



Same Actor in Different Stages: Genes in Shoot Apical Meristem Maintenance and Floral Meristem Determinacy in Arabidopsis

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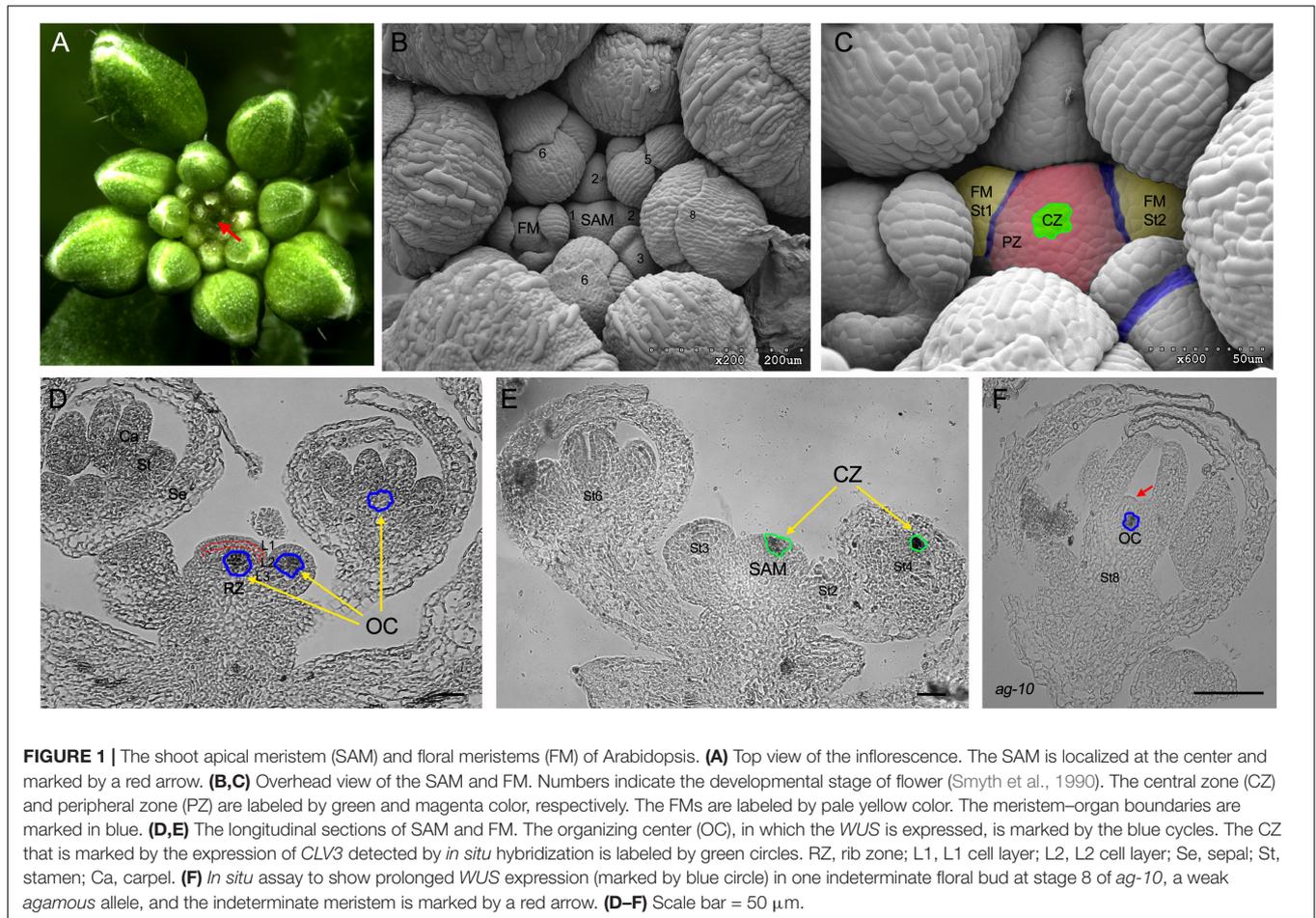
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Plant meristems are responsible for producing all post-embryonic organs during organogenesis. While the shoot apical meristem (SAM) maintains its meristematic property throughout the life of a plant, the floral meristem (FM) undergoes precise processes of initiation, maintenance and termination to ensure proper reproductive development and metagenesis. Plant meristem maintenance and termination are controlled by hierarchical genetic networks. While most of the genes in these networks have specific roles in particular processes, some genes have dual roles in SAM maintenance and FM termination through their interactions with different partners. Here, we summarize the molecular mechanisms of these dual-function regulators important for both SAM maintenance and FM termination and discuss the functions of WOX genes mediated gene regulatory networks on meristem maintenance and termination in different species.

