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# **RESEARCH PAPER**

# Polycomb proteins control floral determinacy by H3K27me3mediated repression of pluripotency genes in *Arabidopsis thaliana*

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# Abstract

Polycomb group (PcG) protein-mediated histone methylation (H3K27me3) controls the correct spatiotemporal expression of numerous developmental regulators in Arabidopsis. Epigenetic silencing of the stem cell factor gene *WUSCHEL* (*WUS*) in floral meristems (FMs) depends on H3K27me3 deposition by PcG proteins. However, the role of H3K27me3 in silencing of other meristematic regulator and pluripotency genes during FM determinacy has not yet been studied. To this end, we report the genome-wide dynamics of H3K27me3 levels during FM arrest and the consequences of strongly depleted PcG activity on early flower morphogenesis including enlarged and indeterminate FMs. Strong depletion of H3K27me3 levels results in misexpression of the FM identity gene *AGL24*, which partially causes floral reversion leading to *ap1*-like flowers and indeterminate FMs ectopically expressing *WUS* and *SHOOT MERISTEMLESS* (*STM*). Loss of *STM* can rescue supernumerary floral organs and FM indeterminacy in H3K27me3-deficient flowers, indicating that the hyperactivity of the FMs is at least partially a result of ectopic *STM* expression. Nonetheless, *WUS* remained essential for the FM activity. Our results demonstrate that PcG proteins promote FM determinacy at multiple levels of the floral gene regulatory network, silencing initially floral regulators such as *AGL24* that promotes FM indeterminacy and, subsequently, meristematic pluripotency genes such as *WUS* and *STM* during FM arrest.

**Keywords:** Epigenetic gene regulation, floral organ specification, floral stem cell determinacy, flower development, MADS box genes, PCG proteins.

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# Introduction

In plants, the epigenetic machinery provides stable gene expression patterns, which enable the formation of various tissues and whole organs including roots, shoots, and flowers (Xiao et al., 2017; Jing et al., 2020). All aerial parts of plants are formed from the shoot apical meristem (SAM) (Nägeli, 1858) carrying a self-maintaining stem cell pool that enables lifelong organogenesis (Williams and Fletcher, 2005; Soyars et al., 2016). The homeostasis of this stem cell niche depends on a negative feedback loop in Arabidopsis thaliana (Arabidopsis): the transcription factor (TF) WUSCHEL (WUS) is expressed in cells of the organizing center (OC) directly underneath the stem cells. Intercellular movement of WUS from the OC to the stem cells at the top of the SAM is required for non-cell-autonomous maintenance of the stem cells and activates the stem cellspecific CLAVATA 3 (CLV3) gene encoding a small secreted signal peptide (Fletcher et al., 1999; Schoof et al., 2000; Yadav et al., 2011; Daum et al., 2014). In turn, the CLV3 peptide is perceived by receptor kinases including CLAVATA 1 (CLV1) and CLV2-CORYNE (CRN) in the underlying cells of the OC to dampen WUS expression (Brand et al., 2000; Müller et al., 2006, 2008). In this feedback loop, WUS promotes stem cell fate and CLV3 expression, while CLV3 represses WUS. This feedback regulation maintains the size of the OC and stem cell niche and, ultimately, the size and function of the SAM (Somssich et al., 2016). Furthermore, several members of the homeodomain (HD) TF superfamily play a vital role in determining meristem functions including the BEL1-like (BELL) members PENNYWISE (PNY) and POUNDFOOLISH (PNF) and the four members of the KNOX/KNAT (for KNOTTED-like from Arabidopsis thaliana) class I, SHOOT MERISTEMLESS (STM), BREVIPEDICELLUS (BP)/KNAT1, KNAT2, and KNAT6 (Scofield and Murray, 2006). Recently, it was shown that WUS-STM protein interaction enhances the binding of WUS to the CLV3 promoter, which in turn is required to regulate CLV3 expression and to maintain a constant number of stem cells (Su et al., 2020).

