





Comparative transcriptomics and metabolomics reveal specialized metabolite drought stress responses in switchgrass (Panicum virgatum L.)

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1	Comparative transcriptomics and metabolomics reveal specialized metabolite drought stress
2	responses in switchgrass (Panicum virgatum L.)
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20 SUMMARY

- Switchgrass (*Panicum virgatum*) is a bioenergy model crop valued for its energy efficiency
 and drought tolerance resilience. The related monocot species rice (*Oryza sativa*) and
 maize (*Zea mays*) deploy species-specific, specialized metabolites as core stress defenses.
 By contrast, specialized chemical defenses in switchgrass are largely unknown.
- To investigate specialized metabolic drought responses in switchgrass, we integrated tissue-specific transcriptome and metabolite analyses of the genotypes Alamo and Cavein-Rock that feature different drought tolerance.
- 28 The more drought-susceptible Cave-in-Rock featured an earlier onset of transcriptomic • 29 changes and significantly more differentially expressed genes in response to drought 30 compared to Alamo. Specialized pathways showed moderate differential expression 31 compared to pronounced transcriptomic alterations in carbohydrate and amino acid 32 metabolism. However, diterpenoid-biosynthetic genes showed drought-inducible 33 expression in Alamo roots, contrasting largely unaltered triterpenoid and phenylpropanoid 34 pathways. Metabolomic analyses identified common and genotype-specific flavonoids and terpenoids. Consistent with transcriptomic alterations, several root diterpenoids showed 35 36 significant drought-induced accumulation, whereas triterpenoid abundance remained 37 predominantly unchanged. Structural analysis of drought-responsive root diterpenoids 38 verified these metabolites as oxygenated furanoditerpenoids.
- Drought-dependent transcriptome and metabolite profiles provide the foundation to
 understand the molecular mechanisms underlying switchgrass environmental resilience.
 Accumulation of specialized root diterpenoids and corresponding pathway transcripts
 supports a role in drought stress tolerance for these compounds.

43 Significance statement

With an increasing demand for renewable energy opposed by rising climate-driven crop losses, understanding, and leveraging plant natural defenses can enable the development of sustainable crop production systems. Here, we integrated comparative transcriptomics and metabolomics analyses to gain a detailed understanding of the diversity and physiological relevance of specialized metabolites in upland and lowland switchgrass ecotypes and provide resources for future investigations of drought response mechanisms in switchgrass.

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51 Keywords

52 Drought stress; *Panicum virgatum* (switchgrass); plant specialized metabolism; natural products;

53 transcriptomics; metabolomics; diterpenoids; bioenergy crops

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63 Introduction

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64 Water scarcity exacerbated by climate change threatens biofuel and food crop production across 65 the world (Pokhrel et al. 2021; Challinor et al. 2014; Kim et al. 2019b). In the U.S., about one-66 third of all counties are currently designated as crop loss disaster areas through drought by the U.S. 67 Department of Agriculture (USDA Farm Service Agency, 2021). Crop production is further 68 impacted by climate-associated increases in pest and pathogen damage (Newbery et al. 2016), 69 calling for new solutions to develop crops that can withstand current and future climate conditions. 70 The perennial grass switchgrass (Panicum virgatum) is a characteristic species of North American 71 tallgrass prairie land and of agroeconomic value as a C₄ lignocellulosic feedstock (McLaughlin et 72 al. 1999). A high net-energy yield and environmental resilience make switchgrass economically 73 viable for biofuel production on marginal lands with reduced agricultural inputs. Two major 74 switchgrass ecotypes, Northern upland and Southern lowland, differ in climatic and geographical 75 adaptation, morphological characteristics and genetic architecture (Ayyappan et al. 2017; Lowry 76 et al. 2014). Upland ecotypes are mostly octoploid (2n=8x=72), whereas lowland ecotypes are 77 predominantly tetraploid (2n=4x=36) and feature taller phenotypes with thicker stems and a later

allotetraploid lowland ecotype Alamo (~1.23 Gb, NCBI:txid38727) (Lovell et al. 2021) now provides the foundation needed to investigate genetic and biochemical mechanisms underlying switchgrass environmental resilience. Indeed, genomic analysis of 732 switchgrass genotypes across 1,800 km latitude range revealed an extensive correlation of genomic architecture to climatic adaptation (Lovell et al. 2021). Comparative morphological and physiological analysis of 49 upland and lowland ecotypes showed significant differences in the drought tolerance of different switchgrass ecotypes (Liu et al. 2015). Large-scale transcriptomic changes were also

flowering time (Casler et al. 2011). The recent development of genome resources for the

86 observed, including a drought-induced down-regulation of photosynthetic genes, consistent with 87 physiological responses such as reduced leaf water potential, reduced chlorophyll, and other 88 photosynthetic metabolites (Meyer et al. 2014; Lovell et al. 2016; Liu et al. 2015). Comparative 89 analysis of rhizosheath metabolites further showed an increase in amino acids, carbohydrates and 90 organic acids in response to drought (Liu et al. 2019).

91 In contrast, knowledge of the contribution of specialized metabolites to switchgrass stress response 92 mechanisms has remained largely unexplored. For example, drought-induced alterations in 93 terpenoid and phenylpropanoid metabolism have been reported (Meyer et al. 2014). In addition, 94 our prior work revealed an expansive network of terpenoid-metabolic terpene synthase (TPS) and 95 cytochrome P450 monooxygenase (P450) genes in P. virgatum var. Alamo, and combined 96 metabolite and transcript profiling illustrated the formation of species-specific diterpenoids and 97 the corresponding biosynthetic genes in switchgrass leaves and roots exposed to UV radiation and 98 oxidative stress (Pelot et al. 2018; Muchlinski et al. 2019; Tiedge et al. 2020). Furthermore, 99 emission of volatile mono- and sesqui-terpenoids was observed from switchgrass leaves and roots 100 upon herbivore stress and treatment with defense-related plant hormones (Muchlinski et al. 2019). 101 These collective insights support the importance of terpenoids and other specialized metabolite 102 classes for switchgrass abiotic and biotic stress tolerance. Recent maize (Zea mays) and rice (Oryza 103 sativa) studies showing induced diterpenoid formation under UV, oxidative and drought stress and 104 decreased abiotic stress tolerance in diterpenoid-deficient maize mutants support a broader role of 105 terpenoids in abiotic stress adaptation in monocot crops (Schmelz et al. 2014; Ding et al. 2021; 106 Park et al. 2013; Horie et al. 2015; Vaughan et al. 2015a).

