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1 **Reducing stomatal density in barley improves drought tolerance without impacting on yield.**

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4 Manipulation of a gene involved in the suppression of stomatal development in barley can reduce  
5 stomatal density, leading to improved drought tolerance without deleterious effects on yield.

6 J.H. and C.H. performed barley physiological and statistical analyses, C.H. and J.H. performed the  
7 confocal microscopy; C.D. performed qPCR. J.H. carried out Arabidopsis experiments and J.A.D.  
8 contributed to the stomatal analysis. L.H., J.S. and R.W. performed barley gene cloning and  
9 transformation. J.E.G., L.H. and R.W. conceived and supervised the project. C.H. created the figures;  
10 C.H., J.H. and J.E.G. analysed the data and wrote the article with input from the other authors.

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19

20 **Abstract**

21 The epidermal patterning factor (EPF) family of secreted signalling peptides regulate the frequency  
22 of stomatal development in model dicot and basal land plant species. Here we identify and  
23 manipulate the expression of a barley ortholog and demonstrate that when overexpressed HvEPF1  
24 limits entry to, and progression through, the stomatal development pathway. Despite substantial  
25 reductions in leaf gas exchange, barley plants with significantly reduced stomatal density show no  
26 reductions in grain yield. In addition, HvEPF1OE barley lines exhibit significantly enhanced water use  
27 efficiency, drought tolerance and soil water conservation properties. Our results demonstrate the  
28 potential of manipulating stomatal frequency for the protection and optimisation of cereal crop  
29 yields under future drier environments.

## 31 Introduction

32 With the global population set to rise to over 9 billion by 2050 and the predicted instability in global  
33 climate patterns, fears over global food security continue to grow (Godfray *et al.*, 2010). Prolonged  
34 periods of drought and expanded zones of desertification are expected to become increasingly  
35 prevalent as this century progresses (IPCC, 2014). The need to expand agriculture into areas of  
36 marginal land, where drought is a severe inhibitor of sustainable agriculture (Fita *et al.*, 2015),  
37 continues to increase. 70% of global freshwater is already utilised for irrigation and rain-fed  
38 agriculture is now the world's largest consumer of water (Foley *et al.*, 2011). A potential way to both  
39 futureproof against climate change, and to expand crop production onto water-limited marginal  
40 lands would be through improvements to crop drought tolerance and water use efficiency (*WUE*, the  
41 ratio of carbon gained to water lost).

42 The vast majority of water is lost from crops via transpiration and reducing this loss provides a  
43 potential route towards improving *WUE* and conserving soil water levels (Hepworth *et al.*, 2015). To  
44 this end, much research into the use of anti-transpirants was carried out in 1960's and 70's  
45 (Davenport *et al.*, 1972). However, although effective in improving water status and increasing fruit  
46 size, these chemical solutions were never economically viable on an agricultural scale.

47 The majority of water loss from plants occurs via transpiration through epidermal pores known as  
48 stomata, making these cellular structures an attractive target in the battle to prevent water loss.  
49 Recently several laboratory studies have demonstrated that it is possible to improve drought  
50 tolerance and *WUE* by reducing the frequency of stomata on leaves; by using genetic manipulation  
51 or mutation to reduce stomatal density (*SD*) improved water use efficiency has been achieved across  
52 several model dicot species including *Arabidopsis* (Yoo *et al.*, 2010; Franks *et al.*, 2015; Hepworth *et al.*,  
53 2015), poplar (Lawson *et al.*, 2014) and tobacco (Yu *et al.*, 2008). In addition, the ectopic  
54 expression of a putative transcription factor in maize has led to reduced stomatal density and gas  
55 exchange in a monocot (Liu *et al.*, 2015).

56 The manipulation of *SD* has been facilitated by microscopic studies which characterised the cellular  
57 stages of the stomatal lineage, and molecular studies that revealed the developmental mechanisms  
58 controlling their progression (Zhao & Sack, 1999; Han & Torii, 2016). The majority of these studies  
59 have been carried out using the genetically tractable, model plant species *Arabidopsis*. During early  
60 *Arabidopsis* leaf development, a subset of epidermal cells known as meristemoid mother cells

61 (MMCs) become primed to enter the stomatal lineage. Each MMC then undergoes an initial  
62 asymmetric entry division to produce a meristemoid in addition to a larger daughter cell known as a  
63 stomatal lineage ground cell (SLGC). SLGCs either differentiate directly into epidermal pavement  
64 cells or undergo further asymmetric divisions to produce secondary meristemoids. Some  
65 meristemoids can themselves undergo further asymmetric divisions, each of which reforms a  
66 meristemoid and creates an additional SLGC. Each meristemoid eventually differentiates into a  
67 guard mother cell, small and rounded in shape, prior to undergoing a symmetric division to form the  
68 guard cell pair of the mature stomatal complex. These cell fate transitions and divisions, which  
69 ultimately control the number and proportions of stomata and pavement cells in the mature leaf  
70 epidermis, are controlled by a sub-group of related basic helix-loop-helix (bHLH) transcription  
71 factors; SPCH, MUTE and FAMA (Ohashi-Ito & Bergmann, 2006; MacAlister *et al.*, 2007; Pillitteri &  
72 Torii, 2007). SPCH primarily directs expression of genes controlling meristemoid formation including  
73 members of the cysteine-rich EPIDERMAL PATTERNING FACTOR (EPF) family of secreted signalling  
74 peptides, which in turn activate a pathway that regulates SPCH stability, thus forming a feedback  
75 loop that regulates the number of cells entering the stomatal lineage (Adrian *et al.*, 2015; Simmons  
76 & Bergmann, 2016). The best characterised negative regulators of stomatal density in this peptide  
77 family are EPF1 and EPF2, which are numbered in order of their discovery (Hara *et al.*, 2007; Hara *et al.*,  
78 *et al.*, 2009; Hunt & Gray, 2009). Both peptides act extracellularly within the aerial epidermal cell layer  
79 to suppress stomatal development through activation of an intracellular MAP kinase signalling  
80 pathway (Bergmann *et al.*, 2004; Wang *et al.*, 2007; Lampard *et al.*, 2008). Although their functions  
81 somewhat overlap, EPF2 acts earliest in stomatal development to restrict entry of cells into the  
82 stomatal lineage, whilst EPF1 acts later to orient subsequent divisions of meristemoid cells and  
83 enforce stomatal spacing through the 'one-cell-spacing' rule via the inhibition of MUTE expression  
84 (Hara *et al.*, 2007; Qi *et al.*, 2017). Manipulation of the expression levels of these peptides in  
85 Arabidopsis has led to significant improvements in drought tolerance and *WUE* in experiments  
86 conducted in controlled-environment plant growth rooms (Doheny-Adams *et al.*, 2012; Hepworth *et al.*,  
87 *et al.*, 2015).

