

Advances in ABA Regulation of Seed Development (Postprint)

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Abstract

Seed development is a complex biological process regulated by various genetic and environmental factors that significantly influences seed vigor, yield, and quality in crops, particularly cereal crops. Abscisic acid (ABA) is one of the most important plant hormones regulating seed development and germination, playing a pivotal role in controlling seed development—including embryogenesis and maturation—through its active levels, signal transduction, and the LAFL network. In recent years, substantial progress has been achieved in understanding ABA's role in regulating seed development. This review summarizes major research advances in this field, encompassing the regulation of seed development by ABA metabolism and signal transduction, interactions between ABA and seed maturation transcription factors (such as AFL-B3, FUS3, ABI3, and LEC2), and the underlying mechanisms of ABA action in seed development. Additionally, it identifies key scientific questions requiring further investigation, aiming to provide insights for deeper understanding of the molecular mechanisms governing seed development and to offer references for enhancing seed vigor and improving crop yield and quality.

Full Text

Preamble

Research Progress on Seed Development Regulated by ABA

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Abstract: Seed development is a complex biological process controlled by various genetic and external factors, significantly affecting seed vigor, yield, and quality in crops, particularly cereals. Abscisic acid (ABA) is one of the most important phytohormones regulating seed development and germination, playing a key role in controlling seed development—including embryogenesis and maturation—through its active levels, signal transduction, and the LAFL network. In recent years, important progress has been made in understanding ABA's regulation of seed development. This review summarizes major achievements in this field, including the regulation of seed development by ABA metabolism and signal transduction, interactions between ABA and seed maturation transcription factors (AFL-B3, FUS3, ABI3, LEC2, etc.), and the mechanisms of ABA action in seed development. We also propose key scientific questions requiring further investigation, aiming to provide insights for understanding the molecular mechanisms of seed development and improving seed vigor, yield, and quality.

Key words: ABA metabolism, abscisic acid, transcription factor network, seed development, signal transduction

1.1 Changes in ABA Levels During Seed Development

In *Arabidopsis*, ABA levels in both siliques and seeds peak at mid-development (approximately 9 days after flowering) and subsequently decline. However, ABA levels in siliques begin increasing again at 12 days after flowering until late development (approximately 21 days after flowering) (Kanno et al., 2010; Kozaki & Aoyanagi, 2022). When zygotic tissues are deficient in ABA, ABA synthesized in maternal tissues can be transported to the embryo (Kanno et al., 2010). ABA synthesized in zygotic tissues primarily induces and/or maintains seed dormancy, while maternal ABA affects the thickness of the mucilage layer released upon imbibition in mature *Arabidopsis* seeds (Kanno et al., 2010).

In wheat (*Triticum aestivum*), ABA levels exhibit two peaks during seed development, with ABA synthesized during late development (approximately 35–40 days after pollination) correlating with seed dormancy levels (Tuan et al., 2018). In contrast, rice (*Oryza sativa*) and triticale show only a single ABA peak. In rice, ABA accumulation related to dormancy induction occurs during early and mid-seed development (10–20 days after pollination), earlier than in wheat (Gu et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2014). In triticale, the ABA accumulation peak occurs around 35 days after pollination, before substantial seed water loss (Fidler et al., 2016).

1.2 Regulation of Seed Development by ABA Metabolism

Active ABA is synthesized via an indirect pathway from xanthophylls (e.g., zeaxanthin, violaxanthin, and neoxanthin) (Marion-Poll & Leung, 2006). Three key

enzymes catalyze consecutive steps in ABA biosynthesis: zeaxanthin epoxidase (ZEP), 9-cis-epoxycarotenoid dioxygenase (NCED), and abscisic aldehyde oxidase (AAAO) (Dejonghe et al., 2018).