A deeper understanding of the relevance of specialized metabolism in drought tolerance
 and more broadly climatic adaptation in perennial biofuel crops can provide resources to improve

breeding strategies for developing locally and broadly adapted feedstock systems (Morrow et al. 2014). In this study, we integrated tissue-specific transcriptome and metabolite analyses to investigate specialized metabolism responses to drought in two major switchgrass ecotypes with distinct habitats and contrasting drought tolerance (Liu et al. 2015), namely the lowland Alamo and the upland Cave-in-Rock genotypes.

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115 **Results**

116 To investigate metabolic drought responses in switchgrass, we selected the lowland genotype 117 Alamo (AP13) and the upland genotype Cave-in-Rock which were ranked among the most drought-tolerant and drought-susceptible genotypes in a comparative study of 49 switchgrass 118 119 varieties (Liu et al. 2015). At the beginning of the reproductive stage (R1), plants were exposed to 120 four weeks of continuous drought treatment, whereby soil water content measured as Available 121 Water Capacity (AWC) remained stable at 75% in well-watered control plants and decreased from 122 75% to 0% in drought-stressed plants (Supporting Information Fig. S1). Leaf and root tissue of 123 both genotypes and treatment groups was harvested before the treatment (week 0), after two weeks 124 and after four weeks, and samples were subject to transcriptomic and metabolomic analyses. 125 Between three and four weeks of drought treatment Cave-in-Rock plants displayed an increasing 126 wilting phenotype, whereas Alamo plants showed no or only minor wilting throughout the four-127 week drought treatment (Fig. 1).

128

129 Alamo and Cave-in-Rock plants show distinct transcriptomic alterations in response to drought

130 Illumina Novaseq 6000 RNA sequencing yielded a total of 2.4 billion and 2.7 billion high-quality 131 reads for Alamo and Cave-in-Rock samples, respectively, representing >97% of the total reads 132 obtained in both datasets. Alignment of the high-quality sequences against the switchgrass Alamo 133 AP13 genome (phytozome-next.jgi.doe.gov/info/Pvirgatum v5 1) resulted in average mapping 134 rates of 86% for Alamo and 83% for Cave-in-Rock, thus providing a comprehensive 135 transcriptomic dataset for gene discovery and gene expression analyses. Using this dataset, 136 differential gene expression analysis was performed for control and drought-treated plants of both 137 genotypes. A total of 565 differentially expressed genes (DEGs) were identified in roots and 204 138 DEGs in leaves (DEG threshold: padj < 0.05; $|\log 2 \text{ FC}| > 1$) of Alamo plants after four weeks of 139 drought treatment compared to well-watered control plants (Fig. S2). Cave-in-Rock plants showed 140 stronger drought-induced changes with a total of 1198 DEGs in roots and 1120 DEGs in leaves; 141 constituting 2- and 5-fold more DEGs as compared to Alamo roots and leaves, respectively (Fig. 142 S2). In addition, Cave-in-Rock plants showed an earlier onset of transcriptomic changes compared 143 to Alamo. After two weeks of watering withdrawal, 2951 and 897 genes were differentially 144 expressed in Cave-in-Rock leaves and roots, respectively, whereas only 19 and 128 genes were 145 differentially expressed in Alamo leaves and roots (Supporting Information Table S1), concurrent 146 with the earlier onset of phenotypic drought symptoms in Cave-in-Rock (Fig. S2). Furthermore, 147 differential gene expression was more pronounced in roots than leaves in both genotypes. Indeed, 148 permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) illustrated that tissue type 149 (leaves or roots) had the predominant impact on gene expression levels (38.6%, $p < 0.001^{***}$), 150 followed by genotype (8%, $p < 0.003^{**}$) and stress treatment (6%, $p < 0.007^{**}$) (Supporting 151 Information Table S2).

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Major transcriptomic changes include genes of known drought response mechanisms and core general metabolic processes

155 Consistent with the differences in the number and onset of DEGs between Alamo and Cave-in-156 Rock, the identified genes showing the most significant differential expression differed between 157 the two genotypes and tissues (Fig. 1). Only two genes, a putative circadian clock protein 158 (*Pavir.9NG553200*) and a predicted lipid transfer protein (*Pavir.5NG603383*) were differentially 159 expressed in all genotypes and tissues (Fig. S2). The genotype- or tissue-specific DEGs included 160 numerous so far uncharacterized genes as well as several genes associated with known drought 161 response mechanisms. For example, in roots of both genotypes *dehvdrin* (log₂(fold change) 162 Alamo=5.2, CiR=6.24) and other *Late Embryogenesis Abundant* (*LEA*) genes ($\log_2(\text{fold change})$) 163 Alamo=4.34, CiR=5.78), as well as several AWPM19-like plasma-membrane-associated abscisic 164 acid (ABA) influx transporters implicated with drought tolerance (log₂(fold change) Alamo=6.25, 165 CiR=6.04) were highly upregulated (Fig. 1, Supporting Information Table S1). Notably, among 166 the 11 AWPM19-like genes, Alamo and Cave-in-Rock featured distinct genes (Pavir.2NG274300 167 in Alamo versus Pavir.9NG018700 in Cave-in-Rock) as the most differentially expressed 168 AWPM19-like genes. The increased expression of known drought-associated genes supports the 169 drought response in both genotypes, despite the visual lack of a wilting phenotype in Alamo plants.

Next, we investigated the impact of drought on core metabolic pathways independent of known drought response processes. Among 26 GO terms significantly enriched in all samples combined most encoded for biological processes or molecular functions (Fig. S3). In Alamo leaves DNAbinding and electron carrier processes were most significantly enriched, whereas carbohydrate metabolism was predominant in roots. Interestingly, Cave-in-Rock roots featured highly enriched abiotic stress response processes rather than carbohydrate metabolism under drought stress, 176 whereas leaves showed patterns similar to Alamo with DNA-binding and hydrolase activities 177 being differentially expressed (Fig. S3). Additional pathway enrichment analyses using KEGG 178 terms confirmed a substantially higher number of metabolic pathways enriched in Cave-in-Rock 179 as compared to Alamo, with more genes underlying the enriched pathways on average (Fig. 2 and 180 Fig. S4). Plant signal transduction process ranked among the most significantly enriched in Alamo 181 and Cave-in-Rock leaves, especially in response to drought stress. By contrast, endoplasmic 182 reticulum protein processing and nitrogen metabolism were most significantly altered in Alamo 183 and, to lesser degree, in Cave-in-Rock roots (Fig. 2). Albeit at lower levels, pathway enrichment 184 was also observed for general and specialized metabolism, including carbon and amino acid 185 metabolism, as well as carotenoid, steroid, and phenylpropanoid biosynthesis (Fig. 2, Supporting 186 Information Table S3).