After transition from the vegetative to the reproductive phase, the SAM converts into an inflorescence meristem (IM) producing flowers at its flanks. The floral meristems (FMs) generate primordia of the flower organs which are organized in four whorls: four sepals in whorl 1, four petals in whorl 2, six stamens in whorl 3, and two fused carpels in whorl 4 (Alvarez-Buylla et al., 2010). Antagonistic interaction between the IM identity genes, TERMINAL FLOWER 1 (TFL1) and AGAMOUS-LIKE 24 (AGL24), and the FM identity genes, LEAFY (LFY), APETALA 1 (AP1), and CAULIFLOWER (CAL), maintains the identity of both types of SAMs (Bradley et al., 1997; Liljegren et al., 1999; Ratcliffe et al., 1999). AP1 and CAL encode MADS domain TFs that have partially redundant activities involved in the formation of FMs by repression of TFL1 (Ratcliffe et al., 1999; Kempin et al., 1995). In turn, TFL1 bars AP1 and LFY expression in IMs (Liljegren *et al.*, 1999; Ratcliffe *et al.*, 1999). *LFY* encodes a plant-specific TF that activates *AP1* but also *TFL1* expression, suggesting that *LFY* and *AP1/CAL* have partially antagonistic activities in the control of floral initiation (Goslin *et al.*, 2017; Serrano-Mislata *et al.*, 2017).

The ABC model describes how a few genes act together to specify the four types of flower organs (Coen and Meyerowitz, 1991; Causier *et al.*, 2010): sepals are specified by A-function genes, petals by a combination of A- and B-function genes, stamens by B- and C-function genes, and C-function alone specifies carpels. LFY activates the expression of the ABCtype MADS domain TFs AP1 (class A), APETALA 3 and PISTILLATA (AP3 and PI; both class B), and AGAMOUS (AG; class C) that also terminates *WUS* expression in FMs (Causier *et al.*, 2010). The molecular basis of floral organ identity specification is the combinatorial formation of tetrameric complexes between the ABC-type MADS domain TFs with the E function MADS domain TFs, SEPALLATA 1–4 (SEP1– SEP4) (Pelaz *et al.*, 2000; Ditta *et al.*, 2004; Melzer *et al.*, 2009).

FM specification also requires the down-regulation of the MADS box and flowering time genes FRUITFULL (FUL), SUPPRESSOR OF OVEREXPRESSION OF CONSTANS 1 (SOC1), SHORT VEGETATIVE PHASE (SVP), and AGL24 by direct binding of AP1 (Yu et al., 2004; Liu et al., 2007; Alvarez-Buylla et al., 2010; Chu et al., 2010; Kaufmann et al., 2010). Overexpression of AGL24 causes FMs to revert to IMs, phenocopying ap1 mutant flowers with secondary flowers in the axils of leaf-like sepals (Yu et al., 2004; Liu et al., 2007). During stage 1 and 2 of flower development, AGL24 and SVP form dimers with AP1 to repress directly the class B, C, and E floral homeotic genes AP3, PI, AG, and SEP3 (Gregis et al., 2006, 2009; Liu et al., 2009). AGL24 and SVP are also FM identity genes since the ap1 svp agl24 triple mutant continuously produces IMs in place of flowers (Gregis et al., 2008). Furthermore, AGL24 acts redundantly with SOC1, SVP, and SEP4, directly suppressing TFL1 in emerging FMs, which prevents floral reversion (Liu et al., 2013). These findings indicate that AGL24 has features of an IM as well as an FM identity gene.

