



Time-series transcriptome analysis reveals the cascade mechanism of biological processes following the perturbation of the MVA pathway in *Salvia miltiorrhiza*

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Abstract

Various biological processes are interconnected in plants. Transcription factors (TFs) often act as regulatory hubs to regulate plant growth and responses to stress by integrating various biological pathways. Despite extensive studies on TFs functions in various plant species, our understanding of the details of TFs regulation remains limited. In this study, clonal seedlings of *Salvia miltiorrhiza* were exposed to specific inhibitors for 12 h. Time-series transcriptome data, sampled hourly, were used to construct co-expression networks and gene regulatory networks (GRNs). Transcriptome dynamic analysis was utilized to capture the gene expression dynamics of various biological processes and decipher the potential molecular mechanisms that regulate these processes. The perturbation results showed the growth and development processes of *S.miltiorrhiza* were primarily affected at the early stage, whereas stress response-related biological processes were mainly influenced at the later stage. And there was a correlation between the series of key differentially expressed genes in terpenoid biosynthesis pathways and the topological distribution of these pathways. Furthermore, the GRNs based on TFs indicate that TFs play a crucial role in connecting various biological processes. In the cytoplasmic lysate gene regulatory module, *SmWRKY48-SmTCP4-SmWRKY28* constituted a regulation hub regulating *S.miltiorrhiza* responses to perturbation of the MVA pathway. The regulation hub mediated various pathways, including pyruvate metabolism, glycolysis/gluconeogenesis, amino acid metabolism, and ubiquinone and other terpenoid-quinone biosynthesis. Our findings suggest that perturbation of a key biological pathway in *S.miltiorrhiza* has time-dependent effects on other biological processes. And *SmWRKY48-SmTCP4-SmWRKY28* constitutes the regulatory hub in *S.miltiorrhiza* responses to perturbation of MVA pathway.

Key message

After disrupting the MVA pathway in *Salvia miltiorrhiza* with specific inhibitors, a gene regulatory network involving transcription factors reveals a potential mechanism for the synergistic effects of interconnected biological processes.

Introduction

Various biological processes are interconnected in plants. This connection is mediated through multiple molecular mechanisms. In contrast to other regulators like long non-coding RNAs (lncRNAs), microRNAs (miRNAs), and hormones, transcription factors (TFs) demonstrate a complex regulatory association with their target genes. Many TFs display a multi-to-multi regulatory pattern, enabling them to concurrently regulate multiple target genes involved in diverse biological processes (Shen-Orr et al. 2002). This characteristic of TFs promotes the interconnectedness among various biological processes. TFs often act as the regulatory hubs regulating plant growth and responses to

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stress through integrating various pathways. For instance, UB2/UB3/TSH4 acted as the signaling hubs regulating inflorescence development through integrating light and hormone signaling pathways in *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Kong et al. 2023).

The MYB-bHLH-WD40 regulatory complex controlled anthocyanidin biosynthesis in *Vaccinium corymbosum* fruit and color development (Zhao et al. 2019). The HSF, WRKY, and bZIP transcription factor families could regulate various biological processes in *Pinellia ternata* under shade conditions, including the accumulation of reactive oxygen species, light signals, and programmed cell death (Yang et al. 2023). Transcription factor families such as MYB, bHLH, and NAC coordinated the interplay among the biosynthesis processes of secondary metabolites like flavonoids, caffeine, and theanine in tea trees (Li et al. 2015a).

Studies have shown that plants exhibit multiple temporal scales at different regulatory levels when faced with external stimuli. Transcriptional regulation can occur in minutes or hours (Li et al. 2015b). Therefore, conducting a temporal transcriptome analysis over hours would be more beneficial for capturing dynamic events in gene transcriptional regulation, thus revealing the regulatory relationships between genes in a specific biological state. Time-sequence-based transcriptomes are preferred for constructing gene co-expression networks (GCNs) and gene regulatory networks (GRNs) (Alvarez et al. 2021). For example, to investigate the molecular mechanism of salt stress tolerance in *Aquilegia vulgaris*, a time series transcriptome analysis was conducted. Samples were collected after exposure to NaCl treatment for 0, 12, 24, and 48 h. The results showed that plant responses to salt stress involved cell wall composition and metabolism-related biological processes. Further analysis by constructing GRNs has revealed that the AP2, MYB, and bHLH transcription factor families might play crucial roles as key regulators in plant responses to salt stress (Bai et al. 2023). To address the challenge of predicting causal relationships between TFs and their target genes, various algorithms have been developed to construct GRNs, including ARACNE (Algorithms for Reconstruction of Accurate Cellular Networks) (Margolin et al. 2006), CLR (Context Likelihood of Relatedness) (Faith et al. 2007), GENIE3 (Gene Network Inference with Ensemble of Trees 3) (Huynh-Thu et al. 2010), TIGRESS (Trustful Inference of Gene REgulation using Stability Selection) (Hauray et al. 2012), and other methods. It has been discovered that no single method for GRN inference performs optimally across all datasets. Combinations of different method strategies often demonstrate robustness and superior performance in network inference, a phenomenon known as the “wisdom of the crowds” (Marbach et al. 2012). Specifically, bioNERO (Almeida-Silva and Venancio 2022), an all-in-one R-package that encompasses all stages of

the network analysis process, applies the “wisdom of the crowds” approach to constructing GRNs. It integrates three popular GRN inference algorithms—GENIE3, ARACNE, and CLR.

In plants, isoprenoids, also known as terpenes or terpenoids, are one of the most diverse organic compounds found in nature. They include primary products such as chlorophyll, carotenoids, ubiquinone, cytokines, gibberellin, oleuropein steroids, and abscisic acid, as well as numerous secondary metabolites with medicinal value, such as tanshinone, paclitaxel, artemisinin, and ginsenoside (Pichersky and Raguso 2018; Krause et al. 2023). Isoprenoids play a crucial role in growth, development, and stress responses. The mevalonic acid pathway (MVA) produces cytosolic isopentenyl diphosphate (IPP), while the methylerythritol pathway (MEP) generates IPP and its isomer dimethylallyl diphosphate (DMAPP) in plastids (Rohmer and Rohmer 1999). Changes in the expression of genes, the stability of proteins, and the activity of enzymes in either of these two pathways can affect a wide range of biological processes in plants (Cho et al. 2022). For example, it was found that treating *Trigonella foenum-graecum* with a specific inhibitor of HMGR (3-hydroxy-3-methyl glutaryl coenzyme A reductase) for 72 h significantly inhibited root growth and resulted in a approximately 50% decrease in diosgenin content (Cao et al. 2021). Overexpression of *MdHMGR5* (from *Malus pumila*) in *Arabidopsis thaliana* enhanced the antioxidant stress capacity of the plant (Zhang et al. 2020). It suggests that when the MVA pathway is perturbed, multiple other biological processes will be affected.

Salvia miltiorrhiza is an important medicinal plant, with terpenoids and phenolic acids being its main medicinal components. Biological processes related to terpenoids have been extensively studied (Gao et al. 2014; Lu et al. 2022). This makes *S. miltiorrhiza* a valuable material for in-depth study of the role of the isoprenoid biosynthetic pathway in regulating plant metabolism and its relationship with other related pathways. In this study, we utilized lovastatin (LOV), a specific inhibitor of HMGR, to treat *S. miltiorrhiza* clonal seedlings. Subsequently, we conducted a dynamic transcriptome analysis. By constructing GCNs and GRNs, we have revealed the changing sequence of relevant biological processes and their underlying mechanisms following the perturbation of the MVA pathway.

Materials and methods

Plant materials and growing conditions

Leaf explants were obtained from potted *S. miltiorrhiza* from the seed source of Zhongjiang County, Sichuan Province,

China. The explants were then used to induce callus formation and organogenesis (Tsai et al. 2015). Well-developed seedlings were transplanted into a series of MS (Murashige and Skoog 1962) medium. Then the cultures were incubated in a growth chamber with a 14/10 h (light/dark) photoperiod and a temperature of 24 ± 2 °C.

Treatment of *S.miltiorrhiza* clonal seedlings with the inhibitor LOV

The activation of LOV and the preparation of stock solutions were conducted according to Hagen's methods (Hagen and Grunewald 2000). For time series analysis, seedlings were treated with (i) MS medium containing the LOV solution with final working concentrations of 10 μ M (Blazquez et al. 2012) or (ii) LOV free MS medium at 6:00 a.m. Triplicate root samples, both treat and control, were harvested at 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, and 12 h after treatments. All samples were stored at -80 °C for RNA sequencing and HMGR activity assay. For concentration gradient test, seedlings were treated with 0 μ M, 10 μ M, 50 μ M, 100 μ M, and 200 μ M final working solution concentrations of LOV respectively at 6:00 a.m. After 12 h (at 6:00 p.m), triplicate root samples were collected. All samples were stored at -80 °C for RNA sequencing.