Keywords: SAM maintenance, FM determinacy, miRNAs, AGO1/10, ARF3, AP2, FHY3, STM

SHOOT APICAL MERISTEM AND FLORAL MERISTEM

Whereas animals complete the majority of organogenesis and body plan formation during embryogenesis, plants establish the shoot apical meristem (SAM) and root apical meristem (RAM) in the mature embryo (Jürgens, 2001; Lau et al., 2012; Bishopp and Bennett, 2014). During post-embryonic development, the RAM establishes the entire root system, and the SAM gives rise to the above-ground structures, such as leaves, stems and flowers (Miwa et al., 2009; Kaufmann et al., 2010; Satbhai et al., 2015). After the transition from vegetative development to reproductive development, the floral meristems (FMs) are produced in the axils of cryptic bracts at the flanking regions of SAM that is also called Inflorescence Meristem (IM) after floral transition (Figures 1A–C; Chandler, 2012). Therefore, the FM, IM and other secondary meristem such as axillary meristems (AMs) are three types of SAM. Subsequently, FMs generate all of the floral organs, such as sepals, petals, stamens and carpels in Arabidopsis (Figure 1D). Plant meristems consist of groups of undifferentiated cells that continually initiate new organ primordia, and these undifferentiated cells



are produced from the limited number of stem cells within the meristem (Groß-Hardt and Laux, 2003; Laux, 2003; Sozzani and Iyer-Pascuzzi, 2014).

The SAM and FM of the model plant Arabidopsis (**Figure 1A**) have similar dome-like structure characterized by the typical tunica/corpus structure found in angiosperms (**Figures 1B–E**). The outer tunica consists of two single cell layers, the epidermal cells (L1) and subepidermal cells (L2), which divide anticlinally to the surface of the meristem; the inner corpus layer is a cluster of cells without clearly oriented divisions (**Figure 1D**; Carles and Fletcher, 2003). From the center outward, the tunica is divided into the central zone (CZ), which harbors a group of stem cells expressing the stem cell marker gene *CLAVATA3* (*CLV3*) (Laux, 2003), and the peripheral zone (PZ), where the descendants of stem cells are displaced and recruited to generate new lateral organ primordia or FMs (**Figure 1E**). Stem cells are a group of pluripotent undifferentiated cells with two distinct capabilities: maintenance through self-renewal and the steady production of precursor cells to form differentiated tissues (Laux, 2003). The CZ is sustained by the underlying organizing center (OC), a part of the rib zone (RZ) underneath the CZ (Mayer et al., 1998; Alvarez-Buylla et al., 2010). The OC cells are characterized by *WUSCHEL* (*WUS*) gene expression (**Figure 1D**).

During development, successful initiation of lateral organ primordia, in which cells are differentiated into specific cell-type of distinct organ like leaf or flower, requires the formation of meristem-to-organ boundary zone to separate the newly formed entity from the rest of plan body (Aida and Tasaka, 2006). The boundary zone is morphologically visible as concave groove with a saddle-shaped surface due to the local growth repression (**Figure 1C**). Cells in the boundary have distinctive property compared to the surrounding cells with reduced rates of cell division, elongated shapes, and unique gene expression program (Breuil-Broyer et al., 2004; Zadnikova and Simon, 2014). Null mutants of boundary-specific genes often display organ fusion, but also impaired organ development and phyllotaxis patterning, indicating that the boundary zone acts as organizing center to control adjacent organ development (Laufs et al., 2004; Zadnikova and Simon, 2014; Wang et al., 2016). Therefore, the dynamic maintenance of meristem depends on the balance between meristem self-renewal and lateral organ formation.

In Arabidopsis, IM, a type of SAM, is indeterminate with its ability to generate new organ throughout the life of a plant, while FM, another type of SAM, undergoes precise processes of initiation, maintenance and termination to ensure proper reproductive development and metagenesis (Sablowski, 2007). During the lifecycle, once a certain number of fruits

are produced, all meristem activity arrests coordinately (termed global proliferative arrest, or GPA) to promote subsequent fruit filling and plant death. Studies showed that both signals from seeds/flowers and the age pathway regulate the GPA of SAM (Hensel et al., 1994; Wuest et al., 2016; Balanzà et al., 2018). After floral transition, the FMs are produced and specified from the flanking of IM under the control of cascaded gene regulatory networks (GRNs) mediated by the FM identity genes, *LEAFY* (*LFY*) and *APETALA1* (*API*) (Liu C. et al., 2009; Liu et al., 2013; Chandler, 2012). Subsequently, the FM identity genes, *LFY* and *API*, induce the expression of floral organ identity genes that act in a combinatorial manner, termed ABC model, to control floral organ specification at differently developmental stages (Smyth et al., 1990; Coen and Meyerowitz, 1991; Weigel and Meyerowitz, 1994). Briefly, A class genes specify sepals, and A together with B class genes specify petals, while B and C class genes act together leading to stamen development, and C function alone controls carpel formation. In addition, A and C class genes act in an antagonistic manner (Coen and Meyerowitz, 1991). At last, the formation of the innermost carpel primordia is followed by the genetically programmed termination of FMs, termed floral determinacy: it ensures the production of a fixed number of floral organs and subsequent gametogenesis.