187

188 Switchgrass features tissue-, genotype- and drought-specific alterations in terpenoid and 189 phenylpropanoid pathways

190 The enrichment of terpenoid and phenylpropanoid metabolism is consistent with prior studies 191 illustrating the up-regulation, albeit at moderate levels, of switchgrass terpenoid- and 192 phenylpropanoid-metabolic pathways in response to drought, UV irradiation and oxidative stress 193 (Meyer et al. 2014; Pelot et al. 2018; Muchlinski et al. 2019; Tiedge et al. 2020). To investigate in 194 more detail the impact of drought on switchgrass specialized metabolism, we compared the 195 transcript abundance of key genes of the terpenoid and phenylpropanoid scaffold-forming 196 pathways in both genotypes. Due to the lack of a Cave-in-Rock genome, gene annotations are 197 based on homology searches against the switchgrass Alamo AP13 genome (phytozome-198 next.jgi.doe.gov/info/Pvirgatum v5 1). Interestingly, the focal genes showed similar tissue199 specific expression profiles in Alamo and Cave-in-Rock and no substantial drought-induced gene 200 expression changes were observed (Fig. 3). For example, of the four annotated 1-deoxyxylulose 5-201 phosphate synthase (DXS) genes of the methylerythritol phosphate (MEP) pathway, two 202 homologs, Pavir. 3KG128241 and Pavir. 3NG140939, were abundant in leaves but ~10-60-fold less 203 in roots of both Alamo and Cave-in-Rock (Fig.3a). Likewise, the predicted squalene synthase, 204 Pavir.4NG340500, displayed high abundance in leaves and low gene expression in roots. 205 However, select genes showed genotype-specific differences in their expression patterns. This 206 included the predicted geranvlgeranvl pyrophosphate synthase (GGPPS), Pavir.6Ng089000, that 207 was expressed in Alamo but not Cave-in-Rock roots (Fig. 3a). A similar trend of gene expression 208 was observed for core genes of phenylpropanoid metabolism with several annotated *phenylalanine* 209 ammonia lyase (PAL), cinnamate-4-hydroxylase (C4H), and 4-coumaroyl-CoA ligase (4CL) genes 210 showing higher expression in roots as compared to leaves in both Alamo and Cave-in-Rock (Fig. 211 3b).

212 Contrasting the largely unaltered and comparable expression of the highly conserved upstream 213 pathway genes, both Alamo and Cave-in-Rock plants featured distinct gene expression profiles for 214 downstream pathway branches that generate species-specific, functionalized metabolites. 215 Following the recent discovery of specialized triterpenoid and steroid saponins in switchgrass (Li 216 et al. 2020), identification and gene expression analysis of predicted cycloartenol synthases (CAS), 217 lanosterol synthases (LAS), *β*-amyrin synthases (BAS), as well as members of the CYP71A, 218 CYP90B and CYP94D cytochrome P450 families and sterol 3-β-glucosyltransferases with known 219 functions in triterpenoid metabolism revealed distinct expression patterns across tissue type and 220 genotype (Fig. 4). For example, hierarchical gene cluster analysis illustrated predicted triterpenoid 221 synthase (TTS) genes and a putative CYP72A gene with similar inducible expression patterns in Alamo leaves after two and four weeks of drought (Supporting Information Table S4). Likewise, in Alamo roots a different group of *TTS*, *sterol* $3-\beta$ -glucosyltransferase, and putative *CYP72A*, *CYP94D* and *CYP90B* genes, known to function in the biosynthesis of triterpenoid saponins such as diosgenin (Ciura et al. 2017), displayed common inducible expression patterns after four weeks of drought (Fig. 4 upper panel). By contrast, co-expression patterns of triterpenoid-biosynthetic genes were not detectable in Cave-in-Rock (Fig. 4 lower panel).

228 Our prior research identified expansive, species-specific diterpene synthase (diTPS) and P450 229 families in switchgrass that form complex metabolic networks toward a range of labdane-related 230 diterpenoids, including syn-pimarane and furanoditerpenoid compounds that occur, perhaps 231 uniquely, in switchgrass (Fig. S5) (Pelot et al. 2018; Muchlinski et al. 2021). This pathway 232 knowledge enabled a detailed analysis of transcriptomic alterations related to diterpenoid 233 metabolism. Contrasting the largely similar expression patterns of MEP and MVA pathway genes 234 (Fig. 3a), hierarchical gene cluster analysis revealed distinct *diTPS* and *P450* gene expression 235 between Alamo and Cave-in-Rock (Fig. 5). In Alamo roots, the cis-trans-clerodienyl 236 pvrophosphate (CLPP) synthase PvCPS1 and the P450 genes, CYP71Z25, CYP71Z26, and 237 CYP71Z28 shown to form furanoditerpenoids (Muchlinski et al. 2021), showed patterns of co-238 expression at two and four weeks of drought. Similarly, the predicted syn-CPP synthases, PvCPS9 239 and PvCPS10, as well as two class I diTPS, PvKSL4 and PvKSL5, shown to form syn-pimaradiene 240 compounds (Pelot et al. 2018), co-expressed in roots, albeit without significant drought-inducible 241 transcript changes. In Cave-in-Rock, *diTPS* and *P450* genes were expressed mostly in the well-242 watered plants and water deficiency did not elicit significant transcript accumulation. Also, 243 contrasting roots, no drought-elicited changes in the expression of diterpenoid pathway genes was 244 detectable in leaves of either ecotype.

245

246 Switchgrass leaves and roots show drought-inducible metabolite alterations

247 To complement transcriptomic studies leaf and root metabolomes of Alamo and Cave-in-Rock 248 plants under drought-stressed and well-watered conditions were examined using untargeted liquid-249 chromatography-quadrupole Time of Flight-mass spectrometry (LC-QToF-MS) analysis. Using 250 accurate mass, retention time (RT), and fragmentation patterns, we identified 5181 and 3234 251 metabolite features in positive and negative ion mode, respectively. To compare metabolite 252 profiles across tissues, genotypes and treatments, after filtering for ion-abundance (see Methods) 253 2519 positive mode mass features (identified as retention time-m/z ratio pairs) were selected for 254 downstream statistical analysis (Supporting Information Table S5).

