed an enrichment for terms related to lipid and carbohydrate

metabolism, transmembrane transporter activities and cell periphery (Figure 5E), similarly

to the GO terms identified in all genes down-regulated in response to waterlogging (Figure

4E).

Clustering analysis also identified gene expression signatures that were specific to

either the waterlogging-tolerant or sensitive varieties. Specifically, cluster 1 (257 genes)

contained genes whose expression was highest in the waterlogging-sensitive barley varieties

Golden Promise and *Infinity*, and intermediate in *Passport* (considered as a sensitive variety).

In contrast, the expression of these genes was markedly lower in the two waterlogging-

tolerant varieties *Pilastro* and *Regina* (Figure 5F and Figure S7). GO analysis of genes in

cluster 1 identified terms related to catabolic and metabolic processes (Figure 5G), which

could be relevant to waterlogging tolerance/sensitivity. In contrast, genes in cluster 16 (359

genes) had an opposite behavior, in that they were more highly expressed in waterlogging-

tolerant varieties, but were only expressed at low levels in the 3 waterlogging-sensitive

varieties (Figure 5H and Figure S7). GO analysis of genes in cluster 16 revealed an

enrichment for genes associated with diverse processes found in other clusters or sets of

genes, except the term 'nicotianamine metabolic process' which was only found in the GO

analysis of cluster 16 genes. This GO term relates to metal (including iron) homeostasis,

which could be of relevance to waterlogging stress tolerance because of the increased

uptake of metals and their toxicity to plants in waterlogged conditions. Notably, genes in

clusters 1 and 16 were not differentially expressed in response to waterlogging. Instead, it is

their intrinsic (or varietal-specific) expression level that may contribute to waterlogging

tolerance or sensitivity.

Discussion

Maintaining yields in the context of global climate change is a challenge, as crops are likely to experience a wider range of stresses simultaneously or sequentially. Accordingly, efforts are now made to improve crop resilience to multiple abiotic and biotic stresses, as opposed to tolerance to a specific stress. At the same time, the trade-off between the gain of new traits and yield also requires careful consideration (Bailey-Serres *et al.*, 2019). Waterlogging in particular causes important crop losses and will become more prevalent in some regions. Several QTLs have been identified with genes that could be targeted to improve crop tolerance to waterlogging. However, the role of these candidate genes often needs to be validated, and their suitability to improve crop waterlogging tolerance also needs to be demonstrated in many cases. Alternatively, targeted mutations in genes coding for key hypoxia response components, such as genes of the N-degron protein degradation pathway, have yielded Arabidopsis and barley lines that are more tolerant to waterlogging and other abiotic stresses (Mendiondo *et al.*, 2016; Vicente *et al.*, 2017), albeit with a potential trade-off on their ability to resist infection by some pathogens (de Marchi *et al.*, 2016; Gravot *et al.*, 2016; Vicente *et al.*, 2019).

Barley is an essential crop that exhibits considerable difference in the sensitivity to waterlogging depending on the variety. The identification of potential candidate genes that can be targeted or used as markers to identify waterlogging tolerant varieties would be of major importance. One approach to identifying candidate targets and markers is the comparison of genome-wide transcriptional responses of varieties that are either tolerant or sensitive to waterlogging. To date, few transcriptomic datasets have been generated using barley waterlogged samples, and to the best of our knowledge there has not been a transcriptional comparison between waterlogging sensitive and tolerant varieties. Here, we identified winter barley varieties with different levels of sensitivity/tolerance to waterlogging based on the expression of known core hypoxia response genes and the effect of waterlogging treatment on their growth. We then performed RNA-seq on the roots of these selected varieties under waterlogging and normal watering conditions. In agreement with transcriptional studies done on other plants and crops (Lee *et al.*, 2011; Lee and Bailey-Serres, 2021; Mustroph *et al.*, 2010; Reynoso *et al.*, 2019; van Veen *et al.*, 2016), our RNA-

seq datasets indicate that the transcriptional reprogramming that accompanies the onset of

waterlogging response in barley involves cellular processes such as carbohydrate metabolic

processes, regulation of oxidative stress, and metal homeostasis.

By identifying those genes whose transcriptional regulation in response to

waterlogging is conserved amongst the 5 barley varieties used, a set of 98 core waterlogging

response genes in barley was defined. Many of these core waterlogging response genes are

homologs of core hypoxia response genes defined in Arabidopsis (Mustroph *et al.*, 2009)

and are involved in processes known to be important for the waterlogging response,

including cell wall metabolism, ethylene biosynthesis and signalling, carbohydrate

metabolism and ROS regulation. Multiple transcription factors belonging to the ERF, bHLH,

and WRKY families, which are known to be important for the onset of the waterlogging

response program, are also among these core barley waterlogging response genes. Hence,

our data confirms that the gene regulatory network that controls waterlogging response is

conserved amongst monocots and dicots, as suggested based on previous comparisons

which did not include barley data (Mustroph *et al.*, 2010; Tamura and Bono, 2022). In

addition, it is possible that some of these core waterlogging response genes in barley could

serve as markers for waterlogging response or tolerance, if the amplitude of their gene

expression change correlates with waterlogging tolerance.

Clustering analysis of the different DEGs further identified groups of genes that are

intrinsically differentially expressed between waterlogging tolerant and sensitive varieties.

These genes could constitute variety-specific waterlogging susceptibility or tolerance factors

in barley, so that either their inactivation *via* mutagenesis, or their constitutive expression in

plants may allow the development of barley varieties with increased tolerance to

waterlogging. Validating this idea would require (i) studying the function of these genes; and

(ii) generating barley plants that are mutated or that constitutively express these different

genes. Potential trade-offs on other traits of agronomic relevance and on resilience to other

abiotic and biotic stresses would also need to be assessed. Considering the variety of gene

functions present in these clusters, it is however difficult to predict which genes (or gene

families) are most likely to be of potential relevance to crop improvement. Their association

with GWAS and QTL identification would most likely help to pinpoint the best candidates.