Prolonged or enhanced FM activity results in an increased number of floral organs, increased whorls and even extra organs borne on supernumerary whorls due to prolonged stem cell activity (Lenhard et al., 2001; Prunet et al., 2009; Sun et al., 2009; Liu et al., 2011; **Figure 1F**). Genetic analysis showed that the termination of FM is not simple via the differentiation meristem cells into carpel cells since the mutants with 4th whorl carpels are still indeterminate with additional tissue growing inside (Sun et al., 2009; Ji et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2011). Moreover, unlike the GPA of SAM, the temporally precise regulation of the FM ensures that it is terminated at a particular developmental stage (e.g., stage 6 in *Arabidopsis*) under the control of complex GRNs (Cao et al., 2015; Xu et al., 2019). Therefore, the SAM maintenance and FM determinacy are two distinctly developmental processes.

GENETIC REGULATION OF SAM MAINTENANCE AND FM DETERMINACY

Using forward genetics approaches, researchers have characterized numerous genes that are components of the regulatory networks that maintain SAM activity or terminate FM activity (Cao et al., 2015; Gaillochet and Lohmann, 2015; Soyars et al., 2016; Lee et al., 2019). Since meristems rely on stem cells as their source, FM have similar mechanisms to maintain the stem cell pool as other types of SAM. Similar to animal stem cells, plant stem cells are maintained by stem cell niches (Sablowski, 2004; Zheng and Liu, 2019). *WUS* encodes a homeodomain-containing transcription factor (TF) that is essential for the stem cells maintenance (Mayer et al., 1998; **Figure 1D**). In the *wus* mutant, the SAM fails to properly generate leaf primordia, and the FM is depleted before the production of carpel primordia, due to the rapid consumption of the stem cells contained therein (Laux et al., 1996). In contrast, ectopic *WUS* expression can

endow somatic cells with stem cell properties (Zuo et al., 2002; Gallois et al., 2004; Xu et al., 2005). These findings demonstrate that *WUS* is critical for the establishment and maintenance of meristems. Further mechanistic analysis uncovered that *WUS* moves to the overlying stem cells in the CZ to directly induce *CLV3*, which encodes a secreted peptide (Yadav et al., 2011; Daum et al., 2014; **Figure 1E**). *CLV3* subsequently binds to the plasma membrane-localized *CLV1* or *CLV2/CORYNE* (*CRN*) receptor complex to inhibit *WUS* expression (Soyars et al., 2016). Thus, the *WUS/CLV3* negative feedback loop fine-tunes the stem cell pool of the SAM and FM.

Dynamic SAM maintenance is determined by the rates of stem cell proliferation and organ primordia formation. The boundary cells express a set of distinctive TFs that play important roles to locally repress cell proliferation and cell division through crosstalk with the meristem genes and organ primordia specific genes (Heisler and Ohno, 2014; Zadnikova and Simon, 2014). To date, numbers of meristem-to-organ boundary-specific regulators are well studied including NAC family TFs such as *CUP-SHAPED COTYLEDON1/2/3* (*CUC1/2/3*), MYC-domain TFs such as *LATERAL ORGAN FUSION1/2* (*LOF1/2*), and *LATERAL ORGAN BOUNDARIES DOMAIN* (*LBD*) family TFs such as *JAGGED LATERAL ORGANS* (*JLO*) and *LATERAL ORGAN BOUNDARIES* (*LOB*) (Wang et al., 2016). They modulate the boundary establishment as well as organ primordia specification and meristem maintenance through genetic interaction with meristem-specific genes such as *SHOOT MERISTEMLESS* (*STM*) and *WUS*, and organ primordial-specific genes like *ASYMMETRIC LEAVES1/2* (*AS1/2*) and *TEOSINTE BRANCHED1/CYCLOIDEA/PCF1* (*TCP*) genes (Zadnikova and Simon, 2014). However, the molecular mechanisms by which these regulators control cell proliferation and differentiation in the boundaries are still not understood.