ZEP genes were first identified in *Arabidopsis* and *Nicotiana plumbaginifolia*. Their ABA-deficient mutants (*aba1/aba2*) are impaired in the oxidation of zeaxanthin to antheraxanthin and violaxanthin, considered the initial step of ABA biosynthesis (Sano & Marion-Poll, 2021). In rice, a *Tos17* viviparous mutant was identified as having precocious germination due to defective zeaxanthin oxidation during ABA synthesis (Ali et al., 2022). Additional ABA auxotrophic mutants identified in maize (*Zea mays*) through genetic screens (*vp2*, *vp5*, *vp7*, and *vp9*) exhibit defective ZEP activity, also blocking early steps in carotenoid biosynthesis (Ali et al., 2022). These results demonstrate that zeaxanthin oxidation is an important and conserved stage of ABA synthesis in plants. The conversion from all-trans-violaxanthin and all-trans-neoxanthin to 9-cis-violaxanthin and 9-cis-neoxanthin remains unclear. However, ABA4 was found to be responsible for converting all-trans-violaxanthin to all-trans-neoxanthin (North et al., 2007), providing clues for investigating these conversions.

The second key gene in ABA biosynthesis, NCED, was initially cloned from the maize viviparous mutant *VP14* (*VIVIPAROUS 14*). The *VP14* mutant exhibits oxidative defects in 9-cis-epoxycarotenoid cleavage during ABA biosynthesis and shows reduced ABA content in dry seeds (Tan et al., 1997). In *Arabidopsis*, NCED2, NCED3, NCED5, NCED6, and NCED9 are considered homologs of *VP14* and participate in the rate-limiting step of ABA biosynthesis (Nambara & Marion-Poll, 2005). Additionally, PvNCED1 from soybean (*Glycine max*), LeNCED1 from tomato, and BdNCED1 from *Brachypodium distachyon* also play important roles in ABA biosynthesis and seed development (Barrero et al., 2012). These results indicate that oxidative cleavage of xanthophylls is a major step in ABA biosynthesis that regulates seed development.

The oxidation of abscisic aldehyde is the final step of ABA biosynthesis, converting abscisic aldehyde to ABA (Dejonghe et al., 2018). Initially, defective mutants in the oxidation of abscisic aldehyde to ABA were identified in tomato as *flacca* and *sitiens* (Taylor et al., 1988). Subsequently, abscisic aldehyde oxidase 3 (AAO3) identified in *Arabidopsis* functions in the final two steps of ABA biosynthesis in seeds, and its expression was observed in embryonic vascular tissue during mid-to-late seed maturation (Seo et al., 2004).

1.3 Regulation of Seed Development by ABA Signal Transduction

The core ABA signal transduction components include the ABA receptor PYR/PYL/RCAR (pyrabactin resistance 1/pyrabactin resistance 1-like/regulatory components of ABA receptor) family, group A type 2C protein phosphatases (PP2Cs), and sucrose non-fermenting-1-related protein kinase 2 (SnRK2) (Nonogaki, 2019a, b; Lim et al., 2022) (Figure 1 [Figure 1: see original

paper]).

PP2Cs are encoded by *ABI1* and *ABI2* genes. The key elements of DOG1 signaling are heme molecules and PP2Cs encoded by *AHG1* and *AHG3* genes. Triplex complexes of PYR/PYL/RCAR-ABA-PP2C and/or DOG1-HEME-PP2C block the binding of PP2C to SnRK2. Activated SnRK2 phosphorylates ABI3 and ABI5, which bind to promoters (Pro) of ABA-controlled genes. In seeds, parallel ABA and DOG1 signaling pathways activate synthesis of raffinose family oligosaccharides and expression of LEA and HSP genes, thereby regulating the onset of desiccation tolerance and transition to dormancy.

In Arabidopsis, 14 members of the PYR/PYL/RCAR protein family have been shown to be important in seeds. For example, the *pyr1/pyl1/pyl2/pyl4* quadruple mutant and *pyl* duodecuple mutant exhibit reduced seed dormancy and ABA insensitivity (Ma et al., 2009; Zhao et al., 2018). Additionally, the *ospyl* septuple mutant in rice is ABA-insensitive during seed germination (Miao et al., 2018).

