# Barley FASCIATED EAR genes determine inflorescence meristem size and yield traits 

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## A R T I C L E I N F O

## Article history:

Received 25 June 2022
Revised 7 September 2022
Accepted 6 October 2022
Available online 25 October 2022

## Keywords:

Inflorescence meristem
Yield traits
FASCIATED EAR genes
Gene expression
Barley


#### Abstract

In flowering plants, the inflorescence meristem (IM) provides founder cells to form successive floral meristems, which are precursors of fruits and seeds. The activity and developmental progression of IM are thus critical for yield production in seed crops. In some cereals, such as rice (Oryza sativa) and maize (Zea mays), the size of undifferentiated IM, which is located at the inflorescence apex, is positively associated with yield traits such as spikelet number. However, the relationship between IM size and yieldrelated spike traits remains unknown in the Triticeae tribe. Here we report that IM size has a negative correlation with yield traits in barley (Hordeum vulgare). Three FASCIATED EAR (FEA) orthologs, HvFEA2, $H v F E A 3$, and $H v F E A 4$, regulate IM size and spike morphogenesis and ultimately affect yield traits. Three $H \nu F E A s$ genes are highly expressed in developing spikes, and all three loss-of-function mutants exhibit enlarged IM size, shortened spikes, and reduced spikelet number, which may lead to reduced grain yield. Natural variations identified in HvFEAs indicate selection events during barley domestication. We further reveal that HvFEA4, as a transcription factor, potentially targets multiple pathways during reproductive development, including transcriptional control, phytohormone signaling, and redox status. The roles of barley FEA genes in limiting IM size and promoting spikelet formation suggest the potential of increasing yield by manipulating IM activity. © 2022 Crop Science Society of China and Institute of Crop Science, CAAS. Production and hosting by Elsevier B.V. on behalf of KeAi Communications Co., Ltd. This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-


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## 1. Introduction

Plant inflorescence structures initially derive from the inflorescence meristem (IM), a group of stem cells that are responsible for initiating lateral primordia such as those of branches and flowers [1,2]. In cereal crops, grain yield is determined mainly by the number of inflorescences per plant, kernel number per inflorescence, and kernel dimensions [3,4]. Among these factors, inflorescence architecture determines the capacity and arrangement of kernels, such as a panicle in rice, an ear in maize, and a spike in wheat (Triticum aestivum L.) and barley [4,5]. The phase shift from vegetative shoot apical meristem (SAM) to reproductive IM is elaborately regulated and characterized by morphological changes starting with the rapid increase of meristem size [1,4,6]. The IM then starts

[^0]to initiate branch primordia or spikelet meristems, followed by the formation of spikelets and florets. The programming of IM activity varies to form varied inflorescence architectures.

Meristem size and phase transition from SAM to IM are found to be controlled by the CLAVATA (CLV) -WUSCHEL (WUS) negative feedback pathway [2,7-11]. In the dicot plant Arabidopsis thaliana, this pathway involves CLV3, a small peptide recognized by leucinerich repeat receptor kinases CLV1 and CLV2, which acts to restrict the expression domain of the transcription factor gene WUS. WUS consummates the negative feedback loop by stimulating CLV3 expression to maintain meristem homeostasis [1,4,10]. Any loss of function disturbing CLV-WUS loop could lead to changed IM size and activity [12-14]. Similarly, a CLV-WUS pathway underlying meristem size control and inflorescence specification has also been identified in monocot plants such as rice and maize [10]. Rice FLORAL ORGAN NUMBER 1 (FON1) and FON2/4 are orthologs of CLV1 and CLV3, respectively [15-17]. Genetic analysis has revealed that

FON1 and FON2/4 are required for rice SAM size control, IM activity and FM formation [16]. In maize, most members of the CLV-WUS pathway have been identified by gene cloning from mutants showing the fasciated ear (FEA) phenotype. For instance, THICK TASSEL DWARF1 (TD1) and FEA2 are the closest orthologs of Arabidopsis CLV1 and CLV2, respectively [18-20]. ZmCLE7 (CLAVATA3/ESRrelated peptide) and ZmCLE14 have been identified as potential CLV3 orthologs [21]. Loss-of-function mutants display increased IM size and produce more axillary meristems (AMs), thereby forming fasciated ears. The dominant maize mutant Bif3 (Barren inflorescence3), harboring a tandemly duplicated copy of ZmWUS1, also shows increased meristem size, but is unique in initiating only a reduced number of AMs [22], suggesting the complex regulation of CLV-WUS pathway in inflorescence development of monocots. Similar to FEA2 in sequence, FEA3, acting as a new CLV receptor in maize, has been integrated into a regulatory model of CLVWUS feedback [21]. The fea3 mutant shows enlarged IMs with expanded ZmWUS1 expression, also developing into a fasciated ear [21]. Additionally, FEA4 functions as a bZIP transcription factor that restricts meristem size by regulating the expression of genes involved in meristem determinacy, auxin signaling, and redox state, independent of the CLV pathway [23-25]. The maize fea4 mutant exhibits enlarged meristem size and fasciated ear phenotype similar to that of feaz and fea3 [23]. Together, IM maintenance and activity require multiple mechanistically regulatory networks, including CLV-dependent and -independent pathways, but these have been described in few model plants or crops.

Regulation of IM size and activity has been shown to be associated with grain or fruit production in plants [1,4]. Mutations of Arabidopsis CLV1, CLV2, and CLV3 lead to increased numbers of flowers and floral organs [12-14]. Mutations in the tomato CLV pathway genes SICLV3, FASCIATED AND BRANCHED, and FASCIATED INFLORESCENCE also cause enlarged meristems, leading to an increase in inflorescence branching [26,27]. Rice fon2/4 mutants exhibit increased numbers of primary branches, florets, and floral organs. By contrast, overexpression of FON2 leads to a smaller IM with reduced floral organs [16]. In maize fea2 null mutants, owing to a compensatory reduction in kernel size, overall yield does not increase [28]. However, a weak FEA2 allele has been found that confers higher kernel row number and yield [29]. Similarly, the weak allele of FEA3 increases kernel row number [21]. These reports indicate that fine-tuned expression of genes in the CLVWUS pathway functions in yield improvement of cereals, as also shown in maize and tomato by gene editing of CLV3 genes [6,30,31]. Notably, testing of CLV-WUS components' alleles in field trials suggests that applied strategies for the basic knowledge of meristem size regulation have the potential to increase crop yields [10,29].