At the early stages of flower development, the maintenance and termination of FM activity are highly coordinated with the formation and specification of floral organ to ensure the successful flower development (Smyth et al., 1990; Alvarez-Buylla et al., 2010). Spatially expanded FM activity associated with an increased stem cell population leads to the production of extra floral organs. Temporally enhanced FM activity due to prolonged stem cell maintenance, known as FM indeterminacy, gives rise to supernumerary whorls with extra organs (Prunet et al., 2009; **Figure 1F**). The *WUS/CLV* feedback loop maintain the FM similarly to the way they maintain the SAM, but the regulatory loop alone is incompetent to precisely terminate the FM. *AGAMOUS* (*AG*), a C-class MADS domain-containing TF, is a central positive regulator of FM determinacy. The null *ag* mutant displays a flower-in-flower phenotype: the entire fourth whorl of the primary flower is replaced by a new flower bud that in turn produces a new abnormal flower due to the continuous maintenance of stem cells in the FM center (Bowman et al., 1989, 1991; Lenhard et al., 2001). This demonstrated that *AG* has dual-function in the flower development: floral organ (stamen and carpel) identity and FM termination. At stage 3 of floral development (Smyth et al., 1990), *AG* expression is induced by *WUS* and *LFY* at the center of the FM, and *WUS* expression is turned off at stage 6, resulting in FM determinacy

(Lohmann et al., 2001). *AG* indirectly represses *WUS* expression through *KNUCKLES* (Sun et al., 2009, 2019), and *AG* also directly represses *WUS* through the TERMINAL FLOWER2 (TFL2)-*AG* complex that triggers chromatin loop formation at the *WUS* locus (Liu et al., 2011; Guo et al., 2018). As a central hub in this network, *AG* is regulated by numerous factors at the transcriptional, post-transcriptional and protein level through genetic and epigenetic mechanisms (Cao et al., 2015; Xu et al., 2019).

To date, many genes have been characterized in terms of their functions in either SAM maintenance or FM determinacy, while other genes have dual roles in both processes through their genetic interactions with different partners. The following section summarizes recent findings on these dual-function genes with different roles in SAM maintenance and FM determinacy.

INDIVIDUAL FACTORS INVOLVED IN BOTH SAM MAINTENANCE AND FM DETERMINACY

MicroRNA172 (miR172) – APETALA2 (AP2) Module

MicroRNAs (miRNAs) are a class of endogenous 20–24 nt non-coding RNAs. They are encoded by miRNA genes (*MIR*) and processed by DICER-LIKE (DCL) RNase III endonucleases (Margis et al., 2006; Nozawa et al., 2012). Through complementary base pairing, miRNAs guide post-transcriptional regulation of their targets, by either transcript cleavage or translational inhibition, and many of these targets are TFs (D'Arrio et al., 2017; Yu et al., 2017b; Liu et al., 2018). Accordingly, miRNAs play dominant roles in plant development and growth. The five *MIR172* genes in *Arabidopsis* produce three unique mature miR172 species that accumulate in different organs during plant development. When plants are transferred from short-day to long-day to induce flowering, miR172 abundance increases in the SAM (Wollmann et al., 2010), where SQUAMOSA PROMOTER BINDING PROTEIN-LIKE (SPL) proteins, the targets of miR156, promote the expression of miR172 (Wu et al., 2009). In turn, miR172 represses a family of AP2-like TFs, including APETALA2 (*AP2*), TARGET OF EAT 1 (*TOE1*), *TOE2*, *TOE3*, SCHLAFMÜTZE (*SMZ*), and SCHNARCHZAPFEN (*SNZ*), to regulate phase transitions and SAM activity (Aukerman and Sakai, 2003; Chen, 2004; Mathieu et al., 2009). It was well studied that the miR156/SPLs module controls the juvenile-to-adult transition by fine-tuning the miR172/*AP2* module (Wang et al., 2009; Wu et al., 2009). At the same time, *AP2* directly binds to individual *MIR156* and *MIR172* loci to promote *MIR156* expression and repress *MIR172* expression (Yant et al., 2010; Figure 2A). miR172 abundance is high during early floral development then gradually decreases from stage 3 onward. In these later stages, it is mainly detected in the fourth whorl, with the highest levels in the center of the FM, where it represses its target genes *AP2* and *TOE3* to maintain FM activity (Chen, 2004; Wollmann et al., 2010; Jung et al., 2014). Mutations in genes affecting miR172 biosynthesis or accumulation, such as *HUA ENHANCER 1* (*HEN1*) and

CARPEL FACTORY (*CAF*), result in increased *AP2* protein levels and loss of FM termination (Jacobsen et al., 1999; Chen et al., 2002). Additionally, a mutation in *POWERDRESS* (*PWR*) could enhance the weakly indeterminate *ag-10* allele. *PWR* promotes the expression of *MIR172a*, *b*, and *c*, but not *MIR172d* and *e*, while a mutation in mature miR172d could enhance the determinacy defects of *ag-10* in an *AP2*-dependent manner, showing that the transcriptional diversification of the *MIR172* family may make the floral determinacy regulatory network more robust (Yumul et al., 2013; Figure 2B).