In the absence of ABA, PYL proteins release PP2Cs and activate their phosphatase activity (Ma et al., 2009). PP2C proteins, including ABA-INSENSITIVE 1/2 (*ABI1/2*) and ABA-HYPERSENSITIVE GERMINATION 1/3 (*AHG1/3*), inhibit the activity of downstream ABA signaling proteins through protein dephosphorylation, thereby blocking downstream ABA signal transduction networks (Park et al., 2009). Consequently, PP2Cs act as negative regulators in the ABA signaling system, and their knockout mutants show ABA hypersensitivity and reduced seed dormancy (Yoshida et al., 2006). Studies have shown that ENHANCER OF ABA CO-RECEPTOR 1 (*EAR1*) can increase PP2C activity by acting together with PP2C proteins (*ABI1/2*, *HAB1/2* (Hypersensitive to ABA 1/2), and *AHG1/3*) (Wang et al., 2018). Like *EAR1*, *PR5* receptor-like kinase 2 (*PR5K2*) inhibits ABA signaling by increasing phosphorylation of *ABI1/2* (Baek et al., 2019). Furthermore, *DOG1* (*DELAY OF GERMINATION 1*) binds heme and interacts with *AHG1* to block its phosphatase activity and increase seed dormancy (Nishimura et al., 2018). These studies demonstrate that PP2Cs can be regulated by PYL receptors or other proteins, though the interrelationships among PP2Cs, PYL proteins, and other regulatory factors (*DOG1*, *PR5K2*, and *EAR1*) during seed development remain unclear.

In the presence of ABA, PYR/PYL/RCAR proteins bind ABA and PP2C proteins to inhibit PP2C phosphatase activity, thereby releasing and activating SnRK2. Studies have shown that all Arabidopsis PYL family members can interact with PP2C family members and function in ABA-mediated responses (Zhao et al., 2013). In Arabidopsis, three SnRK2 proteins (*SnRK2.2*, *SnRK2.3*, and *SnRK2.6*) have been identified as positive regulators of the ABA signaling network, participating in many seed development processes such as de-greening, accumulation of seed storage products, acquisition of desiccation tolerance, and germination (Finkelstein et al., 2008). ABA signaling terminator (*ABT*), a WD40 protein, was found to effectively block ABA signaling and plays an im-

portant role in seed germination and seedling establishment. ABA is induced by ABA in a PYR1/PYL/RCAR-PP2C-dependent manner and interacts with PYR1/PYL/RCAR and PP2C proteins, thereby interfering with the interaction between PYR1/4 and ABI1/2 and blocking ABA signal transduction (Wang et al., 2020).

The primary targets of SnRK2 are ABFs (ABRE (ABA RESPONSIVE ELEMENT) binding factors). The ABF family consists of nine members, including ABF1, ABF2/AREB1 (ABRE BINDING PROTEIN 1), ABF3, ABF4/AREB2, AREB3, ABI5, bZIP15, bZIP67, and the bZIP subfamily EEL, which mainly participate in ABA-mediated transcriptional regulation (Nakashima et al., 2009). ABI5 transcription can be activated by SnRK2 through specific binding to ABRE cis-elements in the ABI5 promoter, thereby activating ABA-mediated transcriptional activity in late-maturation Arabidopsis seeds and imbibed seeds. Additionally, another key factor, ABI3, interacts with the ABI5 transcription factor and cooperates with ABI5 to promote transcription of downstream ABA-responsive genes. Both genes can be regulated by RAV1 (RELATED TO ABI3/VP1) through binding to their promoters (Ali et al., 2022). Interestingly, ABI5 also directly regulates transcription during germination by binding to promoters of *PYL11* and *PYL12* to modulate ABA responses. When ABI5 is mutated, the ABA-hypersensitive responses caused by overexpression of *PYL11* and *PYL12* are completely or partially impaired (Zhao et al., 2020).