In Triticeae crops including wheat and barley, the spike meristem contains the undifferentiated IM at the apex and the spikelet meristems (SMs) attach to the axis without forming branches, suggesting the direct effect of IM activity on spikelet number and grain yield $[4,32]$. Several transcription factors have been reported to determine IM and SM identity, including MADS proteins, APETALA2 (AP2), TB1 (Teosinte Branched 1, e.g., VRS5, Six-rowed spike 5) family [33-39], showing either conserved or divergent regulatory functions. However, IM size control and its relationship with yield performance remain largely unknown. In this study, we show that barley IM size appears to be negatively correlated with yield traits of spikes. Three orthologs of maize FEAs, CLV members FEA2 and FEA3, bZIP transcriptional factor FEA4, have been identified in barley by phylogenetic analysis and our previous transcriptome data [40]. Loss of function of HvFEA2, HvFEA3 or HvFEA4 causes increased IM width but reduced spike length and spikelet number, supporting the negative correlation between IM size and yield traits. We also reveal the regulatory mechanism of HvFEA4
in developing barley IM, which potentially affects genes involved in reproduction, transcriptional activity, and hormone signaling. These findings shed light on the mechanism of meristem development involving FEA proteins in barley, giving rise to novel understandings of yield improvement in crops.

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Barley FEA identification and phylogenetic analysis

HvFEAs were identified based on maize FEA2, FEA3, and FEA4 protein sequences from previous studies [18,21,23]. NCBI (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/) and Ensembl Plants (https://plan ts.ensembl.org/index.html) were used to align the protein sequences of HvFEAs and their orthologs in other plants. Sequences of barley FEAs were confirmed in the reference Morex genome database (https://webblast.ipk-gatersleben.de/barley_ibsc/) [41]. For phylogenetic analysis, FEA orthologs (with sequence identity $>60 \%$ ) from other plants, including wheat, rice, and sorghum (Sorghum bicolor) in monocots, and tomato (Solanum lycopersicum), Arabidopsis (Arabidopsis thaliana), tobacco (Nicotiana tabacum) in eudicots, and others, were selected. A Bayesian phylogenetic tree was constructed with BEAST (version 2.3) [42] with the HKY + G ( 5 categories) substitution model and Yule model priors. A Markov chain Monte Carlo chain was run for $5,000,000$ generations with 10\% burn-in until convergence. The final phylogenetic tree was inferred by TreeAnnotator [42], and further annotated with the ggtree (version 1.16.6) package in R [43].

### 2.2. Plant growth conditions and generation of barley mutants

Barley plants of wild type (WT) and mutants were grown in cocopeat soil, under $15{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ in light and $10^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ in dark, with a 16 h photoperiod at $50 \%$ humidity in growth chambers. Barley cultivars used for IM size measurement and spike and seed trait investigation were grown in the field at Waite Campus (University of Adelaide, Australia) and Mianyang city (Sichuan, China).

Nicotiana benthamiana plants were grown in a greenhouse at $23^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ with a 16 h photoperiod. Plants were grown until they had six leaves with the youngest leaf over 1 cm in length. Then the leaves were infiltrated with Agrobacterium. Transformed plants were maintained under weak light in the greenhouse for 48 h until microscopy observation.

The barley (Hordeum vulgare) variety Golden Promise (GP) was used as a donor plant for creating mutants. Two target sequences in the first or second exons of HvFEA2, HvFEA3, and HvFEA4 genes were selected [44]. A Blast search of the target sequences (including PAM, protospacer adjacent motif, NGG) was performed to test their targeting specificity in the barley genome using the IPK database (https://webblast.ipk-gatersleben.de/barley_ibsc/). Two target sites of $H v F E A$ genes were sequenced in GP, and all showed $100 \%$ identity with the reference genome (Morex variety). SgRNA-T1 was driven by the rice promoter OsU6a and sgRNA-T2 was driven by the rice promoter OsU6b [44]. SgRNA expression cassettes of OsU6a-sgRNA-T1 and OsU6b-sgRNA-T2 were amplified from pYLsgRNA-OsU6a and pYLsgRNA-OsU6b plasmids using Phusion High-Fidelity DNA Polymerase (New England BioLabs) and cloned into a binary vector, pYLCRISPR/Cac9P ${ }_{\text {ubi }}-\mathrm{H}$ using Bsal sites as described [44]. Primers used for CRISPR/Cas9 constructs are listed in Table S1.

All constructs were transformed into Agrobacterium tumefaciens AGL1, and tissue transformation was performed using immature embryos of GP plants as previously described [45]. At least $30 \mathrm{~T}_{0}$ transgenic plants from each transformation were obtained. Individual $T_{0}$ plants carrying biallelic or homozygous mutations were
identified by genotyping using a Phire Plant Direct PCR Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and Sanger sequencing.

### 2.3. Phenotyping and scanning electron microscopy (SEM)

Barley spikes and grains were photographed with a Nikon D5600 digital camera. Inflorescence meristems in Golden Promise, hvfea2, hvfea3, and hvfea4 mutants, and selected barley cultivars were photographed under a stereomicroscope (Leica Microsytems Ltd. DFC450) with a digital camera, and IM width (apical undifferentiated region) at W2.0 stage was measured with ImageJ software (https://imagej.net/) as previously described [21,46].

For SEM, spike meristems of different developmental stages from hvfea2, hvfea3, hvfea4, and GP plants were prefixed with $2.5 \%$ glutaraldehyde in phosphate buffer ( pH 7.0 ) at $4^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ overnight. Subsequent treatments followed Li et al. [37]. Samples were observed with a scanning electron microscope (SEM, Hitachi TM100, Hitachi, Japan) as previously described [47].

### 2.4. RNA extraction and $R T-q P C R$

For tissue-specific expression, spike meristems (Waddington stages W2.0, W3.5, W5.0, W7.0 and W9) and barley tissues: 14-day-old young root and young stem, mature leaf, flag leaf, and spikelets, were collected from the wild-type barley plant. For RNA-seq validation, several stages of spike meristems were collected from WT (GP) and fea4 mutants. Total RNA was extracted using TRIzol reagent (Life Technologies). $1.5 \mu \mathrm{~g}$ of total RNA was incubated with $2 \mu \mathrm{~L} 5 \times \mathrm{gDNA}$ Clean Buffer and $1 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ gDNA clean Reagent (Evo M-MLV RT Kit with gDNA Clean for qPCR II AG11711, Accurate Biology) at $42^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 2 min . First-strand cDNA was generated using $1 \mu \mathrm{~L}$ Evo M-MLV RTase Enzyme Mix and RT Primer Mix (Evo M-MLV RT Kit), according to the manufacturer's instructions. cDNA was used as a template for real-time RT-qPCR with a CFX96 Optics Module (BIO-RAD) machine. For reverse transcription quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR) program, DNA was denatured at $95{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 10 min , followed by 45 cycles at $95{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for $10 \mathrm{~s}, 56{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 15 s , and $72{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for 15 s . Gene expression was normalized to the expression levels of the housekeeping gene HvActin7. Primer sequences are listed in Table S1.