Total RNA extraction, library construction, sequencing and alignment

Total RNA was extracted from the roots using the MJZol Total RNA Extraction Kit (Majorbio Bio-Pharm Technology, Shanghai, China) following the manufacturer's instructions. Then, RNA quality was determined using the 5300 Bioanalyser (Agilent) and quantified with the ND-2000 (NanoDrop Technologies). Only high-quality RNA sample ($OD_{260/280} = 1.8 \sim 2.2$, $OD_{260/230} \geq 2.0$, $RQN \geq 6.5$, $28S:18S \geq 1.0$, $> 1\mu$ g) was used to construct the sequencing library. RNA purification, reverse transcription, library construction, and sequencing were conducted at Shanghai Majorbio Bio-pharm Biotechnology Co., Ltd. (Shanghai, China) following the manufacturer's guidelines. The RNA-seq transcriptome library was prepared following Illumina® Stranded mRNA Prep Ligation (San Diego, CA). The sequencing library was prepared using the NovaSeq 6000 platform (PE150) and the NovaSeq Reagent Kit.

The raw paired-end reads were trimmed and quality-controlled using fastp (Chen et al. 2018) with default parameters. In this step, clean data was obtained by removing read segments containing artifacts and low-quality reads from the raw data. All subsequent analyses were based on high-quality, clean reads. Clean reads were separately aligned to *S.miltiorrhiza* reference genome in orientation mode using HISAT (Kim et al. 2015). The

reference genomes and gene annotations for chromosome-level genomes were downloaded directly from the website (<https://ngdc.cncb.ac.cn/gwh/Assembly/10381/show>) (Song et al. 2020).

Differential expression analysis and functional enrichment

Gene expression was quantified using RNA-Seq via Expectation–Maximization (RSEM) (Li and Dewey 2011) and then normalized by transcripts per kilobase per million mapped reads (TPM) values. Differential expression analysis was performed using the DESeq2 package (Love et al. 2014). To investigate the changes in the transcript abundance following LOV treatment, TPM values were utilized to calculate the gene expression level in the LOV-treated samples compared to the control samples. A gene was considered to be differentially expressed when it displayed an absolute value of $\log_2$ (fold change) ≥ 1 and an adjusted P-value < 0.5 .

In addition, functional annotation of the differentially expressed genes (DEGs) was conducted using the gene ontology (GO) database (<http://www.geneontology.org>) and the Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) database (<http://www.genome.jp/kegg/>). Functional enrichment analysis, including GO and KEGG, was conducted to determine which DEGs were significantly enriched in various GO terms and metabolic pathways. GO functional enrichment and KEGG pathway analysis were conducted using Goatools and KOBAS software (Young et al. 2010; Kanehisa et al. 2008).

HMGR activity assay

The roots of clonal seedlings were harvested after LOV treatment for 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, and 12 h. Samples weighing 0.1 g were used for enzyme assays following the protocol outlined in the Plant HMGR ELISA KIT (Lunchangshuo Biotechnology, China).

Construction of GRNs

To obtain comprehensive gene functional information, the assembled transcriptome was annotated through BLAST searches against several databases, including Nr (Non-Redundant Protein Sequence Database) (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/public/>), eggNOG (Evolutionary Genealogy of Genes: Non-supervised Orthologous Groups) (<http://eggnogdb.embl.de/#/app/home>), Pfam (<http://pfam.xfam.org/>), GO (<http://www.geneontology.org>), KEGG (<http://www.genome.jp/kegg/>), and Swiss-Prot (http://web.expasy.org/docs/swiss-prot_guide_line.html). TFs were screened based on the annotation

information and classified according to PlantTFDB v5.0 (http://planttfdb_v4.cbi.pku.edu.cn/). TFs with normalized expression values (TPM) $\geq$ onefold change and an adjusted P-value < 0.5 were considered as differentially expressed TFs. Based on the GO annotation information, the DEGs annotated to the same cellular components, such as chloroplast, mitochondria, endoplasmic reticulum, Golgi apparatus, and cytoplasmic lysosome, were grouped into a gene set. GRNs were constructed based on differentially expressed TFs and DEGs in the gene set using bioNERO. Gephi (Bastian et al. 2009) was used for visualizing GRNs and filtering the top 5 hub genes.

Construction of GCNs

The R package WGCNA (Weighted Gene Co-expression Network Analysis) (Langfelder and Horvath 2008) was used to construct GCNs. Firstly, the bioNERO R script was used to preprocess the gene expression data to remove the low expression data (TPM < 1). The outlier samples were then removed using the standardized connectivity method. Based on the topological overlap (TOM) dissimilarity, genes were clustered using the average-link hierarchical clustering method. The gene modules were determined using the dynamic cutting method. The correlation between the eigengene vector of the obtained module and the HMGR concentration of the sample was calculated using the function module-TraitCor. The module with the maximum correlation coefficient was chosen as the module significantly associated with HMGR concentration. The function expor-NetworkToCytoscape was used to export the edge and node information of genes in each module. Finally, networks were visualized using Cytoscape v3.9.1 (Shannon et al. 2003) and the top 10 hub genes in the networks were calculated using the Maximum Clique Centrality algorithm (Chin et al. 2014).

Quantitative real-time PCR verified selected genes

Total RNA was isolated using the Plant Total RNA Extraction kit (Foregene Biotech, Chengdu, China) and then treated with DNase I. First-strand cDNA was synthesized from the total RNA using the De-etiolated First-strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (Foregene Biotech, Chengdu, China). Quantitative real-time PCR (RT-qPCR) and data analyses were performed as previously described (Jiang et al. 2020) and the $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$ method (Livak and Schmittgen 2001) was used to calculate the relative abundance of selected genes. All primers were designed using Primer Premier 6 (Singh et al. 1998) and synthesized by Tsingke Biotech Co., Ltd. All primers used are listed in Table S1.

Results

Complex variation of DEGs number at different sampling time points

The standardized expression values (TPM) of genes in *S.miltiorrhiza* samples treated with LOV for 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, and 12 h are presented in the Table S2. At each sampling time point, genes with the TPM $\geq$ twofold change and an adjusted P-value < 0.5 , compared with the control group, were considered as differentially expressed genes. Based on these criteria, a total of 748, 228, 239, 434, 887, and 1661 DEGs were identified after LOV treatment for 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, and 12 h, respectively. The sample treated with LOV for 12 h showed the highest number of DEGs (Fig. 1). The shared DEGs among the samples at different time points show complex relationships, as shown in Fig. 1 for details. It has also been observed that when *S.miltiorrhiza* was first exposed to LOV, there was a period of rapid and significant changes in gene expression within a short timespan of 2 h. Subsequently, the number of DEGs exhibited a tendency to gradually increase over time.

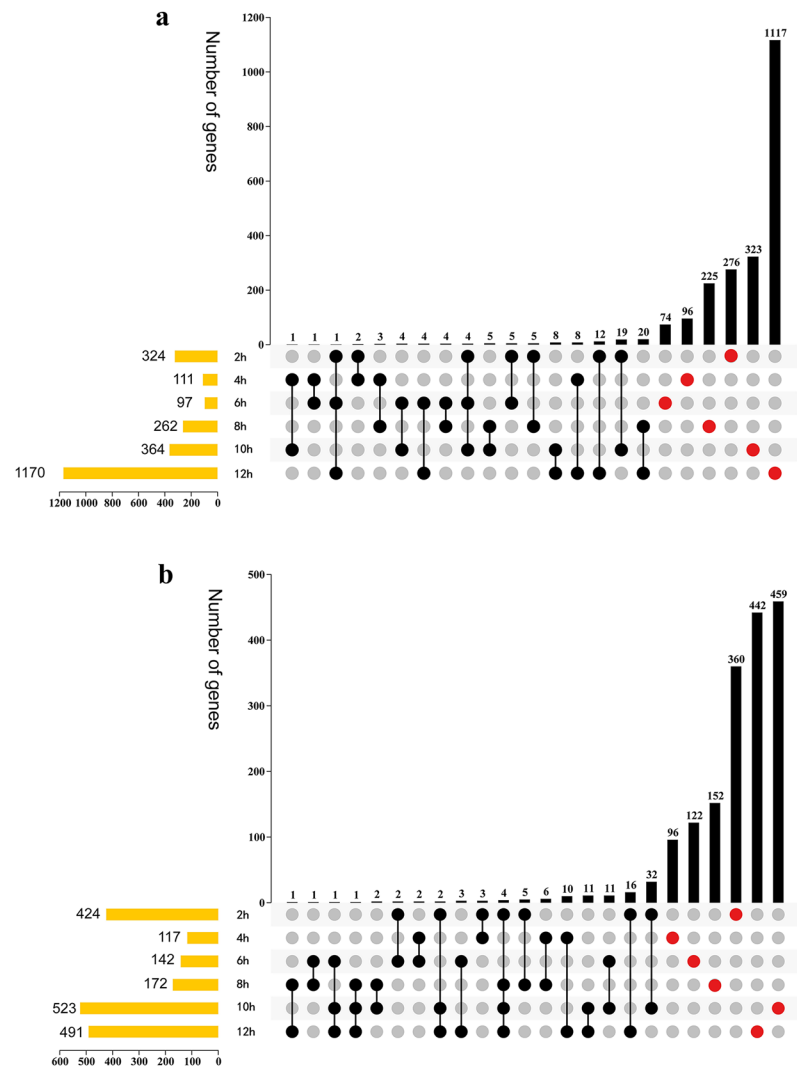
Different biological processes enriched by DEGs