2 ABA and Seed Maturation Transcription Factors

Genetic screening has revealed that LAFL genes play important roles in ABA-mediated seed development. The LAFL genes include AFL-B3 (AFL clade of B3 domain plant-specific transcription factor), FUS3 (FUSCA3), ABI3, LEC2 (LEAFY COTYLEDON 2), and the HAP3 subunit of CBF (CCAAT-binding transcription factor) or NF-Y (nuclear factor Y), LEC1, and L1L (LEC1-LIKE) (Smolikova et al., 2021; Kozaki & Aoyanagi, 2022) (Figure 2 [Figure 2: see original paper]). Mutations in LAFL genes affect many aspects of seed development, such as decreased storage reserves at maturity, reduced desiccation tolerance and ABA levels, and decreased dormancy (Holdsworth et al., 2008; Jia et al., 2014). In addition to seed development, the LAFL network also regulates genes involved in plant development, such as the zinc finger factor PEI1, AP2 (APETALA2) family factor BBM (BABY BOOM), NAC factor CUC1 (CUP-SHAPED COTYLEDON 1), and MADS box factor FLC (FLOWERING LOCUS C) (Jia et al., 2014).

Arrows and blunted lines indicate activation and repression, respectively. The black line between ABI3 and ABI5 indicates protein interaction. LEC1, LEC2, and FUS3 (surrounded by the thick black line) are involved in acquisition of desiccation tolerance, and all LAFL proteins participate in dormancy regulation. LEC1 is related to GA signaling, while ABI3 and ABI5 are related to ABA signaling. Chl, chlorophyll.

AFL factors activate target genes through RY cis-elements recognized by the B3-DNA binding domain (Braybrook et al., 2006). LEC1 and L1L, as subunits of the NF-Y complex, bind to CCAAT DNA motifs (Miller, 2016). Genome-wide analysis of LEC1 binding sites in upstream regions of Arabidopsis and soybean target genes revealed that, in addition to CCAAT motifs, G-box, ABRE (ABA-responsive promoter element)-like, RY, and BPC1 cis-elements are enriched in promoters of genes regulated during seed maturation, indicating that LEC1 regulates target genes by interacting with other transcription factors (Jo et al., 2019).

Genetic analyses have revealed a complex interaction network among LAFL genes (Figure 2). LEC1 can activate expression of ABI3, FUS3, and LEC2, while ectopic expression of LEC2 can upregulate LEC1, ABI3, and FUS3 (To et al., 2006; Stone et al., 2008). ABI3 and FUS3 positively regulate each other and control their own expression (To et al., 2006; Mönke et al., 2012). Additionally, L1L is regulated by FUS3 (Yamamoto et al., 2010). Chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) analysis showed that LEC1 regulates L1L (Junker et al., 2012), while FUS3 regulates LEC1, FUS3, and ABI3 (Wang & Perry, 2013).

In addition to LAFL genes, ABI5 and related bZIP transcription factors also bind to ABREs and participate in regulating seed maturation. ABI5 is a key player in ABA signal transduction (Collin et al., 2021). An important group of genes regulated by LAFL during seed maturation includes LATE EMBRYO-GENESIS ABUNDANT (LEA) genes, whose promoters contain RY and ABRE motifs and are combinatorially regulated by ABI3 and ABI5-related bZIP transcription factors (Alonso et al., 2009). Thus, ABA signal transduction is integrated into the LAFL network through ABI5 and related bZIP factors that physically interact with the N-terminal COAR (co-activator/co-repressor) domain of ABI3 (Alonso et al., 2009). ABREs have also been found in promoters of other LAFL target genes, suggesting that other LAFL components may be co-regulated by ABA (Junker et al., 2012; Wang & Perry, 2013).

In Arabidopsis, exogenous ABA increases FUS3 expression (Kagaya et al., 2005), and FUS3 induces ABA accumulation (Gazzarrini et al., 2004). Therefore, FUS3 and ABA are mutually positive regulators (Braybrook & Harada, 2008). Additionally, FUS3 expression can be positively regulated by auxin (Gazzarrini et al., 2004).

3.1 Storage Reserve Accumulation

During seed maturation, accumulation of storage compounds such as seed storage proteins (SSPs), lipids, and carbohydrates is closely associated with ABA levels and signaling (Finkelstein, 2013) (Table 1). Mutations in ABA signaling components such as PYL and SnRK2 typically result in reduced seed storage reserves (Nakashima et al., 2009; Zheng et al., 2010; Zhao et al., 2018). Inactivation of SnRK2.6 leads to decreased seed oil content, while overexpression of SnRK2.6 increases overall seed weight (Zheng et al., 2010). The SnRK2 triple

mutant (*snrk2.2/3/6*) and *pyl* duodecuple mutant generally show reduced seed storage products, such as 12S globulins (Nakashima et al., 2009; Zhao et al., 2018). Starch biosynthesis in maize and rice is synergistically regulated by sucrose and ABA (Huang et al., 2016; Chen et al., 2019).