### 2.5. In situ mRNA hybridization

Spike meristems from WT plants at stages W2.0 and W3.5 were collected and fixed in FAA (5\% acetic acid, 50\% ethanol, and 3.7\% formaldehyde in water) for 16 h at $4^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. After dehydration in an ethanol series, tissues were embedded in Paraplast Plus (Oxford Labware) and sectioned to 8 - mm thickness with a rotary microtome (YL3-A, Shanghai Instrument Factory). Specific fragments of the coding sequences, 305 bp from HvFEA2 cDNA (645-1551 bp), 289 bp from HvFEA3 cDNA (18-507 bp) and 248 bp from HvFEA4 cDNA (131-981 bp), were amplified by PCR using specific primers fused with the T7 promoter (the primers are listed in Table S1). Digoxigenin-labeled antisense and sense probes were synthesized using primers incorporating the T7 polymerase binding site at the $5^{\prime}$ end using an in vitro transcription kit (Roche) according to the manufacturer's instructions. In situ hybridization assays were performed as previously described [48]. Hybridization with $1.5 \mathrm{ng} \mu \mathrm{L}^{-1}$ digoxigenin-labeled RNA probes, post-hybridization washes, and immunodetection were performed. The slides were incubated with diluted (1:1000) antibody conjugate (anti-digoxigenin-AP; Roche; catalog number, 11093274910) in BSA wash solution and then washed in BSA wash solution ( $3 \times 15 \mathrm{~min}$ ). Images were acquired with an optical microscope (Olympus Nikon E600). The empty slide background was color-matched in Photoshop (Adobe) for comparison among slides.

### 2.6. Protein subcellular localization

To observe protein localization in $N$. benthamiana leaf epidermal cells, the full-length sequences of HvFEA2, HvFEA3 and HvFEA4 fused eGFP (enhanced green fluorescent protein) tag, were inserted into pCAMBIA1301 vector with $35 S$ promoter by Nco I and Spe I sites using In-Fusion cloning (Clontech). Free GFP and a fragment encoding nuclear localization signal (NLS) fused with mCherry were cloned in the same vector driven by the 35 S promoter using Spe I and BstE II sites, serving as controls. Constructs and primers are listed in Table S1. Transient expression of proteins in $N$. benthamiana leaf epidermal cells was performed as previously described [49]. All constructs were transformed into Agrobacterium cells (GV3101). Overnight Agrobacterium cultures were collected by centrifugation, re-suspended in Murashige and Skoog liquid medium ( pH 5.8 ) to $\mathrm{OD}_{600}=0.6$, and incubated at room temperature for $2-3 \mathrm{~h}$ after addition of 2-[ N -morpholino] ethanesulfonic acid of $10 \mathrm{mmol} \mathrm{L}^{-1}$ final concentration, pH 5.6 ) and acetosyringone of $200 \mu \mathrm{~mol} \mathrm{~L}^{-1}$ final concentration. For co-expression assay of HvFEA4 and NLS, two A. tumefaciens strains were mixed in the ratio $1: 1$. The mixture was infiltrated into young $N$. benthamiana leaves and the plants were grown for about 48 h . Leaf samples were collected for microscopic observation.

Images were captured with a confocal laser scanning microscope (Leica TCS SP5). Fluorescence signals for eGFP (excitation, 488 nm ; emission, $500-530 \mathrm{~nm}$; 15\% power) and mCherry (excitation, 561 nm ; emission, $575-615 \mathrm{~nm} ; 15 \%$ power) were detected with a $20 \times$ objective.

### 2.7. RNA-seq library preparation and data analysis

Inflorescence samples of wild-type (GP) and hvfea4 plants were collected at W2.0 and W3.5. Total RNA was extracted from 15 to 20 spikes for each of three biological replicates using TRIzol (Invitrogen) and purified using a RNeasy Micro Kit (Qiagen) following the manufacturer's instructions. RNA quality and integrity were assessed on an Agilent 2200 TapeStation. Library preparation was performed using $1 \mu \mathrm{~g}$ of total RNA (with RNA integrity number > 8) using the TruSeq RNA Library Preparation Kit v. 2 (Illumina, RS-122-2101 and RS-122-2001), following the manufacturer's instructions. The libraries were sequenced using paired-end sequencing of $250-300-\mathrm{bp}$ fragments on a HiSeq4000 at QL-bio (Beijing, China).

The quality of raw sequencing reads for all samples was examined using FastQC (version 0.11.4; https://www.bioinformatics. babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/). Reads with adaptors and of low quality (> $20 \%$ bases with quality score $<30$ ) were removed using the BWA algorithm, and reads composed of $>5 \%$ unknown bases (labeled N) were discarded. Fragments per kilobase per million reads (FPKM) were normalized by genome-wide coverage. Clean reads were mapped to the barley reference genome (GCA_004114815.1) using HISAT2 aligner (version 2.0.0) with default parameters except that "-dta" was set. Alignment in SAM format was converted to BAM using SAMtools (version 0.1 .20 ) [50]. Correlation between replicates was evaluated using the "multiBamSummary" module in deeptools (version 3.5.1) [51]. FPKM was normalized with HTSeq (version 0.11.2). DEGs (Differentially expressed genes) were identified using the R package EmpiRes (https://www.bio.ifi.lmu.de/software/empires/index. html) [52]. DEGs were identified and annotated based on GCA_004114815.1 annotation, as well as using BLASTx alignments against a rice protein database (MSU7_peptide; https://rice.plant biology.msu.edu/). Heatmaps were created from DEGs using FPKM (value to ClustVis; https://biit.cs.ut.ee/clustvis/).

Venn diagrams were created from the DEGs described above, GO (Gene ontology) analysis was performed using barley
gene-to-GO associations captured from AgriGO2 (https://system sbiology.cau.edu.cn/agriGOv2/). AgriGO2 was also used for GO classification analysis and identification of pathways of stagespecific genes. The R package ggplot2 was applied to GO enrichment analysis for DEGs $[53,54]$.

Proteins encoded by DEGs at W2.0 from RNA-seq result were used to construct a protein-protein interaction (PPI) network. For data preparation, up- and downregulated DEGs were divided into two groups. Based on the annotation of barley genes, the symbols of these proteins were named according to orthologs from other plants. The sequences of the proteins were extracted from the barley genome database Ensembl Plants (https://plants.ensembl.org/ index.html). The gene symbol with its sequence were input into the online network STRING for PPI analysis. The STRING Interactome (https://cn.string-db.org/) was selected with medium (400) to high (1000) confidence score. The confidence score cutoff was set as 900 for the analysis. The degree of each node was calculated based on the number of its connections to other nodes. The results were loaded into Cytoscape (version 2.5) software [55] to generate the final models.