88 In contrast to the Arabidopsis model system, our knowledge of stomatal development in crops is  
89 relatively limited (Raissig *et al.*, 2016). Although the grasses include many of our major global crops,  
90 our molecular understanding of their transpirational control mechanisms remains extremely limited.  
91 It is known from microscopic observations that grass stomata are formed by a single asymmetric cell  
92 division that forms a stomatal precursor cell (a guard mother cell) and an epidermal pavement cell  
93 (Stebbins & Jain, 1960). There are no further asymmetric divisions of the stomatal lineage cells  
94 analogous to the repeated possible divisions that meristemoids undergo in Arabidopsis (Serna,

95 2011). The mature grass stomatal complex is formed by division of two neighbouring cells that give  
96 rise to flanking subsidiary cells, and a symmetric division of the guard mother which produces two  
97 dumbbell-shaped guard cells - rather than the characteristically kidney-shaped guard cells of most  
98 dicots (Hetherington & Woodward, 2003; Serna, 2011). In contrast to dicots, all grass stomatal  
99 development initiates at the leaf base. The patterning of stomata within the leaf epidermis also  
100 differs in grasses, with stomata forming in straight files parallel to the leaf vein as opposed to the  
101 'scattered' distribution seen in *Arabidopsis* (Stebbins & Khush, 1961; Geisler & Sack, 2002; Serna,  
102 2011)

103 Despite these differences in stomatal shape and patterning it appears that the molecular control of  
104 stomatal development has similarities across a wide range of plant species. Functional orthologs of  
105 genes encoding for bHLH transcription factors involved in *Arabidopsis* stomatal development have  
106 been identified in grasses including; rice, maize (Liu *et al.*, 2009) and brachypodium (Raissig *et al.*,  
107 2016) and recently in the early diverging non-vascular mosses (Chater *et al.*, 2016). EPF orthologs are  
108 encoded across a range of plant genomes and have recently been shown to effectively regulate moss  
109 stomatal patterning (Caine *et al.*, 2016). However, currently it is still not known whether EPFs  
110 function in controlling stomatal development in grasses. With the sequencing of the barley genome  
111 in 2012 we were able to identify a putative EPF ortholog (*HvEPF1*, MLOC\_67484) that is expressed at  
112 low levels during development of aerial tissues (IBSC, 2012). Here we characterise the function of an  
113 epidermal patterning factor in grasses. We report the ectopic overexpression of *HvEPF1* and the  
114 production of transgenic barley lines exhibiting altered stomatal development. Furthermore, our  
115 generation of barley lines with reduced *SD* has provided us with the necessary tools to determine  
116 the effect of reduced *SD* on transpiration, drought tolerance, water use efficiency and yield in a  
117 cereal crop.

## 118 **Results**

119 11 genes encoding putative EPF-like secreted peptides were identified in the barley genome  
120 sequence (IBSC, 2012) (Fig.S1) . MLOC67484 which we refer to here as *HvEPF1* encodes a peptide  
121 with extensive similarity to *Arabidopsis* epidermal patterning factors, and contains the 6 conserved  
122 cysteine residues (Fig. 1a) that are characteristic of *Arabidopsis* epidermal patterning factors (Ohki *et*  
123 *al.*, 2011; Lau & Bergmann, 2012). Phylogenetic analysis of the encoded mature peptide sequence  
124 indicated that within the *Arabidopsis* EPF family, *HvEPF1* is most closely related to the known  
125 inhibitors of stomatal development EPF1 and EPF2 which each contain two additional cysteine  
126 residues (Fig. S1). To confirm that this barley peptide gene could function in stomatal regulation,  
127 *HvEPF1* was ectopically overexpressed in *Arabidopsis* under the control of the *CaMV35S* promoter.

128 Analysis of cellular patterning on the epidermis of Arabidopsis plants overexpressing *HvEPF1*  
129 confirmed that stomatal development had been disrupted; a phenotype similar to that observed on  
130 overexpression of Arabidopsis *EPF1*, namely a significant decrease in leaf stomatal density (Fig. 1b)  
131 and an increased number of arrested meristemoids (Fig. 1c) (Hara *et al.*, 2007; Hara *et al.*, 2009;  
132 Hunt & Gray, 2009).

133 Next, barley plants ectopically over-expressing the epidermal patterning factor HvEPF1 under the  
134 control of a ubiquitin gene promoter were produced. Stomatal density (*SD*) was assessed from 13  
135 transgenic lines of *HvEPF1OE* in the T1 generation under growth room conditions. The first leaves of  
136 seedling plants had *SD* ranging from approximately 70% down to < 1% of that of control plants  
137 (transformed with the empty-vector) (Fig. 2a). Two lines were selected for further phenotyping:  
138 *HvEPF1OE*-(47%) and *HvEPF1OE*-(0.6%), which displayed approximately 47% and 0.6% of the *SD* of  
139 controls respectively. Significantly reduced leaf *SD* was observed in abaxial epidermal impressions  
140 (Fig. 2b) and unusually large patches of epidermis with an absence of stomates were seen in the  
141 leaves of *HvEPF1OE* (0.6%). Furthermore, arrested stomatal precursor cells were frequently  
142 observed in the mature, fully expanded, epidermis which were extremely rare in controls (black  
143 arrow in Fig. 2c).