Table 1 Functions of ABA biosynthesis, signaling, and transcription factors involved in maturation in seed development

Genes/transcription factor	Function description	Reference
SnRK2.6	Inactivation reduces seed oil content, while overexpression increases overall seed weight	Zheng et al., 2010
PYL, SnRK2	Mutations often exhibit reduced seed storage products, such as 12S globulin	Zheng et al., 2010; Zhao et al., 2018
LEC1	Activates cruciferin C via direct interaction with bZIP67	Yamamoto et al., 2010
LEC2	Regulates oil and protein accumulation by activating expression of OLE1 (encoding oleosin) and genes encoding 2S and 12S storage proteins	Braybrook et al., 2006
FUS3	Regulates TTG1 and WRI1 expression negatively and positively, respectively	Mu et al., 2008; Chen et al., 2015
LEC1 and FUS3	Control ABI3 accumulation in an ABA-dependent manner and interact to regulate storage protein accumulation, anthocyanin synthesis, and chlorophyll and lipid accumulation	Mu et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2016

Genes/transcription factor	Function description	Reference
FUS3 and LEC2	Induce WRI1 expression; WRI1 encodes an AP2 transcription factor that regulates sugar and oil content by increasing expression of fatty acid synthesis and sugar degradation genes	Yamamoto et al., 2010
TTG1	Encodes a transcription factor that suppresses SSP and oil accumulation; <i>ttg1</i> mutants show dramatic increases in storage reserves	Baud et al., 2008; Chen et al., 2015

LAF1 genes are involved in regulating storage reserve accumulation. LEC1 and FUS3 control ABI3 accumulation during maturation in an ABA-dependent manner and interact to regulate accumulation of storage proteins (including Arabidopsis storage protein 3 (At2S3) and cruciferin C (CRC)), anthocyanin synthesis, and chlorophyll and lipid accumulation (Mu et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2016). LEC1 also activates CRC through direct interaction with bZIP67 (Yamamoto et al., 2010).

FUS3 negatively regulates expression of TTG1 (TRANSPARENT TESTA GLABRA1), which encodes a transcription factor that suppresses SSP and oil accumulation in Arabidopsis (Chen et al., 2015). The *ttg1* mutant is characterized by dramatically increased storage reserves, including SSPs and oils (Baud et al., 2008). FUS3 likely promotes storage reserve accumulation by suppressing TTG1 (Chen et al., 2015). FUS3 also induces WRI1 (WRINKLED 1) expression in combination with LEC2. WRI1 encodes an AP2 transcription factor that regulates sugar and oil content in seeds by increasing expression of fatty acid synthesis and sugar degradation genes (Yamamoto et al., 2010). FUS3 promotes storage oil accumulation through both suppressing TTG1 expression and increasing WRI1 expression. This storage oil accumulation is also regulated by LEC1 and AFL genes through activation of WRI1 (Mu et al., 2008). Additionally, LEC2 regulates oil and protein accumulation by activating expression of the oleosin gene *OLE1* and genes encoding 2S and 12S storage proteins (Braybrook et al., 2006).

During seed maturation, factors other than LAF1 genes also participate in storage reserve accumulation. bZIP67, together with L1L and NF-YC2 (NUCLEAR FACTOR-YC2), regulates FAD3 (FATTY ACID DESATURASE 3), which functions in ω -3 fatty acid storage during seed maturation (Mendes et al., 2013).

Expression of the DOGL4 (DOG1-LIKE4) gene, which is induced by ABA, regulates expression of some seed storage proteins during seed maturation, including CRC, albumins, and oleosins (Sall et al., 2019).

