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# FAR-RED ELONGATED HYPOCOTYL3 activates SEPALLATA2 but inhibits CLAVATA3 to regulate meristem determinacy and maintenance in Arabidopsis

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Plant meristems are responsible for the generation of all plant tissues and organs. Here we show that the transcription factor (TF) FAR-RED ELONGATED HYPOCOTYL3 (FHY3) plays an important role in both floral meristem (FM) determinacy and shoot apical meristem maintenance in Arabidopsis, in addition to its well-known multifaceted roles in plant growth and development during the vegetative stage. Through genetic analyses, we show that WUSCHEL (WUS) and CLAVATA3 (CLV3), two central players in the establishment and maintenance of meristems, are epistatic to FHY3. Using genome-wide ChIP-seq and RNA-seq data, we identify hundreds of FHY3 target genes in flowers and find that FHY3 mainly acts as a transcriptional repressor in flower development, in contrast to its transcriptional activator role in seedlings. Binding motif-enrichment analyses indicate that FHY3 may coregulate flower development with three flowerspecific MADS-domain TFs and four basic helix-loop-helix TFs that are involved in photomorphogenesis. We further demonstrate that CLV3, SEPALLATA1 (SEP1), and SEP2 are FHY3 target genes. In shoot apical meristem, FHY3 directly represses CLV3, which consequently regulates WUS to maintain the stem cell pool. Intriguingly, CLV3 expression did not change significantly in fhy3 and phytochrome B mutants before and after light treatment, indicating that FHY3 and phytochrome B are involved in light-regulated meristem activity. In FM, FHY3 directly represses CLV3, but activates SEP2, to ultimately promote FM determinacy. Taken together, our results reveal insights into the mechanisms of meristem maintenance and determinacy, and illustrate how the roles of a single TF may vary in different organs and developmental stages.

meristem maintenance | meristem determinacy | FHY3 | CLV3 | SEP2

plant meristems are responsible for the generation of all plant tissues and organs. Unlike the shoot apical meristem (SAM), whose activity is maintained throughout the life of plants, the floral meristem (FM) is precisely programmed to terminate in a process known as FM determinacy (1). WUSCHEL (WUS) plays a central role in the establishment and maintenance of SAM, inflorescence meristem, and FM, as well as in FM determinacy (2–4). WUS is expressed in the organizing center located beneath the stem cells in the meristem to promote cell proliferation by maintaining stem cell potential (2). The WUS/CLAVATA3 (CLV3) signaling pathway maintains the stabilization of meristem size and the stem cell pool (3, 5). Consistent with WUS overactivation, clv3 mutants have an enlarged SAM and increased numbers of floral organs and whorls (5). In addition to the WUS/CLV3 loop, several other pathways are known to regulate FM determinacy (4). AGAMOUS (AG) encodes a MADS-box transcription factor (TF) and is the lynchpin of the FM determinacy network (4, 6, 7). In the

null *ag-1* mutant, FM determinacy is severely impaired, resulting in a flower-in-flower phenotype (6). AG inhibits *WUS* expression through both indirect and direct means (8, 9). A number of other genes have been shown to regulate FM determinacy through the *AG* pathway or in parallel pathways, and additional players in this critical developmental process await characterization (4).

Floral organs are produced by the FM based on the classic ABC model in *Arabidopsis* (10, 11). However, the ABC genes were found to be necessary but not sufficient for the determination of floral organ identity (12, 13), and the E class genes—*SEPALLATA1* (*SEP1*), *SEP2*, *SEP3*, and *SEP4*—were subsequently incorporated into the model (14). Although single or double *sep* mutants produce flowers indistinguishable from those of the wild-type, the *sep1sep2sep3sep4* quadruple mutant develops flowers with

#### **Significance**

The transcription factor FAR-RED ELONGATED HYPOCOTYL3 (FHY3) is known to play multiple roles at the vegetative stage in Arabidopsis, but its functions in reproductive stage are unclear. We find that FHY3 is required for floral meristem determinacy and shoot apical meristem maintenance by mainly acting as a transcriptional repressor. FHY3 mediates light-regulated CLAVATA3 expression to regulate WUSCHEL expression in shoot apical meristem and directly represses CLAVATA3, but activates SEPALLATA2, to promote floral meristem determinacy. Furthermore, FHY3 may coregulate flower development with three flower-specific MADS-domain transcription factors and four basic helix-loop-helix transcription factors that are involved in photomorphogenesis, and thus may act as a bridge molecule in the cross-talk between external signals and endogenous cues to coordinate plant development.