### 2.8. Natural variation analysis

The query CDS (coding sequence) of $H v F E A 2, H v F E A 3$, and HvFEA4 were defined from GP and 18 other varieties, including 9 two-rowed and 7 six-rowed barley, and two with other row types, representing the genetic diversity of 19,778 domesticated varieties of barley [56]. Allele investigation was based on a recent barley pan-genome study (https://galaxy-web.ipk-gatersleben.de/) [57]. Single-nucleotide polymorphisms among them were compiled for variation analysis. NovoPro (https://www.novopro.cn/tools/translate.html) was used for DNA translation. SnapGene (version 6.0.2) was used for amino acid alignment.

### 2.9. Yield traits of barley varieties

For yield trait investigation of barley varieties, plants were cultivated in the same field. Spikelet number was recorded at heading stage and grain number and other traits were recorded after harvesting. Grain length and width were measured with a vernier caliper. Grains and spikes were photographed with a Fujifilm X-T 200 digital camera. All measurements were performed on at least twenty samples.

### 2.10. Quantification and statistical analysis

All experiments were conducted with technical and biological replicates with sample sizes estimated on the basis of our previous experience. No statistical methods were used to predetermine sample size. The experiments were not randomized, and the investigators were not blinded to allocation during the experiments and outcome assessment. All experiments were replicated independently at least once, as indicated in each figure. Statistical analyses of all box and bar graphs were performed using GraphPad Prism 8.0.2 (https://www.graphpad.com/scientific-software/prism/) or Microsoft Excel 2016. Details of statistical approaches are found in figures or figure legends.

## 3. Results

### 3.1. Barley inflorescence meristem size has a negative correlation with yield traits

A general model from rice and maize studies indicates that an enlarged IM can increase its capacity of axillary meristems
(such as branch meristems in rice and spikelet pair meristems in maize), leading to higher seed number $[2,11,22]$. These findings suggest that IM size is positively associated with yield expressed as kernel number. To test this trend in barley, we dissected young developing spikes (meristem primordia, Waddington stage 2.0 [58]) from a group of 100 cultivars, including 90 two-rowed and 10 six-rowed types, and measured the width of the inflorescence meristem (IM, undifferentiated region at the apex of the spike meristem) (Fig. 1A-C). The mean IM diameter varied among cultivars, from $85.84 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ to $134.94 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ (Table S2). We also investigated the yield-related spike traits in these barley cultivars, ranging from 19 to 40 spi kelets per spike, 15 to 37 seeds (two-rowed) or 54 to 90 seeds (six-rowed) per spike, and 5.3 cm to 14.3 cm in spike length (Table S2), respectively. Surprisingly, we found a significant negative correlation between IM size and spike/yield traits in both two-rowed and six-rowed varieties. The Pearson correlations between IM diameter and spikelet number, seed number, and spike length ranged from -0.303 to -0.865 (Fig. 1A, B; Table S2). A two-rowed barley cultivar, ISBYT-LRA-M-089, had a smaller IM width, but developed a longer spike bearing more spikelets/seeds than did medium-sized Triumph and large-sized ND11231-12 (Fig. 1C, D). Thus, a larger inflorescence meristem appears to be able to impair the further differentiation of spikelet meristem and spike elongation and may eventually repress the yield in barley.

### 3.2. Identification of FEA orthologs in barley

In maize, three key genes, FEA2, FEA3, and FEA4, have been reported to influence meristem size and regulate ear architecture [21,23,28]. To identify their orthologs in barley, we collected the amino acid sequences of maize FEA2 (NP_001105662.1), FEA3 (ONM30618.1), and FEA4 (NP_001308277.1) from GenBank (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank/). BlastP was performed in the barley Morex genome database IPK Gatersleben. HORVU6Hr1G054820, HORVU3Hr1G013160, and HORVU7Hr1G042170, named HvFEA2, HvFEA3, and HvFEA4, were recognized as the closest orthologs with maize FEAs (Fig. S1).

Phylogenetic trees were constructed to investigate evolutionary relationships in each FEA family (Fig. S1). HvFEA2 and HvFEA3 were predicted to be leucine-rich repeat receptor proteins and HvFEA4 shared a common feature with TGACGBINDING FACTOR (TGA)-class bZIP proteins. HvFEA2 was grouped with ZmFEA2 and other FEA2-like orthologs from grasses, but not with dicot clades like Arabidopsis CLV2. Notably, some FEA2-like members from monocots, such as Ensete ventricosum and Musa acuminata, were in the same clade with dicots (Fig. S1). FEA3 and FEA4 members were clearly divided into two clades: monocots and eudicots. Multiple members of FEA3-like and FEA4-like were identified in most species, but only one was found in barley (Fig. S1). Within the grass family, HvFEA2, HvFEA3, and HvFEA4 showed more similarity to their orthologs in wheat, Brachypodium (Brachypodium distachyon), and rice, than to those in maize and other monocot plants (Fig. S1). Further, FEA2, FEA3, and FEA4 members in barley, rice, wheat, and maize harbored conserved domains within these three families: multiple leucine-rich repeat domains in FEA2 and FEA3, transmembrane region in FEA3, and bZIP domain in FEA4 (Fig. S2A-C). Full-length amino acid alignment showed that HvFEA2, HvFEA3, and HvFEA4 had high sequence similarities with their orthologs in rice, wheat, and maize, including the key motifs, sharing 68.24\%-96.22\% identity (Fig. S3). These results indicate that HvFEA2 (HORVU6Hr1G054820), HvFEA3 (HORVU3Hr1G013160) and HvFEA4 (HORVU7Hr1G042170) are




 samples of each set.
candidates for barley orthologs of maize FEA2, FEA3, and FEA4, respectively.

### 3.3. HvFEA genes are highly expressed in barley spike

To better understand the molecular characterizations of $H v F E A 2, H v F E A 3$, and $H v F E A 4$, we first investigated their expression patterns in developing barley spikes from Waddington stage 2.0 (W2.0) to W9.0 (before pollination) using RT-qPCR. All three genes showed active expression in all stages, except for HvFEA4 at W9.0 (Fig. 2A), consistent with our previous RNA-seq experiment [40]. This finding showed that these genes are stably expressed at early stages of inflorescence development. We also detected transcripts of three FEAs in other tissues. In addition to florets, barley FEAs showed high expression in young roots, suggesting their potential roles in vegetative development (Fig. 2A). Moreover, in situ hybridization analysis of HvFEA2, HvFEA3, and HvFEA4 showed similar expression features at spikelet meristems of stage W2.0 and W3.5 (awn primordium), but different expression in the undifferentiated IM regions (Fig. 2B). HvFEA2 transcripts accumulated throughout the whole spike meristem region, and HvFEA4 showed a moderate expression level in spike meristem but high at the apex of IM, while HvFEA3 was barely detected at the IM (Fig. 2B), suggesting common and differentiated roles of HvFEAs during spike development.