3.2 Acquisition of Desiccation Tolerance

Seed desiccation tolerance is an adaptive mechanism evolved in plants to ensure species survival and reproduction, playing a key role in crop seed preservation and long-term conservation of plant germplasm resources (Smolikova et al., 2021; Song et al., 2022). The desiccation tolerance mechanism is activated during late seed maturation and is associated with accumulation of LEA proteins, small heat shock proteins (sHSPs), non-reducing oligosaccharides, and antioxidants of various chemical properties (Smolikova et al., 2021; Song et al., 2022). The major regulators of maturation and desiccation tolerance are ABA and DOG1 protein, which control transcription factor networks including LEC1, LEC2, FUS3, ABI3, ABI5, AGL67, PLATZ1, and PLATZ2 (Smolikova et al., 2021) (Figure 2).

LEA gene expression is regulated by ABI3 and ABI5 (Bies-Ethève et al., 2008). ABI3 also regulates expression of the seed-specific heat shock factor HSFA9 (Kotak et al., 2007). Expression of LEA and HSP genes is increased by DOG1 through ABI5/ABI3, and their expression enhances storage of nitrogen-containing compounds in seeds, thereby promoting seed dormancy and improving seed vigor (Dekkers et al., 2016). Some studies have shown that DOG1 expression is negatively or positively controlled by bZIP67 and ERF12 (ETHYLENE RESPONSE FACTOR 12), respectively, during seed maturation (Bryant et al., 2019; Li et al., 2019). In *Medicago truncatula* and pea, ABI3, ABI4, and ABI5 are considered major hubs regulating acquisition of seed desiccation tolerance by controlling genes involved in raffinose family oligosaccharide (RFO) metabolism and LEA protein synthesis (Zinsmeister et al., 2016) (Table 1).

Mutations in LEC1, ABI3, or FUS3 significantly affect seed desiccation tolerance, indicating that these three transcription factors are all required for activating desiccation tolerance (Roscoe et al., 2015). LEC2 participates in establishing desiccation tolerance by affecting expression of LEA, EM1 (early methionine 1), and EM6 genes through inducing expression of the ENHANCED EM LEVEL (EEL) bZIP transcription factor (Bentsink et al., 2006). The EEL bZIP transcription factor is a negative regulator of EM proteins in *Arabidopsis* (Braybrook et al., 2006).

3.3 Induction and Maintenance of Primary Seed Dormancy

Dormancy is a temporary quiescent state that is an important characteristic of wild plant seeds to avoid germination under unfavorable environmental conditions and ensure offspring survival. For cultivated crops, seeds with rapid and uniform germination are selected to achieve high yield and quality. Conversely,

lack of seed dormancy, particularly harvest dormancy, is an undesirable agronomic trait as it can lead to pre-harvest sprouting (PHS), a serious problem in cereal cultivation, and non-dormant mutants may have reduced seed longevity (Finkelstein et al., 2008; Tuan et al., 2018). Seeds begin dehydration after storage reserve synthesis and at the end of maturation, storing newly synthesized ABA and entering dormancy. Evidence indicates that ABA is a key regulator of these processes (Finkelstein et al., 2008; Nambara et al., 2010). Mutations in ABA biosynthesis, perception, and signal transduction affect seed dormancy (Nakashima et al., 2009; Zhao et al., 2018) (Table 1).

Mature dry seeds of Arabidopsis *AtNCED6* and *AtNCED9* mutants show decreased ABA levels and dormancy (Lefebvre et al., 2006). Other ABA-deficient mutants, such as *aba1* and *aba2/3*, also display reduced dormancy levels (Kozaki & Aoyanagi, 2022). Arabidopsis ODR1 (suppressor of RDO5 (REDUCED DORMANCY 5)) acts together with bHLH57 and functions upstream of NCED6 and NCED9 to control ABA synthesis and seed dormancy (Liu et al., 2020). Ectopic expression and overexpression of soybean PvNCED1 in imbibed tobacco (*Nicotiana tabacum*) seeds increase ABA levels and delay seed germination. In tomato, LeNCED1 overexpression also increases dormancy by elevating ABA levels in seeds (Ali et al., 2022). In wheat, mutations in two *TaABA8'OH1* homologs (*TaABA8'OH1A* and *TaABA8'-OH1D*; homologs of *AtCYP707*) result in increased ABA content and dormancy (Chono et al., 2013). TsNCED1 is also associated with higher ABA content and increased PHS resistance (Fidler et al., 2016). Mutations in ABA signaling components, such as the rice *ospyl* septuple mutant and *snrk2.2/3/6* triple mutant, also cause precocious germination in rice and Arabidopsis seeds (Nakashima et al., 2009; Miao et al., 2018).