255 Aligned with the transcriptomic changes, biostatistical analysis of the untargeted metabolomic data 256 via PERMANOVA showed that tissue type had the highest impact on metabolite composition 257 $(72.4\%, p < 0.001^{***})$, followed by difference in genotype $(2.8\%, p < 0.028^{*})$ and drought-treatment 258 versus control (0.6%, p < 0.332) (Supporting Information Table S2). Hence, we further analyzed 259 the metabolite profiles independently within each tissue type. Despite the relatively lower impact 260 of drought treatment on metabolic alterations, under a multivariate dimension-reduction based on 261 genotype metabolite features clustered together prior to water deprivation (week 0), but separated 262 in leaves and, to a lesser extent, in roots after four weeks of drought treatment (Fig. 6). This shift 263 in metabolite composition was driven by several major features (Fig. 7). In leaves, most 264 compounds showing accumulation differences in control and drought-stressed plants were 265 annotated as phospholipids based on database searches for each feature. These compounds 266 increased in abundance in Alamo during drought treatment, whereas a decrease was observed in 267 Cave-in-Rock (Fig. 7). In addition to predicted phospholipids, a few features were enriched in 268 Alamo leaves under drought stress, whereas many unidentified compounds were enriched in 269 drought-treated Cave-in-Rock leaves (Supporting Information Table S2). In contrast, several 270 compounds identified as diterpenoids and triterpenoids by comparison of RT and fragmentation 271 patterns to previously identified compounds (Li et al., 2020; Muchlinski et al., 2021) accumulated 272 in roots of both Alamo and Cave-in-Rock plants under drought stress, with a stronger increase in 273 Alamo (Fig. 7). Other root metabolites that accumulated differentially under drought conditions 274 either did not score significant database matches or could only be assigned to the general classes 275 of carbohydrates, acids, or alcohols (Fig. 7). Among the few features that were generally enriched 276 in both leaves and roots and in both ecotypes under water deficient conditions was also abscisic 277 acid (ABA), which was increased by ~40-300-fold under drought (Fig. 8a, Supporting Information 278 Table S6, ABA: 6.08 247.1244m/z).

279 Drought induces the accumulation of specialized furanoditerpenoids in switchgrass roots

280 Considering that predicted specialized steroidal and triterpenoid saponins and diterpenoids 281 contribute substantially to the metabolic differences between Alamo and Cave-in-Rock roots, we 282 examined these compounds in more detail in leaf and root extracts after four weeks of drought 283 where the physiological stress symptoms were most pronounced. Several predicted flavonoid 284 glycosides were identified in leaves of Alamo and Cave-in-Rock plants but were absent in root 285 tissue. However, these compounds showed no or only minimal patterns of drought-elicited 286 accumulation (Fig. 8a). In addition, a range of distinct terpenoid metabolites was identified. 287 Among these metabolites, the largest group represented recently identified steroidal or triterpenoid 288 saponins (Li et al. 2020), showing distinct profiles across tissues and genotypes. Triterpenoid 289 saponins occurred predominantly in leaves of both Alamo and Cave-in-Rock plants, whereas the 290 larger group of steroidal saponins were present in leaves and/or roots and occurred predominantly 291 in either Alamo or Cave-in-Rock plants. Despite the overall abundance of these saponins, the vast 292 majority of the annotated metabolites were not significantly enriched upon drought stress ($p \leq p$ 293 0.05, Supporting Information Table S6). In addition to the larger group of triterpenoids, 11 294 compounds predicted as specialized diterpenoids were identified, the majority of which occurred 295 predominantly in Alamo roots and were absent or abundant at only low levels in Cave-in-Rock 296 (Fig. 8a). Notably, two pairs of predictably isomeric diterpenoids were detected in Alamo and 297 Cave-in-Rock that showed substantial accumulation mostly in drought-stressed roots. One 298 metabolite pair at retention times of 9.06 min and 9.26 min featured a dominant precursor mass 299 ion of m/z 317 [M+H]⁺ and one compound pair at retention times of 11.50 min and 11.72 min 300 featured a dominant ion of m/z 317 [M+H]⁺. Together with the presence of additional mass ions 301 of m/z 257, m/z 189, m/z 177 or m/z 135, these fragmentation patterns suggested that these 302 compounds represent labdane-related diterpenoids carrying one or more oxygenation functions 303 (Supporting Information Fig. S4). To elucidate the precise structure of these diterpenoids, 304 metabolites were extracted from mature Cave-in-Rock roots and purified via liquid-liquid phase 305 partitioning followed by HPLC. Purified samples (0.4-0.8 mg for each compound) of both m/z 301 306 isomers and both m/z 317 diterpenoid isomers were used for 1D (¹H and ¹³C) and 2D (HSQC, 307 COSY, HMBC and NOESY) NMR analyses. Collectively, the generated data identified the m/z308 301 diterpenoids as 15,16-epoxy-2-oxo- $5\alpha 8\alpha$ -cleroda-3,13(16),14-triene and its C19 enantiomer, 309 while the earlier eluting diterpenoid m/z 317 was identified as 2-oxo-5 α 8 α -cleroda-3,13-dien-310 16,15-olide, together designated as panicoloid A,B, and C respectively (Fig. 8b, Supporting 311 Information Fig. S6). Insufficient abundance and purity of the later eluting m/z 317 diterpendid 312 isomer prevented structural analysis of this metabolite. Based on the similar mass fragmentation 313 pattern and retention time compared to the other m/z 317 isomer (Supporting Information Fig. S4), it is plausible that this compound represents its enantiomeric isomer and is tentatively named panicoloid D. The identified diterpenoids represent derivatives of previously identified switchgrass furanoditerpenoids that feature additional carbonyl functions at C2 and/or C14 and are collectively named here as the group of panicoloids (Fig. S4).