All above-mentioned TFs are targets of the epigenetic repressive mark H3K27me3 (tri-methylation of Lys27 on histone H3), which is associated with Polycomb (PcG) function (Zhang *et al.*, 2007; Lafos *et al.*, 2011). The SET domaincontaining histone methyltransferase (HMT) Enhancer of zeste [E(z)], which is the catalytic subunit of the Polycomb Repressive Complex 2 (PRC2), silences PcG target genes by H3K27me3 (Schuettengruber *et al.*, 2017). In Arabidopsis, E(z) is encoded by three homologs including *CURLY LEAF* (*CLF*) and *SWINGER* (*SWN*) (Spillane *et al.*, 2000; Mozgova and Hennig, 2015). One further core component of PRC2 is Suppressor of zeste 12 [Su(z)12], which is encoded by three homologs including *EMBRYONIC FLOWER 2* (*EMF2*) and VERNALIZATION 2 (VRN2) in Arabidopsis (Chanvivattana et al., 2004). Like CLF and SWN, EMF2 and VRN2 are essential for the post-embryonic development since severe emf2-3 vrn2-1 and clf swn mutant seedlings form only callus-like tissue after germination (Schubert et al., 2005). Recently, we introduced two plant lines with strongly depleted PcG activity, clf-28 swn-7 CLF-GR (iCLF) and emf2-10 vrn2-1 double mutants, which form leaves and shoots bearing flowers with diverse defects, although global H3K27me3 levels are highly reduced (Lafos et al., 2011; Müller-Xing et al., 2014, 2015).

Normal flower development requires both initiation and termination of the floral stem cell niche by the balance between the positive stem cell factor WUS and the negative regulator AG, which form a positive–negative feedback loop (Lenhard *et al.*, 2001; Lohmann *et al.*, 2001; Ming and Ma, 2009). After initiating in stage 2, WUS activates, together with LFY, the expression of AG. In turn, AG represses *WUS* expression that completely vanishes during floral stage 6, followed by loss of the floral stem cell pool (Lenhard *et al.*, 2001; Lohmann *et al.*, 2001). The silencing of *WUS* is accompanied by direct recruitment of PRC2 and, subsequently, H3K27me3 deposition at the *WUS* chromatin (Liu *et al.*, 2011; Sun *et al.*, 2019). Nevertheless, the significance of H3K27me3 deposition for gene silencing of other meristematic genes during termination of the floral stem cell population remained largely unclear.

In our study, we explored the impact of cumulative H3K27me3 levels on early flower morphogenesis using a combined approach of mutant analyses and genome-wide profiling of H3K27me3. Strongly depleted PcG activity results in enlarged and indeterminate FMs consistent with increased and prolonged stem cell activity. Surprisingly, we found evidence that this hyperactivity of the FMs is partially independent of WUS expression levels, giving rise to the possibility that PcG proteins control FM size and determinacy also through silencing of other meristematic regulators. We identified candidates by genome-wide H3K27me3 profiling during FM arrest and, subsequently, expression analysis in PcG mutants. Based on our double mutant and gene expression studies, we propose that the H3K27me3-mediated silencing of AGL24 and STM is of similar importance as silencing of WUS for the control of FM determinacy by PcG proteins.

#### Materials and methods

#### Plant materials and growth conditions

Arabidopsis thaliana (L.) Heynh. plants were grown at 21 °C under long-day (16 h light/8 h dark) conditions, unless indicated otherwise. *iCLF (clf-28 swn-7 CLFpro::CLF-GR,* in Col-0 background), *emf2-10 vrn2-1* (Ws-0), and *emf2-10 vrn2-1* backcrossed to La-0 were described previously (Lafos *et al.*, 2011; Müller-Xing et al., 2014, 2015). *emf2-10 vrn2-1* (La-0) was backcrossed to Ler-0 to generate *emf2-10 vrn2-1 erecta (ev er)* to obtain an Arabidopsis line with strongly depleted PcG activity in the *er* mutant background. In each experiment, the corresponding ecotype was used as the wild type control. *agl24-1* mutants (Michaels *et al.*, 2003) and *STM::GUS* (Kirch *et al.*, 2003) were kindly provided by R.M. Amasino and Wolfgang Werr, respectively. *clf-28 swn-7*, *dv1-11*, *dv3-2*, *crn-1*, *wws-1*, *WUS::GUS*, and *LEAFY::GUS* were previously described (Laux *et al.*, 1996; Blázquez *et al.*, 1997; Fletcher *et al.*, 1999; Gross-Hardt *et al.*, 2002; Diévart *et al.*, 2003; Schubert *et al.*, 2005; Müller *et al.*, 2008). *ap1-1* (Irish and Sussex, 1990) was obtained from the Nottingham Arabidopsis Stock Centre. The 35S::AP1-GR ap1-1 cal-1 line (Wellmer *et al.*, 2006) was kindly provided by Frank Wellmer and Yuling Jiao. After 3 weeks of short days (8 h light/16 h dark), the 35S::AP1-GR ap1-1 cal-1 plants were shifted to long days and, 5 d later, induced with dexamethasone. We crossed *clv1-11*, *crn-1*, *clv3-2*, *wus-1*, *ap1-1*, *ag124-1*, and *bum1-3* to *emf2-10 vrn2-1* and/or *iCLF*, to generate triple mutants. Furthermore, we generated *emf2-10 vrn2-1* lines with *STM::GUS*, *WUS::GUS*, and *LEAFY::GUS* reporter genes.