In Arabidopsis, AtMYB96 directly activates ABA synthesis genes (*NCED2*, *NCED5*, *NCED6*, and *NCED9*) and inactivates GA biosynthesis genes (*AtGA3ox1* and *AtGA20ox1*) to induce primary seed dormancy (Lee et al., 2015). AtABI4 increases seed dormancy through direct interaction with promoter regions of *AtNECD6* to enhance ABA biosynthesis and with promoter regions of the GA inactivation gene *AtGA2ox7* to inhibit GA accumulation (Shu et al., 2013, 2016).

LAFL gene members also participate in dormancy acquisition. Embryonic growth arrest in mature seeds is controlled by FUS3, LEC1, and LEC2, whose mutants cannot completely stop embryonic growth and exhibit precocious germination (Gubler et al., 2005). The maize *VP1* gene, a homolog of Arabidopsis *ABI3*, was among the first key components of ABA signaling to be identified and characterized. *VP1* mutation causes PHS and disrupts embryo maturation in maize. *VP1* genes in wheat, rice, and sorghum (*Sorghum bicolor*) are also associated with dormancy levels and sensitivity to ABA and PHS (Kozaki & Aoyanagi, 2022). In maize, LAFL gene members are regulated by VP8, which encodes a putative peptidase (Suzuki et al., 2008). Mutations in the rice VP8 homolog PLA3 (PLATOCHRON 3/GO (GOLIATH)) and Arabidopsis AMP1 (ALTERED MERISTEM PROGRAM 1) show reduced dormancy (Griffiths et

al., 2011). ABI5 is also important for dormancy induction during seed maturation in wheat and pea (Zinsmeister et al., 2016; Yamasaki et al., 2017; Utsugi et al., 2020). In sorghum, SbABI4 and SbABI1 enhance transcription of *SbGA2ox3* by directly binding to its promoter, thereby prolonging seed dormancy (Cantoro et al., 2013).

Two major dormancy genes, *DOG1* and *RDO5*, have been identified that appear to function independently of plant hormones including ABA (Bentsink et al., 2006; Xiang et al., 2014; Carrillo-Barral et al., 2020). *RDO5* is a member of the PP2C protein phosphatase family but does not exhibit phosphatase activity (Xiang et al., 2014), whereas *DOG1* is a protein of unknown function (Carrillo-Barral et al., 2020). Mutations in *DOG1* and *RDO5* completely abolish or reduce seed dormancy, respectively (Bentsink et al., 2006; Xiang et al., 2014). Genetic analyses indicate that both *DOG1* and ABA are required for normal seed dormancy (Bentsink et al., 2006; Nakabayashi et al., 2012).

DOG1 interacts with four phosphatases, two of which belong to clade A type 2C protein phosphatases, AHG1 and AHG3 (Figure 1). The ABA and *DOG1* pathways converge at the PP2C phosphatase level: *DOG1* inhibits AHG1 and AHG3, while ABA inhibits other PP2C phosphatases and AHG3. By inhibiting PP2C phosphatases, both ABA and *DOG1* promote and maintain seed dormancy (Antoni et al., 2012; Née et al., 2017). *DOG1* is also required for many processes of seed maturation, partially by interfering with ABA signaling components (Dekkers et al., 2016).

OsSDR4 (SEED DORMANCY 4) is considered a regulator associated with seed dormancy in rice with unknown function (Sugimoto et al., 2010). In Arabidopsis, AtSDR4L (SDR4-LIKE) regulates dormancy release and germination by modulating *DOG1* and RGA-LIKE2 (encoding DELLA protein RGL2) in the GA pathway (Cao et al., 2019). Studies suggest that AtODR1 (reversal of *rdo5*), an ortholog of OsSDR4, acts together with bHLH57 and functions upstream of AtNCED6 and AtNCED9 to control ABA synthesis and seed dormancy in Arabidopsis (Liu et al., 2020).