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leaf-like organs in all floral whorls and indeterminate FM activity, thereby demonstrating the functional redundancy of SEP genes and their fundamental roles in floral organ identity and FM determinacy (14, 15). On the other hand, the differing spatiotemporal expression patterns of individual SEP genes are suggestive of their distinct functions in flower development. Once the FM is produced, SEP1 and SEP2 are expressed in all four whorls. However, the mechanisms underlying the regulation of SEP1 and SEP2 expression remain unclear. Moreover, although the precise timing of the early events in floral organ production mediated by SEP genes has been well studied (16, 17), the molecular mechanisms mediated by SEP genes in the context of FM determinacy are largely unknown.

Light is one of the most important environmental signals for plant growth and development. Light could regulate stem cell activity through auxin and cytokinin (18). The detailed mechanisms underlying this process are still waiting dissection. The transposase-derived TF FAR-RED ELONGATED HYPOCOTYL3 (FHY3) was isolated as a key positive regulator of the phytochrome A (phyA) signaling pathway in Arabidopsis (19). FHY3 regulates the expression of target genes by directly binding to FHY3-binding sites (FBS, CACGCGC) (20, 21). ChIP-sequencing (ChIP-seq) analysis and genome-wide gene-expression profiling have identified hundreds of FHY3 target genes predicted to function in diverse environmental, hormonal, and developmental contexts. Under farred (FR) conditions, FHY3 mainly acts as a transcriptional activator (21). In addition to phytochrome and circadian signaling, FHY3 has been found to function in diverse plant developmental and physiological processes, including UV-B signaling, chloroplast biogenesis, chlorophyll biosynthesis, programmed cell death, ABA signaling, and branching (22). It is important to note that although the functions of FHY3 during the plant vegetative stage are well studied, its roles in flower development remain poorly understood.

In this study, we isolated several fhy3 mutations that dramatically enhanced the FM indeterminacy phenotype of ag-10, a weak ag allele. Through genetic analyses we show that FHY3 is required for FM determinacy and SAM maintenance and that wus is epistatic to fhy3 in FM determinacy. Through ChIP-seq and RNA-seq analyses, we identify hundreds of FHY3 binding sites and FHY3 target genes in floral organs and find that FHY3 mainly acts as a transcriptional repressor during flower development. Further analyses show that FHY3 functions in meristem determinacy and maintenance by directly binding the promoters of CLV3, SEP1, and SEP2, resulting in direct CLV3 repression, direct SEP2 activation, and downstream regulation of  $\hat{WUS}$  expression.

#### Results

FHY3 Is Required for FM Determinacy and SAM Maintenance. To identify new players involved in FM determinacy, an ethyl methanesulfonate (EMS) mutagenesis screen was performed in the ag-10 background, as previously reported (9). In contrast to ag-1 null mutants (6), ag-10 exhibits only a weak FM determinacy defect showing a few curved and bulged siliques with additional floral tissue inside (Fig. 1 A and B and Fig. S1A) (9). For screening, we focused on mutants with more bulged siliques throughout the entire plant as an indicator of prolonged FM activity.

Several such mutants were isolated with similar phenotype, showing very short and bulged siliques in whole plants with a mean carpel number of  $4.3 \pm 0.4$  (n = 50) (Fig. 1C) and additional floral organs growing inside (Fig. S1 A and B). The mutants also produced very small petals and sterile anthers (Fig. 1D). Longitudinal and transversal silique sections revealed plenty of floral organs growing inside the pistils from the indeterminate FM (Fig. S1B), resulting in infertile siliques in the mutant in a Landsberg erecta (Ler) background (Fig. S1A). Through genetic mapping, all mutation sites were found in FHY3 and the mutations were named fhy3-27, fhy3-39, fhy3-46, and fhy3-68 (Fig. S1C). fhy3-68 was used for subsequent analysis. Introducing a 35S:FHY3-FLAG transgene

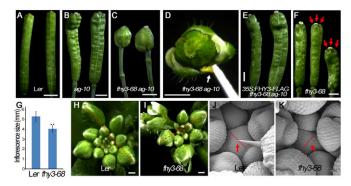


Fig. 1. FHY3 is required for FM determinacy and SAM maintenance. (A-C, E, and F) Siliques of Ler (A), ag-10 (B), fhy3-68 ag-10 (C), 35S:FHY3-FLAG fhy3-68 ag-10 (E), and fhy3-68 (F). Carpels marked by red arrows in F. (D) Flowers of fhy3-68 ag-10. Sterile anthers are marked by a white arrow in D. (G) Quantification of inflorescence size (mm) of Ler (n = 15) and fhy3-68 (n = 15). \*\*P < 0.01. (H and I) Inflorescences of Ler (H) and fhy3-68 (I). Dashed lines mark the width used to measure inflorescence size in G. (J and K) SAM (marked by a red arrow) of Ler (J) and fhy3-68 (K). Red lines mark the width of SAM. (Scale bars: 1 mm in A-C, E, and F; 250 µm in D; 500 µm in H and I; 60  $\mu$ m in J and K.)

into fhy3-68 ag-10 rescued the mutant phenotype, confirming that fhy3-68 was responsible for the enhanced FM determinacy defects (Fig. 1E).