318

319 **Discussion**

320 Knowledge of the gene-to-metabolite relationships underlying specialized metabolic pathways 321 that contribute to plant stress resilience can enable new crop optimization strategies for addressing 322 exacerbating environmental pressures and associated harvest loss (Savary et al. 2019). Extensive 323 studies in major food and bioenergy crops such as rice, majze, and sorghum (Sorghum bicolor) 324 have demonstrated that species-specific blends of specialized terpenoids, phenylpropanoids, 325 oxylipins, and benzoxazinoids mediate complex responses to biotic and abiotic perturbations 326 (Schmelz et al. 2014; Murphy and Zerbe 2020). By contrast, knowledge of the diversity of 327 specialized metabolites in the perennial bioenergy crop switchgrass and its relevance for drought 328 adaptation in different switchgrass genotypes is incomplete. Combined transcriptome and 329 metabolome analysis of the lowland ecotype Alamo shown to be drought-tolerant and the upland 330 ecotype Cave-in-Rock with low drought tolerance (Liu et al. 2015) revealed common and distinct 331 metabolic alterations and identified specialized diterpenoid metabolites with possible functions in 332 switchgrass drought adaptation.

Consistent with prior studies showing that upland and lowland switchgrass ecotypes have different transcriptomic profiles under optimal conditions (Ayyappan et al. 2017), this study demonstrates that metabolic alterations in Alamo and Cave-in-Rock are predominantly driven by differences in 336 tissue type and genotype, thus reflecting the different habitat range and climatic adaptation of 337 switchgrass ecotypes. A stronger wilting phenotype after four weeks of drought treatment, along 338 with more than twice as many differentially expressed genes illustrate more pronounced drought-339 induced metabolic changes in Cave-in-Rock, consistent with prior studies identifying Cave-in-340 Rock as particularly drought-susceptible among switchgrass varieties (Liu et al. 2015). Presence 341 of known drought-response genes among the most differentially expressed genes in Alamo and/or 342 Cave-in-Rock supported substantial drought responses in both genotypes during drought 343 treatment, despite the lack of significant phenotypic changes in Alamo. Know drought-associated 344 genes included *LEA* genes, including dehydrin shown to impact drought tolerance in Arabidopsis 345 and cotton (Gossypium spec.) (Olvera-Carrillo et al. 2010; Magwanga et al. 2018), a NAC 346 transcription factor (*Pavir.8KG003520*) shown to contribute to drought tolerance in a recent 347 switchgrass GWAS study (Lovell et al. 2021), and AWPM-19-like abscisic acid (ABA) influx transporters (Yao et al. 2018), Differential expression of several AWPM-19-like genes in both 348 349 Alamo and Cave-in-Rock is consistent with an increase in ABA observed in both genotypes and 350 tissues in response to drought stress. While prior studies that showed increased ABA and sugar 351 accumulation in drought-tolerant switchgrass genotypes (Liu et al. 2015), the final concentration 352 of ABA in drought stressed plants was at comparable levels in both genotypes in our study, 353 whereas the concentration in the control plants was lower in Alamo, resulting in a higher fold-354 change/increase in Alamo when compared to Cave-in-Rock Notably, the specific genes of the 355 above gene families being differentially expressed differed between Alamo and Cave-in-Rock, 356 suggesting that switchgrass genotypes recruit specific genes governing stress response 357 mechanisms.

358 Pathways of general and specialized metabolism showed overall comparatively moderate 359 differential gene expression in response to drought stress with apparent metabolic differences 360 between leaf and root tissue. Accumulation of sucrose and ABA in Alamo and Cave-in-Rock 361 tissues is consistent with previously demonstrated switchgrass drought responses (Liu et al. 2015). 362 In addition, the observed major contribution of phospholipids to metabolic alterations in leaves of 363 both genotypes may be related to an upregulation of pathways involved in membrane lipid systems 364 and cell wall biosynthesis as shown in, for example, drought-resistant maize lines (Zhang et al. 365 2020). Additional phospholipid roles in drought tolerance may include maintenance of membrane 366 integrity or mitigation of drought-related cell damage (Hamrouni et al. 2001), as well as signaling 367 processes during water deficiency as reported in selected drought-resistant species (Moradi et al. 368 2017; Quartacci et al. 1995). Contrasting drought-related flavonoid functions in, for example, 369 wheat (Triticum aestivum) and other species (Gai et al. 2020; Ma et al. 2014), leaf flavonoid 370 glycosides did not accumulate in response to drought in either switchgrass genotype, despite a 371 moderate upregulation of select pathway genes such as CHS in drought-stressed plants. Similarly, 372 steroidal and triterpenoid saponins were identified in switchgrass leaves, and have been shown to 373 increase as part of the leaf cuticular waxes in response to drought (Kim et al. 2007). However, our 374 metabolite analysis did not show significant drought-elicited triterpenoid accumulation that would 375 support a similar function in switchgrass.

Different from leaves, steroidal and other triterpenoid saponins as well as diterpenoids constituted the major determinants of metabolic differences in drought-stressed roots. Notably, MEP and MVA pathway genes showed no or very minor patterns of drought-inducible expression in Alamo or Cave-in-Rock, indicating that no major change in the production of terpenoid precursors occurs in response to drought. One exception is the putative *GGPPS*, *Pavir*.6*NG089000*, that is expressed 381 in Alamo but not Cave-in-Rock roots and may contribute to differences in terpenoid metabolism 382 between these genotypes. This apparent lack of drought activation of terpenoid backbone pathways 383 suggests that terpenoid accumulation has to derive from existing precursor pools via changes in 384 pathway branches en route to specific terpenoids. Indeed, in leaves and roots of Alamo, but not 385 Cave-in-Rock, downstream triterpenoid-metabolic pathway genes increased under drought 386 conditions. Interestingly, no apparent triterpenoid-biosynthetic gene clusters were identified in the 387 switchgrass genome, which differentiates switchgrass from other plant species where triterpenoid 388 metabolism is commonly arranged in form of often stress-inducible biosynthetic clusters (Liu et 389 al. 2020; Bai et al. 2021). Despite the lack of apparent genomic clusters, clear co-expression 390 patterns were observed for several TTS genes as well as sterol 3- β -glucosyltransferases and P450 391 genes of the CYP71A, CYP94D and CYP90B families, thus supporting the presence of co-392 expressed pathways toward specific triterpenoids. The identification of diverse mixtures of 393 diosgenin and closely related triterpenoid saponins in roots of several upland and lowland ecotypes 394 supports this hypothesis (Lee et al. 2009; Li et al. 2020). However, the annotated triterpenoid 395 metabolites were not significantly enriched in response to drought in either genotype, suggesting 396 that the inducible expression of triterpenoid pathways in Alamo is related to distinct drought-stress 397 responses. It can be speculated that root triterpenoids serve antioxidant functions to mitigate 398 oxidative damage caused by water deficiency as shown in Arabidopsis and other species (Posé et 399 al. 2009; Nasrollahi et al. 2014; Puente-Garza et al. 2017). Also, recent studies have demonstrated 400 bioactive triterpenoids in roots exudates of soybean (Glycine max) and tomato (Solanum 401 lycopersicum) that aid the assembly of the root microbiome to confer robustness against 402 environmental stresses (Fujimatsu et al. 2020; Nakayasu et al. 2021). While distinct microbiome 403 responses to drought stress have been reported in upland and lowland switchgrass ecotypes (Liu

404 et al. 2021), the role of specialized metabolites such as saponins in these interactions is yet to be405 discovered.