144 For more detailed physiological analysis, homozygous barley lines harbouring a single copy of the  
145 transgene (Supplementary table 1) were isolated (referred to as *HvEPF1OE*-1 and *HvEPF1OE*-2 and  
146 indicated by the left and right red asterisks in Fig.2a respectively). T2 generation plants were grown  
147 under controlled chamber conditions and the abaxial *SD* of the second true leaf was significantly  
148 reduced by approximately 52% and 56% of controls for *HvEPFOE*-1 and *HvEPFOE*-2 respectively (Fig.  
149 3a). In addition, the stomates that formed were smaller; guard cell length was significantly reduced  
150 in both *HvEPF1OE* lines (Fig. 3b). However, we observed no significant increase in epidermal  
151 pavement cell density (Fig. 3c). These differences in cell densities combined to produce large  
152 reductions in stomatal index (*SI*; stomatal density as a percentage of all cells on the epidermis). *SI* of  
153 *HvEPF1OE* plants was reduced to approximately 50% of control values (Fig. 3d). Again we observed a  
154 significant increase in the number of arrested stomatal precursor cells in *HvEPF1OE* barley leaves (as  
155 shown in Figure 2). To calculate whether the number of arrested stomatal precursor cells could  
156 entirely account for the observed reductions in *SD* we calculated the 'stomatal lineage cell index'  
157 (the percentage of stomata and arrested stomatal lineage cells compared to all cells on the  
158 epidermis). This indicated that if all arrested stomatal precursor cells were to have progressed  
159 normally to produce stomata, there would still be a significant reduction in stomatal index,  
160 suggesting that both the priming of cells to enter the stomatal lineage, and the progression of cells  
161 through the stomatal lineage are compromised by HvEPF1 overexpression (Fig. 3e).

162 Having shown that HvEPF1 can effectively regulate the frequency of stomatal development, we next  
163 explored whether any other aspects of *HvEPF1OE* leaves were affected. In particular, we  
164 investigated the internal structure of leaves. Stacked confocal images were produced to visualise  
165 *HvEPF1OE* substomatal cavities. This revealed similar internal cellular structures, and mature  
166 *HvEPF1OE* stomatal complexes had guard cells positioned normally above substomatal cavities as in  
167 controls (yellow asterisks, fig. 4a). However, on the same images, a lack of cavity formation was  
168 observed under the arrested stomatal precursor cells in both *HvEPF1OE-1* and *HvEPF1OE-2* lines  
169 (white asterisks, fig. 4b).

170 To more fully investigate the effect of reduced *SD* on drought tolerance, T2 generation plants were  
171 grown in a greenhouse with natural and supplemental lighting and temperature control. 5-week-old  
172 *HvEPF1OE-1*, *HvEPF1OE-2* and control plants were subjected to a terminal drought experiment  
173 alongside a parallel set of plants that were kept well-watered (maintained at 60% maximum soil  
174 water content). Pots were weighed at the same time each day and this was used to calculate soil  
175 water loss. The results of this experiment revealed that both transformed barley lines lost water  
176 much more slowly and exhibited significantly greater soil water conservation in their pots from day 2  
177 until day 14 under water-withheld conditions (Fig. 5a). Chlorophyll fluorescence measurements were  
178 used to measure any reductions in photosystem II efficiency, an indicator of plant stress. The light  
179 adapted quantum yield of photosystem II ( $\Phi_{PSII}$ ) was measured daily for both well-watered and  
180 water-withheld plants throughout the terminal drought experiment. There were no differences  
181 between the  $\Phi_{PSII}$  of *HvEPF1OE* and control plants at the start of the experiment or between  
182 genotypes under well-watered conditions indicating that the reduced stomatal density of the  
183 *HvEPF1OE* leaves was not restricting photosystem II efficiency. Remarkably however, the *HvEPF1OE*  
184 plants that had water withheld, displayed significantly enhanced rates of  $\Phi_{PSII}$  versus water-  
185 withheld controls from day 10 until day 14; both *HvEPF1OE-1* and *HvEPF1OE-2* plants maintained  
186 their photosystem II efficiency for approximately 4 days longer than controls under severe drought  
187 conditions. On day 6 of terminal drought, leaf samples were taken for leaf relative water content  
188 (*RWC*) estimation. This result indicated no significant difference in leaf *RWC* between controls and  
189 *HvEPF1OE* plants under well-watered conditions. However, under water-withheld conditions, both  
190 *HvEPF1OE* lines displayed significantly higher levels of leaf *RWC* versus controls (Fig. 5c), indicating  
191 an enhanced ability to retain water in their leaves under drought conditions. In addition, the  
192 *HvEPF1OE* plants were less susceptible to wilting and appeared visibly more 'drought tolerant' on  
193 day 6 of water-withheld conditions (Fig. 5d).