Through outcrossing of fhy3-68 ag-10 with Ler, we obtained the fhy3-68 single mutant. The number of carpels of fhy3-68 was  $2.61 \pm 0.6$  (n = 50), which was similar to that of fhy3-4 plants in the No-0 background (3.2  $\pm$  0.5, n = 50), indicated enhanced or prolonged FM activity of fhy3 (Fig. 1F and Fig. S1D). Taken together, these findings show that FHY3 is required for FM determinacy in Arabidopsis. In addition, we noticed that compared with the wild-type, the inflorescences of fhy3-68 were smaller (Fig. 1 G-I) and the SAM size of fhy3-68 was dramatically reduced (Fig. 1 J and K), indicating that FHY3 is also required for proper SAM maintenance, consistent with the high expression level of FHY3 in SAM and FM (Fig. S1 E and F).

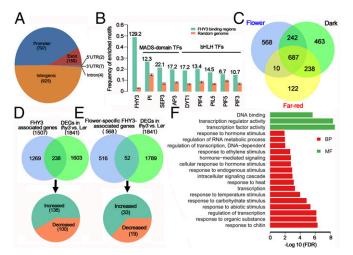
wus Is Epistatic to fhy3 in FM Determinacy. WUS plays a pivotal role in FM initiation, maintenance, and determinacy (2), and several genes have been characterized as FM determinacy factors through their regulation of WUS expression (4). To dissect the interaction between FHY3 and WUS in FM determinacy, we performed in situ hybridization to assess the temporal-spatial expression pattern of WUS. In wild-type, WUS expression is shut off at stage 6 of flower development (23). In ag-10 plants, most flowers have normal WUS expression patterns, whereas a few flowers exhibit WUS expression until stage 7 (Fig. S2 A and B) (9). For fhy3-68, the tested flowers (n = 9) showed slight WUS expression at the end of stage 6, indicating slightly prolonged WUS expression (Fig. S2C). All of the fhy3-68 ag-10 stage 9 flowers examined (n = 9) had obviously prolonged WUS expression (Fig. S2D), showing that FHY3 is required for the temporally precise repression of WUS. To determine the genetic relationship of FHY3 and WUS, we crossed fhy3-68 ag-10 with the wus-1 loss-of-function mutant (2). wus-1 flowers exhibited premature FM termination with normal sepals and petals and one or two stamens (Fig. S2E). The precocious termination of fhy3-68 ag-10 wus-1 flowers resembled that of wus-1 flowers (Fig. S2F), demonstrating that wus-1 was epistatic to fhy3-68 ag-10.

To investigate whether FHY3 is a direct transcriptional regulator of WUS, we used an FHY3:FHY3-GR fhy3-4 transgenic line (20). After 4- and 8-h treatment with dexamethasone (DEX) or dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO, as a negative control), WUS expression was similar in both treatments (Fig. S2G). Additionally,

the ChIP-quantitative PCR (qPCR) data using the 35S:3FLAG-FHY3-3HA fhy3-4 transgenic line (21) revealed no significant enrichment of FHY3 binding activity at the WUS locus, indicating that WUS is not a direct target gene of FHY3 (Fig. S2H).

AG is the major FM terminator and acts via WUS repression (7). Thus, AG expression was analyzed to assess the relationship between FHY3 and AG in FM determinacy. AG transcript levels were normal in fhy3-68 and fhy3-68 ag-10 compared with Ler and ag-10, respectively (Fig. S21). In addition, the expression of FHY3 was not affected in ag-1 compared with Ler (Fig. S21), indicating that FHY3 and AG do not regulate each other. RT-qPCR assays using DEX- and DMSO-treated FHY3:FHY3-GR fhy3-4 transgenic plants revealed no significant change in AG transcript levels after DEX treatment, further indicating that FHY3 does not regulate AG expression (Fig. S2K). These results suggest that FHY3 may act independently of the AG pathway in FM determinacy.

Genome-Wide Identification of FHY3 Binding Sites. To investigate the molecular mechanisms underlying the FHY3 functions in flower development, we performed ChIP-seq analysis using a 35S:3FLAG-FHY3-3HA fhy3-4 transgenic line (21) to identify the binding sites of FHY3 in floral organs. Inflorescences containing stage 8 and younger flowers were harvested for ChIP-seq analysis. We identified 1,885 FHY3 binding sites (FBSs, P < 5e-3) distributed across the five chromosomes (Fig. S3A and Dataset S1), of which 51% (960) were subsequently assigned to genic regions [from -2,000 bp of the transcription start site (TSS) to the 3'UTR] and grouped into 1,507 genes (Dataset S1), which were referred to as FHY3-associated genes. The remaining 49% (925) FBSs were localized in intergenic regions. Consistent with a previous report (21), 74% (688) of the intergenic FBSs resided in centromeric regions (Fig. 2A). FHY1, CIRCADIAN CLOCK ASSOCIATED1 (CCA1), and EARLY FLOWERING4 (ELF4) are well-characterized FHY3 target genes (21). Specific enrichment of FHY3 was detected in the promoter regions rather than the transcribed regions of these genes, confirming the reliability of our ChIP-seq data (Fig. S3B).