#### RNA extraction and RT-qPCR analysis

For quantitative reverse transcription-PCR (RT-qPCR) analysis, inflorescences were dissected and open flowers (older than stage 12) were removed (Smyth et al., 1990). For harvesting of 35S::AP1-GR ap1-1 cal-1 samples, only the cauliflower structures of the main inflorescence were harvested. Leaf and pedicel tissue contamination was minimized by dissection as previously described (Engelhorn et al., 2017). Samples were collected from non-induced 35S::AP1-GR ap1-1 cal-1 (t0) tissue and 35S::AP1-GR ap1-1 cal-1 5 d after induction (t5, approximately floral stage 7) (Smyth et al., 1990; Wellmer et al., 2006). Total RNA of 3-6 biological replicates was extracted with TRIZOL (Invitrogen) and cDNA was synthesized using RevertAid reverse transcriptase (Thermo Fisher). Real-time RT-qPCR was performed by using SYBR Green I for LightCycler 480 (Roche). As internal control served eIF4A since its expression is unchanged during early flower development or in PcG mutants if normalized to TIP41, RTFbox (AT5G15710), or UBQ10 (Supplementary Fig. S1; Wellmer et al., 2006; Li et al., 2020; Yan et al., 2020; Sun et al., 2021; Krizek et al., 2021). The expression levels are expressed as the mean of relative fold changes of at least three biological replicates (values are scaled to the wild type or t0), and the error bars represent the SEM (Student's *t*-test); for  $n \ge 4$ , the trimmed mean is shown. The RT-qPCR primers used are listed in Supplementary Table S1.

#### RNA in situ hybridization

Non-radioactive *in situ* hybridizations with *CLV3*, *WUS*, *STM*, *AP3*, and *LFY* antisense probes were performed as previously described (Müller-Xing *et al.*, 2014). The *SVP* plasmid for generating antisense probes was kindly provided by Peter Huijser (Hartmann *et al.*, 2000).

#### ChIP assay and ChIP-Seq

ChIP assays were performed as described previously (Müller-Xing *et al.*, 2014). The chromatin was fragmented to an average length of 200–400 bp by sonication. We used the anti-tri-methylated histone H3K27 antibody (Abcam; ab6002). DNA was recovered by phenol:chloroform:isoamyl alcohol (25:24:1). Then, the DNA was analyzed by ChIP-qPCR; the primers used are listed in Supplementary Table S2. For ChIP-Seq analysis, the recovered DNA from the H3K27me3 ChIP experiment was combined in two biological replicas for each stage (*35S::AP1-GR ap1-1 cal-1*, t0 and t5). The ChIP-Seq assays were performed as described previously (Velanis *et al.*, 2016) and were carried out in the Glasgow Polyomics Facility (University of Glasgow).