3.4 Seed De-greening

During seed maturation, SnRK2 and ABI3 genes have been identified as important components of the de-greening process (Delmas et al., 2013). The *snrk2.2/snrk2.3/snrk2.6* triple mutant shows ABA insensitivity during seed development and produces green seeds (Nakashima et al., 2009; Zhao et al., 2018). The Arabidopsis *abi3-6* mutant exhibits a lack of de-greening, and ABI3 was found to control embryo de-greening by regulating expression of SGR (STAY GREEN, AtSGR1 and AtSGR) genes, which are homologs of the SGR gene encoded by Mendel's I locus (Armstead et al., 2007; Delmas et al., 2013). ABI5 also regulates de-greening and seed longevity in legume seeds (Verdier et al., 2013; Zinsmeister et al., 2016).

4 Concluding Remarks

Seed development is a complex process comprising embryogenesis and maturation stages, characterized primarily by storage reserve accumulation, acquisition of desiccation tolerance, growth arrest, and dormancy acquisition, which significantly affect seed vigor, yield, and quality (Kozaki & Aoyanagi, 2022). Plant hormone ABA regulates seed development mainly through ABA metabolism, signal transduction, and its LAFL network (Sano & Marion-Poll, 2021; Ali et al., 2022). Although important progress has been made in recent years regarding ABA regulation of seed development, several key scientific questions remain unclear. For example, endogenous ABA levels are regulated through carotenoid pathway synthesis and inactivated through 8'-hydroxylation. ABA glucosyltransferase can convert ABA into ABA-glucose ester (ABA-GE) as an ABA storage pool, and ABA-GE can be hydrolyzed by β -glucosidase into ABA and glucose (Sano & Marion-Poll, 2021). How these enzymes and their genes respond to developmental or environmental changes to maintain normal ABA levels required for seed development remains unclear.

The major regulators of seed maturation and desiccation tolerance are ABA and DOG1 protein, which control transcription factor networks such as LEC1, LEC2, FUS3, ABI3, ABI5, AGL67, PLATZ1, and PLATZ2 (Smolikova et al., 2021). The core ABA pathway and DOG1 pathway converge at PP2C (Figure 1). Notably, it remains unclear which pathway PP2C preferentially responds to when integrating developmental or environmental signals and how these two pathways coordinate. Although DOG1 is one of the main regulators of seed dormancy, its molecular function has not yet been determined (Nonogaki, 2019a; Sano & Marion-Poll, 2021).

During seed maturation, GA levels are downregulated. GA levels are regulated by FUS3 and LEC2, which inhibit enzymes related to bioactive GA synthesis (Kozaki & Aoyanagi, 2022). In Arabidopsis, GA signaling promotes embryo development by activating LEC1 (Figure 2) to increase late embryogenesis auxin accumulation. The GA signaling repressor DELLA interacts with LEC1 to promote YUCCA (YUC) gene expression and embryo development through increased auxin accumulation. GA triggers DELLA degradation to release its inhibition of LEC1, leading to activation of genes necessary for embryogenesis (Hu et al., 2018). However, the detailed function of GA in embryogenesis remains unclear (Kozaki & Aoyanagi, 2022). Auxin promotes ABI3 expression, which induces embryonic identity genes by activating ARF (AUXIN RESPONSE FACTOR) genes (Kozaki & Aoyanagi, 2022). Similarly, auxin stimulates ABA signaling to control seed dormancy by inducing ABI3 expression (Liu et al., 2013). Therefore, the regulation of seed development by other plant hormones and their interactions with ABA warrants further investigation.

Currently, many transcription factors involved in seed maturation have been identified and characterized at the molecular and genetic levels, but transcriptional regulation of early embryogenesis remains poorly studied. Moreover, tran-

scription factor activity is strictly controlled by genetic and epigenetic factors, yet our understanding of these factors is incomplete (Verma et al., 2022). In-depth investigation of these issues will help elucidate the molecular mechanisms of seed development, providing new knowledge and technologies for improving seed vigor and increasing yield and quality.

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