The DEGs were analyzed by GO enrichment to characterize their functions at each sampling time points. The significantly enriched GO terms were identified based on the criterion of a P-value < 0.05 (Fig. 2a–f). The top 10 significantly enriched GO terms in the biological process (BP) category at each time point are presented in Table S3. The results indicated that the BPs varied significantly at different time points. Among these BPs, the terms with the most DEGs at each time point were, in the following order: “carbohydrate metabolic process” (GO:0005975, 2 h, 46 DEGs), “terpene biosynthetic process” (GO:0016114, 4 h, 8 DEGs), “lipid X metabolic process” (GO:2,001,289, 6 h, 2 DEGs), “RNA processing” (GO:0006396, 8 h, 25 DEGs), “isoprenoid biosynthetic process” (GO:0008299, 10 h, 18 DEGs), “metabolic process” (GO:0008152, 12 h, 504 DEGs).

Different pathways enriched by DEGs

KEGG is a knowledge base for the systematic analysis of gene functions, linking genomic information with higher-order functional information (Kanehisa and Goto 2000). In this study, the DEGs were further analyzed using KEGG enrichment. The results showed that DEGs could be assigned to 26 pathways, separately. Among these pathways, 24 pathways were related to metabolism. It indicated that the inhibitor primarily affected plant metabolism. After the 2, 10

Fig. 1 The DEGs at different time points **a**, upset plot shows the number of up-regulated DEGs; **b** upset plot shows the number of down-regulated DEGs. The upper part of the bar graph indicates the expression pattern of DEGs at different time points, and the total number of genes up-regulated and down-regulated at each time point is shown on the left side. “2 h”, “4 h”, “6 h”, “8 h”, “10 h”, and “12 h” indicate that the samples were collected after LOV treatment for 2 h, 4 h, 6 h, 8 h, 10 h, and 12 h



and 12 h of LOV treatment, “photosynthesis (map00195)” was significantly enriched. “Inositol phosphate metabolism (map00562)” was significantly enriched at 2 h and 4 h. “Biosynthesis of various plant secondary metabolites (map00999)” and “tyrosine metabolism (map00350)” were significantly enriched at 2 h and 12 h (Fig. 3). The descriptions of different pathway IDs are presented in Table S4.

Notably, DEGs enriched in various terpenoid biosynthesis-related processes at different time points. For instance, “monoterpenoid biosynthesis (map00902)” was significantly enriched in the samples treated with LOV for 2 h; “diterpenoid biosynthesis (map00904)” and “zeatin biosynthesis (map00908)” were significantly enriched at 4 h; “carotenoid biosynthesis (map00906)” was significantly enriched at 6 h; “sesquiterpenoid and triterpenoid biosynthesis (map00909)” and “terpenoid backbone biosynthesis (map00900)” were significantly enriched at 10 h (Fig. 3). This suggests that when plants are disturbed by LOV, the order of influence on terpenoid biosynthesis-related pathways is related to

the topological relationship among these pathways. Interestingly, the effect on “terpenoid backbone biosynthesis (map00900)” occurs at the late stage.

Differential expression of TFs at different sampling time points

TFs play crucial roles in regulating plant growth and development, as well as in responding to environmental stresses. In this experiment, a total of 79 differentially expressed TFs were identified in the samples treated with LOV, involving 19 transcription factor families, namely bHLH, bZIP, C2H2, WOX, HSF, MADS, MYB, NF-YA, AT-hook, GRAS, AP2/ERF, NZZ/SPL, Nin-like, SRS, TCP, WRKY, ZF-HD, BES1, and PDGFA Associated Protein 1 (Fig. 4a). The one with the highest number of differentially expressed TFs was the AP2/ERF family, comprising a total of 16 differentially expressed TFs (Fig. 4a).

Fig. 2 Bubble plots of GO enrichment for DEGs at different times **a–f**. Top 20 significantly enriched GO terms at 2 h, 4 h, 6 h, 8 h, 10 h, and 12 h

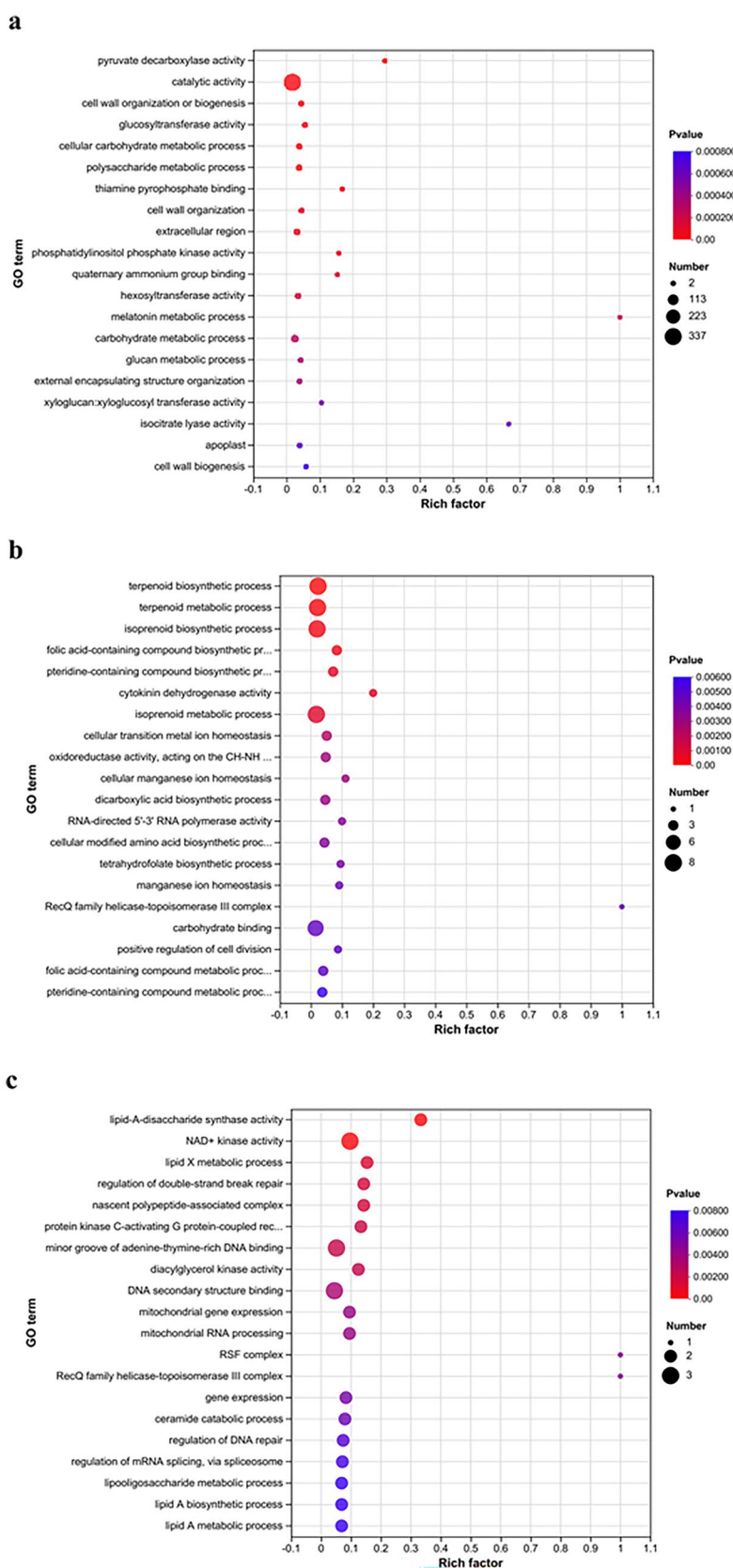
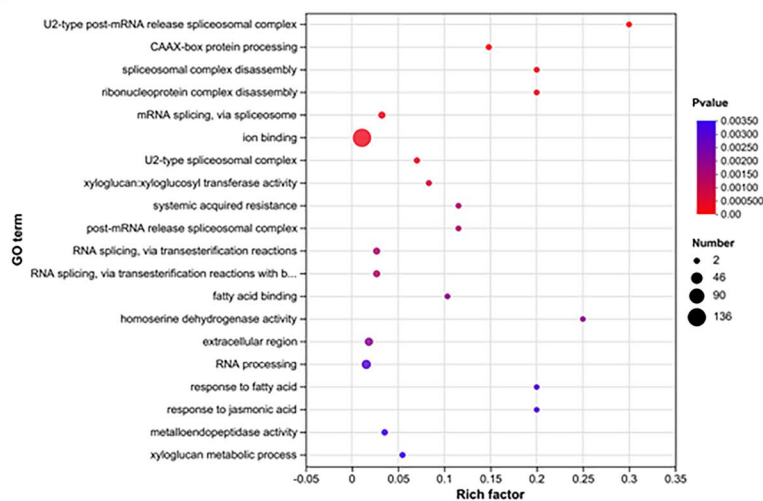
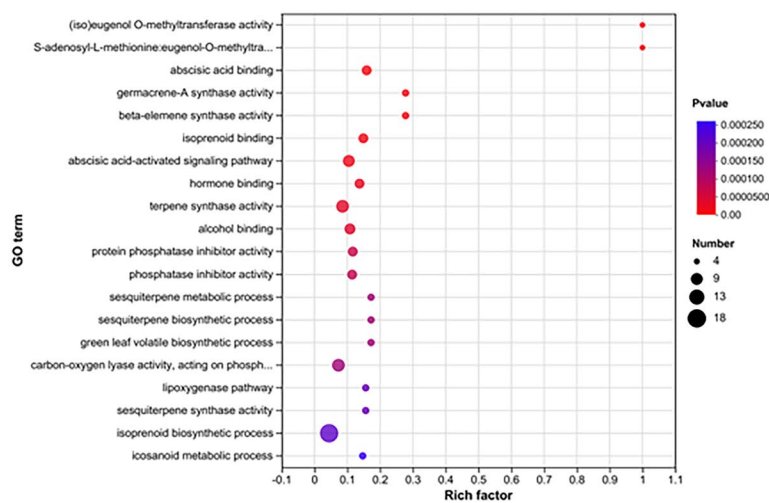