**Fig. 2.** Genome-wide identification of FHY3 binding sites and target genes. (A) Classification of FHY3 binding sites in the *Arabidopsis* genome. The numbers of binding sites are indicated in parentheses. (B) The binding motifs of several TFs were significantly enriched around the FHY3 binding peaks compared with randomly selected genomic regions. The numbers on the top of columns are *z*-scores computed from the permutation test. A *z*-score of 2 or above is considered statistically significant. (C) Venn diagram showing the number and overlap of FHY3-associated genes in flower and seedling under D and FR conditions. (D and E) The FHY3 ChIP-seq data and RNA-seq data were compared to identify FHY3 target genes (D) and flower-specific FHY3 target genes (E). (F) Enrichment of GO terms among flower-specific FHY3 target genes. BP, biological process; MF, molecular function.

Further analysis revealed that more than 42% of the FBSs occurred in promoter and TSS regions of annotated Arabidopsis genes, with the peak regions located at -2,000 to +200 bp from the TSS, confirming the role of FHY3 as a TF (Fig. S3C). We next searched for significantly enriched motifs in FBSs using the Multiple Em for Motif Elicitation (MEME) program, and the FBS motif (CACGCGC) (E-value = 7.4e-244) was identified (Fig. S3D). One or more FBS motifs were found in 47% of the identified FBSs, indicating that FHY3 may bind other motifs or coordinately regulate target genes with other factors (24). To find potential FHY3 cofactors, we investigated whether the binding motifs of other known plant TFs were present in FBSs. Interestingly, the binding motifs of three flower-specific MADS-domain TFs, PISTILLATA (PI), SEP3, and APETALA3 (AP3), were significantly enriched in FBSs (Fig. 2B). Moreover, the binding motifs of PHYTOCHROME INTERACTING FACTOR 3, -4, and -5 (PIF3, -4, and -5) and PHYTOCHROME INTERACTING FACTOR 3-LIKE 5 (PIL5), a group of basic helix-loop-helix (bHLH) TFs that mediate light signal in photomorphogenesis, were also enriched around the FHY3 binding peaks (Fig. 2B). ChIP-qPCR assays showed that the promoters of 10 randomly chosen target genes were indeed bound by FHY3 and one of the aforementioned TFs (Fig. S3E), confirming that these TFs are cofactors of FHY3. These results suggest that FHY3 functions synergistically with flower-specific MADS-domain TFs and bHLH TFs to regulate flower development. Using ChIP-seq data from a previous study (21), we identified 1,630 and 1,057 FHY3-associated genes in seedlings under dark (D) and FR conditions, respectively. A comparison of FHY3-associated genes under three tissues/conditions (D, FR, and flower) uncovered 687 genes that were commonly bound by FHY3 under three tissues/conditions and 568 genes (38% of total genes) that were bound by FHY3 specifically in floral organs (Fig. 2C).

Identification of FHY3 Target Genes in Floral Organs. To identify FHY3 target genes in floral organs, we compared the geneexpression profiles in the inflorescences containing stage 8 and younger flowers from Ler, ag-10, fhy3-68, and fhy3-68 ag-10 using RNA-seq. For each genotype, the expression profiles of two biological replicates were highly correlated with each other (Fig. S3F), indicating that our RNA-seq data were highly reproducible. Using edgeR, we identified differentially expressed genes (DEGs) for each pairwise comparison using false-discovery rate (FDR) < 0.05 as significance cut-off (Fig. S3G and Dataset S2). Compared with Ler, a very small number of DEGs (29 up-regulated and 3 down-regulated genes) were found in the ag-10 sample, consistent with its weak FM determinacy defects. Among the DEGs in fhy3-68 vs. Ler, 78% (1,442 of 1,841 DEGs) were up-regulated (Fig. S3G and Dataset S2), indicating that FHY3 plays a repressive role in flower development.

