

# Rainfall patterns during barley seed development underlie genomic variation for germination after flooding

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**Running title:** Rainfall affects barley germination after flooding

## Abstract

The diversity of plant genetic resources is the result of complex evolutionary processes, including adaptation to environmental stresses. High precipitation levels during the growing season may result in soil flooding events that place major constraints on crop productivity. Barley (*Hordeum vulgare*) is one of the most important cereals worldwide and serves as a model for studying the molecular responses of plants to climate change, due to its wide adaptability and diffusion to different environments. We explored the genetic associations of a global collection of barley landraces and wild relatives with rainfall regimes recorded in their growing areas. We found that the rainfall patterns observed during the driest months of the year and corresponding to the seed development period correlated significantly with the subsequent capacity of barley accessions to germinate after flooding. We then conducted an environmental genome-wide association study (eGWAS) and analysed exome sequencing data, which revealed a narrow region on barley chromosome 1 with a possible influence on barley response to rainfall patterns. Using molecular approaches, we identified gene candidates involved in seed morphology and dormancy that are crucial for barley germination in soil after a flooding event in a natural environment.

**Keywords:** dormancy, eGWAS, hypoxia, landscape genomics, seed germination.

## 1 Introduction

2 Ensuring future food security depends on the ability of crops to adapt to different climates  
3 and to thrive on marginal lands. Over the last decades, breeding research has directed  
4 its scope to yield performance, focusing on the production of commercial varieties that  
5 incorporate useful traits for plant responses to the effects of climate change. Currently,  
6 locally adapted plant genetic resources, especially crop wild relatives and landraces, are  
7 of primary interest, since they are reservoirs of extensive and untapped genetic diversity  
8 for local and extreme adaptation.

9 The characterisation of crop genetic diversity is crucial for the identification of beneficial  
10 alleles for genetic improvement (Bohra et al., 2021). While many *ex situ* collections have  
11 been assembled and are available to the scientific community, the diversity of crop wild  
12 relatives and landraces is still not comprehensively represented. The identification and  
13 conservation of these materials is crucial, given the changes in spatial distributions of  
14 plant species and because of climate change (Castañeda-Álvarez et al. 2016).

15 In germplasm collections, wild and landrace accessions can be traced back to their  
16 geographical sites of original collection, using passport data, which provide valuable  
17 information about the pedoclimatic diversity of their growing area (Canella et al. 2022).  
18 This information can be used to test associations between local diversity and genomic  
19 loci responsible for adaptation via environmental genome wide association studies  
20 (eGWAS) (Brunazzi et al. 2018). These loci and their allelic diversity are useful tool to  
21 direct plant breeding toward environmental adaptations (Mattila et al. 2016).

22 Previous studies looked into barley genetic resources in Ethiopia, identifying candidate  
23 genes associated with temperature and rainfall variation. These approaches have also  
24 highlighted areas where the current diversity of barley genetic resources may be poorly  
25 adapted to future climates (Abebe et al., 2015; Caproni et al. 2023).

26 In this work, we explored the precipitation data of a subgroup of barley landraces and  
27 wild accessions belonging to the WHEALBI collection  
28 (<https://www.wheatinitiative.org/wheatlbi>, last connection: 19/06/2025). The amount of

1 rain is potentially predictive of flooding events occurring in certain regions and may reveal  
2 adaptive local responses in barley accessions.

3 We found that the amount of precipitation in the driest month and warmest quarter of  
4 the year significantly correlates with the germination phenotype after a flooding event.  
5 Using barley exome genotyping data, we carried out an eGWAS, which led to the  
6 identification of a genomic region on chromosome 1 harbouring two significant Marker  
7 Trait Associations (MTAs). Within this region, we identified candidate genes in linkage  
8 with the signals that are involved in seed permeability and dormancy. These genes exhibit  
9 distinct alleles in barley accessions originating from environments with divergent rainfall  
10 regimes during the driest months. These accessions respond differently to prolonged soil  
11 flooding, exhibiting morphological, physiological and molecular adaptations.

12 Our hypothesis is that divergent rainfall regimes during barley seed development are  
13 associated with allelic variation at the locus influencing subsequent germination. This  
14 genetic variation contributes to differential responses to long flooding events under a  
15 natural environmental condition.

16

## 17 **Results and Discussion**

### 18 **Geographical diversity of barley landraces and wild accessions**

19 The barley WHEALBI collection holds over 400 accessions, including landraces and wild  
20 relatives. In a previous work, we explored a subgroup of cultivated genotypes, typing the  
21 capacity of de-hulled seeds to germinate promptly after a short period of submergence,  
22 and identified a large variation in the response (Gómez-Álvarez et al., 2023). Compared  
23 with other cereals, barley is very sensitive to submergence (Arduini et al., 2016). In  
24 germination, this is due to the inability to degrade starch in the endosperm under O<sub>2</sub>  
25 deprivation and to the hypoxia-dependent activation of secondary dormancy in some  
26 accessions, which precludes germination when water recedes (revised by Gómez-  
27 Álvarez and Pucciariello, 2022). In this study, we identified landraces and wild barley  
28 accessions from the WHEALBI collection that were georeferenced, allowing the  
29 exploration of climatic diversity at their sites of origin. The 110 identified barley accessions

1 originate from Europe, Africa and Asia (**Figure 1A**), thus represent the barley trajectories  
2 of diffusion after domestication in the Fertile Crescent (Bustos-Korts et al., 2019). The  
3 diversity of the subgroup, which represents contrasting environments and dissimilar  
4 genetic backgrounds, supports the identification of molecular drivers for local adaptation,  
5 which may have a high potential for breeding (Munoz-Amatriaín et al., 2014).

6 The agroecological characteristics (FAO, <https://gaez.fao.org/pages/data-viewer>) of  
7 the sampling points of the selected accessions were explored (**Figure 1B**). Most of the  
8 accessions originated from areas with different water regimes, such as ample irrigated  
9 soils, sub-tropics and desert/arid lands. When the different areas were grouped according  
10 to the humidity of the environment, four different habitats were identified i.e. arid, humid,  
11 semi-arid and sub-humid (**Supplementary Table S1**). This broad diversity may contain  
12 the presence of phenotypes related to different rainfall regimes.

13 In our previous work, barley varieties, landraces and wild accessions were classified  
14 based on the submergence tolerance index (STI), which represents the percentage of de-  
15 hulled seed germination after a short submergence in comparison to air (Gómez-Álvarez  
16 et al., 2023). When the STIs of the accessions of the four different habitats were  
17 compared, those that originated from humid areas showed significantly lower values (and  
18 thus a lower capacity to germinate after a short submergence event) than accessions  
19 belonging to arid regions (**Figure 1C**). This was surprising, since accessions that  
20 germinate rapidly, and which have possibly adapted to flooding conditions would be  
21 expected in the most humid regions. In humid areas, the selection against pre-harvest  
22 sprouting may have occurred, ensuring that short periods of rainfall during the maturation  
23 phase do not cause substantial crop losses.

24 We studied the genomic diversity based on single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP)  
25 markers on the barley exome (Bustos-Korts et al., 2019). The visual separation of the  
26 collection genomic diversity through multidimensional scaling (MDS) correlated with  
27 several traits that are represented by different colours in four different graphs (**Figure**  
28 **1D**). A major separation was identified between spring and winter growth habits that  
29 corresponds to the distinction between landraces and wild accessions and represents 9.6  
30 % of diversity (**Figure 1D**).

1 Previously, molecular differences during barley grain development were shown to be  
2 responsible for the phenotype occurring during the subsequent seed germination  
3 (Gómez-Álvarez et al., 2023). Taking this aspect in consideration, we identified the  
4 putative calendar of development and cultivation of the selected wild and landrace  
5 accessions (FAO, <https://gaez.fao.org/pages/data-viewer>). The period May-July  
6 corresponds to the harvesting time for most of the accessions examined, which includes  
7 the phase of grain development for both landraces and wild accessions (**Figure 1E**).