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Author contributions

AM, AJB and EG conducted experiments; AJB, AM, JB, FW and EG analyzed RNA-seq datasets and wrote the manuscript.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

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Data availability

The datasets supporting the results of this article are included within the article (and its supplemental files). RNA-seq data have been deposited with the Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) repository (at http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/) under GSExxxxx. *Note to reviewers*: the data has been submitted and the authors are waiting for reference number.

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Figures

Figure 1: Differential expression of selected hypoxia response genes in 21 different barley varieties. (A) Experimental design of waterlogging experiments (see Materials and Methods for details). (B) Hv*HB* expression relative to *ACTIN* in mock-treated (open symbols) and waterlogged (blue symbols) plants after 1 d of treatment. The dashed line corresponds to the average relative expression of Hv*HB* for waterlogged samples of all varieties and replicates. (C) Hv*ADH1* expression relative to *ACTIN* in mock-treated (open symbols) and waterlogged (blue symbols) plants after 1 d of treatment. The dashed line corresponds to the average relative expression of Hv*ADH1* for waterlogged samples of all varieties and replicates. Data shown in (B) and (C) are from three independent replicates, except for *Golden Promise* for which 4 independent replicates were used. Each independent replicate

909   was obtained by pooling the root systems from 3 plants prior to grinding for RNA extraction.

910   Note: expression values for *Infinity* in (B) and (C) were published in (Miricescu *et al.*, 2021).

Figure 2: Effect of waterlogging on shoot and root growth. (A) Plant height after 14 d of waterlogging and a 6-week recovery period. For *Golden Promise*, *Passport* and *Pilastro*, three independent replicates (4 plants per replicate) were carried out. For *Regina* and *Infinity*, two independent replicates (4 plants per replicate) and 3 independent replicates (4 to 9 plants per replicate) were carried out, respectively. (B) Number of tillers after 14 d of waterlogging and a 6-week recovery period. For *Golden Promise*, *Passport* and *Pilastro*, three independent replicates (4 plants per replicate) were carried out. For *Regina* and *Infinity*, data from three independent replicates are presented (4 to 7 plants per replicate for *Regina*, and 4 to 9 plants per replicate for *Infinity*). (C) Number of seminal roots after 14 d of waterlogging. For *Golden Promise*, *Passport*, and *Pilastro*, three independent replicates (2 to 4 plants per replicate) were carried out. For *Regina*, 2 independent replicates were conducted (4 plants per replicate). For *Infinity*, 4 independent replicates were carried out (4 plants per replicate). (D) Summary of variety category based on at least 3 out of 5 criteria being consistent with the plants being either sensitive or tolerant. Orange: sensitive to waterlogging; blue: tolerant to waterlogging; grey: inconclusive. In (A-C), data from different replicates is color coded. Statistical analysis: multiple unpaired t-test with multiple comparison correction (Holm-Sidak method). Asterisks: * p≤ 0.05; ** p≤0.01; *** p≤0.001; **** p≤0.0001; ns: not statistically significant.

Figure 3: Results of RNA-seq experiments . (A) PCA plot showing Principal Component 2
(PC2) *versus* PC1 with ellipses showing sample grouping by treatment. (B) PCA plot showing
PC4 versus PC3. Ellipses show sample grouping based on sensitivity/tolerance to
waterlogging. (C) Absolute number of DEGs (filtered by adjusted *p*-value<0.05) in
waterlogged *versus* control samples for each variety. (D) Boxplots showing variance
stabilised transformed (VST) read counts for Hv*HB* (HORVU.MOREX.r3.4HG0394960),
Hv*ADH1* (HORVU.MOREX.r3.4HG0345760.1) and Hv*PDC1* (HORVU.MOREX.r3.4HG0384560)
in control and waterlogged samples (*Golden Promise* (GP), *Infinity* (Inf), *Passport* (Pas),
Pilastro (Pil) and *Regina* (Reg)).

Figure 4: Identification of core waterlogging response genes in barley. (A) Overlap between

the DEGs identified in the different varieties. (B) Overlap analysis of genes up-regulated in

waterlogged samples compared to control samples for each variety. (C) Overlap between

datasets for genes that are down-regulated in waterlogged samples compared to the

controls in each variety. (D) The 30 most highly enriched GO terms among the 1,811 DEGs

that are up-regulated in at least one variety in response to waterlogging. (E) The 30 most

highly enriched GO terms enriched among the 1,061 DEGs that are down-regulated in any

variety in response to waterlogging. (F) The 20 most enriched GO terms among the 98 core

DEGs common to all varieties when comparing waterlogged to control samples for each

variety.

Figure 5: Clustering analysis of DEGs in waterlogged compared to control samples reveals

gene expression signatures in waterlogging tolerant and sensitive varieties. (A) Heatmap

showing the results of *k*-means clustering (*k*=25) of 10,882 DEGs (see Supp. Figure S6A for

selection criteria). Image generated using *ComplexHeatmap* in *R*. (B) Plot of centroid

expression for genes in cluster 14. (C) The 20 most highly enriched GO terms among the 802

genes identified in cluster 14. (D) Plot of centroid expression for DEGs in cluster 9. (E) The 20

most highly enriched GO terms among the 435 genes identified in cluster 9. (F) Plot of

965   centroid expression for genes in cluster 1. (G) The 20 most highly enriched GO terms among

966   the 257 genes from cluster 1. (H) Plot of centroid expression for genes in cluster 16. (I) The

967   20 most highly enriched GO terms among the 359 genes from cluster 16.