Comparing the results of the ChIP-seq and RNA-seq analyses defined 238 FHY3 target genes that were bound directly and transcriptionally regulated by FHY3 in flower development (Fig. 2D and Dataset S3), of which 58% (138 genes) were up-regulated and 42% (100 genes) were down-regulated in fhy3-68 (Fig. 2D). Based on the specific binding sites in flower (Fig. 2C), we identified 52 flower-specific FHY3 target genes, of which 63% (33 genes) were up-regulated in fhy3-68, once again suggesting a repressive role of FHY3 in flower development (Fig. 2E and Dataset S3). Gene Ontology (GO) analysis of the DEGs between fhy3-68 vs. Ler revealed that GO terms related to cell cycle, DNA metabolism, and cell division were enriched in FHY3 up-regulated genes, and GO terms related to defense or immune response, cell death, and hormone signaling were enriched in FHY3 down-regulated genes (Fig. S3 H and I), indicating that FHY3 functions in cell proliferation and environmental and hormone response. Notably, among the flower-specific FHY3 target genes, genes assigned to the terms "transcription factor activity,"

"transcription regulator activity," and "DNA binding" in the "molecular function" category were highly enriched (Fig. 2F), suggesting that these genes may function as early target genes of FHY3 in flower development.

SEP1 and SEP2 Are FHY3 Target Genes. SEP genes have fundamental roles in floral organ identity and FM determinacy. Our genomewide analyses revealed that SEP1 and SEP2 were putative target genes of FHY3 (Dataset S3). Real-time RT-PCR analysis showed that SEP genes are differentially regulated by FHY3. SEP1 and SEP2 were down-regulated in fhy3-68 ag-10 inflorescences and SEP3 transcripts increased in fhy3-68 (Fig. S4A). The Integrative Genomics Viewer (IGV) showed that FHY3-FLAG peaks were located at the promoter regions of SEP1 and SEP2, respectively (Fig. 3A). We conducted ChIP-qPCR to confirm the occupancy of FHY3 at SEP1 and SEP2 in 35S:3FLAG-FHY3-3HA fly3-4 inflorescences (21). Significant enrichment of FHY3 at the TSS regions but not the intragenic regions of SEP1 and SEP2 (Fig. 3B) demonstrated the direct and specific binding of FHY3 at the promoters of SEP1 and SEP2. We also asked whether FHY3 directly regulates SEP1 and SEP2. In FHY3:FHY3-GR fhy3-4 transgenic plants treated with DEX or DMSO, SEP1 and SEP2 were induced after DEX or DEX/cycloheximide (CHX; a protein synthesis inhibitor) treatment but not DMSO or CHX (Fig. 3C), indicating that FHY3 induces SEP1 and SEP2 expression independent of new protein synthesis (Fig. 3C and Fig. S4B). Collectively, these findings show that SEP1 and SEP2 are FHY3 direct target genes in floral organs.

SEP2-Mediated FHY3 Functions in FM Determinacy. To investigate whether the FHY3 involvement in FM determinacy is mediated by SEP1 and SEP2, SEP1 and SEP2 overexpression constructs under the CaMV35S promoter were generated as previously described (14) and then transformed into an ag-10 fhy3-68/+

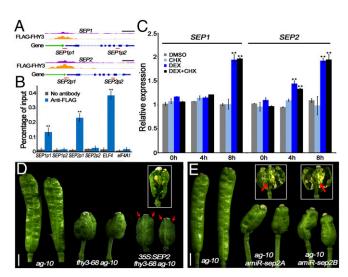


Fig. 3. SEP2 mediates the function of FHY3 in FM determinacy. (A) The FHY3-FLAG ChIP-seq peaks (two biological replicates) at SEP1 and SEP2 revealed in IGV. FLAG-FHY3 peaks (purple and orange), gene structure, and the regions examined by ChIP are shown in the top, middle, and bottom rows, respectively. (Scale bars, 500 bp.) (B) ChIP to measure FHY3 occupancy at SEP1 and SEP2 in 35S:3FLAG-FHY3-3HA fhy3-4 inflorescences. The regions examined are shown in A. eIF4A1 served as a negative control. Error bars represent SD from three biological replicates. \*\*P < 0.01 compared with no antibody (negative control). (C) The transcript levels of SEP1 and SEP2 in FHY3:FHY3-GR fhy3-4 inflorescences measured by RT-qPCR. Ubiquitin 5 (UBQ5) served as the internal control. Three biological replicates were performed. Error bars represent SD from three biological repeats. \*\*P < 0.01. (D and E) Siliques from plants of the indicated genotypes. Carpels were indicated by red arrows; Sliced open siliques were indicated by white arrows. (Scale bars, 1 mm.)

population. Compared with fhy3-68 ag-10 plants, all of the 35S: SEP1 fhy3-68 ag-10 and 35S:SEP2 fhy3-68 ag-10 transgenic plants exhibited an early flowering phenotype (Fig. S4 *C–E*). Real-time RT-PCR confirmed that SEP1 and SEP2 were overexpressed in the transgenic plants (Fig. S4F). Although SEP1 overexpression in 35S:SEP1 fhy3-68 ag-10 plants (n = 12) failed to rescue the FM determinacy defects (Fig. S4D), the siliques of 35S:SEP2 fhy3-68 ag-10 transgenic plants (n = 8) were composed of two carpels with normal gynophores (Fig. 3D and Fig. S4E). Moreover, sliced open siliques showed no more layered carpeloid organs growing inside (compare the *Inset* in Fig. 3D to Fig. S1B), indicating that SEP2 overexpression rescued the FM determinacy defects of fhy3-68 ag-10. However, it failed to rescue the small inflorescence, short petal, and sterile anther phenotypes of fhy3-68 ag-10 (Fig. S4E). These findings indicate that SEP2 only mediates the function of FHY3 in FM determinacy.