Next, we examined the subcellular localization of HvFEA2, HvFEA3, and HvFEA4 fused with an eGFP tag and transiently expressed in $N$. benthamiana leaf epidermal cells driven by the CaMV35S promoter ( $35 S_{\text {pro }}:$ :HvFEA2-GFP, $35 S_{\text {pro }}:: H v F E A 3-G F P$ and $35 S_{\text {pro }}$ : $: H v F E A 4-G F P$ ) (Fig. 2C). Confocal microscopy showed that HvFEA2-GFP and HvFEA3-GFP were localized mainly at the plasma membrane (Fig. 2C), in agreement with their predicted function as receptors. HvFEA4-GFP was detected exclusively in the nucleus, overlapping with the NLS marker protein (NLS-mCherry) (Fig. 2C), indicating of its function as a transcription factor.

### 3.4. Loss of function of HvFEAs leads to enlarged IM size and reduced SM formation

To functionally characterize the roles of FEAs in barley inflorescence development, we used a monocot-optimized CRISPR/Cas9 system [44] to engineer HvFEA2, HvFEA3, and HvFEA4 in the barley variety Golden Promise for generating individual loss-of-function mutants. Two targets from each gene were selected for sgRNA (single guide RNA) (Fig. S4A-C). Genotyping of transgenic lines revealed the occurrence of insertion and/or deletion mutations at both target sites, leading to premature stop codons or changed amino acid sequences of HvFEA2, HvFEA3, and HvFEA4 in transgenic plants. At least five independent homozygous mutants of $h v f e a 2, h v f e a 3$, and $h v f e a 4$ were obtained from the $\mathrm{T}_{0}$ generation (Fig. S4A-C). Among the mutants, hvfea3 showed a plant architecture similar to that of the WT, but hvfea 2 and hvfea 4 displayed a modest dwarfism phenotype (Fig. S4D), indicating their divergent roles in plant development.

Next, we compared the widths of IMs in hvfea2, hvfea3, and hvfea 4 mutants with that of the WT. IMs from mutants were $6.23 \%-12.61 \%$ larger than those of wild-type plants (mean diameter $124.27 \pm 5.76 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ in hvfea2, $123.48 \pm 3.96 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ in $h v f e a 3,130$. $90 \pm 9.47 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ in hvfea4, vs. $116.24 \pm 9.13 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ in WT) (Fig. 3A, B). At stage W3.5, WT spikes developed spikelet meristems (SM) containing the central spikelet and the lateral spikelets, and hvfea2 and hvfea3 showed similar patterning of SM on the axis with WT, according to SEM and stereomicroscopic observation (Fig. 3C). However, some hvfea4 SMs showed an irregular arrangement on the axis, with several ectopic spikelets forming between two SMs (Fig. 3C), indicating its specific roles of HvFEA4 in barley spikelet development. To validate the effects of IM size on spikelet number, we compared the SM number at W2.0 and W3.5 between WT and mutants. fea plants developed fewer SMs at both stages, especially at W3.5 (average 32 in hvfea2, 33 in hvfea3, 30 in hvfea4, vs 40 in WT) (Fig. 3D), verifying the negative relationship between IM size and spikelet number in barley cultivars (Fig. 1). These results


Fig. 2. Molecular characterization of barley FEA genes. (A) Relative expression of HvFEA2, HvFEA3 and HvFEA4 genes in developing spike meristem (Waddington stages W2.0, W3.5, W5.0, W7.0, and W9) and barley tissues. YR, young root ( 14 days old); YS, young stem ( 14 days old); YL, young leaf; FL, flag leaf; F, floret. Values are mean $\pm$ s.d. from three biological replicates. (B) In situ hybridization showing the expression of $H v F E A 2$, $H v F E A 3$ and $H v F E A 4$ in the top apex of inflorescence meristem and spikelet meristem at W2.0 and W3.5. Scale bars, $100 \mu \mathrm{~m}$. (C) Subcellular localization of HvFEA2, HvFEA3, and HvFEA4 proteins in N. benthamiana leaf epidermal cells. All proteins fused to GFP tags were transiently expressed under the control of the 35 S promoter. HvFEA4-GFP was co-expressed with an NLS (Nuclear localization signal) marker protein fused with a mCherry tag. Empty GFP (35Spro::GFP) served as control. Scale bars, $30 \mu \mathrm{~m}$. All experiments were repeated three times independently with similar results.
indicate that $H v F E A 2$, $H v F E A 3$, and $H v F E A 4$ function in spike meristem progression and that loss of function of FEAs increases IM size but reduces spikelet number.

### 3.5. HvFEAs regulate barley spike morphology and yield traits

Further, we compared the spike architectures of the hvfea2, hvfea3, and hvfea4 mutants with WT at heading stage. All three mutants showed reduced spike length, especially hvfea2 (Fig. 4AC), but the spikelet shape was normal. The spikelet numbers per spike of the three mutants were significantly lower than that of WT (Student's $t$-test $P<0.01$ ) (Fig. 4A-C), ultimately leading to reduced seed numbers per plant in hvfea2, hvfea3, and hvfea4 mutants, compared with WT (Fig. 4D). Besides, hvfea4 mutants generated 1-2 ectopic spikelets from the axis with no paired spikelet, and some spikelets were oppositely arranged in the axis, in contrast with the alternate pattern in WT (Fig. 4A, B). These phenotypes are consistent with the observation of spike meristems at earlier stages (Fig. 3). Compared with WT, hvfea2 and hvfea3, but not hvfea4 mutants, showed reduced grain length (Fig. 4E, F). The grain width and weight of these three mutants were similar to those of WT (Fig. 4F). These findings indicate that HvFEA2, HvFEA3,
and HvFEA4 regulate inflorescence meristem to determine spike morphology, and that HvFEA2 and HvFEA3 may also affect reproduction after pollination. Thus, loss of function of HvFEAs leads to reduced spike length and spikelet number, once again verifying the negative effects of IM size on barley yield traits.

### 3.6. Variations of HvFEAs in barley accessions

To test whether $H v F E A$ genes were involved in varietal selection during barley domestication, we next analyzed the natural variations of these three genes in 19 barley accessions that were sequenced in a previous pan-genome study [57]. These HvFEAs exhibited multiple variations that were independent of row type. Except for only one variety showing no variation compared with Golden Promise (GP), 7 of 18 accessions displayed nucleotide changes in all HvFEA genes (Fig. 5A). Overall, HvFEA2 had a lower variation frequency of $36.8 \%$, while HvFEA3 and HvFEA4 showed $78.9 \%$ and $73.6 \%$, respectively (Fig. 5A), indicating that HvFEA2 has a more conserved sequence than HvFEA3 and HvFEA4 during domestication. By comparing the amino acid sequences, we demonstrated that these alleles did not lead to premature termination or frame-shifting (Fig. 5B; Table S3), but only amino acid