406 Unlike root triterpenoids, significant drought-induced accumulation of several diterpenoids in 407 roots supports a role in drought response mechanisms. Although requiring further biological 408 studies, the higher abundance of these diterpenoids in Alamo as compared to Cave-in-Rock may 409 contribute to the distinct stress resilience in these genotypes. In addition, accumulation in both 410 Alamo and Cave-in-Rock support a role of these metabolites in drought responses rather than 411 general stress responses associated with the more pronounced wilting phenotype observed in Cave-412 analysis identified three compounds as oxygenated clerodane in-Rock. Structural 413 furanoditerpenoids, named here panicoloid A-C, which likely represent derivatives of 414 furanoditerpenoid scaffolds recently identified in switchgrass (Pelot et al. 2018; Muchlinski et al. 415 2021). Notably, the enantiomeric stereochemistry of panicoloid B and C is likely derived from the 416 activity of yet unidentified diTPS functionally related to the CLPP synthese PvCPS1. Drought-417 induced gene expression increases of characterized pathway genes toward clerodane-type 418 furanoditerpenoids, including the diTPS PvCPS1 and the P450 genes CYP71Z25, CYP71Z26 and 419 CYP71Z28 supports a role of these pathway genes in panicoloid biosynthesis. Additional co-420 expression of select P450s of the CYP99 family and predicted short-chain alcohol 421 dehydrogenases/reductases, shown to function in specialized diterpenoid metabolism in maize and 422 rice (Swaminathan et al. 2009), suggests possible functions in the position-specific oxygenation 423 reactions toward panicoloid biosynthesis. Similar to triterpenoid metabolism, the lack of co-424 expression of these genes in the drought-susceptible Cave-in-Rock genotype may support a role 425 of panicoloids in switchgrass drought responses. Combined with the abundance of yet unidentified 426 diterpenoids in switchgrass roots, drought-elicited co-expression patterns of additional predicted

427 syn-CPP synthase genes (PvCPS9, PvCPS10) and characterized class I diTPS forming syn-428 pimarane diterpenoids (*PvKSL4*, *PvKSL5*) suggest the presence of a broader diversity of drought-429 induced diterpenoids in switchgrass. Similar clerodane-type furanoditerpenoids have also been 430 identified in species of Vellozia spec. (Pinto et al. 1994), Solidago spec. (Anthonsen et al. 1973; 431 McCrindle et al. 1976), and Croton campestris (El Babili et al. 1998), where they will have evolved 432 independently given the phylogenetic distance between these plant genera. While the drought-433 induced expression of diterpenoid-metabolic genes and associated accumulation of panicoloids 434 and possibly other diterpenoids supports a role in switchgrass drought tolerance, the underlying 435 mechanisms will require future investigation. However, drought-related diterpenoid bioactivities 436 have recently been supported in other monocots. For example, maize studies demonstrated the 437 accumulation of specialized kauralexin and dolabralexin diterpenoids in response to oxidative, 438 drought and salinity stress (Christensen et al. 2018; Mafu et al. 2018), and diterpenoid-deficient 439 maize mutants show decreased resilience to abiotic stress (Vaughan et al. 2015b). Additionally, 440 antioxidative functions in relation to drought stress have been shown for select diterpenoids 441 (Munné-Bosch and Alegre 2003), and diterpenoid roles in the root microbiome assembly have 442 been suggested based on changes in the microbiome composition in the kauralexin- and 443 dolabralexin-deficient maize an2 mutant (Murphy et al. 2021).

444 Collectively, these findings exemplify the power of combining transcriptomic, metabolomic and 445 metabolite structural approaches to accelerate the discovery of plant specialized pathways and 446 products to better understand their relevance and role in plant stress responses. This approach 447 revealed common and distinct drought-induced metabolic changes in switchgrass genotypes of 448 contrasting drought tolerance. These insights provide the foundation for future targeted genetic studies to investigate the diversity and protective function of terpenoids and other specializedmetabolites in switchgrass drought tolerance.

451

452 Methods

453 **Plant material and treatment**

454 Switchgrass genotypes Alamo AP13 and Cave-in-Rock were kindly provided by Dr. Malay Saha 455 (Noble Research Institute, USA). Plants were propagated from tillers to maintain low genetic 456 variation and cultivated in greenhouses to the reproductive stage (R1) under ambient photoperiod 457 and ~27/22°C day/night temperature prior to drought treatment in a random block design. 458 Following prior drought studies (Liu et al., 2015), drought stress was applied by withholding water 459 consecutively for four weeks, whereas control plants were watered daily. Volumetric soil water 460 content (SWC) was monitored regularly using a HydroSense II (Campbell Scientific, USA). Leaf 461 and root tissues of treated and control plants (n=6 per group) were collected before the start of the 462 treatment (week 0), after two weeks (week 2), and after four weeks (week 4) at a consistent time 463 and immediately flash-frozen in liquid N_2 . To enable comparative data integration, samples for 464 transcriptome and metabolite analyses originated from the same plant tissue samples, which were 465 split for the different analyses.