To avoid the pleiotropic phenotypes resulted from constitutive overexpression of SEP2, we generated a SEP3:SEP2 fhy3-68 ag-10 transgene because SEP3 expression was flower-specific and unchanged in fhy3-68 ag-10 (Fig. S4A). Although they showed normal development at the vegetative stage, the transgenic plants also produced short siliques because of the sterile anther (Fig. S4 G and H). The siliques were composed of  $2.2 \pm 0.3$ carpels (n = 30) (Fig. S4H) and sliced-open siliques contained fewer additional organs growing inside than those of fhy3-68 ag-10 (Fig. S4I), indicating that the SEP3:SEP2 transgene could mainly rescue the FM indeterminacy of fhy3-68 ag-10. Real-time PCR analysis showed that the expression of SEP2 reached normal level in the transgenic plants as in Ler (Fig. S4J), indicating that other factors may also mediate the function of FHY3 in FM determinacy besides SEP2.

To further confirm the role of SEP2 in FM determinacy, two artificial miRNAs (amiRNAs) targeting SEP2 (amiR-sep2A and amiR-sep2B) were generated and introduced into the ag-10. All amiR-sep2A ag-10 plants (n = 15) and a small percentage of amiR-sep2B ag-10 plants (8 of 52) produced more bulged siliques with additional organs growing inside, similar to the phenotype of fhy3-68 ag-10 (Fig. 3E). Thus, reduced SEP2 expression enhanced the FM indeterminacy of ag-10. qPCR analysis confirmed the reduced expression of SEP2 but not SEP1 in the amiR-sep2 ag-10 lines (Fig. S4K). Taken together, these findings show that SEP2 mediates the functions of FHY3 in FM determinacy.

FHY3 Contributes to SAM and FM Regulation by Directly Repressing **CLV3.** Besides the FM determinacy defects, we found the SAM maintenance was impaired in the *fhy3-68* mutant (Fig. 1 *J* and *K*). It is well established that CLV3 encodes a secreted peptide that restricts the domain of WUS expression and the size of the stem cell domain (5). We therefore examined the genetic relationship between FHY3 and CLV3. Like clv3-1, fhy3-68 clv3-1 produced a larger SAM than Ler and fhy3-68 (Fig. S5 A-C), indicating that clv3 is epistatic to fhy3 in SAM maintenance. Consistent with these observations, qPCR revealed increased CLV3 transcript levels in fhy3-68 and fhy3-68 ag-10, compared with Ler and ag-10, respectively (Fig. S5D). In situ hybridization was then used to detect CLV3 and WUS expression in Ler and fhy3-68. Whereas CLV3 expression increased and expanded in the SAM of fhy3-68 (Fig. 4 A and B), WUS expression decreased in the SAM of fhy3-68 compared with Ler but remained unchanged in the early stage of FM (Fig. 4 C and D). These findings indicate that CLV3 mediates FHY3 function in the SAM by regulating WUS expression to balance the stem cell pool and SAM size.

We next examined the genetic relationship of FHY3 and CLV3 in FM determinacy. In the clv3-1 mutant, the number of floral organs, particularly the stamen number  $(7.7 \pm 0.5; n = 50)$  and carpel number (4.8  $\pm$  0.6; n = 50), increased (Fig. 4E). The FM indeterminacy of fhy3-68 clv3-1 was more severe than that of clv3-1, with increased stamen number (8.5  $\pm$  0.5; n = 20) and unfused