Fig. 3. Barley FEA genes regulate development of the spike meristem. (A) Images represent the inflorescence meristem of WT (GP background), hvfea2, hvfea3, and hvfea4 mutants at W2.0 stage. Red arrow and white line indicate position and scale of IM. Scale bars, $100 \mu \mathrm{~m}$. (B) Quantification of IM width in WT, hvfea2, hvfea3, and hvfea4 mutants at W2.0 stage. Student's $t$-test was applied to compare WT with each hvfea mutant: ${ }^{* * *}, P<0.001$. (C) Images represent the spikelet meristem (SM) of WT, hvfea2, $h v f e a 3$, and hvfea 4 at W3.5 stage. Blue shading indicates normal and red shading indicates ectopic spikelet SM at hvfea4. Scale bars, $500 \mu \mathrm{~m}$. (D) Scanning electron microscopy of spike meristem morphology in WT, hvfea2, hvfea3, and hvfea 4 plants. White arrows and asterisks indicate SM, and average SM numbers are shown at the bottom. Scale bars, $500 \mu \mathrm{~m}$.
substitution or insertions occurring at specific positions. For example, HvFEA2 harbored mutations mainly at positions 422 (A to T) and 609 ( R to Q ) (Table S3). HvFEA3 showed many changes, and 15 of 18 varieties showed mutations in amino acids within the region 74-444 (Fig. 5A; Table S3). Variations of HvFEA4 occurred mainly from positions 96-192. Most varieties showed an insertion at 142/143 (GT insertion) and substitution at 192 (S to A), suggesting that these two types were selected at early domestication stage. Additionally, position 123 of HvFEA4 in GP was different from those in the other 19 varieties, suggesting that this variation may occur only in the GP lineage (Fig. 5B). Our findings reveal active variation of $H v F E A s$ during barley domestication, which may contribute to various IM size and spike traits among barley accessions.

### 3.7. HvFEA4 regulates multiple biological processes during inflorescence development

FEA4 encodes a putative bZIP transcription factor of TGA family that is known to regulate a downstream network during maize ear development [23-25]. We compared the transcriptomes in WT and hvfea4 at two key stages, W2.0 and W3.5, to identify regulatory roles of HvFEA4. In total, 1063 DEGs were identified, including 77 DEGs overlapping in the W2.0 and W3.5 stages (Fig. 6A, B; Tables S4-S6). More DEGs were up-regulated in the hvfea4 mutant, particularly at W2.0 stage (Fig. 6A, B), suggesting that HvFEA4 likely represses downstream gene expression. GO term analysis
showed that "transcriptional regulation", "reproductive process" and "oxidation-reduction process" were significantly enriched in the DEGs at both stages of spike development (Fig. 6C; Tables S5, S6).

An expression heatmap showed that a large number of receptor kinase and transcription factor genes were up-regulated in hvfea4 mutants (Fig. 6A, D; Table S7). In particular, transcription factors such as bHLHs, MYBs and WRKYs were up-regulated at W2.0 but not W3.5 (Fig. S5; Table S8), while kinase genes were misregulated at both stages (Fig. S6; Table S8). Among the DEGs, TAWAWA (TAW)-like genes, orthologs of a critical inflorescence regulator TAW in rice [59], were dramatically up-regulated in the mutant (Fig. 6D). MADS-box genes, HvMADS1, HvMADS5 and HvMADS16 showed reduced expression, but spike meristem phase transit repressor SVP-like (SHORT VEGETATIVE PHASE) genes HvMDS47 and HvMADS55 [38,39], were up-regulated at W2.0 of hvfea4 spikes (Fig. 6D; Table S7), suggesting that HvFEA4 likely promotes the barley spike meristem phase transition by repressing SVPs. We also examined some known regulators of barley spike meristem [4], including TCP transcription factors, TFL1-like (TERMINAL FLOWER 1) gene, ASP1 (ABERRANT SPIKELET AND PANICLE1) [60], and VRS5, were misregulated in the hvfea4 mutant (Fig. 6D; Table S7). Consistent with the RNA-seq results, our RT-qPCR assays confirmed the differential expression of these genes (Figs. 7A, B, S7). Our findings suggest that HvHEA4 orchestrates gene expression in barley spike development.


Fig. 4. Loss of function of hvfea genes lead to the abnormal spike morphology and poor yield traits. (A) Inflorescence phenotypes of hvfea2, hvfea3, and hvfea 4 mutants at grain-filling stage. Red arrows indicate ectopic spikelets in hvfea 4 mutants. Blue shading indicates opposite spikelet arrangement. Scale bars, 2 cm . (B) Schematic of hvfea 4 inflorescence architecture showing an ectopic spikelet (ES, indicated by red) and an opposite spikelet (OS, indicated by blue). (C) Spike traits of hvfea2, hvfea3, and hvfea4 mutants. $n=20$. (D) Average seed number per plant of $h v f e a 2$, $h v f e a 3$, and $h v f e a 4$ mutants ( $n=20$ plants of each genotype). (E) Seeds of $h v f e a 2$, hvfea3, and $h v f e a 4$ mutants. Scale bars, 2 cm . (F) Yield traits of hvfea2, hvfea3, and hvfea mutants. Student's $t$-test was used to compare WT with each hvfea mutant ( $P$-values).

In addition, we investigated the DEGs from hormonal pathways, such as auxin, gibberellin (GA) and cytokinin (CK), which are essential for meristem function [61]. Auxin signaling-associated genes, SAURs (Small Auxin Up RNA), and CYBDOM1-like (Cytochrome b561 and DOMON Domain-containing Protein) [62], showed opposite trends of change between W2.0 and W3.5, but genes responding to GA and CK were generally down-regulated in hvfea 4 (Fig. S8A, B; Table S8), suggesting the dynamic and complex influences of HvFEA4 on hormone pathways.

### 3.8. Regulatory networks of HvFEA4 in barley inflorescence development

Next, we constructed a hypothetical PPI model for the potential downstream proteins of HvFEA4. A network for proteins encoded by up-regulated DEGs at W2.0 showed that several reproductive regulators, transcription factors, and kinases may collaboratively contribute to barley spike meristem development (Fig. S9A). The main net includes two central proteins participating in oxidation reactions, AOS-like (Allene Oxide Synthase) and CYP85A3-like (Cytochrome P450 Superfamily Protein) [63]. The redox status might modify functions of other key proteins, such as TAW1-like, AP2-like and RINs (RNI-like Superfamily Protein) (Fig. S9A). Supportively, we selected DEGs of oxidation reactions for heatmap analysis, showing that most of them were up-regulated in hvfea 4 mutant (Fig. S10), suggesting that loss of function of HvFEA4 likely leads to fluctuating redox activities in spikes. The PPI network also
helped explain down-regulated inflorescence regulators (Fig. S9B). HvFEA4 may interact with MADS58 to connect with other key regulators, including known VRS5 and MADS1, and the absence of HvFEA4 may cause the inactivation of the whole network.