194 In a separate greenhouse experiment, we investigated whether the reduced *SD* of *HvEPF1OE* barley  
195 plants could confer any advantage to growth under conditions of limited water availability (rather  
196 than on complete withholding of water as above). *HvEPF1OE-1*, *HvEPF1OE-2* and controls plants  
197 were grown under well-watered (60% soil water content) and water-restricted (25% soil water  
198 content) in parallel under controlled greenhouse conditions. This water-restricted regime was severe  
199 enough to attenuate the growth rate of the barley plants but not severe enough to cause visible  
200 signs of wilting (Fig. S2). Stomatal density and steady state gas exchange measurements were taken  
201 from the sixth fully expanded leaf of the primary tiller of mature plants. This revealed that *SD* and  
202 photosynthetic assimilation (*A*) were significantly reduced in comparison to controls in both  
203 *HvEPF1OE* lines under well-watered conditions. On these leaves the *SD* of *HvEPF1 OE-1/2* were 24%  
204 and 12% of control values respectively. There was a significant decrease in *A* in both lines under well  
205 watered conditions but no significant differences in *A* between *HvEPF1OE* or control plants that had  
206 been grown under water-restriction (Fig. 6a). In addition, there was a significant reduction in  
207 stomatal conductance (*gs*) between *HvEPF1OE* and control plants within the well-watered treatment  
208 group and a reduction in the *gs* of all plants within the water-restricted treatment (Fig. 6b). As a  
209 result of the large reductions in *gs* and relatively small reductions in *A*, intrinsic *WUE* (*iWUE*, the  
210 value of *A* divided by *gs*) was calculated to be significantly increased in the *HvEPF1OE-2* line under  
211 well-watered conditions. There was no increase in *iWUE* observed in either *HvEPF1OE* line under  
212 water-restricted conditions (fig. 6c). After 11 weeks of drought, *WUE* across the photosynthetic  
213 lifetime of the barley flag leaves was then assessed by delta-carbon isotope analysis. This revealed  
214 that, under water-restriction, both *HvEPF1OE* lines displayed lower levels of <sup>13</sup>C discrimination and  
215 thus a greater level of *WUE*. In agreement with the gas exchange results, only *HvEPF1OE-2* plants  
216 (which had more severely reduced *SD*) displayed increased *WUE* under well-watered conditions (Fig.  
217 6d).

218 Further gas exchange measurements were carried out on the flag leaf to investigate whether  
219 photosynthetic biochemistry could have been altered by overexpression of *HvEPFL1*. In line with our  
220 previous *Arabidopsis* based studies (Franks et al., 2015), we observed no differences in the  
221 maximum velocity of Rubisco for carboxylation (*V<sub>cmax</sub>*) or the potential rate of electron transport  
222 under saturating light (*J<sub>max</sub>*). Our calculations indicate that any improvements in *WUE* are due to  
223 increased limitation to stomatal gas exchange, rather than altered photosynthetic biochemistry.

224 Finally, to assess the impact of reduced *SD* on barley yield and biomass, plants were left to grow  
225 under the well-watered and water-restricted regimes described above until plant peduncles had lost  
226 colour. At this point plants were allowed to dry and were then harvested. Analysis of the grain yield  
227 suggested that a reduction in *SD* did not have a deleterious effect on seed number, seed weight, the

228 average weight of seed, nor the harvest index (the ratio of above ground biomass to seed weight)  
229 under either watering condition (Fig. 7 a-d). In addition, no differences in plant height nor above  
230 ground biomass were found between any of the barley lines under either watering regime (Figs. S3,  
231 S4).

232

## 233 **Discussion**

234 Grasses are an economically important plant group, with the cereal grasses being of critical  
235 importance for both food and energy production. Considering future predicted climate scenarios,  
236 the creation of drought tolerant cereals is a priority area for both crop improvement and scientific  
237 research.

238 The bHLH transcription factors and epidermal patterning factors which were first discovered to be  
239 regulators of stomatal development in Arabidopsis have been conserved from basal land plants  
240 through to angiosperms including the grasses, and have been suggested as potential targets for crop  
241 improvement (Peterson *et al.*, 2010; Ran *et al.*, 2013; Caine *et al.*, 2016; Raissig *et al.*, 2016). Here we  
242 report the characterisation of a functional barley EPF ortholog, named HvEPF1, which acts in a  
243 similar way to the Arabidopsis EPF1 and EPF2 signalling peptides to limit entry to and progression  
244 through the stomatal cell lineage. Our overexpression of the barley *HvEPF1* transcript in Arabidopsis  
245 led to a significant reduction in *SD* indicating a level of conservation in peptide function between  
246 monocots and dicots. The overexpression of HvEPF1 in barley led to severe reductions in both  
247 stomatal formation, and in the entry of epidermal cells into the stomatal lineage, adding weight to  
248 this conclusion.

249 The frequent presence of arrested stomatal precursor cells on the epidermis of both Arabidopsis and  
250 barley *HvEPF1OE* plants (Fig. 1c and 2b) suggests that the mode of action of HvEPF1 is most similar  
251 to that of Arabidopsis EPF1, which generates a similar epidermal phenotype when overexpressed  
252 (Hara *et al.*, 2007; Hara *et al.*, 2009). That is, stomatal precursors enter the developmental lineage  
253 but become arrested before the final symmetric cell division and maturation of the stomatal  
254 complex. These *HvEPF1OE* oval-shaped arrested cells appear to halt their development at a  
255 meristemoid-like or early guard mother cell stage, prior to transition into mature guard mother cells.  
256 Thus, in addition to entry to the stomatal lineage, the transition to a mature guard mother cell that  
257 is competent to divide and form a pair of guard cells appears to be regulated by HvEPF1. In  
258 Arabidopsis this cellular transition step is under the control of the transcription factor MUTE (Fig. 8)  
259 whose activity promotes expression of the receptor-like kinase ERECTA-LIKE1, which in turn

260 mediates EPF1 signalling and the subsequent autocrine inhibition of MUTE (Qi *et al.*, 2017). Barley  
261 MUTE may be regulated by HvEPF1 by a similar autocrine pathway and/or by phosphorylation as  
262 grass *MUTE* genes (unlike *Arabidopsis MUTE*) encode potential MAP kinase phosphorylation sites  
263 (Liu *et al.*, 2009). Recent work in the monocot *Brachypodium*, has revealed MUTE to also be  
264 involved in the formation of subsidiary cells (Raissig *et al.*, 2017). In *HvEPF1OE* plants, stomatal  
265 precursors arrest prior to the establishment of subsidiary cells suggesting the overexpression of  
266 HvEPF1 may act to inhibit the expression of MUTE.