466

467 **RNA** isolation, transcriptome sequencing, and differential gene expression analysis

468 Total RNA was extracted from 100 mg of leaves or roots of Alamo and Cave-in-Rock plants (n=6)
469 either drought-stressed or well-watered (control) using a Monarch[®] Total RNA Miniprep Kit (New

470 England Biolabs, USA) and subsequently treated with DNase I for genomic DNA removal. 471 Following assessment of RNA integrity and quantitation using the Bioanalyzer 2100 RNA Nano 472 6000 Assay Kit (Agilent Technologies Inc., CA, USA), four of the six biological replicates with 473 highest RNA quality were selected for sequencing. Preparation of cDNA libraries and 474 transcriptome sequencing was performed at Novogene (Novogene Corporation Inc., USA). In 475 brief, following RNA integrity analysis and quantitation, cDNA libraries were generated using a 476 NEBNext[®]UltraTMRNA Library Prep Kit (New England Biolabs, USA) and sequenced on an 477 Illumina Novaseq 6000 sequencing platform generating 40-80 million 150 bp paired-end reads per 478 sample. Filtered, high-quality reads were aligned to the reference genome (P. virgatum var. Alamo 479 AP13 v5.1) using HISAT2 (Kim et al. 2019a). Gene functional annotation was based on best 480 matches to databases from Phytozome v13 (phytozome-next.jgi.doe.gov), including Arabidopsis, 481 rice, Gene Ontology, and Panther, as well as in-house protein databases of biochemically verified terpene-metabolic enzymes (Pelot et al. 2018; Murphy and Zerbe 2020). Differentially expressed 482 483 genes (DEGs) were identified based on padj < 0.05 and $|\log 2 FC| > 1$ as selection criteria. Statistical 484 analyses were conducted in R and also plots and heatmaps were created using the 'ggplot2' and 485 'pheatmap' packages in R (cran-project.org, version 3.6.3).

486

487 *Metabolite extraction*

488 Metabolite analysis followed previously established protocols (Li et al. (2020). Here, 100 mg 489 tissue were ground to a fine powder in liquid N₂ and metabolites were extracted with 1 ml 80% 490 methanol containing 1 μ M telmisartan internal standard by vortexing briefly and incubation for 16 491 h at 200 rpm and 4°C. Samples were centrifuged for 20 min (4000 g, 4°C) to remove solid particles 492 and the supernatants transferred into fresh vials and stored at -80°C prior to LC-MS analysis. 493

494 UPLC-ESI-QToF-MS analysis

495 Metabolite profiling was achieved by reversed-phase Ultra Performance Liquid Chromatography-496 Electrospray Ionization-Quadrupole Time-of-Flight mass spectrometry (UPLC-ESI-OToF-MS) 497 analysis in positive and negative ionization mode on a Waters Acquity UPLC system equipped 498 with a Waters Xevo G2-XS QToF MS (Waters, Milford, MA) and a Waters UPLC BEH C18 (1.7 499 µm x 2.1 mm x 150 mm) column. Chromatography was performed using 10 mM NH₄HCO₂ (in 500 water; solvent A) and 100% acetonitrile (solvent B) as mobile phase and the following parameters: 501 flow rate of 0.4 ml min⁻¹; column temperature 40°C; 10 µl injection; method: 0-1 min (99% A/1% 502 B), 1-15 min linear gradient to 1% A/99% B, 15-18 min (1% A/99%B), 18-20 min (99% A/1% 503 B); QToF parameters: desolvation temperature of 350°C; desolvation gas flow rate at 600 L h⁻¹; 504 capillary voltage of 3 kV; cone voltage of 30 V. Mass spectra were acquired in continuum mode over m/z 50-1500 using data-independent acquisition (DIA) and MS^E with collision potential 505 506 scanned at 20-80 V for the higher energy function.

507 The obtained DIA MS data were processed using Progenesis QI (V3.0, Waters) for quality control, 508 chromatography alignment and mass feature extraction. Metabolite annotations were performed 509 by matching m/z ratios, RT and fragmentation patterns against metabolite databases through 510 Progenesis QI and LipidBlast (Kind et al. 2013). As a complimentary annotation approach, DDA 511 (data dependent acquisition) was performed on a subset of the samples to obtain MS/MS spectral 512 data for mainly the most abundant features. In addition, CANOPUS was used to predict chemical 513 classes of the features based on their MS/MS information (Dührkop et al. 2021). Ion abundances 514 of all detected features were normalized to the internal telmisartan standard based on five biological replicates. The normalized data (abundance > 300) were used for statistical analysis
using MetaboAnalyst 5.0 (Pang et al. 2021).

517

518 NMR analysis of terpenoid metabolites

519 About 200 g fresh root tissues of Cave-in-Rock plants were harvested. Compound purification was 520 performed according to the method described in the Li et al (2020). The differences are the ethyl 521 acetate and hexane phases (in which the diterpenoids were concentrated) were evaporated to 522 drvness using a SpeedVac vacuum concentrator. The residue was re-dissolved in 8 mL of 95% 523 methanol. Supernatants were transferred to LC vials. Purification was carried out as previously 524 described using a C18 HPLC column (100 x 4,6 mm x 5µm). For NMR analysis, ~0.4-0.8 mg of 525 each HPLC purified compounds were dissolved in deuterated chloroform (CDCl₃; Sigma-Aldrich, 526 USA) containing 0.03% (v/v) tetramethylsilane (TMS). NMR 1D (¹H and ¹³C) and 2D (HSQC, 527 COSY, HMBC and NOESY) spectra were acquired as previously described (Pelot et al. 2018) on 528 a Bruker Avance III 800 MHz spectrometer (Bruker Corporation, MA, USA) equipped with a 5 529 mm CPTCI cryoprobe using Bruker TopSpin 3.6.1 software and analyzed with MestReNova 14.1 530 software. Chemical shifts were calibrated against known TMS signals.

531

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537

538 Author Contributions

55) 1.2. and R.T. Concerved the original research and oversaw data analysis, R.T. Conducted pla	539	P.Z. and K.T.	conceived the	original	research and	l oversaw	data analy	vsis; K.T.	conducted	plaı
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- 540 drought stress experiments and transcriptome analysis; X.L. performed metabolite profiling and
- 541 analysis; A.M., P.Y., and D.T. performed NMR structural analyses; D.D. and Y.C. assisted with
- 542 plant harvesting, sampling, and sample processing; K.T. and P.Z. wrote the original article draft
- 543 with editing by all authors. All authors have read and approved the manuscript.

544

545 Data availability

546 The RNA-seq data were submitted to the Sequence Read Archive (SRA), accession no.547 PRJNA644234.

548

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560 **Conflict of interest statement**

561 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest in accordance with the journal policy.