### 8 9 **Climatic variables correlate with germination traits**

10 Eight bioclimatic variables related to rainfall patterns (bio12-bio19) obtained from the  
11 WorldClim2 database (<https://www.worldclim.org/>) were correlated with the STIs  
12 measured directly on the barley panel in our previous work (Gómez-Álvarez et al., 2023),  
13 which indicates the germination capacity of de-hulled seeds after a short submergence  
14 (**Figure 2A**). The variable recording the amount of precipitation in the driest month  
15 (hereafter bio14), as well as the amount of precipitation in the warmest quarter of the year  
16 (hereafter bio18), correlated weakly, but significantly with the previously calculated STI  
17 (Spearman's rank correlation coefficient analysis -0.21 and -0.23, respectively, p-value  
18 <0.05, **Figure 2A**). The negative value of the correlation indicates that when the amount  
19 of precipitation in the driest month or in the warmest quarter of the year is low, the  
20 subsequent capacity to germinate after a short submergence event increases. These two  
21 bioclimatic variables are likely to represent the same period of the year and are  
22 significantly correlated (Spearman's rank correlation coefficient analysis 0.93, p-value  
23 <0.05, **Figure 2A**).

24 The bioclimatic variables were represented by a PCA, which revealed that bio14 and  
25 bio18 were positively associated with landraces from Europe, with a spring habit. The  
26 length of the arrows (bio14, bio18) represents the goodness of the association (**Figure**  
27 **2B**). For the selected accessions, bio14 and bio18 refer to the months from seed  
28 development to harvesting, i.e. May to July (**Figure 1E, Supplementary Table S1,**  
29 <http://www.fao.org/giews/en/>). We studied bio14 and bio18 of the original collection site  
30 of the accessions, in order to visualise the rainfall distribution in those areas. Several

1 barley accessions considered in this analysis originated from dry areas in summer  
2 (**Figure 2C, Supplementary Table S1**).

3 In addition, a correlation analysis was performed of the monthly rainfall data for all the  
4 selected accessions (**Supplementary Figure S1**). These results revealed that lower  
5 precipitation in July, the end of the harvesting season and one of the driest and warmest  
6 months of the year, significantly correlate with higher precipitation in November and  
7 December, when wild accession seeds may be available.

### 8 9 **Association analysis of marker – bioclimatic variables identifies a common** 10 **overlapping region on chromosome 1**

11 We performed an eGWAS to identify the genetic markers that were significantly  
12 associated with bio14 and bio18 variables. The LD within the WHEALBI collection was  
13 estimated for the total 440 accessions in order to define robust genomic intervals and  
14 support the identification of putative candidate genes (**Supplementary Table S2**). The  
15 LD decay distance of the whole collection was estimated to be approximately 1.25 Mb ( $r^2$   
16 =0.1) (**Supplementary Figure S2A**). As expected, the frequency of recombination was  
17 lower in the centromeric region in all chromosomes (**Supplementary Figure S2B**).  
18 Concerning the genome-wide associations, no significant signal was obtained for bio18,  
19 (**Supplementary Figure S3**), while significant signals were found for bio14 (**Figure 3A,**  
20 **Supplementary Table S3**).

21 On chromosome 1, a relatively narrow genomic region was defined using the LD decay  
22 distance and by considering the two significant marker-variable associations. Within this  
23 region, we identified gene models annotated as *dirigent protein DIR (HvDIR-like)*  
24 (*HORVU.MOREX.r2.1HG0000220*) and *paired amphipathic helix protein SIN3 (HvSIN3-*  
25 *like)* (*HORVU.MOREX.r2.1HG0000280*). These genes are the only ones located within  
26 the consistent LD blocks of the two MTAs on chromosome 1 that also exhibited distinct  
27 haplotypes in barley accessions associated with extreme values of the bio14 variable.  
28 Local LD analyses were also carried out using the data of the 110 accessions, to get  
29 additional insights into the observed patterns of *HvDIR-like* and *HvSIN3-like*, showing that

1 there is recombination between the two signals (**Supplementary Figure S4**). Barley  
2 accessions at the extremes of the bio14 distribution, carry dissimilar alleles for both  
3 *HvDIR-like* and *HvSIN3-like*, identifying haplotype A and haplotype B. Accessions with  
4 intermediate bio14 values exhibit mixed alleles combinations. The statistical analysis, that  
5 include FDR and Bonferroni correction ( $\alpha=0.05$ ) corresponding thresholds of  $-\log_{10}(p) =$   
6 6.947, controlled for the presence of false positives, which were further minimized through  
7 the use of the BLINK multiple linear regression method. Although the number of  
8 georeferenced accessions available is limited, the combination of the analytical  
9 approaches used supports the reliability of the significant MTAs identified. Nonetheless,  
10 the availability of a larger number of georeferenced accessions might have enabled the  
11 detection of additional MTAs.

12

### 13 **Barley accessions from extreme precipitation regimes show differences in seed** 14 **coat lignification patterns**

15 Barley accessions characterised by extreme precipitation regimes during the driest month  
16 of the year (bio14) were associated with *HvDIR-like* gene haplotype A (WB-294, WB-323,  
17 WB-338) and B (WB-403, WB-454, WB-459) (**Figure 3B, 3C, Supplementary Table S4**).  
18 Both haplotype A and haplotype B accessions are classified as spring, six-row  
19 accessions, restricting the variability between the groups. While accessions belonging to  
20 haplotype A do not receive rain during the driest month of the year (0 mm of rain),  
21 accessions belonging to haplotype B receive around 50 mm of rain during this month  
22 (relatively low to moderate rainfall, depending on the context). In *Arabidopsis*, canonical  
23 *DIR* genes have been shown to correlate with increased lignification (Thamil *et al.*, 2013)  
24 as together with LAC, they are essential to neolignan biosynthesis in seeds (Yonekura-  
25 Sakakibara *et al.*, 2021). This finding is relevant to our previous results which showed the  
26 involvement of a *HvLAC* gene in barley seed permeability and lignification (Gómez-  
27 Álvarez *et al.*, 2023).

28 We analysed the capacity of hulled seeds of barley accessions from extreme  
29 precipitation regimes to germinate in ground soil, thus mimicking a natural environment,  
30 after a flooding period of 4 days followed by 5 days of recovery. We observed that

1 accessions that harbour haplotype A (which receives less water during the summer  
2 months) were characterised by a better germination and seedling development during the  
3 recovery phase (40-80%) in comparison to accessions holding haplotype B (0-25%)  
4 (**Figure 3D, 3E**).

5 The barley annotated *HvDIR-like* protein lacks a canonical DIR domain but has a single  
6 jacalin-like lectin domain (JRL). In *Poaceae*, the family of dirigent proteins includes  
7 proteins holding not only a DIR domain but also a JRL domain (Esch et al., 2017, 2023).  
8 In the barley genome (MOREX, version 3), 76 genes are annotated as DIR proteins,  
9 holding a DIR domain only, a DIR and JRL domain, a single or two JRL domains (Luo et  
10 al., 2022; **Supplementary Figure S5**). The chimeric DIR-JRL group of proteins is not  
11 found in the *Arabidopsis thaliana* genome but is common in cereals (Esch et al., 2023).

12 Since the expression of *Arabidopsis DIR* genes have a known function during seed  
13 development for increased lignification (Yonekura-Sakakibara., et al 2021), we measured  
14 the barley *HvDIR-like* candidate expression at different stages after bolting. At seed  
15 maturation stage 3 (milk stage, Z75), the *HvDIR-like* gene showed an opposite trend in  
16 barley accessions holding extreme haplotypes in relation to bio14, with a higher  
17 expression in haplotype B (**Figure 4A**). This suggests that accessions harbouring  
18 haplotype B may be associated with an increased lignification, possibly influencing  
19 permeability of the seeds, thus subsequent germination. Accessions associated with  
20 haplotype A, on the other hand, may have an opposite phenotype.