Fig. 2 (continued)

d



e



f

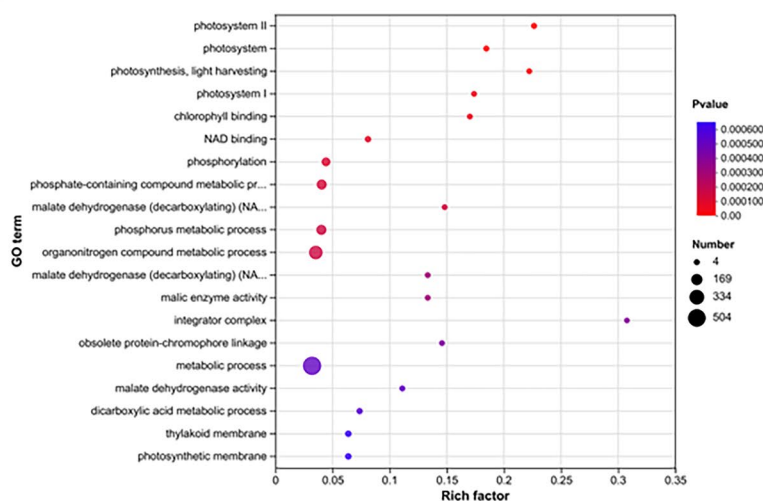


Fig. 3 KEGG pathways significantly enriched in DEGs at different time points Heatmap based on the number of DEGs enriched in each pathway at different times

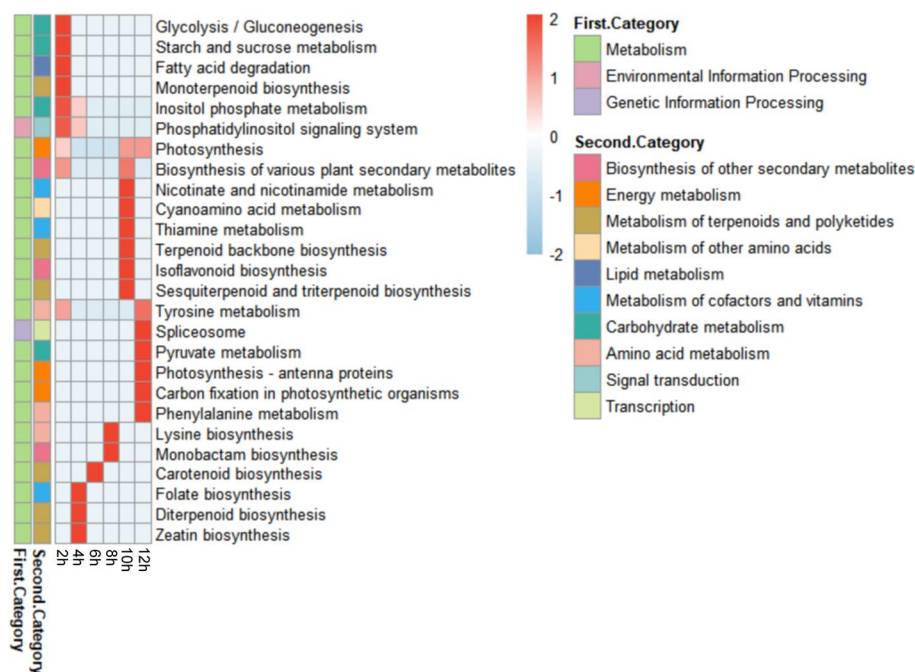
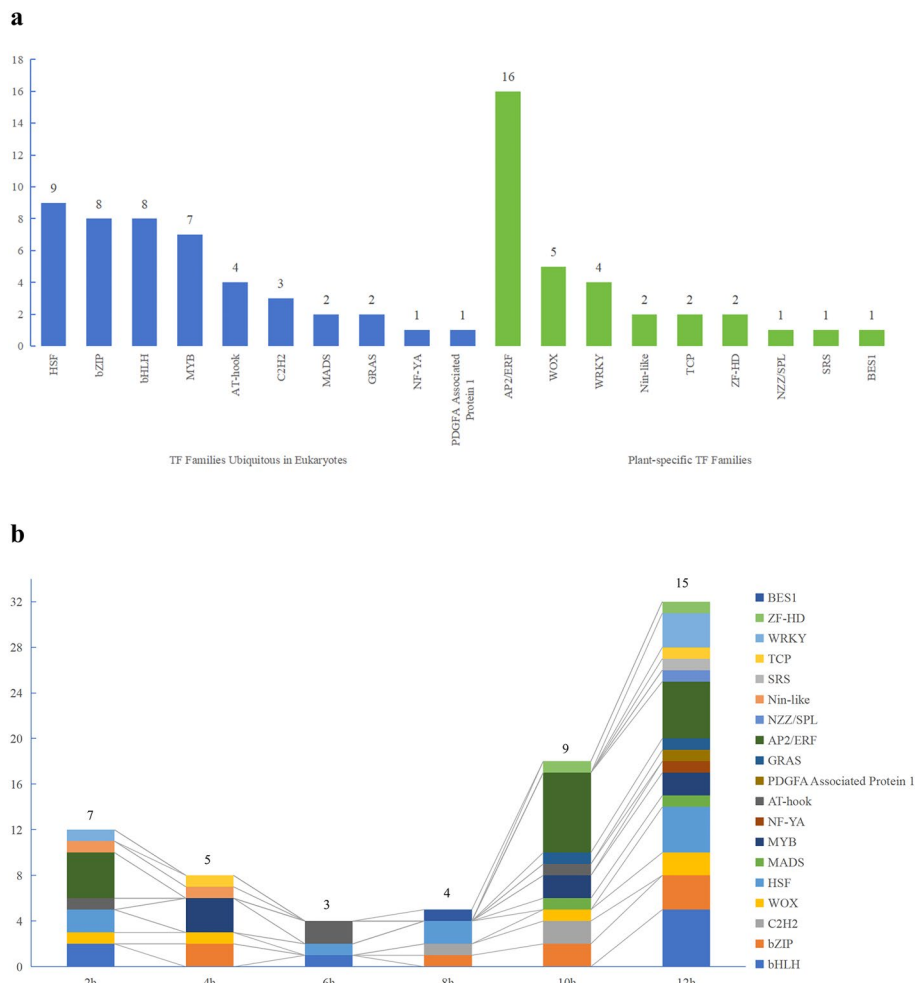


Fig. 4 The differentially expressed TFs at each time point a. Statistics of the number of differentially expressed TFs, the height of the bar indicates the number of members in the transcription factor family, the blue bar indicates the transcription factor families prevalent in eukaryotes, and the green bar indicates the transcription factor families specific to plants; b. Changes of differentially expressed transcription factor families at different time points, the height of the bar indicates the number of TFs, and the number above indicates the number of transcription factor families



The results also showed that the TFs were expressed differentially at various time points. The sample with the most transcription factor families in differentially expressed genes was taken from the 12th hour (Fig. 4b). AT-hook and Nin-like families were predominantly differentially expressed in the early phase, while bHLH, HSF, AP2/ERF, and WRKY families were predominantly differentially expressed in the late phase. Some transcription factor families are expressed differentially at multiple time points. For example, the WOX family was differentially expressed at 2, 4, 10, and 12 h; the HSF family was differentially expressed at 2, 6, 8, and 12 h; the bZIP family was differentially expressed at 4, 8, 10, and 12 h. *SmWOX11*-like, a member of the WOX family, was significantly differentially expressed in the samples treated with LOV for 4, 10, and 12 h. Details of the differentially expressed TFs at different time points are shown in Table S5.