#### ChIP-Seq analysis

The H3K27me3 ChIP-Seq reads were aligned to the *A. thaliana* genome TAIR10 using Bowtie2 with default parameters. Multimapping reads and PCR duplicates were discarded together with unmapped reads, leaving

only unique mapped reads for the downstream analysis. In order to retrieve the histone modifications patterns, peak calling was performed using MACS2 with the broad option and a P-value threshold set to 0.01 (Gaspar, 2018, Preprint). The differential methylation analysis was run using DiffBind with the DESeq2 method (P-value <0.05) (Stark and Brown, 2011). The differentially methylated regions were assigned to genes using the ChIPseeker package (Yu et al., 2015). All those steps were performed using Curta, the High Performance Computing (HPC) of the Freie Universität Berlin (Bennett et al., 2020). For each gene containing at least one differentially methylated region, a fold change was computed by counting the RPKM (reads per kilobase per million mapped reads) over the whole gene region [transcription start site (TSS) to transcription end site (TES)] in each condition using the featureCounts package and the RPKM function from edgeR (Liao et al., 2014). The Spearman correlation analysis was performed in R Studio using the expression data from Ryan et al. (2015). All steps until the R part of the analysis were performed using Curta; the computing time was kindly provided by the HPC Service of ZEDAT, Freie Universität Berlin. In addition, Venny 2.1 (https://bioinfogp.cnb.csic.es/tools/venny/index.html) was used for comparisons of gene lists, and Integrative Genomic Viewer (IGV; Version2.3.88) was used for visualizing H3K27me3 pattern at gene loci to different time points.

#### GUS staining

Detection of  $\beta$ -glucuronidase (GUS) activity in tissue preparations were performed as described, with minor modifications (Li *et al.*, 2020). In brief, inflorescences with flowers were harvested and immersed in the GUS assay solution (50 mM NaHPO<sub>4</sub>, 0.5 mM ferrocyanide, 0.5 mM ferricyanide, and 1% Triton X-100, pH 7.2) containing 1 mM X-Gluc. The tissues in the GUS solution were vacuum infiltrated for 30 min, and then incubated at 37 °C for ~3 h to overnight. To remove the chlorophyll, stained tissues were carried through ethanol series and then observed with a Nikon SMZ25 stereomicroscope.

#### Imaging

Photographs were taken with either a digital camera (Nikon D7200, Japan) or a dissecting microscope with a 5 mega pixel digital camera (Motic K-500L, China). Digital photographs and graphics were collated with PowerPoint or Adobe Photoshop and adjusted as described before (Müller-Xing *et al.*, 2014).

#### Results

# Flowers with strong depletion of PcG activity feature increased size and indeterminacy of the floral meristems

In previous studies, we reported floral reversion in Arabidopsis lines with strongly depleted PcG activity, such as *emf2-10 vrn2-*1 or *iCLF*, when shifted from inductive to non-inductive conditions, demonstrating that H3K27me3 is required to maintain floral commitment and IM identity (Müller-Xing et al., 2014, 2015). Flowers of *emf2-10 vrn2-1* and *iCLF* display diverse but similar developmental defects during flower development, indicating misregulation of a similar set of target genes (Müller-Xing *et al.*, 2014). The features of flowers with strongly depleted PcG activity include a low penetrance homeotic organ transformation and fused floral organs (Fig. 1D–L; Supplementary Fig. S2). In contrast, additional floral organs are the predominant phenotype of *emf2-10 vrn2-1* and *iCLF* flowers (Fig. 1A–F; Supplementary Fig. S2). The number of all floral organ types was increased, with the exception of stamens (Fig. 1I; Supplementary Fig. S2F). Supernumerary floral organs often are the result of an increased FM size (Müller *et al.*, 2008). Therefore, we measured the diameter of *emf2-10 vrn2-1* mutant FMs in longitudinal sections of floral primordia, stage 3–4. Like the vegetative SAM and IM (Fig. 2A–D), the FM size was significantly increased in *emf2-10 vrn2-1*, while the FM domes were rather higher than wider in comparison with the wild type (Supplementary Fig. S3). Thus, the extra carpels in flowers with strongly depleted PcG activity could be caused by the enlarged FMs.