21 Late seed maturation is facilitated by ABA, that is synthesized in the embryo and testa  
22 during seed development (Ali et al., 2022). In *Brassica* species, ABA has been shown to  
23 modulate the expression of *DIR-like* genes, that increases at the end of seed  
24 development (Paniagua et al., 2017). We thus measured ABA at barley seed maturation  
25 stage 3, observing that haplotype B accessions have an increased amount in comparison  
26 to haplotype A accessions (**Figure 4B**). At this developmental stage, *HvDIR-like*  
27 expression is higher in haplotype B.

28 The different *HvDIR-like* genes were sequenced (**Supplementary Figure S6**), and an  
29 amino acid shift from Lys (haplotype A) was identified in position 102 of the protein to Glu  
30 (haplotype B). In addition, a short deletion was observed in position -743 bp of the

1 promoter of the accessions holding haplotype A. Due to the function of canonical DIR  
2 proteins in lignin and neolignan biosynthesis in Arabidopsis, we studied the permeability  
3 of the seeds in the two groups of accessions. The results showed that, as expected, a  
4 lower permeability of the seed was associated with haplotype B (**Figure 4C**).

5 To study the lignification pattern, a further analysis was performed using fluorescence  
6 lifetime imaging microscopy (FLIM), in order to identify the fluorescence lifetime  
7 characteristics of the external seed surface. The measured lifetimes, upon phasor  
8 transformation (see Materials and Methods for details), showed an elongated distribution  
9 within the universal semi-circle, thus suggesting a complex mixture of autofluorescent  
10 components, putatively lignin, with heterogeneous characteristic lifetimes (**Figure 4D**).  
11 The measured lifetimes were color-coded so that different compositions and/or  
12 abundances of autofluorescent components were revealed. In fact, haplotypes A and B  
13 were colored differently (**Figure 4E**), which suggests that different lignins, in terms of  
14 composition and/or relative abundance of components, are present in their respective  
15 seed external layers.

16 Haplotype B appeared to be 'red-shifted' with respect to haplotype A in the phasor plot,  
17 which suggests a higher relative abundance of components with longer characteristic  
18 lifetimes. Haplotype A was instead more enriched in components with shorter  
19 characteristic lifetimes. This suggests that, as expected, haplotypes A and B are  
20 associated with a dissimilar lignin pattern with accessions harbouring haplotype B being  
21 associated with a lower permeability of the seeds.

22

### 23 **Barley accessions from extreme precipitation regimes show dissimilar activation** 24 **of dormancy after submergence**

25 The haplotype of the *SIN3*-like gene, available on the LDs overlapping region of chr 1, is  
26 involved in dormancy. Haplotypes A and B of the *HvSIN3-like* gene are characterised by  
27 SNPs and amino acid variations (**Figure 3A**). *HvSIN3-like* holds three paired amphipathic  
28 helix (PAH) domains and is similar to *SNL1* and *SNL2* from Arabidopsis (**Supplementary**  
29 **Figure S7**), which are known to positively regulate primary dormancy (Wang et al., 2013).

1 SNL1 and SNL2 are involved in histone deacetylation and can modulate the transcription  
2 of genes involved in ABA pathway, key hormone for dormancy regulation (Grzenda et al.,  
3 2009, Wang et al., 2013). In fact, ABA promotes seed dormancy and inhibits germination,  
4 while GA stimulates germination by mobilising seed reserves. Under normal O<sub>2</sub>  
5 conditions, a balance between ABA degradation and GA biosynthesis allows barley seeds  
6 to break dormancy and germinate. However, when seeds experience submergence  
7 stress, O<sub>2</sub> availability becomes a limiting factor for GA synthesis, enhancing ABA's  
8 inhibitory effect on germination (Benech-Arnold et al., 2006). Indeed, little is known about  
9 the role of SNL1 and SNL2 in secondary dormancy which can be activated as a  
10 consequence of stress, such as low O<sub>2</sub> (Considine et al., 2023).

11 We measured *HvSIN3-like* expression in barley embryos excised from the grain during  
12 a time-course experiment in which grains were submerged for 1, 2, 3, and 4 days,  
13 followed by 1 and 5 days of recovery (**Figure 5**). During the four submergence days, a  
14 higher *HvSIN3-like* expression was observed in haplotype B accessions than in haplotype  
15 A, with an increasing trend. We also measured the expression of genes previously found  
16 to be regulated in the *snl1 snl2-1* Arabidopsis mutant and thus possible targets of *HvSIN3-*  
17 *like* (Wang et al., 2013). *HvFUSCA3* (*FUS3*), a seed master regulator that plays a critical  
18 role in seed dormancy through positive ABA regulation and GA negative regulation (Liu  
19 et al., 2023), was found to be upregulated in haplotype B (**Figure 5**). In contrast,  
20 *HvCYP707A2*, involved in ABA catabolism, was found to be downregulated in haplotype  
21 B (**Figure 5**). These results suggest that *HvSIN3-like* and its downstream targets are  
22 regulated differently across haplotypes. Given that *HvSIN3-like* is associated with the  
23 transcriptional regulation of dormancy in Arabidopsis (Wang et al., 2013), we measured  
24 the expression of ABA- (*HvNCED1* and *HvABI5*) and GA-related genes (*HvGA2OX3*), to  
25 assess whether haplotype B accessions were in a dormant state. (**Figure 6A**). We  
26 observed an induction of *HvNCED1* and *HvABI5* in haplotype B accessions, involved in  
27 ABA biosynthesis and signalling. Similar results were obtained with *HvGA2OX3*, involved  
28 in GA catabolism. This result shows that ABA and GA regulation correlate with the  
29 differential expression of *HvSIN3-like* and its targets. In addition, we measured the  
30 concentration of ABA at the end of submergence, showing a higher amount of ABA in  
31 haplotype B in comparison with haplotype A accessions (**Figure 6B**). We thus measured

1 the low O<sub>2</sub>-responsive genes *HvPDC1*, observing an induction in haplotype B accessions  
2 during submergence and recovery. Oxygen is a critical limiting factor for barley seed  
3 germination. The seed coverings influence O<sub>2</sub> diffusion to the embryo, further shaping the  
4 germination response under hypoxic conditions (Bradford et al., 2008). These results  
5 support the hypothesis of secondary dormancy activation in haplotype B (**Figure 6C**).  
6 Indeed, the application of NO donors, which are known to release dormancy, resulted in  
7 improved germination after soil flooding in barley accessions harbouring haplotype B  
8 (**Figure 6D, Supplementary Figure S8**).

9

## 10 **Conclusions**

11 Landraces and wild accessions from plant genetic resources can be studied in function  
12 of the climatic variables of their sites of origin. This approach allows the investigation of  
13 genomic regions associated with a particular environment. When studying the plant  
14 response to submergence, the rainfall regime of the original collection site is of interest,  
15 since a location characterized by strong precipitation during the germination phase of the  
16 crop may exert selection for adaptation traits.

17 In this work, we explored the bioclimatic data of wild accessions and landraces of the  
18 barley WHEALBI collection and found that bio14 and bio18 significantly correlated with  
19 the barley's capacity to germinate after submergence. Environmental GWAS of the bio14  
20 variable along our wild and landrace barley subgroup identified an overlap between the  
21 LD regions of two significant marker-bioclimatic variable associations on chromosome 1.  
22 In this region we identified a non-canonical *HvDIR-like* protein, a family which in  
23 *Arabidopsis* play a role in lignin and neolignans biosynthesis, and a *HvSIN3-like* protein,  
24 which in *Arabidopsis* is involved in dormancy.

25 The barley panel harbours two haplotypes for the *HvSIN3-like* and *HvDIR-like*  
26 chromosomal regions in accessions at the extremes of the bio14 distribution. Haplotype  
27 A was characteristic of accessions originating from geographical regions with no rainfall  
28 during the driest months of the year and a higher permeability of the seed. On the other  
29 hand, haplotype B was characteristic of accessions originating from geographical regions

1 with some precipitation during the driest months of the year and a lower seed  
2 permeability. Haplotypes A and B were also characterised by a dissimilar lignin pattern  
3 and germination capacity in soil after a submergence, with haplotype B showing a  
4 reduced performance.