Active expression of different gene sets at different sampling time points

To investigate the co-expression dynamics of genes, a weighted gene co-expression network analysis was conducted. Total 116 co-expressed modules were identified. Among them, the turquoise module was the largest, containing 8679 genes, while the steelblue and salmon modules showed a strong correlation with HMGR concentration (Fig. S1) (P -value < 0.05, Fig. 5a–c). The HMGR concentrations of samples at different sampling time points are shown in Fig. S2. The top 10 hub genes in the three modules were identified by analyzing nodes with centrality in the largest clusters (Table S6). Functional enrichment analysis of the three gene modules based on GO and KEGG was conducted to elucidate the underlying biological functions of these genes within their networks.

The genes of these three modules were enriched in various GO terms of biological process category. The top 20 significantly enriched GO terms are shown in Fig. 6 (P -value < 0.05). The enriched terms indicated that the turquoise module was primarily associated with gene transcription-related biological processes. The steelblue and salmon modules were mainly related to the biological processes of macromolecular biosynthesis and glucose metabolism (Table S7).

The KEGG enrichment analysis revealed that genes of turquoise, steelblue and salmon module can be categorized into 17, 27 and 24 pathways (P -value < 0.05) (Fig. 7). There were 9 of 17 pathways related to the genetic information processing in turquoise module. Analysis of the expression profiles of the top 10 hub genes in this module revealed that the peak expression of these genes occurred at hour 8 (Fig. S3a). It was indicated that the genes involved in genetic information processing biological processes were actively

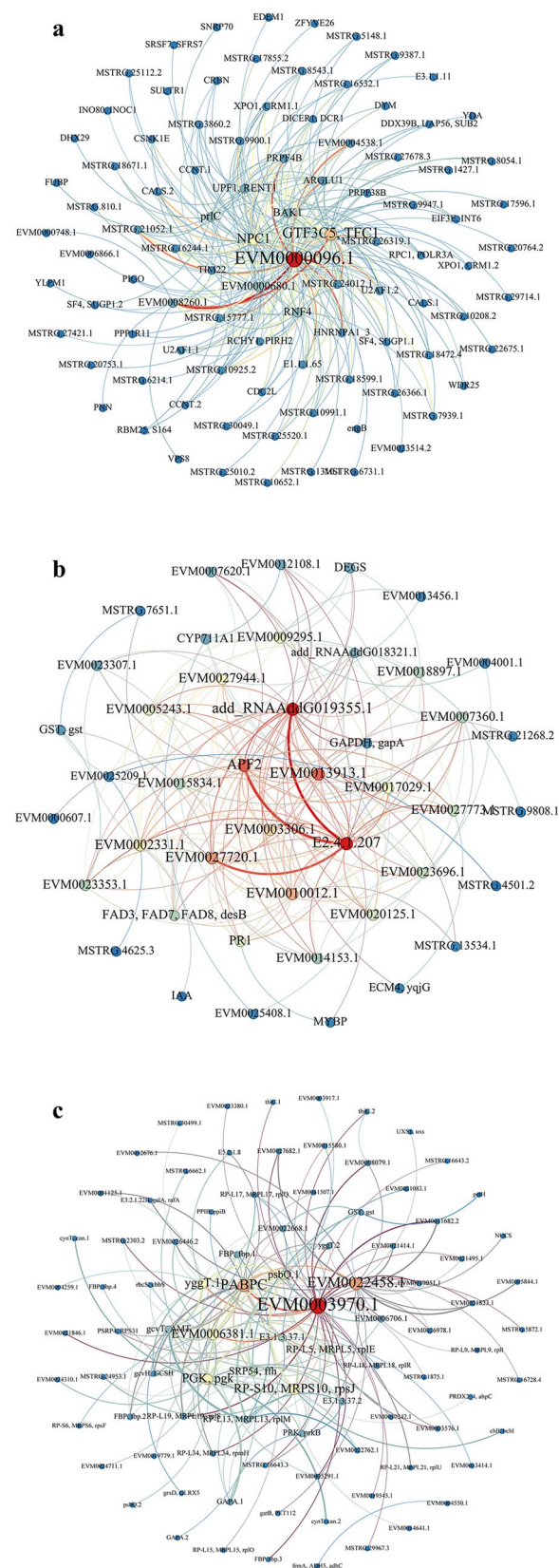
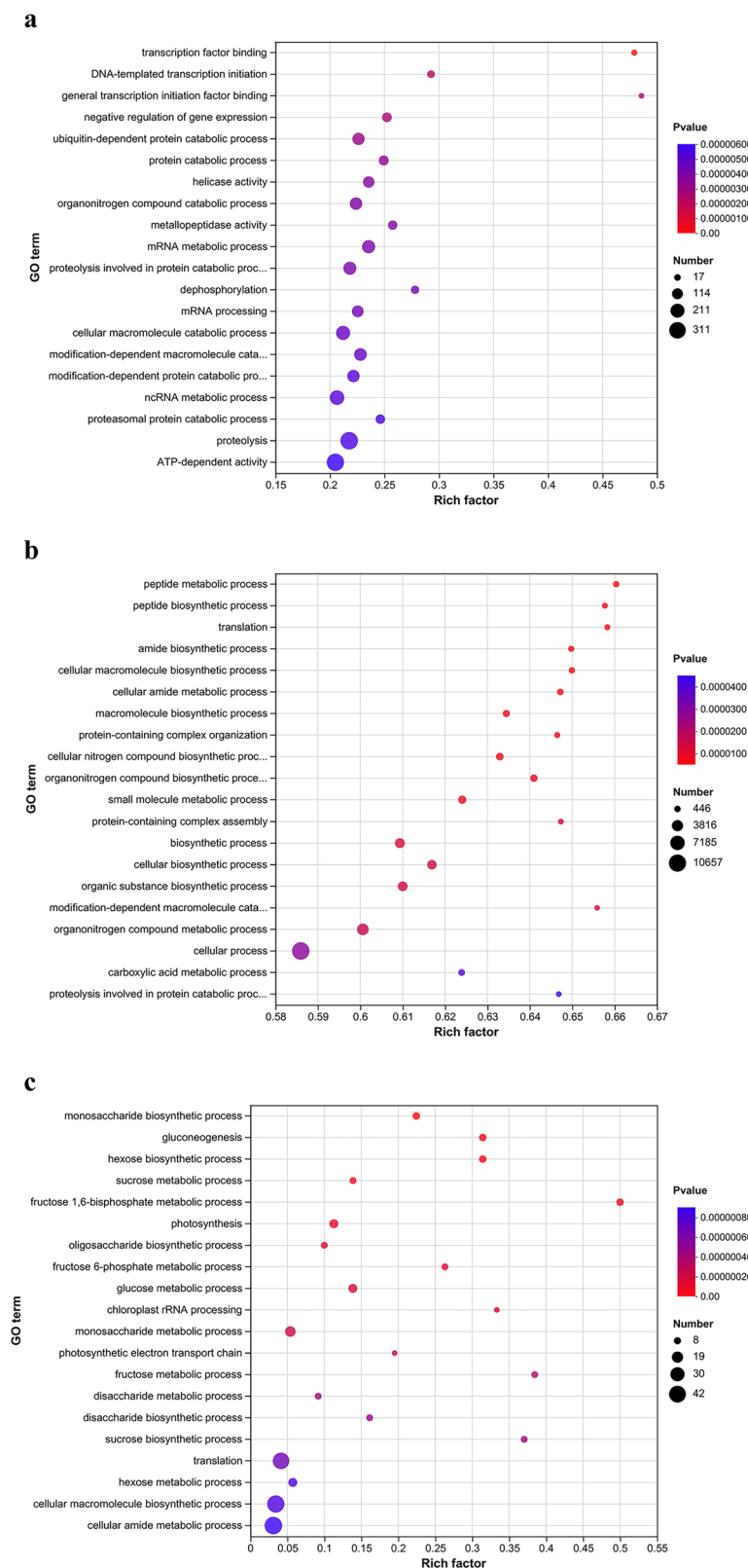