267 Despite their importance, we know remarkably little about the sequence of events leading to the  
268 production of the air-filled spaces that underlie stomata. In conjunction with the stomatal pores,  
269 these substomatal cavities facilitate high levels of gas exchange into plant photosynthetic mesophyll  
270 cells, and mediate leaf water loss via transpiration. Using confocal microscopy, we could see no  
271 evidence for the separation of mesophyll cells below arrested stomatal precursor cells in *HvEPF1OE*  
272 leaves. Our observations begin to throw light on the developmental sequence leading to cavity  
273 formation. The arrested stomatal precursor cells in *HvEPF1OE* do not form substomatal cavities,  
274 suggesting that these cavities form following either GMC maturation, like the subsidiary cells of the  
275 stomatal complex, or after guard cell pair formation. Alternatively, the formation of a substomatal  
276 cavity may be required for guard mother cell maturation.

277 There is much evidence to support a negative correlation between stomatal density and stomatal  
278 size across a range of species and *Arabidopsis* stomatal mutants i.e. those plants with relatively low  
279 *SD* tend to produce larger stomates (Miskin & Rasmusson, 1970; Franks & Beerling, 2009; Doheny-  
280 Adams *et al.*, 2012). Interestingly, the overexpression of HvEPF1 did not conform to this trend, and  
281 led to barley plants with smaller, shorter guard cells. Thus if the EPF signalling pathway directly  
282 regulates stomatal size in dicot species (and this remains to be demonstrated), it appears to act in  
283 the opposite manner in grass stomatal size determination.

284 Through the ectopic over-expression of HvEPF1 we have created barley transformants with a range  
285 of reductions in *SD*. Although barley plants with substantially reduced numbers of stomata showed  
286 some attenuation of photosynthetic rates when well-watered, they exhibited strong drought  
287 avoidance and drought tolerance traits when water was withheld. They had lower levels of water  
288 loss via transpiration, and they were able to maintain higher levels of soil water content, and  
289 delayed the onset of photosynthetic stress responses for several days longer than controls.  
290 Remarkably when grown under water-limiting conditions (25% soil pot water content) two barley  
291 lines with reductions in *SD* demonstrated significant improvements in *WUE* without any deleterious  
292 effects on either plant growth or seed yield (biomass, seed weight or seed number). Indeed, it would

293 be interesting to determine whether both *WUE* and yield may be further optimised in reduced  
294 stomatal density lines under less severe watering regimes or through less drastic reductions in *SD*  
295 *HvEPF1OE-2* plants (which had the lowest *SD* in this experiment) also displayed significantly  
296 enhanced levels of drought tolerance and *WUE* under well-watered conditions, without  
297 accompanying decreases in either grain yield or plant biomass. The increased *iWUE* observed in  
298 these experiments was a result of a relatively moderate drop in *A* compared to a larger decrease in  
299 *gs*, suggesting that *A* was not limited by internal CO<sub>2</sub> concentration under the growth conditions of  
300 our experiment (Yoo *et al.*, 2009). This may also be a factor in explaining why reductions in *SD* did  
301 not impact on the yield of *HvEPF1OE* plants. Further explanations include significantly reduced rates  
302 of *gs* and thus water loss in *HvEPF1OE* plants allowing for more resources to be allocated to the  
303 generation of seed and above ground biomass, at the potential cost to root development, as  
304 described previously in *Arabidopsis* EPF over-expressing plants (Hepworth *et al.*, 2016), or increased  
305 soil water content leading to improved nutrient uptake and *gs* under water limitation (Van Vuuren *et al.*  
306 *et al.*, 1997; Hepworth *et al.*, 2015). Thus, although not tested in this study, reducing *SD* may also  
307 enhance resource allocation or nutrient uptake capacity under water-restriction.

308 To conclude, this study describes the function and physiological effect of overexpressing a native  
309 epidermal patterning factor in a grass species. The manipulation of *HvEPF1* expression levels has  
310 improved our understanding of stomatal developmental mechanisms in grasses, and has generated  
311 a range of barley plants displaying significantly reduced *SD*. These barley plants exhibit substantially  
312 improved drought tolerance and *WUE* without reductions in grain yield. This novel discovery adds  
313 strength to the proposition that stomatal development represents an attractive target for breeders  
314 when attempting to future-proof crops.

## 315 **Materials and Methods**

### 316 **Vector Construction**

317 *HvEPF1* genomic gene was PCR amplified from *Hordeum vulgare* cultivar Golden Promise DNA using  
318 primers in Table S1. The *HVEPF1* gene is annotated as MLOC67484 at Ensembl Plants but is  
319 incorrectly translated in this prediction. We used FGENESH to generate an alternative translation  
320 which includes a putative signal sequence at the N-terminus. The PCR product was recombined  
321 pENTR/D/TOPO then by LR recombination into pCTAPi (Rohila *et al.*, 2004) transformation vector  
322 under the control of the CaMV35S promoter, and introduced into *Arabidopsis thaliana* Col-0  
323 background by floral dip (Clough & Bent, 1998). Transformation and expression of the transgene  
324 were confirmed by PCR and RT-PCR using the primers in Supplementary Table S2.