5 Our data collectively support the conclusion that barley accessions characteristic of  
6 regions with different amounts of rainfall during the driest months of the year have a  
7 dissimilar seed developmental program. This leads to a dissimilar composition and/or  
8 relative abundance of lignin on the seed surface, ultimately influencing seed permeability.  
9 This structural difference impacts on seed germination, when under prolonged flooding  
10 followed by recovery, activating or not a dormant state. Notably, seeds with a lower  
11 permeability become hypoxic, a condition that promotes secondary dormancy  
12 (**Supplementary Figure S9**). Our data collectively confirms the hypothesis that seed  
13 maturation is a critical stage for barley response to subsequent submergence events  
14 occurring during seed germination. Moreover, they reveal genetic variation that supports  
15 a different germination behaviour, shaped by rainfall regimes throughout cultivation cycle.

## 17 **Materials and Methods**

### 18 **Selection of barley accessions, climatic, and agroecological characterisation of the** 19 **panel**

20 A sub-group of the WHEALBI barley collection (<https://www.wheatinitiative.org/whealbi>,  
21 last accession June 2025) that had been previously used for GWAS (Gomez-Alvarez et  
22 al., 2023) was explored, selecting 110 genotypes of wild relatives (*Hordeum spontaneum*)  
23 and landrace (*Hordeum vulgare*) accessions with available geographic data  
24 (**Supplementary Table S1**). The selection of these accessions was constrained by the  
25 availability of geographical coordinates at the original collection sites and was refined to  
26 avoid stratification; indeed, a geographical extent was defined spanning from longitude -  
27 20.26 (min) to 105.65 (max) and latitude 0.0 (min) to 75.58 (max). Genotypes derived  
28 from accessions out of this extent were excluded. All seeds used in this study originated

1 from a 2020 batch, and only varieties exhibiting germination rates greater than 80% were  
2 selected.

3 The previously available data were used to define the submergence tolerance index  
4 (STI): (% of germinated seeds after 2 days of submergence followed by 5 days of recovery  
5 / % of germinated seeds after 5 days in air) x 100 (Gomez-Alvarez et al., 2023). This  
6 index ranges from 1 to 100% and corresponds to the capacity to germinate well in the  
7 post submergence period in comparison to germination in air. When it is equal to 100%,  
8 the germination capacity in the recovery period after submergence is fully maintained.  
9 Unless otherwise stated, all the following environmental and genetic analyses were  
10 carried out in R (R Core Team, 2017). Historical Bioclimatic precipitation data (1970 to  
11 2000) were obtained from WorldClim2 database (<https://worldclim.org/>, last accession  
12 January 2024) using the *R/raster* package. The variables selected were: bio12, annual  
13 precipitation; bio13, precipitation of the wettest month; bio14, precipitation of the driest  
14 month; bio15, precipitation seasonality; bio16, precipitation of the wettest quarter; bio17,  
15 precipitation of the driest quarter; bio18, precipitation of the warmest quarter; bio19,  
16 precipitation of the coldest quarter. Correlation analyses among the variables and with  
17 the STI were performed using *R/cor*, while PCA was performed using *R/factoextra*  
18 (Kassambara and Mundt, 2020)

19 The agroecological data of the barley accessions were extrapolated using the  
20 information available in the GAEZ v4 Data Portal of the Food and Agriculture Organization  
21 of the United Nations (FAO, <https://gaez.fao.org/pages/data-viewer>, last accession n  
22 September 2023). The data viewer tool was explored, focusing on the land and water  
23 resources of the agroecological areas. For the cultivation calendar, data available from  
24 the passport of each accession were coupled with the information from the FAO GIEWS  
25 databases (<http://www.fao.org/giews/en/>, last accession in September 2023).

## 26 **Linkage Disequilibrium (LD) and Environmental Genome Wide Association Studies** 27 **(eGWAS)**

28 The linkage disequilibrium (LD) decay as a function of physical distance was calculated  
29 using genotyping data from the entire WHEALBI collection, including data on 440  
30 genotypes derived from wild relatives, landraces as well as commercial varieties. We thus

1 randomly selected 12K SNP markers from an initial set of approximately 100 K markers  
2 with a minimum allele frequency (MAF) of 0.1, using *-thin* function implemented in plink  
3 1.9 (Purcell et al., 2007). The evolution of LD as a function of physical distance was  
4 evaluated considering all pairwise LD  $r^2$  estimates within each chromosome separately,  
5 with *R/Ldheatmap* (Shin et al. 2006), adapting the method used by Dell'Acqua and  
6 colleagues (Dell'Acqua *et al.*, 2015; Woldeyohannes et al., 2022). To visualize trends of  
7 local LD in each chromosome, individual marker  $r^2$  values were averaged, using 5 Mbps  
8 moving windows. LD decay was estimated as a function of physical distance, according  
9 to the Hill and Weir equation (Hill and Weir, 1988). The LD decay distance was  
10 determined with a threshold of  $r^2$  equal to 0.1. Local LD analysis was visualised with  
11 Haploview software (Barret et al., 2005)

12 The selected WHEALBI panel of 110 accessions was analysed using exome  
13 sequencing (Bustos-Korts et al. 2019). *GAPIT3* package in R was used to identify  
14 associations between the bioclimatic variables and the available SNPs, using a Bayesian-  
15 information and linkage-disequilibrium iterative nested keyway (BLINK) (Huang et al.  
16 2019) to consider population structure and LD to obtain the significant associations (Liu  
17 et al. 2016). LD windows were used to obtain the list of candidate genes from eGWAS.  
18 To ensure robustness, we applied statistical corrections for multiple testing. We used both  
19 False Discovery Rate (FDR) and Bonferroni corrections ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ). All associations  
20 identified using FDR were confirmed under this threshold. Additionally, the use of the  
21 BLINK algorithm—a refined version of FarmCPU— offered improved control over false  
22 positives and accounted for population structure more effectively than traditional GLM or  
23 MLM approaches (Liu et al., 2016).

24

## 25 **Phenotypic analysis, seed-coat permeability and NO donor and scavenger** 26 **treatments**

27 For the phenotypic analysis, plants were grown in Magenta GA-7 vessels (Merck, 77 ×  
28 77 × 97 mm) in a growth cabinet (Percival Scientific, Perry, IA, USA) at 20 °C and 50%  
29 RH in the dark. The lids of the Magenta GA-7 vessels used for air samples had a 2-cm

1 diameter hole to allow O<sub>2</sub> diffusion. Submerged seeds were treated for 5 days, adding  
2 350 ml of demineralized water. After the submergence, seeds were transferred into pots  
3 containing a combination of soil and vermiculite for 5 days in control conditions.  
4 Phenotypic analysis of the seedlings was performed using the PhenoAlxpert Pro  
5 (LemnaTec).

6 The seed-coat permeability test was performed using the Yonekura-Sakakibara  
7 protocol (2021) with modifications for barley seeds, as previously described in Gomez-  
8 Alvarez et al. (2023).

9 Supplementation with NO donors and scavengers was performed as previously  
10 described for Gomez-Alvarez et al. (2023). Briefly, during submergence, haplotype A  
11 accessions were supplemented with the NO scavenger carboxy-PTIO potassium salt  
12 (cPTIO, 0.5 mM; Sigma-Aldrich), while haplotype B accessions were supplemented with  
13 the NO donor S-nitroso-N-acetylpenicillamine (SNAP, 0.5 mM; Sigma-Aldrich).

14

## 15 **DNA and RNA extraction, sequencing and gene expression analysis**

16 Sequencing of the genomic material was performed using the Wizard Genomic DNA  
17 Purification Kit (Promega), according to the manufacturer's protocol. After the DNA  
18 extraction, PCR amplification was performed using the Phusion High Fidelity DNA  
19 Polymerase (ThermoFisher Scientific). The primers used are listed in **Supplementary**  
20 **Table S5**. Sequencing procedures are reported in Gomez-Alvarez et al. (2023).