Fig. 5 Co-expression network which were constructed based on the genes of the turquoise (a), steelblue (b), and salmon (c) modules. The central genes in the network are indicated by red color, and the bigger the node, the higher the centrality

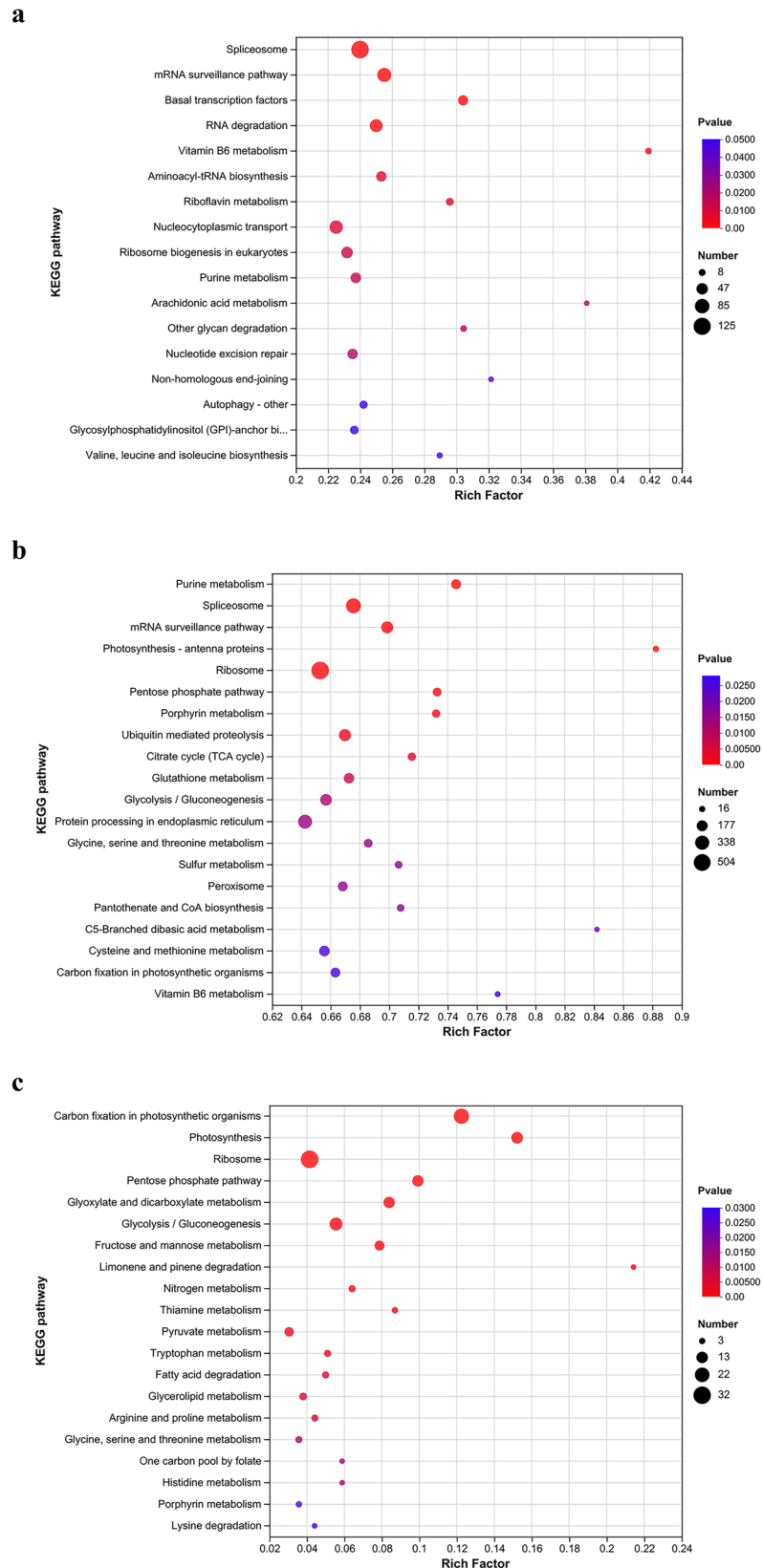
Fig. 6 The top 20 significantly enriched GO terms in turquoise (a), steelblue (b), and salmon (c) module



expressed after inhibitor treatment for 8 h. There were 14 and 17 pathways are associated with energy metabolism in steelblue and salmon module. Analysis of the expression

profiles of the top 10 hub genes in the steelblue and salmon modules revealed that the peak expression of these genes occurred at hour 10 (Fig. S3b-c). The results indicated that

Fig. 7 The top 20 significantly enriched KEGG pathways in turquoise (a), steelblue (b), and salmon (c) module



the genes in the energy metabolism pathway were actively expressed after 10 h of inhibitor treatment.

The multi-to-multi relationship between TFs and target genes

Unlike the GCN, the GRN can be used to study the regulatory relationships between genes. It is known that gene regulation occurs in the nucleus, and the proteins encoded by these genes play roles in various subcellular locations. GO organizes biological knowledge about cell components hierarchically. This makes GRNs analysis not only interpretable mechanistically but also provides new mechanistic insights (Bechtel 2020). Therefore, when constructing the GRNs, DEGs were first classified into five gene sets based on GO subcellular localization annotations. The GO terms of these five gene sets are related to “chloroplast”, “mitochondria”, “endoplasmic reticulum”, “Golgi apparatus”, and “cytoplasmic lysosomal”. Five GRNs were constructed based on these five gene sets and differentially expressed TFs (Fig. 8; Fig. S4). The top 5 hub genes in each network were identified. Among them, because there were few genes annotated to endoplasmic reticulum, only one central gene was finally screened (Table S8).

The target genes of these specific regulators are involved in various biological pathways (Table S9). For example, in the chloroplast gene regulatory module, *SmWRKY48* targeted genes involved in fatty acid biosynthesis, pyruvate metabolism, photosynthesis, arginine biosynthesis, and other pathways. In the mitochondrial gene regulatory module, the target genes of *SmAGL16* were involved in various pathways, such as nicotinate and nicotinamide metabolism, pantothenate and CoA biosynthesis, amino acid metabolism and degradation, aminoacyl-tRNA biosynthesis,

folate biosynthesis, and other biological processes. In the cytoplasmic lysate gene regulatory module, *SmWRKY28* targeted genes involved in glutathione metabolism, pyruvate metabolism, cysteine and methionine metabolism, and glycolysis/gluconeogenesis pathways. Similarly, in *A.thaliana*, the homologous genes of these TFs also exhibit the behavior of targeting genes involved in various biological processes. For example, *AtWRKY48*, a homologous gene of *SmWRKY48*, targeted *AtASP*, *AtIAA2*, and *AtDLDG1* in *A.thaliana* acclimation to a combination of high light and heat stress; *AtAGL16*, a homologous gene of *SmAGL16*, regulated the expression of *AtHKT1;1*, *AtHsfA6a*, and *AtMYB102* in *A.thaliana* salt stress response; *AtWRKY28*, a homologous gene of *SmWRKY28*, targeted genes in the salicylic acid and jasmonic acid/ethylene-dependent defense pathways in *A.thaliana* streptococcus bacteriophage and oxalic acid stress response (Balfagón et al. 2024; Zhao et al. 2021; Chen et al. 2013).

TFs, as a regulatory center, regulate *S.miltiorrhiza* responses to MVA pathway interference by integrating various biological pathways. In the cytoplasmic lysate gene regulatory network, *SmWRKY48-SmTCP4-SmWRKY28* worked as a regulation hub to integrate various biological processes, including pyruvate metabolism, glycolysis/gluconeogenesis, amino acid metabolism, and ubiquinone and other terpenoid-quinone biosynthesis (Fig. 8).