325 For barley transformation the *HvEPP1* genomic gene was introduced by LR recombination into  
326 pBRACT214 gateway vector under the control of the maize ubiquitin promoter, adjacent to a  
327 hygromycin resistance gene under the control of a CaMV35S promoter (Fig. S4). Barley  
328 transformations were carried out in background Golden Promise using the method described by  
329 (Harwood *et al.*, 2009). Plants harbouring just the hygromycin resistance cassette were regenerated  
330 alongside to produce 'empty-vector control' plants. Potentially transformed plants were  
331 regenerated on selective medium and T0 individuals genotyped to confirm gene insertion by PCR.  
332 Gene copy number was estimated by IDna Genetics Ltd ([www.idnagenetics.com](http://www.idnagenetics.com)) using a PCR based  
333 method. *HvEPP1* overexpression was confirmed by RT-qPCR of T2 generation plants (Fig. S6). Total  
334 RNA was extracted from 10 day old seedlings using Spectrum plant total RNA kit (Sigma, UK) and  
335 reverse transcribed using Maxima H Minus Reverse Transcriptase cDNA synthesis kit (Thermo  
336 Scientific). RT-qPCR was performed using a Rotor-Gene SYBR<sup>®</sup> Green PCR kit (Qiagen) with tubulin  
337 and GADPH used as housekeeping reference genes, and primers outlined in the supplementary  
338 supporting information (Supplementary table 2). Three plants of each transformed line were  
339 amplified to confirm overexpression of the *HvEPP1* gene. Fold induction values of gene expression  
340 were normalised to average  $2^{\Delta Ct}$  values relative to empty-vector control samples.

#### 341 **Plant Growth Conditions**

342 For plant growth, seeds were surfaced sterilised in 50% vol/vol ethanol/bleach before being placed  
343 onto water saturated filter paper and placed into sealed Petri dishes in the appropriate growth  
344 chamber. Arabidopsis plants were grown in a controlled growth chamber (Conviron model  
345 MTPS120) at 22°C/16°C, 9 hours light, 150-200  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$ , 15 hours dark, ambient [CO<sub>2</sub>] and 60%  
346 humidity. Arabidopsis plants were kept well-watered throughout. Barley plants were grown in a  
347 MTPS120 growth chamber at 21°C/15°C, 11 hours light at 300  $\mu\text{mol.m}^{-2}.\text{s}^{-1}$ , 13 hours dark, ambient  
348 [CO<sub>2</sub>] and 60% humidity. For plants grown under greenhouse conditions (Fig. 5, Fig. 6), temperature  
349 was set at 20°C/16°C, 12 hours light, ambient humidity, and supplementary lighting ensured a  
350 minimum of 200  $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$  at bench level.

351 At 5 days post-germination individual barley seedlings were placed into 13cm diameter pots  
352 containing homogenised M3 compost/perlite (4:1) with the addition of Osmocote. For initial  
353 phenotyping and leaf developmental characterisation (Fig. 2, Fig. 3, Fig. 4) plants were kept well-  
354 watered. For the water-restricted experiment, (Fig. 6, Fig. 7) plants were maintained at either 60%  
355 (well-watered) or 25% (water-restricted) of soil saturation by the daily weighing of pots.

#### 356 **Microscopy and cell counts**

357 For both Arabidopsis and barley, stomatal and epidermal cell counts were taken from the abaxial  
358 surface of mature, fully expanded leaves or cotyledons. Cell counts were taken from the widest  
359 section of the first true leaf avoiding the mid vein. Dental resin (Coltene Whaledent, Switzerland)  
360 was applied in the region of maximum leaf width and left to set before removing the leaf and  
361 applying clear nail varnish to the resin. Stomatal counts were determined from nail varnish  
362 impressions by light microscopy (Olympus BX51). 5 areas per leaf were sampled from 4-8 plants of  
363 each genotype and treatment. For epidermal imaging (Fig. 2b-d), mature leaves were excised and  
364 the central vein of the leaf cut away. Leaf tissue was then serially dehydrated in ethanol. Samples  
365 were then placed into modified Clarke's solution (4:1 ethanol to glacial acetic acid solution) then  
366 cleared in 50% bleach overnight.

367 For epidermal phenotyping, the second fully expanded mature leaf of seedlings were excised and a 3-  
368 5cm strip midway along the proximodistal axis of these leaves were cut out. These leaf samples were  
369 then submerged in Clarke's solution (3:1 ethanol to glacial acetic acid solution). Following 1 hour of  
370 vacuum infiltration the samples were left in Clarke's solution for 24 hours for fixation. Once fixed the  
371 samples were transferred into 100% ethanol. Prior to imaging the leaf samples were cleared in 50%  
372 bleach solution overnight. The midrib of each sample was then excised and the remaining leaf  
373 sections mounted in deionised water on microscope slides for imaging. Samples were viewed by  
374 light microscopy (Olympus BX51) using differential interference contrast functionality. For confocal  
375 microscopy (Fig. 4a, Fig4b), barley samples were prepared as described (Wuyts *et al.*, 2010) and  
376 viewed on a Olympus FV1000 using 20X UPlan S-Apo N.A. 0.75 objective, 543nm laser, 555-655nm  
377 emission and Fluorview software .

### 378 **Physiological measurements**

379 Throughout the terminal drought experiment the light adapted quantum yield of photosystem II  
380 ( $\Phi$ PSII) was measured daily for both well-watered and water-withheld plants. The most recent fully  
381 expanded leaf of the primary tiller was selected for the measurement at day 1 and the same leaf was  
382 then monitored throughout the experiment. Readings were taken using a FluorPen FP100 (Photon  
383 Systems Instruments) with a saturating pulse of  $3000 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ . Following the onset of the  
384 drought treatment the pots were weighed every day and used to calculate the percentage of initial  
385 soil water content remaining. Well-watered controls were maintained at 60% soil water content.

386 Leaf relative water content was determined from excised leaves from well-watered or droughted  
387 and their fresh weight measured immediately and leaves were floated on water overnight and  
388 weighed to record the hydrated weight. They were oven-dried overnight and weighed to obtain their

389 dry weight; the RWC was calculated using the following formula  $RWC (\%) = (\text{fresh weight} - \text{dry}$   
390  $\text{weight}) / (\text{hydrated weight} - \text{dry weight}) * 100$ .