AP2 has numerous roles in floral transition, floral organ patterning, stem cell maintenance and seed development (Bowman et al., 1989; Ohto et al., 2005; Wurschum et al., 2006; Yant et al., 2010). At vegetative stage, *AP2* is highly expressed in incipient leaf primordia, but its transcript levels are low in the SAM and the center of the FM after stage 2 (Wurschum et al., 2006; Wollmann et al., 2010). In early floral development, *AP2* transcripts are concentrated in the sepal and petal primordia and partially overlap with *MIR172* transcript in the third whorl. At later stages, *AP2* is abundant in the developing petals, stamen filaments and the gynoecium, consistent with its multiple roles in floral development (Wollmann et al., 2010).

The semi-dominant *I28* mutant, which harbors a dominant-negative *AP2* allele, exhibits reduced SAM size, premature termination of the SAM and differentiation of the stem cells as in the *wus* mutant. At the early seedling stage, *WUS* and *CLV3* expression are disrupted in the SAM of *I28*. Functional and genetic analysis revealed that *AP2* promotes SAM maintenance either by repressing *CLV3* signaling or by promoting *WUS* expression independently of the *AG* pathway (Wurschum et al., 2006). Meanwhile, a recent study showed that the MADS-box gene *FRUITFULL* (*FUL*) promotes meristem arrest through direct *AP2* repression. *ful* and *ap2-170*, in which the microRNA binding site of miR172 is mutated, have delayed coordinated arrest of all meristems, or GPA, that correlates with the repression of *WUS* expression. Induction of the miR172-resistant version of *AP2*, *AP2¹⁷⁰*, in arrested plants reactivated the SAM and normal flower development, highlighting the important role of *AP2* in SAM maintenance (Balanza et al., 2018; Figure 2A). Since *AP2* is clearly expressed in the emerging leaf primordia but hard to be detected in the SAM, how *AP2* regulate *WUS* expression is unclear. A possibility is that *AP2* could regulate *WUS* expression non-cell-autonomously.

In the ABC model of flower development (Weigel and Meyerowitz, 1994), *AP2* functions as an A-class gene that acts antagonistically with *AG*, specifies the perianth organs and restricts *AG* expression to the inner two whorls (Drews et al., 1991). Specifically, *AP2* directly binds to the second intron of *AG* to repress *AG* expression in the outer two whorls (Wollmann et al., 2010; Yant et al., 2010; Dinh et al., 2012). In the *ag* mutant, *AP2* does not expand to the center of the FM, and miR172 accumulation is unaffected, indicating that *AP2* is mainly regulated by miR172, however, another study showed that *AG* misexpression with the 35S promoter counteracted *AP2* in the outer two whorls (Zhao et al., 2007; Wollmann et al., 2010). Transgenic lines expressing miR172-resistant versions of *AP2* and *TOE3* were found to exhibit floral organ identity defects

controlled to achieve successful FM determinacy since both of HD-ZIP III reduction by over-expression of miR165/166 and mis-expression of HD-Zip III overexpression by rendering them resistant to miR165/166 led to prolonged floral stem cell activity (Ji et al., 2011). Thus, both AGO1 and AGO10 are required for SAM establishment and maintenance as well as FM determinacy, with distinct roles in these processes (Figure 2).

SHOOT MERISTEMLESS (STM)

STM, a class-I KNOX gene, encodes a mobile TALE homeodomain TF that is essential for SAM establishment and maintenance (Long et al., 1996). Unlike *WUS*, *STM* is expressed throughout the SAM, where it suppresses cell differentiation, but is down-regulated in incipient organ primordia (Scofield et al., 2018). Loss-of-function *stm* mutants have compromised SAM formation and defective SAM organization, as evidenced by the fused cotyledon phenotype, due to the rapid consumption of the entire SAM (Clark et al., 1996; Endrizzi et al., 1996).

Ectopic expression of *STM* at leaf primordia suppresses cell differentiation and maintains the potential to form additional lateral outgrowths (Lenhard et al., 2002). Genetic analysis has revealed that ectopic expression of *STM* and *WUS* could trigger ectopic organogenesis, while they function in different pathway in meristem regulation (Byrne et al., 2002; Lenhard et al., 2002). Although the *stm* and *wus* mutants display similar developmental defects of SAM organization, the meristem arrest phenotypes of them differ from each other, in which meristematic cells are consumed into developing organs in *stm* mutants but are retained in a non-meristematic state in *wus* (Endrizzi et al., 1996; Laux et al., 1996), indicating that *STM* function is required to prevent meristematic cells from adopting organ-specific cell fates, whereas *WUS* is critical for the stem cell pool maintenance.