In order to further verify whether the identified TFs have a specific response to LOV, the expression profiles of the hub TFs were analyzed after treatment with different concentrations of LOV. It was found that the fluctuation of *SmWRKY28* gene expression level was the most obvious, and the coefficient of variation (CV) was 0.396 (Fig. 9). The gene expression levels of *SmAGL16* (CV = 0.348), *SmERF1A.1* (CV = 0.333), and

Fig. 8 GRNs constructed based on differentially expressed TFs and DEGs of cytoplasmic lysosomal gene sets ▲: denoting the regulating factors (TFs), ●: denoting the target genes (DEGs); ▲ (highlighted): denoting hub TFs, ● (different colors): denoting DEGs in different biological pathways

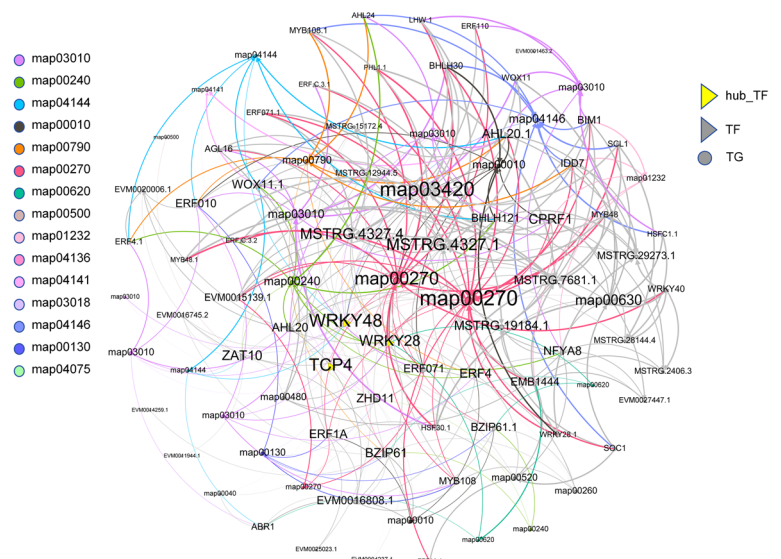
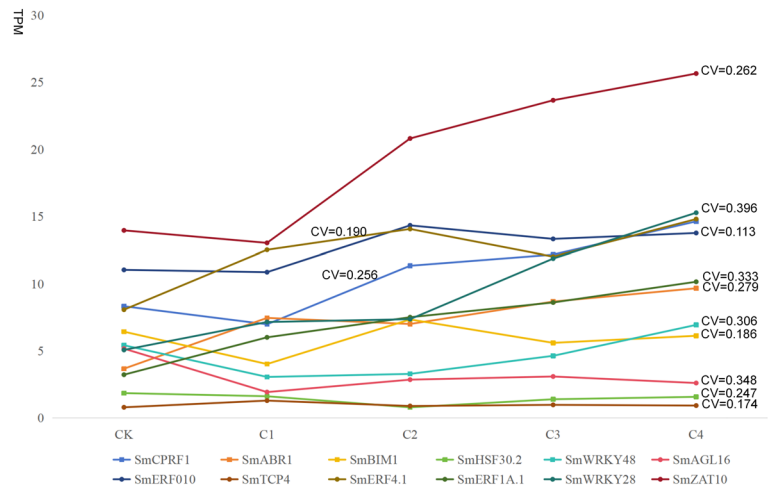


Fig. 9 Expression profiles of hub genes of five GRNs after treatment with different concentrations of LOV CK: control; C1-C4: samples which were collected from MS medium containing the LOV final working solution concentrations of 10 μ M, 50 μ M, 100 μ M, and 200 μ M; CV: coefficient of variation



SmWRKY48 (CV = 0.306) fluctuated obviously (Fig. 9). The *SmERF010* (CV = 0.113), *SmTCP4* (CV = 0.174), *SmBIM1* (CV = 0.186), and *SmERF4.1* (CV = 0.190) gene expression levels tended to be stable (Fig. 9). The gene standardized expression values are presented in the Table S10. In the cytoplasmic lysate gene regulatory network, the gene expression levels of *SmWRKY28* and *SmWRKY48* fluctuated obviously, while *SmTCP4* gene expression level tended to be stable without dramatic fluctuations. It means that *SmWRKY28* and *SmWRKY48* specifically responded to LOV treatment, while *SmTCP4* was not the specific response gene of experimental treatment.

In this study, it was relatively common that a target gene was regulated by several transcription factors. For example, in the chloroplast gene regulatory module, the gene *SmPSBR*, which is involved in the photosynthesis pathway, was simultaneously targeted by the transcription factors *SmCPRF1*, *SmABR1*, and *SmWRKY48*. In the mitochondrial gene regulatory module, the gene *SmPDL2*, which is involved in the folate biosynthesis pathway, was targeted by the transcription factors *SmWRKY48*, *SmAGL16*, and *SmERF010*.

Validation of RNA-Seq sequencing data by RT-qPCR analysis

To validate the reliability of transcriptome sequencing data, 10 genes were selected for expression correlation analysis: *DXS*, *HMGS*, *HMGR*, *IDI*, *KSL*, *GA3*, *CPRF1*, *TCP4*, *WRKY40*, and *WRKY48*. The results indicate that the majority of the selected genes displayed expression patterns consistent with the results of transcriptome sequencing, affirming the credibility of our transcriptome data (Fig. S5).

Discussion

Perturbation of essential biological pathways in plants leads to consequences on both their primary and secondary metabolic pathways. In the current study, by perturbing the MVA pathway in *S.miltiorrhiza*, we observed significant differential expression of genes involved in plant primary metabolic processes, such as energy metabolism, carbohydrate metabolism, amino acid metabolism, and lipid compound metabolism. Moreover, genes associated with plant secondary metabolic processes, including terpene and polyketide metabolism, also showed significant differential expression (Fig. 3). The results of the GCNs analysis indicated that genes in the steelblue module and salmon module exhibit significant enrichment for biological processes associated with primary metabolism, such as carbon fixation in photosynthetic organisms, pyruvate metabolism, and glycolysis/gluconeogenesis (Fig. 7). Multiple established studies have also demonstrated that perturbing a specific biological pathway in plants can have implications for several other related biological processes. For example, in *A.thaliana*, interference with the histidine biosynthesis pathway not only blocked histidine biosynthesis but also impacted aromatic amino acids (such as histidine, lysine, and purine) and the tryptophan biosynthesis pathway (Guyer et al. 1995). After treating pear fruit (cv. “Blanquilla”) with LOV, various biological processes were influenced, including the metabolism of ascorbic acid, the biosynthesis of phenolic compounds, and lipid biosynthesis (Giné-Bordonaba et al. 2020). When the photosynthetic biological processes of *Oryza sativa* were disturbed, not only was the photosynthetic pathway affected, but also oxidation/reduction-related biological processes were significantly impacted (Hu et al. 2024). Overexpression of *APR2*, a gene in the sulfate reduction assimilation pathway in *A.thaliana*, promoted the biosynthesis of glutathione and phytochelatin (Xu et al. 2020). Perturbation of the jasmonic

acid biosynthesis pathway in *Oryza sativa* revealed that the processes of sugar metabolism, cell wall biosynthesis, and diurnal flowering time were impacted (Wang et al. 2024).

Perturbation of the MVA pathway in *S.miltiorrhiza* affected several biological processes at different time points. In the early stage (2–6 h), it mainly affected biological processes related to plant growth and development, such as the cell cycle, morphogenesis, and photosynthesis. However, in the late period (8–12 h), it primarily impacted biological processes associated with stress response, including systemic acquired resistance, osmotic stress, water stress, oxidative stress, and cold stress (Fig. 2). Time-dependent changes in transcript expression profiles have also been observed in other plants. For instance, the functional analysis of genes responding at different time points during progressive drought in *A.thaliana* revealed that early DEGs were associated with biological processes such as carbohydrate and glycoside biosynthesis, while late DEGs were involved in flavonoid and pigment biosynthesis (Bechtold et al. 2016). The results of a time-series transcriptome analysis of *Populus* in response to salt stress revealed that it primarily impacted the plant photosynthesis process in the early stage. Subsequently, it triggered the stress resistance response, activated hormone signaling pathways, and influenced flavonoid biosynthesis and metabolism-related processes in the middle and late stages (Zhao et al. 2023). After 2 h of cold treatment in *Ricinus communis*, the DEGs were primarily associated with plant pathogen interactions and autophagy regulation processes. Subsequently, the DEGs were linked to plant circadian rhythms and hormone signaling processes following cold treatment for 6 and 8 h (Wang et al. 2022a, b). Salt stress treatment was observed to primarily impact biological processes associated with plant hormone metabolism during the early stage of stress (6 h) and photosynthesis-related biological processes during the later stage (7 days) in *Vitis vinifera* (Upadhyay et al. 2018).