562

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- 770

771 Figure legends

- 772 Fig. 1: Left panel: Photographs of Alamo and Cave-in-Rock plants after four weeks of drought
- treatment (+d) or normal watering (-d). Right panels: Volcano plots of differentially expressed

genes identified after four weeks of drought in (a) Alamo leaves (b) Cave-in-Rock leaves (c)
Alamo roots (d) Cave-in-Rock roots. Differential expression threshold: padj < 0.05, log2 FC, and
>1.

Fig. 2: KEGG pathway enrichment analysis of differentially expressed genes. Circle color denotes
the adjusted *p*-value (Padj), circle size is proportional to the number of genes involved in the
enrichment of the pathway (Count).

780 Fig. 3: Plot of normalized gene expression profiles of genes with predicted functions in (a) 781 terpenoid backbone biosynthesis and (b) flavonoid backbone biosynthesis after 0, 2 or 4 weeks in 782 drought-treated (D) or well-watered control (C) Alamo and Cave-in-Rock (CiR) plants. Gene 783 expression data are based on four biological replicates and gene functional annotations are based 784 on best matches in BLAST searches against public and in-house protein databases. Gene IDs were 785 derived from the Panicum virgatum v5.1 (phytozomegenome 786 next.jgi.doe.gov/info/Pvirgatum v5 1). Abbreviations: DXS, 1-deoxyxylulose 5-phosphate 787 synthase; DXR, 1-deoxyxylulose 5-phosphate reductase; HMGR, HMG-CoA reductase; FPPS, farnesyl pyrophosphate synthase; GGPPS, geranylgeranyl pyrophosphate synthase; SOS, 788 789 squalene synthase; SOE, squalene epoxidase; PAL, phenylalanine ammonia lyase; C4H, 790 cinnamate-4-hydroxylase; 4CL, 4-coumaroyl-CoA ligase; CHS, chalcone synthase; CHI, 791 chalcone isomerase.

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Fig. 4: Hierarchical cluster analysis of select genes with predicted functions in triterpenoid
biosynthesis in Alamo and Cave-in-Rock. Gene functional annotations are based on best matches
in BLAST searches against in-house protein databases of known triterpenoid-metabolic genes.

Gene IDs are derived from the *Panicum virgatum* genome v5.1 (phytozomenext.jgi.doe.gov/info/Pvirgatum_v5_1). Gene expression data are based on four biological replicates. Dashed boxes highlight genes with relevant co-expression patterns. Right side: C0L,
C2L, C4L: Leaves of well-watered control plants after 0, 2 and 4 weeks of treatment; C0R, C2R,
C4R: Roots of well-watered control plants; D0L, D2L, D4L: Leaves of drought-stressed plants;
D0R, D2R, D4R: Roots of drought-stressed plants.

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Fig. 5: Hierarchical cluster analysis of select genes with known or predicted functions in diterpenoid biosynthesis in Alamo and Cave-in-Rock. Gene functional annotations are based on previous biochemical enzyme characterizations or best matches in BLAST searches against inhouse protein databases of known diterpenoid-metabolic genes. Gene IDs are derived from the *Panicum virgatum* genome v5.1 (phytozome-next.jgi.doe.gov/info/Pvirgatum_v5_1). Gene expression data are based on four biological replicates. Dashed boxes highlight genes with relevant co-expression patterns. C0L, C2L, C4L: Leaves of well-watered control plants after 0, 2 and 4

810	weeks of treatment; C0R, C2R, C4R: Roots of well-watered control plants; D0L, D2L, D4L:						
811	Leaves of drought-stressed plants; D0R, D2R, D4R: Roots of drought-stressed plants.						
812							
813	Fig. 6: Partial Least-Squares Discriminant Analysis (PLS-DA) plots of LC-MS positive mod						
814	metabolome divergence based on five biological replicates. X-axis: Principal Component 1; y-						
815	axis: Principal Component 2.						
816							
817	Fig. 7: Scree plot of metabolite features obtained via LC-MS positive mode analysis that show the						
818	most significant contribution to changes in metabolite profiles in response to drought stress. A						
819	higher coefficient (x-axis) denotes a higher importance for this feature in the Partial Least-Squares						
820	Discriminant Analysis (PLS-DA) shown in Fig. 6. Boxes display the relative abundance of a						
821	feature among the different groups as based on five biological replicates. Metabolite annotations						
822	are based on matching m/z ratios, RT and fragmentation patterns against online databases.						
823							
824	Fig. 8: (a) Hierarchical cluster analysis of select specialized metabolite accumulation patterns.						
825	Sucrose and abscisic acid (ABA) abundance provide as drought-related reference metabolites.						
826	Metabolite annotations are based on matching m/z ratios, RT and fragmentation patterns against						
827	online databases. (b) Structures of drought-induced diterpenoids, 15,16-epoxy-2-oxo-5α8α-						
828	cleroda-3,13(16),14-triene (m/z 301, panicoloid A), 15,16-epoxy-2-oxo-5 β 8 α -cleroda-						

829 3,13(16),14-triene (*m/z* 301, panicoloid B) and 2-oxo-5α8α-cleroda-3,13-dien-16,15-olide (*m/z*

- 830 317, panicoloid C), isolated from drought-stressed switchgrass roots. Metabolite abundance is
- 831 based on five biological replicates.

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833	Supporting	Information
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- **Fig. S1:** Available water content (AWC) in the soil during the treatment
- 835 Fig. S2: Differentially expressed genes between all groups after four weeks of drought treatment
- **Fig. S3:** Identification of significantly enriched metabolic pathways at the end of the treatment via
- 60 term analysis
- 838 Fig. S4: LC-MS chromatograms and spectra of identified panicoloids
- 839 Fig. S5: Diterpenoid network in switchgrass
- 840 Fig. S6: NMR analysis of panicoloids A-C
- 841 **Table S1:** Complete list of differentially expressed genes (DEGs)
- 842 **Table S2:** Permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) of a) gene expression
- 843 levels and b) metabolite abundances
- **Table S3:** Enrichment of GO terms and KEGG pathways in Alamo and Cave-in-Rock
- 845 Table S4: Complete list of the calculated FPKM (Fragments Per Kilobase of transcript per Million
- 846 mapped reads) values for all genes
- 847 **Table S5:** List of all mass features from the positive mode LC-MS dataset that were selected for
- the downstream statistical analysis.

849 Table S6: Statistical analysis for detected LC-MS features of annotated specialized metabolites



