In the SAM, *STM* represses the expression of one target gene encoding GA20 oxidase (G20ox) enzyme that is required for phytohormone gibberellic acid (GA) biosynthesis, to maintain low level of GA that stimulates growth by promote cell expansion. Exogenous GA treatment and constitutive GA signaling suppress *STM* gain-of-function phenotypes, whilst constitutive GA signaling mutant enhances the defects of weak *stm* mutants (Hay et al., 2002). At the same time, over-expression of cytokinin (CK), another phytohormone, biosynthetic *ISOPENTENYL TRANSFERASE (IPT)* genes and the exogenous application of CK can partially rescue the meristem defects of *stm* mutants, indicating that CK mediates the function of *STM* on meristem regulation. Further study showed that *STM* promotes *IPT7* expression to increase CK activity in SAM, which contributes to the homeostasis of CK and *WUS* expression (see below) (Leibfried et al., 2005; Yanai et al., 2005). Therefore, *STM* may functions on both SAM organization and stem cell maintenance.

At the boundary zone, *CUC1* is required for the boundary specification and restricted to express at boundary (Aida et al., 1999). *STM* binds and activates *CUC1* expression, and *CUC1* can directly activate *STM* expression to comprise a direct positive-feedback loop, which is attenuated by *STM*-induced

miR164c (Hibara et al., 2003; Spinelli et al., 2011; Scofield et al., 2018). In the regulatory interactions, the movement of *STM* is important for the meristem function and the correct expression patterns of *CUC1* and *CUC2* at the boundary zone (Lucas et al., 1995; Kim et al., 2003; Balkunde et al., 2017). In the organ primordia, primordium identity factors (PrIFs) specify primordium identity and promote expression of *TCP* family genes, which repress the expression of KNOX genes in primordia by direct interaction with primordium-specific AS1/AS2 complex and *CUC1* expression through miR164a/b, whilst *STM* represses *T* in the SAM (Byrne et al., 2002; Li et al., 2012; Scofield et al., 2018; Figure 2A). Therefore, the genetic interactions among these genes ensure the precise gene expression pattern and the boundary formation.

During flower development, *STM* is not expressed in FM founder cells or incipient FMs at the flanks of the SAM. However, *STM* is reactivated expression throughout the apical region of the FM proper but not in the basal domain that corresponds to the cryptic bract prior to floral patterning, shortly after the FM becomes distinct from the SAM, and then restricted to whorl 4 at late stages (Long and Barton, 2000). Ectopic expression of *STM* results in the formation of ectopic carpels, carpelloid organs and the conversion of ovules to carpels (Scofield et al., 2007). In the mild *stm-2* mutant, the SAM terminates in flowers that lack a central gynoecium (Clark et al., 1996; Scofield et al., 2007). These findings indicated that *STM* is required for whorl 4 and/or carpel development in FMs. Recent study showed that *STM* is also required for the FM competence. Genetic analysis has revealed that *STM* and *UNUSUAL FLORAL ORGANS (UFO)*, but in depend of *API*, genetically interact to specify FM identity and initiate the floral program by regulation of flower identity genes (Roth et al., 2018). These findings demonstrated the multiple-functions of *STM* on organ identity and meristem activity.

AUXIN RESPONSE FACTOR3 (ARF3)

The phytohormone auxin and CK are critical for many plant growth and developmental processes including establishment, maintenance and termination of meristem (Schaller et al., 2015). Auxin is biosynthesized by *YUCCA* gene family and its signaling is mediated by two protein families: auxin response factors (ARFs) and Aux/IAA proteins, which induce global auxin response by regulate the expression of target genes (Reinhardt et al., 2000; Liscum and Reed, 2002; Cheng et al., 2006; Guilfoyle and Hagen, 2007; Vanneste and Friml, 2009). CK biosynthesis depends on the *IPT* gene family and *LONELY GUY (LOG)* gene family, respectively. After perceived by its receptors ARABIDOPSIS HISTIDINE KINASE2/3/4 (AHK2/3/4), CKs trigger the CK transcriptional response through B-type ARABIDOPSIS RESPONSEREGULATORS (ARRs) that are the TFs activated through phosphorylation by CK signaling, while A-types ARR are negative regulators of CK signaling whose expression is induced by CK (Kieber and Schaller, 2014). In the SAM, auxin maxima are found at locations of primordia formation where it induces cellular differentiation and organ outgrowth, while CK maximum is

found at the OC to promote the proliferation of undifferentiated cells (Schaller et al., 2015). CK is required for the activation of *WUS* expression in an *AHK2/AHK4*-dependent manner, while *WUS* represses the expression of several A-type ARR genes, such as *ARR5/7/15*, resulting in increased CK activity in the OC (Leibfried et al., 2005; Gordon et al., 2009; Zhao et al., 2010). *ARF5/MONOPTEROS (MP)* mediates the crosstalk between auxin and CK signaling required for SAM maintenance. Specifically, auxin induces the expression of *ARF5/MP* to repress *ARR7/15* to fine tune CK activity and *WUS* expression (Zhao et al., 2010). Recent study showed that *WUS*, in turn, maintains low auxin signaling output in stem cells by reducing target genes expression through regulating the histone acetylation status of target loci (Ma et al., 2019). Thus, *WUS* keeps stem cell pool from auxin induced differentiation, while enhancing CK activity to sustain its expression.