In maize, FEA4 functions in inflorescence meristem independently of CLV signaling [23]. Similarly, in barley, HvFEA2 expression showed no difference between the WT and hvfea4 mutant, and HvFEA3 was slightly down-regulated in hvfea4 mutant (Fig. S11A). Considering that some homologs of CLV-WUS pathway members also showed changed expression in hvfea 4 mutant (Fig. 6D), we validated the expression level of potential master regulator, WUSCHEL-like (WUS-like, HORVU3Hr1G085050) gene, in three hvfea mutants using RT-qPCR. Similar to the findings in maize [21], the WUS-like gene showed the increased expression in hvfea3 and no difference in hvfea2 plants, compared with the WT, but was down-regulated in the hvfea 4 mutant (Fig. S11B). Elucidation of the relationship between $H v F E A 4$ and $H v F E A 2 / 3$ or the CLV-WUS pathway must await further genetic investigations by development of higher-order mutants.

## 4. Discussion

### 4.1. IM size is negatively associated with yield traits in barley

The transforming from SAM into IM is a pivotal event in plant reproductive development [1,4]. In cereal crops, IM cells proliferate


Fig. 5. Natural variation of HvFEAs in barley. (A) Global variations of HvFEA2, HvFEA3 and HvFEA4 in 19 barley varieties that represent genetic diversity, as revealed by PCA (Principal component analysis) of genotyping-by-sequencing data of 19,778 domesticated barley varieties [56]. Principal component (PC) data of domesticated varieties originated from a pan-genome study [57]. Different shapes indicate row types (others, four-rowed, and labile). Different colors indicate whether mutations of $H v F E A 2, H v F E A 3$ and HvFEA4 have occurred between GP (Golden Promise) and other varieties. (B) Amino acid sequence alignment of HvFEA4. Only variations between GP and other varieties are shown. Numbers correspond to positions in amino acid alignment.
to generate a series of branches and/or spikelet meristems that will form kernels after fertilization [2,5]. Selection of favorable inflorescence architecture during crop breeding is key to achieving desirable production. Based on a previous hypothesis in maize [28], larger IMs provide more space around the meristem and allow the production of extra successive meristems, leading to more kernels or larger ears to reach higher yield. However, the correlation between IM size and yield traits components in barley shows the opposite trend. Barley IM width has negative effects on spikelet number, seed number, and spike length (Fig. 1). Barley varieties with large IMs tend to have unsatisfactory yield-related spike traits. We speculate that the different architecture and developmental process of inflorescence between maize and barley are the fundamental reasons for the opposite effects of IM size on yield traits. Maize yield strongly depends on the number of kernels per ear, and the IM of ears further differentiates into multiple-rowed axes bearing spikelets. Thus, wider IMs naturally have more room for extra AMs, and taller IMs develop into longer ears, eventually resulting in more kernels on each cob [21,28]. In Triticeae crops, like barley, IM directly differentiates into many spikelets arranged
on both sides of the spike [4]. The wider IMs may repress spike elongation, so that more compressed space of axis limits spikelet formation.

### 4.2. HvFEA2, HvFEA3, and HvFEA4 are required for barley spike development and yield traits

Genetic studies have revealed regulatory genes that function in IM identification and activity and are tightly associated with yield traits of crops [4,5,11]. In maize, "fasciation" mutants with enlarged IMs have been frequently revealed to be CLV/WUSrelated genes [18-21], such as TD1, FEA2 and FEA3. CLV-independent pathways have also been revealed by another maize fasciated ear mutant, with mutation of a bZIP transcription factor gene, FEA4 [23]. In this study, we identified barley HvFEA2, HvFEA3 and HvFEA4 as orthologs of maize FEA2 (also an ortholog of Arabidopsis CLV2), FEA3 and FEA4, respectively. These proteins exhibit high similarities in amino acid sequences and motif structures with other orthologs of grass family. Although HvFEA2 and HvFEA3 are predicted as leucine-rich repeat receptor kinases, similar to


Fig. 6. HvFEA4 regulates transcriptome programming during barley inflorescence development. (A) Heatmap of expressed genes of WT and hvfea4 mutant in spike meristem stages W2.0 and W3.5. (B) Venn diagram showing the overlap of transcripts that were differentially expressed between WT and hvfea4 of the two spike meristem stages W2.0 and W3.5. Red arrows indicate up-regulated genes, green arrows indicate down-regulated genes, double black arrows indicate genes inconsistently regulated between the two spike meristem stages. (C) Enriched GO terms among DEGs at W2.0 and W3.5, GO terms assigned to biological processes, cellular components, and molecular function. Count number (Count) indicates the enriched gene number (circle sizes) of DEGs in each GO term. Different colors of circle indicate various values of GO enrichment ( $P$ adjust). (D) Heatmap of inflorescence development-associated genes that were selected from DEGs in transcriptome sequencing. CLV, CLAVATA; WUS, WUSCHEL; TAW, TAWAWA; HOX, homeobox-leucine zipper protein family; MADS, MAD-box transcription factor; TCP, Teosinte Branched1/Cincinnata/Proliferating cell factor; TFL, TERMINAL FLOWER; TBL, TRICHOME BIREFRINGENCE-LIKE; VRS, SIX-ROWED SPIKE; ASP, ABERRANT SPIKELET AND PANICLE; LAC, LACCASE; CO, CONSTANS; ANK, ANKYRIN; AP, APETALA; GIF, growthregulating factor; CIR, CIRCADIAN; F-box, F-box protein family; MAB, BTB/POZ And MATH Domain-containing; R2R3-MYB, R2R3-MYELOBLASTOSIS transcriptional factor; MSANTD, Myb/SANT-like DNA-binding domain-containing protein; TGAL, TGA-like transcription factor; bHLH, Basic Helix-loop-Helix; AGO, Argonaute family protein; RPK, receptor-like protein kinase; RLK, receptor-like kinase; GA200X2, gibberellin 20 Oxidase 2; RNI, RNI-like superfamily protein; LEA, late embryogenesis abundant protein; NAP, NAC domain containing protein.
maize orthologs, they lack any kinase or other potential signaling domain [21,28] (Fig. S2A-C). Also, consistent with subcellular localizations of orthologs in maize [18,21,64], both HvFEA3 and HvFEA2 are present on the plasma membrane, although only the FEA3 family has a predicted transmembrane domain. Although most plant species have at least two members of the FEA3 and FEA4 families, only one ortholog of each has been identified in barley, indicating the evolutionary divergence of these two gene families.