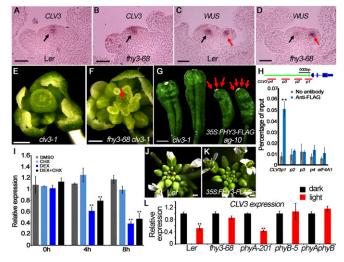


Fig. 4. CLV3 mediates FHY3 functions in regulating the stem cell pool in the SAM and FM meristem activity. (A-D) In situ hybridization to examine the expression of CLV3 (A and B) and WUS (C and D) in Ler (A and C) and fhy3-68 (B and D), CLV3 signals are marked by a black arrow in A and B. WUS signals are marked by a black arrow in SAM and a red arrow in FM in C and D. (E and F) Flowers of clv3-1 (E) and fhy3-68 clv3-1 (F). Dome-shaped meristem is marked by a red arrow. (G) Representative siliques of clv3-1 (Left) and 35S: FHY3-FLAG ag-10 (Right) plants. Carpels are marked by red arrows. (H) ChIP to measure FHY3 occupancy at CLV3 in 35S:3FLAG-FHY3-3HA fhy3-4 inflorescences. The regions examined are shown on the Upper panel. CLV3 gene structure was shown. (Scale bar, 500 bp.) eIF4A1 served as a negative control. Error bars represent SD from three biological replicates. \*\*P < 0.01 compared with no antibody (negative control). (I) The CLV3 transcript levels in FHY3: FHY3-GR fhy3-4 inflorescences measured by RT-qPCR. (J and K) Inflorescence of Ler (J) and 35S:FHY3-FLAG (K). 35S:FHY3-FLAG developed a larger inflorescence containing more unopened buds than Ler. (L) The CLV3 transcript levels in seedlings of indicated plants after light treatment measured by RT-qPCR. In I and L, UBQ5 served as the internal control. Three biological replicates were performed. Error bars represent SD from three biological repeats. \*\*P < 0.01. (Scale bars: 50  $\mu$ m in A–D and 500  $\mu$ m in E–G, J, and K.)

carpels with a dome-shaped meristem growing inside (Fig. 4F). The enhanced FM indeterminacy of  $fhy3-68\ clv3-1$  was consistent with the finding that FHY3 acts in CLV3 pathway besides the SEP2 pathway to regulate WUS expression in FM determinacy. Accordingly, we found that  $16\%\ (n=50)$  siliques of  $35S:FHY3-FLAG\ ag-10$  plants were composed of three or more fused carpels, similar to those of weak clv3 mutants (Fig. 4G). qPCR revealed decreased CLV3 transcript levels in the inflorescence of  $35S:FHY3-FLAG\ ag-10$  compared with  $ag-10\ (Fig. S5E)$ .

We performed additional ChIP-qPCR to investigate whether *CLV3* is an FHY3 direct target gene. The high occupancy of FHY3 in the upstream region of the *CLV3* TSS instead of other tested regions suggested that FHY3 binds specifically to the *CLV3* promoter (Fig. 4H). We then examined the *CLV3* expression in *FHY3:FHY3-GR flny3-4* plants treated with DEX and DEX/CHX or DMSO and CHX (control). RT-qPCR revealed severely attenuated *CLV3* transcript levels in the DEX- or DEX/CHX-treated plants within 4 h of treatment (Fig. 4I), indicating that FHY3 directly represses *CLV3*. Correspondingly, the *35S:FHY3-FLAG* plants developed larger inflorescences that contained more unopened buds than *Ler* (Fig. 4 I and K and Fig. S5F). Taken together, these results suggest that FHY3 functions in FM determinacy and SAM maintenance by directly repressing *CLV3*.

**FHY3** Mediates the Light-Repressed *CLV3* Expression. A recent report showed that light regulates meristem activity by activating cytokinin signaling and repressing *CLV3* expression (18). To investigate whether *FHY3* is involved in light-regulated meristem activity, we

grew seedlings 4 d in the dark after germination, followed by 12-h light treatment and examined the *CLV3* expression in diverse genotypes. As expected, *CLV3* expression was repressed by light in the wild-type plants (Fig. 4L). However, *CLV3* expression did not change significantly in *flny3-68* before and after light treatment (Fig. 4L), indicating that *FHY3* is essential for light-regulated expression of *CLV3* in SAM. Unexpectedly and interestingly, light-repressed *CLV3* expression was observed in the *phyA* mutant, but not in *phyB* and *phyAphyB* mutants (Fig. 4L), indicating that phyB, but not phyA, may be involved in the light-regulated meristem activity. The interaction of *FHY3* and phyB in light-regulated meristem activity is an open and interesting question.

#### Discussion

Plant meristem maintenance and determinacy are critical for plant growth, life cycle, and crop yield. Most studies have been focused on the cross-talk between phytohormones, such as auxin and cytokinin, and gene expression in these processes (25, 26). Little is known whether, and if so how, external signals like light and temperature contribute to meristem regulation. FHY3 is known to play pivotal roles in the phyA signaling and the circadian clock pathways, and other developmental and physiological processes at the vegetative stage (22), but its roles in the reproductive stage remain unclear. Our findings describe the previously unknown functions of FHY3 in SAM maintenance, FM determinacy, as well as petal and stamen development during flower development (Figs. 1 and 3F). Previous studies have shown that most of FHY3 target genes (99% in FR or 78% in D) were activated, indicating that FHY3 mainly acts as a transcriptional activator in seedlings (21). In this study, we identified hundreds flower-specific FHY3-associated genes (Fig. 2C), suggesting that FHY3 has distinctive roles in flower development. Of the DEGs identified in fhy3-68 vs. Ler, 78% were up-regulated, indicating that FHY3 mainly functions as a transcriptional repressor in flower development (Fig. S3G). Notably, the expressions of MYB77 in ethylene signaling, BTB AND TAZ DOMAIN PROTEIN4 (BT4) in gibberellin signaling, and MYBR1 in ABA, auxin, and ethylene signaling were activated in seedlings but repressed in flowers by FHY3 (Dataset S3) (21). The enrichment of genes related to cell cycle, DNA metabolic process, and DNA replication genes among the FHY3-activated genes (Fig. S3H), and the clustering of FHY3 intergenic binding sites in centromeric regions (Fig. S34), raise the possibility that FHY3 may also function in cell division and epigenetic regulation. These findings underscore how the same TF may have vastly different roles in different organs and developmental stages.