21 For gene expression analysis during grain development, the barley accessions were  
22 grown at 20 °C under a photoperiod of 14 h light (120 μmol<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>). Sampling was  
23 performed as in Gomez-Alvarez et al. (2023), following the Zadoks scale for  
24 developmental stages: awn tipping (Z49; 1), spike above collar (Z55; 2), grain milk stage  
25 (Z75; 3), and grain dough stage (Z85; 4). Samples were collected uniformly across the  
26 spike to minimize variation in seed maturation. Experiments were performed using pools  
27 of five seeds for each barley accession. For gene expression during germination, seeds  
28 of barley accessions were submerged and then the embryos were excised and collected

1 at 1, 2, 3, and 4 days. After 4 days the water was removed, and seeds were maintained  
2 in air for up to 4 days. Embryos were dissected at each time-point, pooled, frozen in liquid  
3 nitrogen, and stored at  $-80^{\circ}\text{C}$  until processing. For the recovery period sampling, the  
4 seminal root and the coleoptile were removed when present. Experiments were  
5 performed using pools of five seeds for each barley accession.

6 Embryo RNA extraction was performed using a Spectrum™ Plant Total RNA Kit  
7 (Sigma Aldrich) according to the manufacturer's protocol and as explained in Gomez-  
8 Alvarez et al. (2023). Two housekeeping genes were used for reference: *Tubulin1* and  
9 *Actin* (Hoang et al., 2013a; Mendiondo et al., 2016). Relative expression levels were  
10 calculated using geNorm (<https://genorm.cmgg.be/>), with the tolerant accession WB-294  
11 in air as the reference. Three biological replicates were used. Primers used are listed in  
12 **Supplementary Table S5**.

13

#### 14 **Two-photon FLIM microscopy and data analysis**

15 The autofluorescence intensity and the lifetime of barley seed cross-sections were  
16 acquired using an Olympus microscope coupled with a two-photon Ti:sapphire laser with  
17 80-MHz repetition rate (MaiTai HP, SpectraPhysics) and a FLIMbox system (ISS, Urbana  
18 Champaign). The intrinsic fluorescence of the seed coat was excited at 760 nm and  
19 emissions were collected using a  $\times 30$  planApo silicon immersion objective (NA=1.0) in  
20 the 380-570-nm range, where most lignin fluorescence is expected to fall (Donaldson et  
21 al., 2013; Donaldson and Radotic, 2013). For each measurement, a  $512 \times 512$ -pixel image  
22 (scan speed 10us / pixels) was collected. FLIM data were collected until a minimum of  
23  $10^5$  counts were obtained for each pixel of the region of interest. Calibration of the ISS  
24 Flimbox system was performed by measuring the known mono-exponential lifetime decay  
25 of Fluorescein at pH = 11.0 (i.e., 4.0 ns upon excitation at 760 nm, collection range: 380–  
26 570 nm). For the fluorescence lifetime imaging analysis, an image segmentation was  
27 performed by selecting only the seed coat region and the FLIM data analyzed using the  
28 phasor approach (Digman et al., 2008). In brief, for each image pixel, a fluorescence  
29 lifetime decay is measured, which is then converted by Fourier transform into a point, with  
30 coordinates  $g$  and  $s$ , in the phasor plot. Each pixel in the image thus corresponds to a

1 point in the phasor plot and, *vice versa*, each point of the cluster in the phasor plot  
2 corresponds to an image pixel. Since each molecule has its own lifetime, by selecting  
3 different sub-regions of the cluster of points in the phasor plot, different species in the  
4 image can be highlighted with no *a-priori* knowledge. FLIM data analysis was performed  
5 using SimFCS v. 4.0 software (Laboratory for Fluorescence Dynamics, University of  
6 California, Irvine).

7

### 8 **ABA quantification analysis**

9 ABA levels were measured by using whole seeds. Quantification was carried out with an  
10 ELISA kit specific for ABA (AS20 4392, Agrisera, Sweden), following the manufacturer's  
11 protocol as in Gomez-Alvarez et al., 2023. For each barley accession, pools of five seeds  
12 for each sample were used in the analysis.

13

### 14 **Statistical analysis**

15 Statistical analyses of the environmental data were performed using R 1.2.5019, (Bunn  
16 and Korpela, 2008). The ggpubr package (<https://rpkgs.datanovia.com/ggpubr/>) was  
17 used to visualize the data and to compute the statistical analyses. Student's t-test was  
18 used to determine significant differences between pairs of means, and ANOVA followed  
19 by Fisher's LSD test was used to determine significant differences among means. The  
20 phylogenetic tree was performed by downloading all the protein sequences of *Hordeum*  
21 *vulgare Sin3-like* and *Arabidopsis thaliana SNL* genes available in the TAIR database  
22 (<https://www.arabidopsis.org/>, last accession in September 2023). Protein and  
23 phylogenetic tree alignment were performed with MEGA11: Molecular Evolutionary  
24 Genetics Analysis version 11 (Tamura, Stecher, and Kumar 2021).

### 25 **Accession Numbers**

1 Sequence data from this article can be found in the GenBank/EMBL data libraries under  
2 accession numbers *HORVU.MOREX.r2.1HG0000220* and  
3 *HORVU.MOREX.r2.1HG0000280*.

4

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16

## 17 **Conflict of Interest**

18 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

19

## 20 **Author Contributions**

21 EMGA performed the experiments and bioinformatics analysis; MDA and LC supervised  
22 the environmental genomics analysis; MM and FC supervised the microscopy  
23 experiments and analysis; PP critically revised the work; CP conceived the work and  
24 experiments; CP and EMGA wrote and revised the paper; all authors contributed to the  
25 final version of the paper.

26

## 1 Figure Legends

2 **Figure 1.** Geographic distribution, agroclimatic classification, and genetic structure of wild  
 3 and landrace barley accessions from the WHEALBI collection. **A)** Map of the selected  
 4 wild and landrace barley WHEALBI accessions. **B)** Number of accessions belonging to  
 5 the different agroclimatic regions. Lands 1: lands with ample irrigated soils; Lands 2: lands  
 6 with severe soil limitations; Sub-tropics 1: cool, semi-humid; Sub-tropics 2: cool, semi-arid;  
 7 Sub-tropics 3: cool, sub-humid; Sub-tropics 4: moderately cool, humid; Sub-tropics 5:  
 8 moderately cool, semi-arid; Sub-tropics 6: moderately cool, sub-humid; Sub-tropics 7:  
 9 warm, semi-arid; Temperate 1: cool, moist; Temperate 2: cool, wet; Tropics 1: highland,  
 10 humid; Tropics 2: highland, sub-humid; Tropics 3: lowland, sub-humid. **C)** Agroclimatic  
 11 regions grouped based on humidity of the environment in relation to the Submergence  
 12 Tolerance Index (STI) of the barley accessions. **D)** Principal Component Analysis (PCA)  
 13 on the exome of barley accessions, visualising the row type, growth habit, continent of  
 14 origin, and biological status. Dim1, dimension 1; Dim2 dimension 2. **E)** Calendar of  
 15 development of the barley accessions (FAO database). Timeframe of each  
 16 developmental phase of the agricultural cycle includes several months. Within each box,  
 17 center lines denote median values, boxes limits extend from the 25<sup>th</sup> to the 75<sup>th</sup> percentile,  
 18 whiskers denote 1.5x interquartile range and dots denote outliers. ANOVA followed by  
 19 Tukey's HSD test (p-value <0.05).

20 **Figure 2.** Correlation, Principal Component Analysis (PCA), and geographic distribution  
 21 of rainfall-related bioclimatic variables associated with barley tolerance. **A)** Correlation  
 22 analysis of all the bioclimatic variables related to rainfall patterns (bio12-bio19, see  
 23 Materials and Methods section) and Submergence Tolerance Index (STI). Spearman's  
 24 rank correlation coefficient analysis, p-value <0.05. For STI, only the correlations with  
 25 bio14 and bio18 are significant. **B)** PCA of the bioclimatic variables considering the row  
 26 type, growth habit, continent of origin, and biological status. Only bio14 and bio18 are  
 27 plotted since they show a significant correlation with the STI. **C)** Rainfall pattern for  
 28 bioclimatic variables bio14 and bio18 in the areas where the barley accessions were  
 29 collected.