We applied a monocot-optimized CRISPR/Cas9 efficient gene editing system to create hvfea mutants [44]. Independent alleles of hvfea mutants display consistent phenotypes. Commonly, hvfea2, hvfea3 and hvfea4 mutants share a similar phenotype
of enlarged IM size, mimicking maize fasciated ear mutants [21,23,28]. Supporting the negative correlation between IM size and yield traits shown by 100 barley cultivars, enlarged IM of $h v f e a 2, h v f e a 3$ and hvfea 4 mutants represses spikelet meristem formation (Fig. 3). Unlike HvFEA2 and HvFEA4, transcripts of HvFEA3 were not detected in the IM region in the early stage, suggesting that HvFEA3 may function in a non-cellautonomous way, like the classic WUS-CLV3 loop, to control barley spike meristem development. These findings suggest that the HvFEA2, HvFEA3 and HvFEA4 genes are essential for spikelet meristem formation. The defective activity of IM in these mutants ultimately results in shorter spike length, reduced spikelet number, and reduced seed number (Fig. 4). By contrast,


Fig. 7. Expression analysis of inflorescence development genes regulated by HvFEA4. (A) RT-qPCR analysis of significantly misregulated genes related to inflorescence development. Student's $t$-test was used for comparison ( $P$-values). (B) RNA sequencing-derived expression data of selected DEGs involved in inflorescence development, mentioned in (A). The normalized expression values are reported in FPKM.
maize fea and rice fon2/4 mutants, with more AMs generated from enlarged IM, develop more kernel rows in maize and more primary branches and floral organs in rice [16,21,23,28]. Barley enlarged IM mutants display reduced grain length and weight, particularly in hvfea 2 and hvfea3 mutants, likely causing yield reduction.

The strength of CLV mutants is critical for breeding applications. Null alleles of meristem-associated genes frequently cause striking phenotypes with deleterious effects on yield traits. Maize fasciated ear mutants give rise to disorganized inflorescences with poor seed yield [19,21,23,64,65]. However, some alleles with reduced expression can increase IM size as well as kernel row number [21,28]. Recently, a weak allele of maize FEA2 has been found that showed higher kernel row number and yield in field tests [29]. In our study, highly active variations of HvFEAs in barley accessions suggest their involvement in spike traits and yield during barley domestication and breeding. Therefore, breeding-favorable alleles of barley $H v F E A 2, H v F E A 3$ and $H v F E A 4$ may be further identified in natural populations or created by CRISPR/Cas9 editing of their ciselements in promoters.

### 4.3. HvFEA4 controls barley inflorescence development by regulating multiple biological events and signaling

Among the three hvfea mutants, hvfea4 developed ectopic spikelets and the arrangement pattern of spikelets appeared opposite, but neither hvfea 2 nor $h v f e a 3$ showed a similar phenotype in spikes (Fig. 4A, B). HvFEA4 encodes a bZIP transcription factor, ortholog of maize FEA4 and Arabidopsis PERIANTHIA (PAN). Ears of the maize fea 4 mutant are massively fasciated and shorter than wild-type, showing disorganized seed rows [23]. Arabidopsis PAN also acts as a multifunctional hub for diverse meristematic functions [66]. PAN has been demonstrated to have transcription activity only in the presence of coactivators [67]. However, the transcription activities of both HvFEA4 and maize FEA4 remain to be tested.

Our transcriptome analysis revealed that HvFEA4 functions in controlling multiple pathways and events, including inflorescence development, DNA binding, plant hormone signaling, and redox status homeostasis. Most of the DEGs that control these processes were up-regulated in hvfea4 mutants, suggesting that HvFEA4 may act as a transcriptional repressor of its targets. In particular, auxin
response genes and oxidation-associated genes were generally upregulated at early stages of hvfea4 meristems, and our PPI also revealed the redox network among up-regulated DEGs. Thus, HvFEA4 appears to inhibit auxin response and prevent excessive redox response in barley spike meristems. However, maize FEA4 functions in activating auxin pathway genes, and Arabidopsis PAN is also able to modulate auxin dependent developmental events [23,66], suggesting divergent functions of FEA4 orthologs. The detailed mechanisms by which bZIP transcription factor regulates auxin signaling remain unknown. Notably, maize FEA4 interacts with glutaredoxins (GRXs) that are small oxidoreductases, and GRXs also regulate the redox state and transcriptional activities of FEA4 to control inflorescence development [24,25], suggesting that redox signaling may function in plant inflorescence development via interactions with FEA4. Even though several oxidation reaction genes are likely regulated by HvFEA4, the relationship between redox status control and HvFEA4 awaits elucidation.

HvFEA4 also directly or indirectly maintains the expression of some key inflorescence genes, like VRS5 and HvMADS1 [33,37]. The PPI of down-regulated DEGs shows the network linking HvFEA4 and MADS proteins. HvFEA4 may influence some downstream genes in common with barley HvMADS1; RPK4 (Receptorlike Protein Kinase, HORVU4Hr1G065270) shows greatly reduced expression both in hvfea4 and hvmads1 mutants [37]. These results shed light on the crosstalk between HvFEA4 and other regulators.

In summary, our results reveal a negative trend between IM size and yield traits in barley spikes, in contrast to those of previous studies of other major cereals, likely owing to their differentiated inflorescence architectures and progressions. CLV orthologs, HvFEA2 and HvFEA3, and bZIP transcription factor HvFEA4, function as key regulators controlling barley IM size, spike architecture, and yield traits. Our study also explores the molecular regulatory network of HvFEA4, uncovering key biological events affected by HvFEA4 during barley spike development. Together, our findings highlight the novelty of IM-size-inhibited yield traits in barley and suggest the complexity of orthologous genes' functions in different species, extending our understanding of how the meristem affects grain yield and facilitating crop improvement.

## CRediT authorship contribution statement

Chengyu Wang: Writing - original draft, Data curation, Investigation, Formal analysis. Xiujunan Yang: Writing - review \& editing, Investigation, Resources. Yueya Zhang: Investigation, Resources, Data curation. Chaoqun Shen: Investigation, Resources, Data curation. Jin Shi: Investigation, Resources, Data curation. Chongjing Xia: Data curation. Taohong Fang: Investigation, Resources, Data curation. Qiang Tu: Investigation, Resources, Data curation. Ling Li: Investigation, Resources, Data curation. Xinli Zhou: Data curation. Dabing Zhang: Data curation. Gang Li: Conceptualization, Project administration, Writing - review \& editing.

## Declaration of competing interest

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

## Acknowledgments

This work was financially supported by the Science and Research Grant of Southwest University of Science and Technology (19zx7146), the start-up grant from Nanjing Agricultural University (to Gang Li), the Australia-China Science and Research Fund Joint Research Centre grant (ACSRF48187), the Australian Research

Council (DP170103352), and the Waite Research Institute (WRI) of the University of Adelaide. We thank prof. Yaoguang Liu (South China Agricultural University) for providing vectors pYLsgRNAOsU6a, pYLsgRNA-OsU6b and pYLCRISPR-Cas9Pubi-H for CRISPR/Cas9 editing. We thank Dr. Gwen Mayo (Adelaide Microscopy) for assistance in the microscopy work, and Miss Hui Zhou (University of Adelaide) for managing the plant materials.

## Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data for this article can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cj.2022.10.001.

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