Certain cis-elements, such as the G-box and GCC-box that are bound by bHLH TFs (like PIL5 and PIF3) and bZIP TFs, are enriched around the FHY3 binding sites in the vegetative stage (21). Here, we show that the binding motifs of bHLH TFs PIF3, -4, -5, and PIL5, which mediate light signal in photomorphogenesis, were significantly enriched around the FHY3 binding sites (Fig. 2B and Fig. S3E), indicating that FHY3- and PIFs-mediated light signaling may function in flower development. Furthermore, the binding motifs of AP3, PI, and SEP3 were also enriched in the FHY3 binding regions (Fig. 2B and Fig. S3E). Given that AP3 and PI, B-class MADS-domain TFs, form a protein complex with SEP3 to function in sepal and stamen development (27), our results suggest that FHY3 may coregulate sepal and stamen development with AP3, PI, and SEP3, consistent with the sepal and stamen developmental defects of fhy3 ag-10 (Fig. 1D). Remarkably, we find that FHY3 and phyB are involved in light-repressed CLV3 expression (Fig. 4L). The relationship between FHY3 and pyhB in this process awaits further investigation (Fig. S64). Combined with recent reports that light could regulate stem cell activity (18), and that two key meristem regulatory genes, BASIC PENTACYSTEINE 3 (BPC3) and AG were uniquely bound by light signal transducer FHY1 and phyA, respectively (28), our results highlight the possibility that FHY3 may act as a bridge molecule in the cross-talk between endogenous cues and external signals to coordinate plant development.

The CLV3/WUS feedback loop was well characterized in meristem maintenance (5). However, more detailed mechanisms in this process are unclear. It was recently reported that HECATE1 (HEC1) is repressed by WUS and in turn represses CLV3 to finetune the balance of stem cell proliferation (29). The present findings add FHY3 as a new player in this regulation system. We propose that FHY3 indirectly regulates WUS expression and stem cell pool maintenance through a direct target gene, CLV3 (Fig. S64). How FHY3 coordinates with HEC1 in terms of stem cell pool maintenance is an open question. Meanwhile, we noticed that the SAM size of fhy3-68 was small but the SAM size of fhy3-68 clv3-1 was larger than that of clv3-1 (Fig. S5 A and B). Therefore, the possibility that FHY3 directly promotes cell proliferation in the SAM besides the CLV3 pathway cannot be ruled out because RNA-seq and GO analysis showed that FHY3-induced genes were enriched for "cell cycle" and "DNA replication" genes (Figs. S3H and S5G).

The small SAM size of fhy3 as a result of the de-repressed CLV3 expression and the reduced WUS expression was paradoxical to the severe FM indeterminacy of fhy3 ag-10 with prolonged WUS expression, which indicates that FHY3 may act through a genetic pathway parallel to the CLV3 pathway in the FM determinacy because the temporal expression of WUS is more important than its relative expression level for FM activity

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regulation (30). Subsequently, this hypothesis was reinforced by the identification of SEP1 and SEP2 as FHY3 target genes. Overexpression of SEP2 but not SEP1 rescued the FM indeterminacy of fhy3-68 ag-10, and reduced SEP2 expression in ag-10 resulted in FM indeterminacy similar to those of fhy3-68 ag-10 (Fig. 3E and Fig. S4E). It nevertheless remains possible that SEP1 coordinates SEP2 in promoting FM determinacy because the SEP3:SEP2 transgene could only mainly rescue FM indeterminacy of fhy3-68 ag-10. Therefore, it is highly possible that other factors may mediate the function of FHY3 in FM determinacy (Fig. S6B). Collectively, the present findings reveal the dual roles of FHY3 in regulating meristem activity (Fig. S6), and therefore give insights into the mechanisms of SAM maintenance and FM determinacy.

#### **Materials and Methods**

All plants were grown in soil and maintained in a greenhouse at 23  $^{\circ}\text{C}$  under LD conditions (16 h of light/8 h of dark). Standard genetic and molecular biology techniques were used for crossing and for the construction of plasmids. Quantitative real-time PCR, in situ hybridization, and ChIP were performed as previously described (9). The primers used for genotyping and construction are listed in Table S1. Details are provided in SI Materials and Methods.

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