30 **Figure 3.** Environmental Genome Wide Association Study (eGWAS) for rainfall bio14  
 31 variable and phenotype of extreme barley accessions. **A)** Manhattan plot of the eGWAS  
 32 analysis of bio14 showing the haplotypes for the significant single nucleotide  
 33 polymorphisms (SNPs) (FDR and Bonferroni, p-value < 0.05) and the Linkage  
 34 Disequilibrium (LD) blocks that show an overlapping region on chromosome 1. Green line  
 35 represents Bonferroni threshold ( $\alpha=0.05$ ) **B)** Bio14 distribution of the barley accessions.  
 36 Haplotype A (WB-294, WB-323, WB-338) and Haplotype B (WB-403, WB-454, WB-459)  
 37 extreme accessions are identified in the graph. Student's t test (p-value, 0.05) **C)** Bio14  
 38 value in extreme accessions belonging to haplotype A and B. **D.)** Germination percentage  
 39 and **E)** seedling area of extreme barley accessions analysed after 4 days of flooding  
 40 followed by 5 days of recovery in soil using hulled seeds. Within each box, center lines  
 41 denote median values, boxes limits extend from the 25<sup>th</sup> to the 75<sup>th</sup> percentile, whiskers

1 denote 1.5x interquartile range and dots denote outliers. ANOVA followed by Tukey's HSD  
2 test (p-value <0.05).

3 **Figure 4.** Gene expression, abscisic acid (ABA) quantification, seed permeability, and  
4 fluorescence lifetime imaging (FLIM) of extreme barley accessions. **A)** Gene expression  
5 analysis of *HvDIR-like* gene during seed development in varieties holding haplotype A  
6 and B. **B)** ABA quantification in grain milk stage using whole seeds. Within each box,  
7 center lines denote median values; boxes limits extend from the 25<sup>th</sup> to the 75<sup>th</sup> percentile;  
8 whiskers denote 1.5x interquartile range and dots denote outliers. ANOVA followed by  
9 Tukey's HSD test (p-value <0.05). **C)** Permeability analysis performed for bio14 extreme  
10 barley accessions, belonging to haplotype A and B. Within each box, center lines denote  
11 median values, boxes limits extend from the 25<sup>th</sup> to the 75<sup>th</sup> percentile, whiskers denote  
12 1.5x interquartile range and dots denote outliers. ANOVA followed by Tukey's HSD test (p-  
13 value <0.05). **D)** FLIM-derived Phasor plot showing the distribution of lifetimes measured,  
14 pixel-by-pixel, in a total of 55 images obtained from three accessions for each haplotype.  
15 A LUT is applied to associate a specific color to the position of each lifetime in the phasor  
16 plot. **E)** Color-coded image that indicates lifetime of haplotypes. Scale bar 20um.

17 **Figure 5.** Gene expression during barley germination under submergence and recovery  
18 of extreme barley accessions. *HvSIN3-like*, *HvFUS3-like* and *HvCYP707A2-like* gene  
19 expression during barley germination in embryos after 1, 2, 3, and 4 days of submergence  
20 and 1, and 5 days of recovery. Within each box, center lines denote median values, boxes  
21 limits extend from the 25<sup>th</sup> to the 75<sup>th</sup> percentile, whiskers denote 1.5x interquartile range  
22 and dots denote outliers. ANOVA followed by Tukey's HSD test (p-value <0.05).

23 **Figure 6.** Dormancy and hypoxia related molecular analysis during barley germination  
24 under submergence and recovery of extreme barley accessions. **A)** *HvNCED1*, *HvABI5*,  
25 and *HvGA<sub>2</sub>OX<sub>3</sub>* gene expression analysis during barley germination in embryos after 1,  
26 2, 3, and 4 days of submergence and 1 and 5 days of recovery. **B)** abscisic acid (ABA)  
27 quantification in haplotype A and haplotype B barley accessions during submergence at  
28 day 4. **C)** *HvPDC1* gene expression analysis during barley germination in embryos after  
29 1, 2, 3, and 4 days of submergence and 1 and 5 days of recovery. **D)** Germination  
30 percentage after 4 days of submergence followed by 5 days of recovery using nitric oxide  
31 (NO) scavenger (cPTIO, 0.5 mM) for haplotype A accessions, and NO donor (SNAP, 0.5  
32 mM) for haplotype B accessions. Within each box, center lines denote median values,  
33 boxes limits extend from the 25<sup>th</sup> to the 75<sup>th</sup> percentile, whiskers denote 1.5x interquartile  
34 range and dots denote outliers. ANOVA followed by Tukey's HSD test (p-value <0.05).

35

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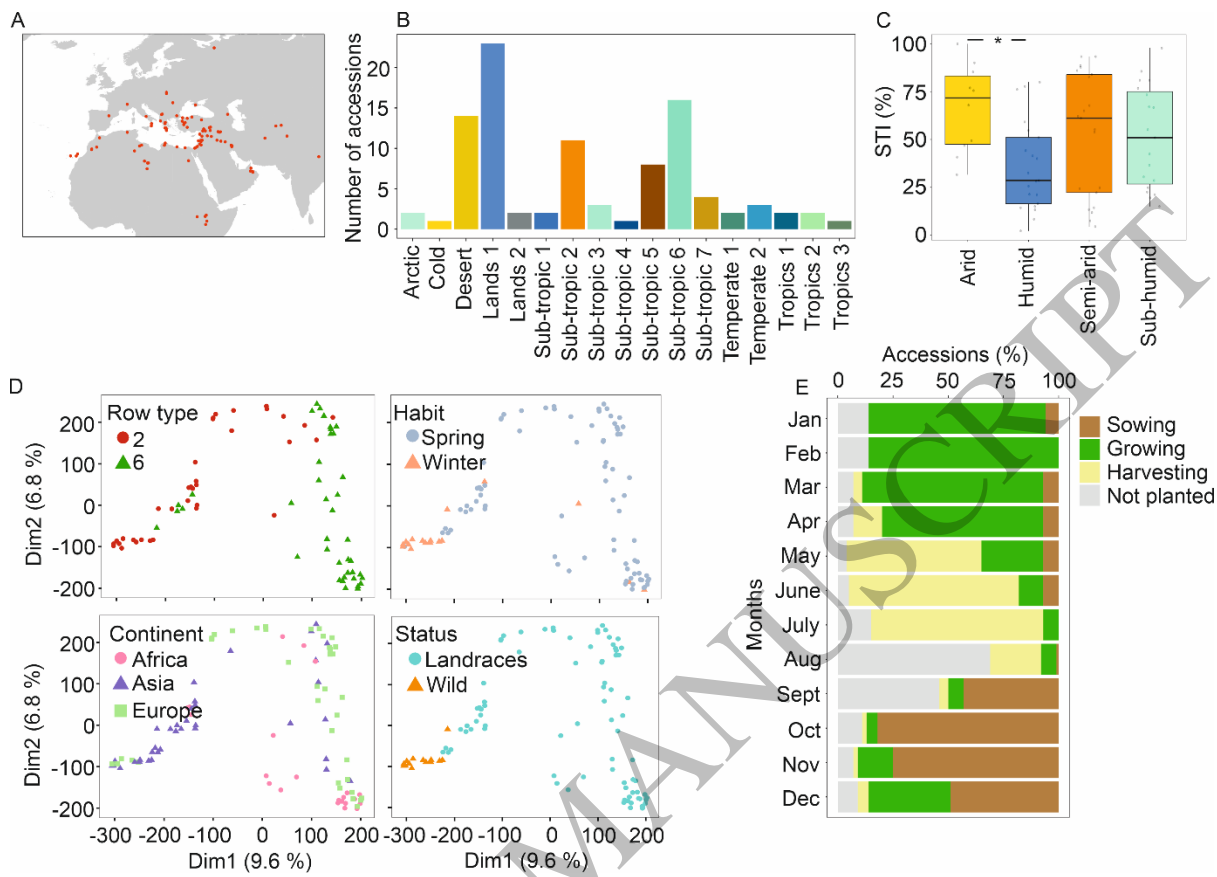