ARF3, also known as *ETTIN*, is one of the 23 ARF family members in Arabidopsis (Guilfoyle and Hagen, 2007). *ARF3* has numerous roles in plant development, including gynoecium morphogenesis, *de novo* organ regeneration, organ polarity and FM determinacy (Sessions et al., 1997; Nemhauser et al., 2000; Cheng et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2014). During *de novo* organ regeneration, *ARF3* is highly expressed in the emerging SAM at early stage of SAM formation, but is ubiquitously expressed in the SAM at later stage of SAM formation, where *ARF3* mediates the auxin response and directly represses the expression of the CK biosynthesis gene *AiPT5*. Mutations in *ARF3* lead to ectopic CK biosynthesis as well as disrupted stem cell initiation and meristem formation (Cheng et al., 2013). *ARF3* protein is evenly distributed throughout the SAM and early FM, while *ARF3* mRNA is abaxially distributed in the SAM and floral organ primordia (Liu et al., 2014; Simonini et al., 2017). Thus, the dynamic *ARF3* distribution is required for its function on SAM formation and maintenance. Genome-wide analysis revealed that *ARF3* interacts with its partners in an auxin-dependent manner that determines its repressor or activator roles (Simonini et al., 2017). At the flanking regions of the SAM, *ARF3* may directly activate the expression of *LFY* to specified floral primordium fate, and *YUC4* to induce auxin biosynthesis, and then promote cell differentiation (Schultz and Haughn, 1991; Cheng et al., 2006; Simonini et al., 2017). Simultaneously, *ARF3* physically interacts with *FIL* to directly repress *STM* expression, and the resulting histone deacetylation promotes organogenesis (Chung et al., 2019). In addition, given that *STM* promote CK activity, *ARF3* could fine-tune CK activity in SAM (Figure 2A).

Unlike the even distribution pattern of *ARF3* observed in the SAM, *ARF3* is concentrated in the OC of the FM. It overlaps with *WUS* and the CK receptor gene *AHK4*, indicating different roles of *ARF3* in the FM and SAM (Liu et al., 2014). Genetic analysis showed that *ARF3* promotes FM determinacy by repressing *WUS* expression. In this context, *ARF3* is repressed by *AP2* to mediate the functions of *AP2* and *AG* in FM maintenance and termination (Liu et al., 2014). Detailed analysis of the underlying molecular mechanism revealed that during early FM development (stages 3–5), *AG* transiently represses *ARF3* expression to de-repress the expression of *IPT3/5/7* and cell cycle genes, which helps to maintain FM activity. At later FM stages

(stages 5–6), *AG* and auxin increase *ARF3* expression, while *AP2* represses *ARF3* expression. *ARF3* directly inhibits *IPT3/5/7* and *AHK4* expression and indirectly inhibits the expression of *LOG* genes. This regulation by *ARF3* represses CK activity in the OC and ensures proper temporal termination of *WUS* expression (Zhang et al., 2018). Moreover, *ARF3* can bind to the *WUS* promoter in an *AG*-dependent manner to fine-tune *WUS* expression (Liu et al., 2014; Figure 2B). Recent studies showed that fine-tuning of auxin homeostasis is required for the FM determinacy and gynoecium formation. Locally increased auxin production rescued the FM indeterminacy phenotype of *knu crc (crabs claw)*, which is supposed to be mediated by *ARF3* (Yamaguchi et al., 2017, 2018).

FAR-RED ELONGATED HYPOCOTYL3 (FHY3)

Coordination of internal developmental cues, nutrients, hormones, and external environmental signals is important for the meristem maintenance and organogenesis in shoots and roots (Li et al., 2017). Light is one of the most important environmental signals for plant development and growth (Arsovski et al., 2012). In addition, light activates photosynthesis to provide energy by sucrose production. Recent studies found that Glucose energy signaling is essential to activate SAM and RM activity through activating target of rapamycin (TOR) kinase, while light induces auxin synthesis to promote SAM activity (Pfeiffer et al., 2016; Li et al., 2017).