391 A LI-6400 portable photosynthesis system (Licor, Lincoln, NE) was used to carry out infrared gas  
392 analysis (IRGA) on the sixth, fully expanded, leaf from the primary tiller whilst still attached to the  
393 plant. Relative humidity inside the IRGA chamber was kept at 60%-65% using self-indicating  
394 desiccant, flow rate was set at  $300 \mu\text{mol} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$  and leaf temperature at  $20^\circ\text{C}$ . Reference  $[\text{CO}_2]$  was  
395 maintained at 500ppm and light intensity at  $200 \mu\text{mol} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ . Plants were allowed to equilibrate for  
396 40-45 minutes the IRGA chamber being matched at least every 15 minutes. Once readings were  
397 stable measurements were taken every 20 seconds for 5 minutes. For soil water content  
398 calculations, the weight of pots containing water saturated (100% water content) or oven dried (0%)  
399 compost mix was first determined. Pots were then maintained at either 60% or 25% soil water  
400 content by weighing and addition of the appropriate amount of water every two days.

401

402 For carbon isotope discrimination (Fig. 6d),  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  was assessed from the flag leaf of 5 plants from  
403 each of the two watering regimes (well-watered and restricted-watered), as described previously  
404 (Hepworth *et al.*, 2015).

405 Once plants had matured and dried down the plants were harvested, with the total number and  
406 weight of seeds per plant being recorded and the average seed weight being calculated. All above-  
407 ground vegetative tissue was dried in an oven at  $80^\circ\text{C}$  for two days and then weighed to provide the  
408 dry weight. Harvest index (ratio of yield to above-ground biomass) was then calculated.

#### 409 **Statistical analysis**

410 All comparisons were performed on Graph Pad Prism software. The appropriate post-hoc tests were  
411 conducted once significance was confirmed using an ANOVA test and an alpha level of 0.05 or below  
412 as significant.

#### 413 **Figure legends**

414 **Figure 1. HvEPF1 shares sequence similarity with Arabidopsis EPF1 and EPF2, and can restrict**  
415 **Arabidopsis stomatal development.** (a) Alignment of the putative HvEPF1 mature signalling peptide  
416 with members of the Arabidopsis EPF family of signalling peptides. Conserved cysteine residues are  
417 highlighted. Amino acid sequences for the mature peptide region were aligned using Multalin and  
418 displayed using Boxshade. (b) Overexpression of *HvEPF1* under the control of the *CaMV35S*  
419 promoter in Arabidopsis leads to a significant decrease in stomatal density. (c) Epidermal tracings

420 from *Arabidopsis* cotyledons overexpressing *EPF1*, *EPF2*, and *HvEPF1* alongside the background  
421 control Col-0. Red dots mark location of stomata whilst green dots mark location of arrested  
422 meristemoids. N=5 plants, asterisks indicate  $P < 0.05$ , (Dunnett's test after one-way ANOVA). Error  
423 bars represent SE.

424 **Figure 2. Over-expression of *HvEPF1* in barley arrests stomatal development and reduces stomatal**  
425 **density.** (a) The abaxial stomatal density (*SD*) of barley plants transformed to ectopically over-  
426 express *HvEPF1* (grey bars) compared to control lines transformed with the empty-vector (black  
427 bars). All T1 generation *HvEPF1* over-expressing lines demonstrated a significant reduction in *SD* in  
428 comparison to both control lines. Lines chosen for further phenotyping in T2 generations are  
429 indicated (red asterisks). (b) Traced abaxial epidermal impressions of T1 generation control,  
430 *HvEPF1OE*-(47%) and *HvEPF1OE*-(0.6%) lines illustrating the reduction in *SD*. Red dots denote  
431 positions of stomatal complexes. (c) Abaxial epidermal micrographs of *HvEPF1OE* plants. Black arrow  
432 indicates arrested stomatal precursor cell. N=4-8 plants. Asterisks indicated significance to at least  
433  $P < 0.05$  versus control lines (Dunnett's test after one-way ANOVA). (Error bars represent SE.

434 **Figure 3. Stomatal characteristics of barley plants overexpressing *HvEPF1*.** (a) Abaxial stomatal  
435 densities of *HvEPF1* overexpressing T2 barley lines harbouring a single copy of the transgene are  
436 significantly decreased. *HvEPF1OE*-1 (white bars) and *HvEPF1OE*-2 (grey bars) compared to control  
437 lines (black bars). (b) Guard cell length is significantly decreased in both *HvEPF1OE* lines. (c)  
438 Pavement cell density is similar to that of the control in both *HvEPF1OE* lines. (d) Stomatal index is  
439 significantly decreased in both *HvEPF1OE* lines. (e) Stomatal lineage index (the ratio of stomata and  
440 arrested stomatal precursor cells to the total number of epidermal cells) is significantly decreased in  
441 both *HvEPF1OE* lines. N=5 plants, asterisks indicate  $P < 0.05$ , (Dunnett's test after one-way ANOVA).  
442 Error bars represent SE.

443 **Figure 4. Cellular structure of *HvEPF1OE* stomatal complexes.** (a) Representative propidium iodide  
444 stained confocal image of a Z-plane below the *HvEPF1OE*-1 abaxial epidermal surface. Yellow  
445 asterisks mark the location of the substomatal cavity under mature guard cells. (b) Higher Z-plane  
446 image of the same field of view as (a) to reveal position of stomata. White asterisks mark the  
447 location of arrested stomatal precursors and the lack of underlying substomatal cavities in (a).