The changes in biological processes resulting from LOV treatment, occurring at various time intervals, are linked to the topological arrangement of these pathways in the KEGG diagram. This investigation demonstrated that DEGs at different time points were connected to specific terpenoid biosynthesis pathways. For instance, the DEGs were associated with specific biological processes at different time points: monoterpenoid biosynthesis at 2 h, diterpenoid biosynthesis and zeatin biosynthesis at 4 h, carotenoid biosynthesis at 6 h, and terpenoid backbone biosynthesis as well as sesquiterpenoid and triterpenoid biosynthesis at 10 h (Table S11). By perturbing the MVA pathway, the biosynthesis pathways for monoterpenoids, diterpenoids, zeatin, and carotenoids, located downstream of the terpenoid backbone biosynthesis pathway, were notably influenced at the early stage. Subsequently, genes in the MVA pathway and MEP pathway, which are situated upstream of the terpenoid backbone

biosynthesis pathway, were significantly affected at a later time point (Fig. 10). It has been reported that the inhibition of HMGR activity using LOV led to decreased expression levels of genes downstream of the terpenoid backbone biosynthesis pathway, including MK, PMK, DPMD, SLS, and STR (Rather et al. 2019). Our study reveals the sequence of the affected biosynthetic pathways when the MVA pathway in *S.miltiorrhiza* was perturbed by an inhibitor. It is closely associated with the topological relationships between these biosynthetic pathways.

TFs often act as the regulatory hubs regulating plant responses to stress through mediating synergistic interactions among distinct biological processes in plants. The constructed GRNs in this study demonstrated that TFs targeted genes from multiple biological pathways. In this study, a transcription factor combination, *SmWRKY48-SmTCP4-SmWRKY28*, was found in the cytoplasmic lysate gene regulatory network. *SmWRKY48-SmWRKY28* targeted genes involved in pyruvate metabolism, glycolysis/gluconeogenesis, amino acid metabolism, and ubiquinone and other terpenoid-quinone biosynthesis (Fig. 8). Research has also demonstrated that WRKY genes can regulate plant stress tolerance by acting in conjunction with other TFs. For example, *AtWRKY18*, *AtWRKY40* and *AtWRKY60* TFs form a highly interacting regulatory network that modulates gene expression in *A.thaliana* responses to abscisic acid and abiotic stress (Chen et al. 2010). *AtWRKY70* and *AtWRKY54* co-operate as negative regulators of the osmotic stress response in *A.thaliana* (Li et al. 2013). *PeHSF-PeWRKY1* regulated the K^+/Na^+ homeostasis under high-salinity conditions in *Populus euphratica* (Shen et al. 2015).

The dynamic combination of different TFs endows plants with robustness to adapt to the environment in different situations. Studies have shown that multiple TFs were involved in the response of plants to environmental stress (Meng et al. 2024). In this study, we analyzed the expression profiles of the hub transcription factor combination *SmWRKY48-SmTCP4-SmWRKY28*, and found that *SmWRKY48* and *SmWRKY28* were the inhibitor-specific response factors, while *SmTCP4* was a nonspecific response factor. Previous studies have shown that the members of TCP TFs family, a plant-specific transcription factors, are involved in a broad range of physiological processes of plant growth and development (Wang et al. 2022a, b). They mainly regulate the process of plant cell division and differentiation (Martín-Trillo and Cubas 2010). We speculate that *SmTCP4* may play a conservative role in maintaining the normal growth of plants in *S.miltiorrhiza*. Therefore, the expression of *SmTCP4* did not change significantly during 12 h of LOV treatment with different concentrations. The WRKY family are widely known to respond to biotic and abiotic stresses, and participates in the adaptive response of

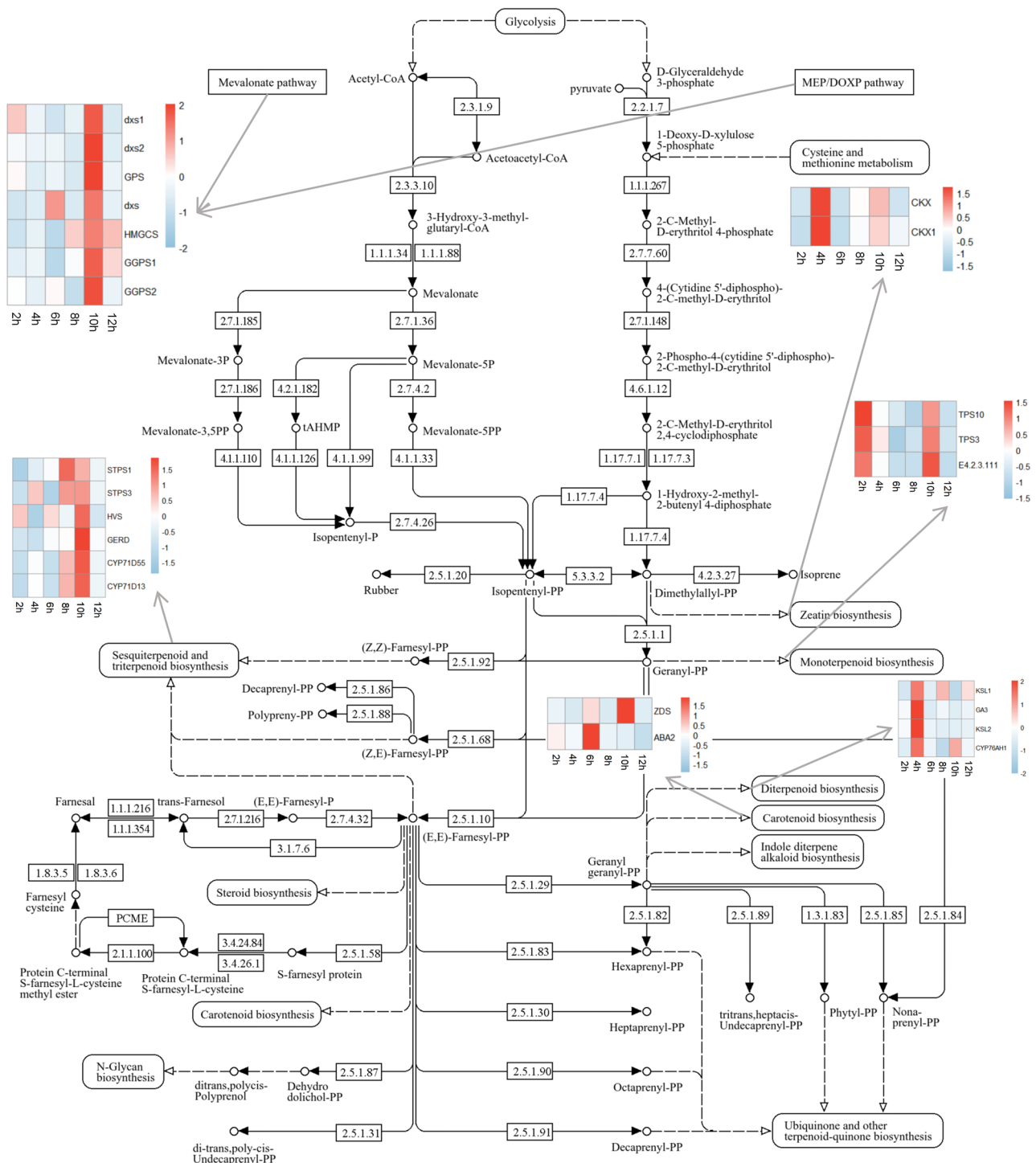


Fig. 10 Diagram of terpenoid backbone biosynthesis pathways (taken from KEGG website <http://www.genome.jp/kegg>). The heatmap shows the $\log_2$ (fold change) value of differentially expressed genes

in different terpenoid biosynthesis pathways. The locations marked by heatmap in the figure are the pathways significantly enriched for differentially expressed genes at different time points

plants (Rushton et al. 2010). In *S.miltiorrhiza*, *SmWRKY48* and *SmWRK28* may be the key response factors of LOV treatment, and cooperated with *SmTCP4* to form the regulatory hub of this gene regulatory network.

Conclusion

Our findings suggest that perturbation of a key biological pathway in *S.miltiorrhiza* has time-dependent effects on

other biological processes. In general, the growth and development processes of *S.miltiorrhiza* are primarily affected at the early stage, whereas stress response-related biological processes are mainly influenced at the later stage. Additionally, pathways, located downstream of the terpenoid backbone biosynthesis pathway, are predominantly affected at the early stage. The MVA and MEP pathways are impacted at the later stage. This suggests that the order of the affected biosynthetic pathways is associated with the topological distribution of these biological pathways. The GRNs based on TFs indicated that *SmWRKY48-SmTCP4-SmWRKY28* worked as a regulation hub to integrate synergistic interactions among distinct biological processes in *S.miltiorrhiza*. These findings provide insights for a deeper understanding of the molecular mechanisms through which various biological processes synergistically interact.

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Data availability All data supporting the findings of this study are included in this manuscript and its supplementary files or further materials can be obtain from the corresponding author upon request. The transcriptome sequencing data that support the findings of this study have been deposited in NCBI Sequence Read Archive with the accession code PRJNA111691 and PRJNA112563. Source data are provided with this paper.

Declarations

Conflict of interest The authors declare no competing financial interests.

Ethical approval Not applicable.

Consent for publication Not applicable.

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