At same time, plants have evolved a family of photoreceptors to perceive the light signal. Phytochrome A (*phyA*) is a key member with both specific and shared functions (Li et al., 2011). Light exposure triggers the transformation of *phyA* from the inactive Pr form to the active Pfr form, and it translocates into the nucleus with the help of FAR-RED ELONGATED HYPOCOTYL1 (*FHY1*) and its homolog *FHY1-LIKE (FHL)* (Casal et al., 2014). In Arabidopsis, FAR-RED ELONGATED HYPOCOTYLS3 (*FHY3*) directly activates the expression of *FHY1* and *FHL* to promote *phyA* signaling (Lin et al., 2007). Additionally, *FHY3* plays diverse roles in different plant developmental and physiological processes, such as circadian signaling, chloroplast biogenesis, chlorophyll biosynthesis and programmed cell death (Wang and Wang, 2015). Genome-wide gene expression profiling showed that under far-red (FR) light conditions, *FHY3* mainly acts as a transcriptional activator to promote photomorphogenesis during the vegetative stage (Ouyang et al., 2011), but it acts primarily as transcriptional repressor in flower development (Li et al., 2016).

A genetic analysis uncovered the dual roles of *FHY3* in SAM maintenance and FM determinacy (Li et al., 2016). Specifically, a mutation in *FHY3* led to a smaller SAM size, and *fhy3* enhanced the indeterminacy of *ag-10*, a weak *ag* allele. Additionally, *wus* was found to be epistatic to *fhy3*. Molecular analysis revealed that *FHY3* directly represses *CLV3* expression to regulate *WUS* expression in the SAM. When seedlings transition from dark to light conditions, *CLV3* expression decreases in WT plants but not in the *fhy3* and *phyA* mutants, indicating that *FHY3*

mediates the repressive effect of light on *CLV3* expression (Li et al., 2016). The de-repressed expression of *CLV3* in the *flh3* mutant results in reduced *WUS* expression and a small SAM size. On the other hand, during flower development, *FHY3* directly activates *SEPALLATA1* (*SEP1*) and *SEP2* expression, in parallel to the *FHY3-CLV3* pathway, to repress *WUS* expression and to promote FM determinacy (Li et al., 2016; **Figure 2**).

CONCLUSION AND FUTURE PERSPECTIVES

All postembryonic organs in plants develop from the stem cells that reside in the meristems. A key similarity between animal and plant stem cells is that the stem cell niche is critical for the maintenance of their activity (Heidstra and Sabatini, 2014; Zheng and Liu, 2019). The *WUS* homeobox (*HB*) TF belongs to the plant-specific *WUS* homeobox (*WOX*) protein family, one of a number of plant *HB* TF families that are characterized by the presence of a homeodomain. More broadly, this DNA-binding domain is important for developmental decisions in eukaryotes (van der Graaff et al., 2009). Phylogenetic and functional analyses have shown that *WOX* genes are conserved in euphyllophytes with distinct functions in a wide range of processes, particularly in the establishment, maintenance and termination of different types of meristems (Dodsworth, 2009; van der Graaff et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2010; Costanzo et al., 2014; Liu and Xu, 2018). *WUS* homologs with conserved functions among angiosperms act in diverse and intricate regulatory networks (Dodsworth, 2009) in which some key players have dual roles in SAM maintenance and FM termination through their interactions with different partners (this review). However, there are many unanswered questions about how *WOX* members have come to function in diverse developmental processes over the course of evolution.

Poaceae (also called grasses) is one of the largest families of angiosperms containing many agriculturally important crops, such as rice, wheat, barley and maize (Grass Phylogeny Working Group et al., 2001). All grasses have a complex inflorescence composed of one, a few, or many spikelets produced by different type meristems. The IM of *Arabidopsis* is indeterminate and form two types meristems: indeterminate branch meristem and determinate FM. While the IM of wheat is determinate but the IMs of rice and maize are indeterminate,

they produce determinate FMs (Zhang and Yuan, 2014). Therefore, the *WOX* genes mediated GRNs that are composed of homologs of key players in different species have distinct functions on meristem maintenance and FM determinacy through different molecular mechanisms. Phylogenetic analysis indicated, for example, that *FHY3*-like genes, encoding Mutator-like transposase-derived TFs, are widespread in angiosperms but not in other organisms (Lin et al., 2007), indicating that *FHY3* is probably linked to the adaptive evolution of *phyA* (Mathews et al., 2003). Interestingly, although close orthologs of *FHY3* are widespread in dicots, they are missing in monocot genomes (Lin et al., 2007). Thus, moving forward, comparative analyses of the functions of meristem-related genes in diverse plant species, particularly genes involved in SAM establishment and maintenance as well as FM determinacy, will be critical for an improved understanding of meristem evolution and conducive to agricultural production.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

WC and YG contributed equally to the composition of the manuscript. XL and LG contributed equally to the conceptualization of the manuscript. HZ prepared the manuscript figures.

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Conflict of Interest: The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

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