448 **Figure 5. Reducing barley stomatal density enhances drought tolerance though conserving soil and**  
449 **plant water content.** (a) 5 week old *HvEPF1OE*-1 and *HvEPF1OE*-2 barley plants maintain  
450 significantly higher soil water content in comparison to control plants when water is withheld from  
451 days 2-14. (b) Both *HvEPF1OE*-1 and *HvEPF1OE*-2 lines show significantly higher light adapted  
452 quantum yields ( $\Phi_{PSII}$ ) from 10 to 14 days after water was withheld (square symbols; plants from

453 same experiment as (a)). There were no significant differences between  $\Phi$ PSII of well-watered plants  
454 (circular symbols). (c) Relative water content (*RWC*) of barley leaves from *HvEPF1OE* lines was  
455 significantly higher than controls after 6 days without watering. There were no differences in *RWC*  
456 between well-watered plants. (d) Photograph of representative plants to illustrate enhanced turgor  
457 maintenance in *HvEPF1OE-1* and *HvEPF1OE-2* on day 6 of water-withheld conditions. N=5 plants,  
458 asterisk indicates significance to at least  $P < 0.05$  (Dunnett's tests after one-way ANOVA for each  
459 watering group). Error bars represent SE.

460 **Figure 6. Reducing barley stomatal density lowers stomatal conductance and enhances water use**  
461 **efficiency.** (a) Under well-watered conditions a significant decrease in rate of carbon assimilation  
462 was observed in both *HvEPF1OE* lines. Under water-restricted conditions there was no difference in  
463 assimilation. (b) Stomatal conductance (*gs*) was significant decreased in *HvEPF1OE* lines grown  
464 under well-watered conditions in comparison to controls. Under water-restricted conditions there  
465 was no difference in *gs*. (c) Under well-watered conditions, a significant improvement in intrinsic  
466 water use efficiency (*iWUE*) was observed in the *HvEPF1OE-2* line when compared to control plants.  
467 Under water-restricted conditions there was no difference in *iWUE*. (d) Carbon isotope  
468 discrimination revealed a significant improvement in water use efficiency of the *HvEPF1OE-2* barley  
469 line under well-watered conditions. Under water-restricted conditions, both *HvEPF1OE* lines  
470 displayed significantly improved water use efficiency in comparison to controls. N=5 plants, asterisk  
471 indicates significance to at least  $P < 0.05$  (Dunnett's tests after one-way ANOVA for each watering  
472 group). Error bars represent SE.

473 **Figure 7. Reducing stomatal density in barley has no deleterious effect on yield.** No significant  
474 differences in (a) seed number, (b) total weight of seed per plant, (c) average weight of individual  
475 seeds, (d) harvest index (the ratio of yield to total shoot biomass) were observed between  
476 *HvEPF1OE-1*, *HvEPF1OE-2* and control plants under either watering condition. N=5 plants. Error bars  
477 represent SE.

478 **Figure 8. HvEPF1 acts to prevent cells entering the stomatal lineage, guard mother cell maturation**  
479 **and substomatal cavity and subsidiary cell formation.** Schematic to illustrate the putative mode of  
480 action of HvEPF1 in barley stomatal development. Left to right: Undifferentiated epidermal cells at  
481 the base of leaves are formed in cellular files. Cells in some files gain the capacity to divide  
482 asymmetrically to create small stomatal precursor cells shown here as immature guard mother cells  
483 (GMC, green). A developmental step, potentially under the control of the transcription factor MUTE,  
484 stimulates guard mother cell maturation (dark green) and division of adjacent epidermal cells to  
485 form subsidiary cells (SC, orange). Mature GMCs then divide symmetrically to form pairs of dumbbell

486 shaped guard cells (red). In the underlying mesophyll layer (M, green shaded regions) a substomatal  
487 cavity forms during either the mature GMC or guard cell stage, although the exact developmental  
488 staging of this process is unknown. In the *HvEPF1* overexpressing plants, *HvEPF1* prevents GMC  
489 maturation perhaps through the suppression of MUTE activity, resulting in arrested GMCs which are  
490 unable to differentiate into mature stomatal complexes complete with subsidiary cells, guard cells  
491 and substomatal cavities. Drawn with reference to Brachypodium development in Raissig *et al.* 2016.

492

### 493 **Supplemental Data**

494 **Supplemental Figure 1.** Phylogenetic tree of predicted Arabidopsis and barley epidermal patterning  
495 factor peptide sequences constructed using Multalin. Barley annotations taken from Ensembl Plants  
496 apart from *HvSto7*, which is a putative unannotated EPFL9/Stomagen on Chromosome 7. *HvEPF1*  
497 highlighted in red.

498 **Supplemental Figure 2.** Growth of barley plants is inhibited by the water-restricted conditions used  
499 in this study (25% soil water content) in comparison to growth in well-watered conditions (60% soil  
500 water). From left to right: Control plant well-watered, control water-restricted, *HvEPF1OE-1* well  
501 watered, *HvEPF1OE-1* water-restricted, *HvEPF1OE-2* well-watered and *HvEPF1OE-2* water-restricted.

502 **Supplemental Figure 3.** Plant heights of controls and *HvEPF1OE-1* or *HvEPF1OE-2* were not  
503 significantly different within either well-watered or water-restricted conditions. Error bars represent  
504 SE.

505 **Supplemental Figure 4.** Above ground biomass of control and *HvEPF1OE-1* or *HvEPF1OE-2* plant  
506 lines were not significantly different under either well-watered or water-restricted conditions. N=5  
507 plants. Error bars represent SE.

508 **Supplemental Figure 5.** Schematic of the gene expression construct inserted into the barley genome  
509 to overexpress the *HvEPF1* gene

510 **Supplemental Figure 6.** qPCR results confirming significant overexpression of *HvEPF1* in the barley  
511 lines detailed in the manuscript. N=5 plants, asterisk indicates significance to at least  $P < 0.05$   
512 (Dunnett's tests after one-way ANOVA). Error bars represent SE.

513 **Supplemental Table 1.** Copy number data for transformed plant lines used in this study.

514 **Supplemental Table 2.** Primer sequences used for PCR and RT-qPCR detailed in the methods section  
515 of the manuscript.

516

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