Figure 1  
159x114 mm (x DPI)

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3  
4

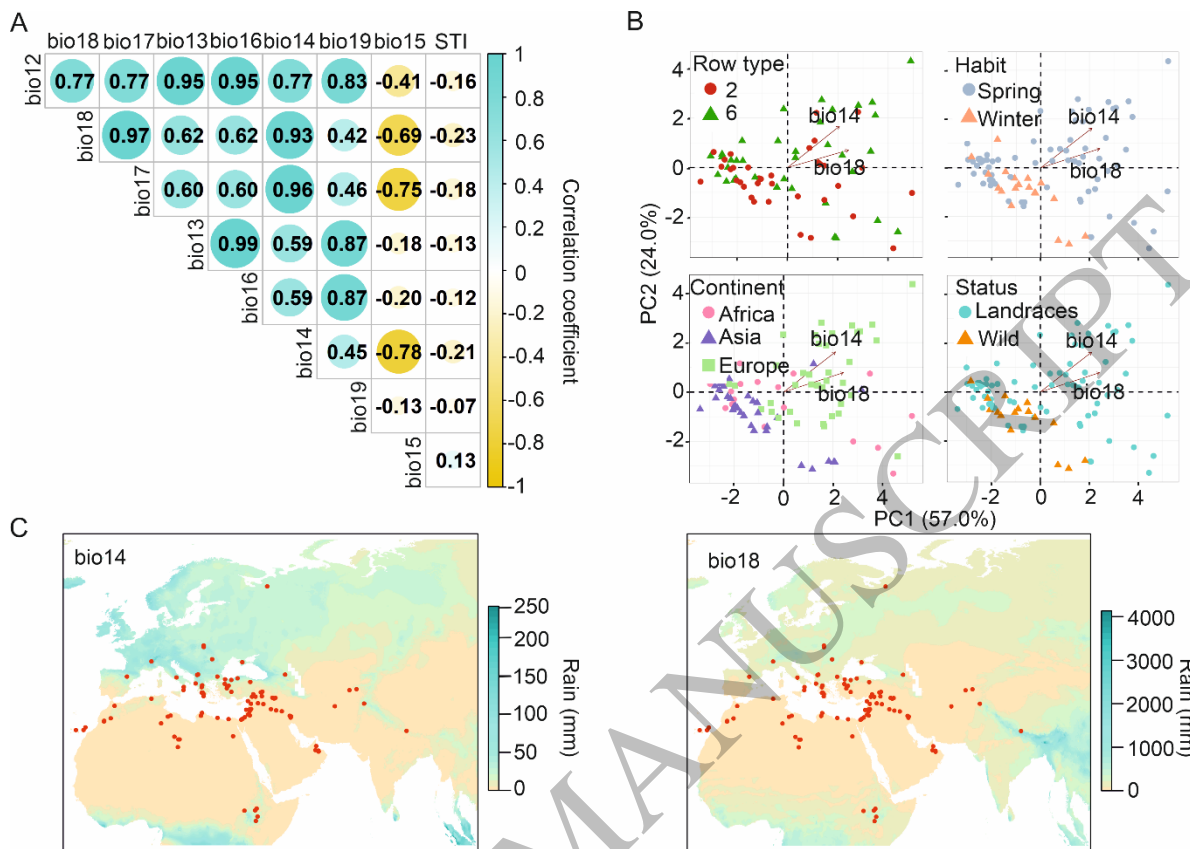


Figure 2  
157x112 mm (x DPI)

1  
2  
3  
4

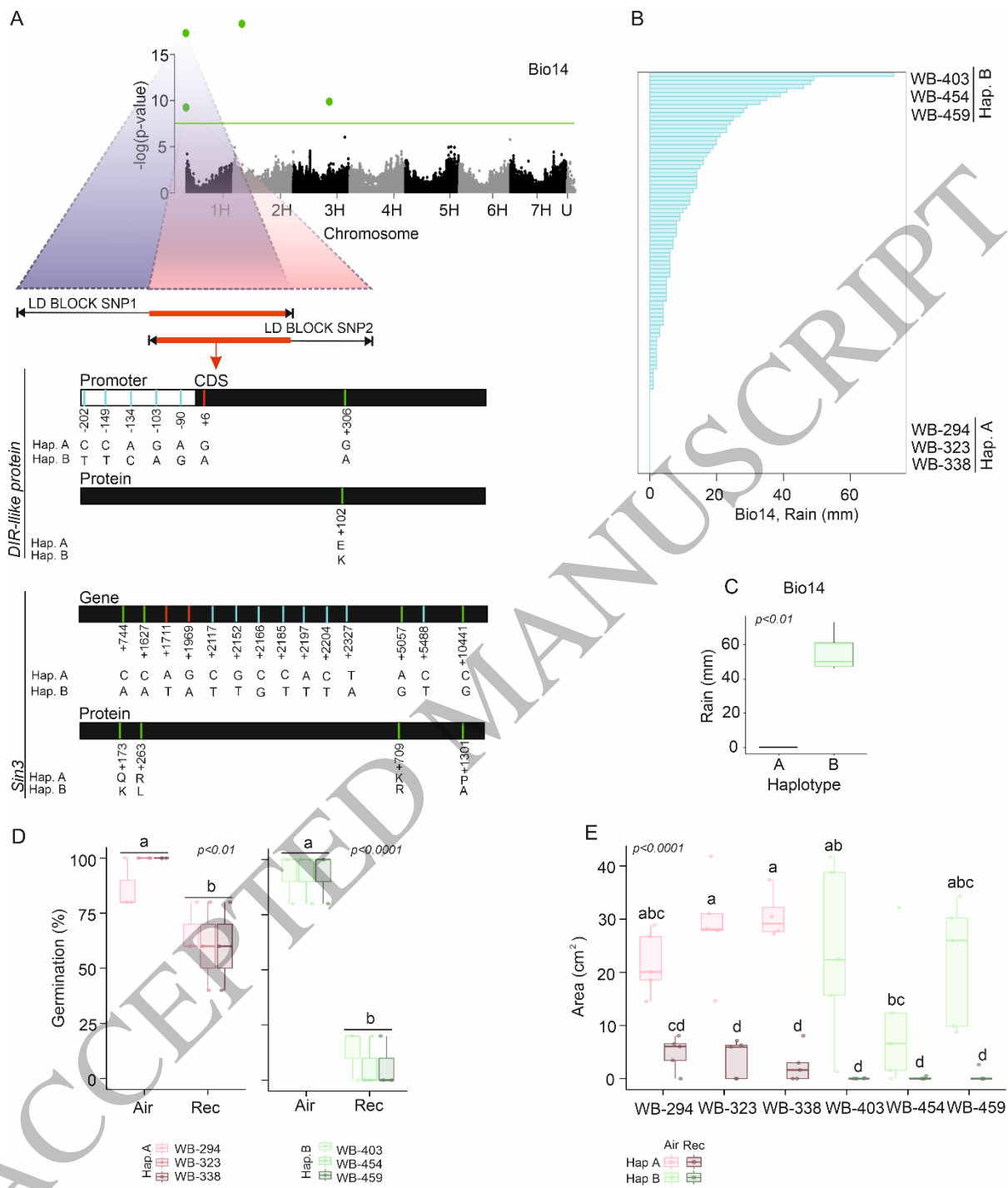


Figure 3  
159x187 mm (x DPI)

1  
2  
3  
4

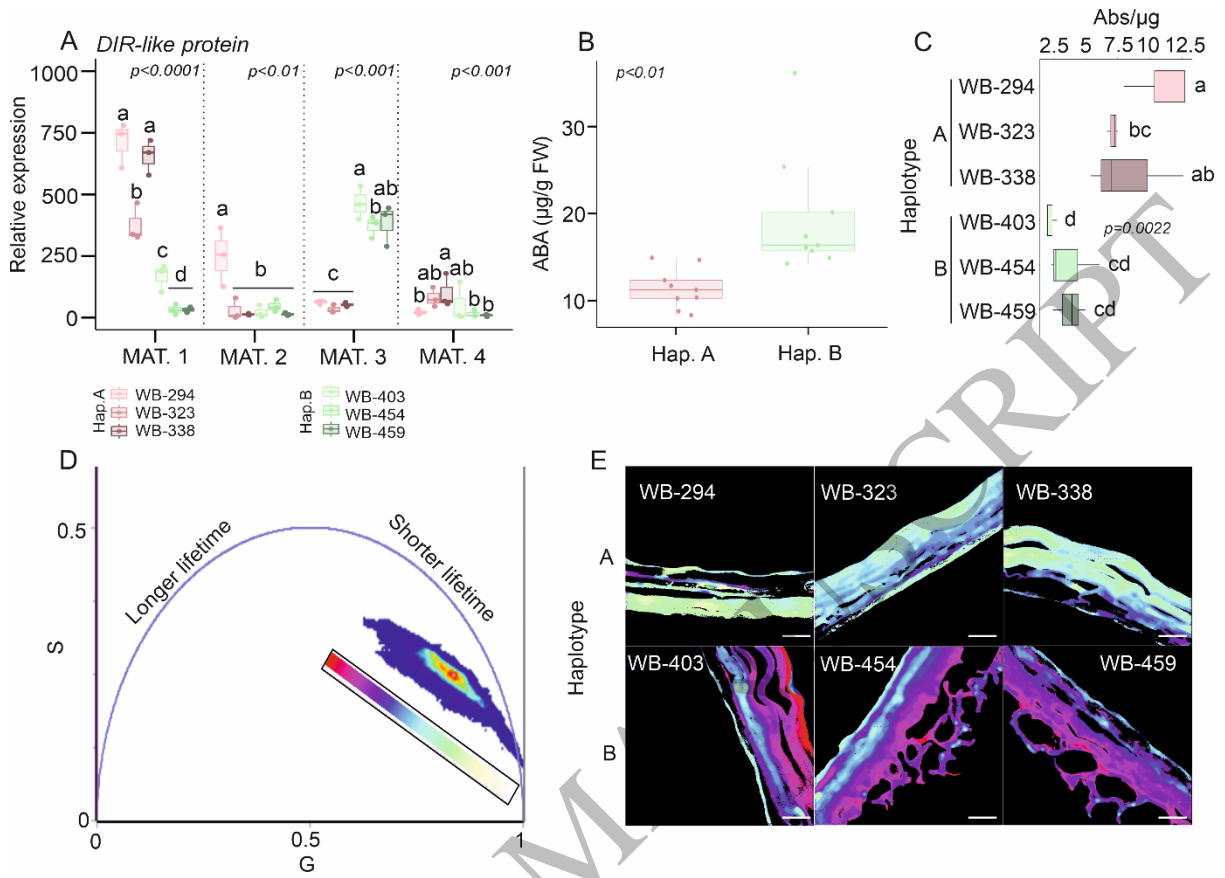


Figure 4  
159x114 mm (x DPI)

1  
2  
3  
4

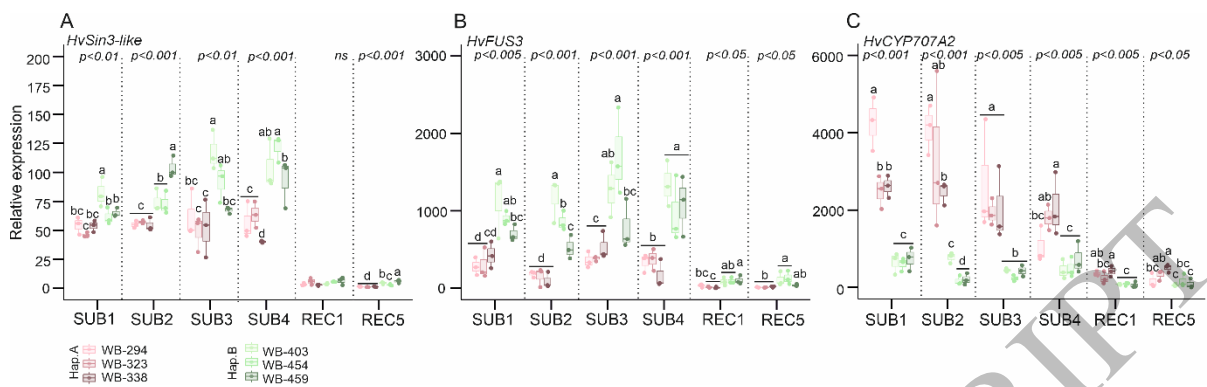


Figure 5  
 159x49 mm (x DPI)

1  
 2  
 3  
 4

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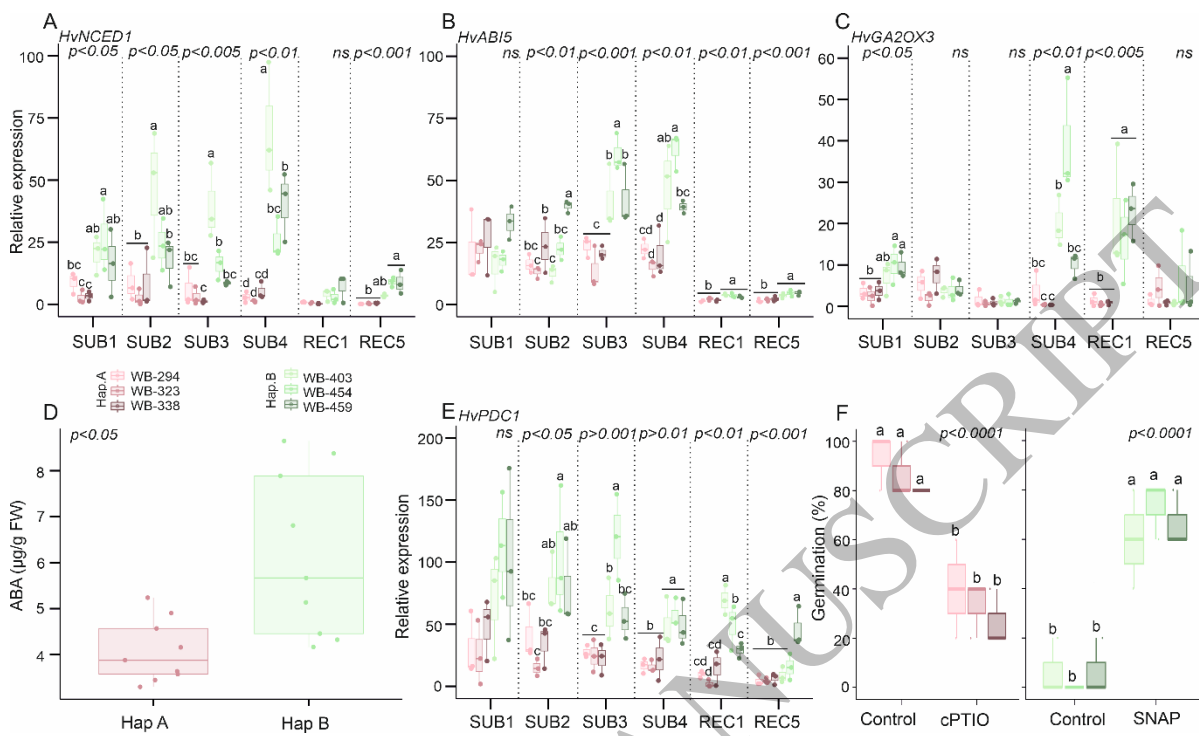


Figure 6  
 159x95 mm (x DPI)

1  
 2  
 3