The carpels of emf2-10 vrn2-1 and iCLF flowers were normally fused to form a club-shaped silique (Fig. 1D, K-M). A small proportion of the siliques displayed incomplete valve fusion at their distal ends, which opened the view to a fifth whorl that was composed of ectopic carpels (Supplementary Fig. S2H). To test the frequency of fifth whorls in emf2-10 vrn2-1 and iCLF flowers, we opened siliques with fused carpels (Fig. 1M) and found that 70-90% of the siliques contained a fifth whorl. Also, *clv* and *crn* mutants develop enlarged and indeterminate FMs causing club-shaped siliques with increased numbers of carpels and a fifth whorl (Clark et al., 1993, 1995; Kayes and Clark, 1998; Müller et al., 2008) resembling siliques with strongly depleted PcG activity (Supplementary Figs S4, S5). Similar to *emf2-10 vrn2-1* and *iCLF*, *clv2* mutants exhibit flower to shoot transformation specifically under short-day growth conditions (Kayes and Clark, 1998; Müller-Xing et al., 2014, 2015). Furthermore, the morphology of the gynoecia in emf2-10 vrn2-1 and iCLF flowers was occasionally altered, and the portion covered by valves was reduced (Supplementary Fig. S2D). This valveless phenotype is also associated with *clv* mutant siliques (Kayes and Clark, 1998; Diévart et al., 2003). To summarize, increased carpel number, enlarged and indeterminate FMs that produce a fifth whorl, club shape, and valveless siliques are phenotypes of flowers with strongly depleted PcG activity shared with *clv* mutants.

#### PcG activity promotes determinacy of the floral stem cell pool in parallel to CLV3 signaling and partially independent of WUS expression levels

The enlarged size of the vegetative SAM, IM, and FMs, and the similarity of the silique phenotype in plants with strongly depleted PcG activity to that of clv mutants suggest that CLV3 signaling and PcG function might act in a common genetic pathway to suppress WUS expression. To test this hypothesis, we analyzed the expression patterns of CLV3, which is an established stem cell marker (Fletcher *et al.*, 1999), and WUS in *emf2-10 vrn2-1* mutant flowers by RNA *in situ* hybridization and histochemical staining for WUS::GUS reporter gene activity (Fig. 2E–L). The CLV3



**Fig. 1.** Pleiotropic defects in flowers with strongly depleted PcG activity. (A–D) *emf2-10 vrn2-1* double mutant (*ev*) and *clf-28 swn-7 CLF-GR (iCLF)* flowers carrying extra floral organs including the well-visible petals in comparison with the wild-type [WT: L*er-*0 (A) and Col-0 (C)] flowers with four white petals. (D) Arrowhead indicates a sepaloid petal. (E and F) Scanning electron micrographs of Ws-0 (WT) and *ev* flowers stage 11–12 (Smyth *et al.*, 1990). Note that the sepals of *ev* are not closed. (G and H) *iCLF* flowers with petaloid stamen (arrow) and secondary flowers (asterisks) similar to *ap1* mutants; the arrowhead marks the primary flower. (I) Organ number in *ev* mutant flowers (green bars) compared with L*er-*0 flowers (orange bars) ±SEM (*n*=50). 1, dark blue: sepaloid petals; 2, purple: flower organs with mixed staminoid and sepaloid identity; 3, light blue: filament without anthers; 4, red: stamencarpel fusion. (J) Left panel: two fused stamens (arrowhead). Right panel: two fused petals. (K) Third whorl carpel fused with an anther (arrowhead). (L) Silique with extra carpels after abscission of outer organs: two secondary flowers (asterisks) and one filament (arrow) are marked. (M) *ev* silique, organs of a fifth whorl are visible (arrowhead) after cutting the silique open. Note that the flowers in (A, B, I–M) are *er* mutant. All scale bars=1 mm, with the exception of (E and F)=100 µm.

expression domain appeared triangular in longitudinal sections of wild type meristems. In the enlarged *emf2-10 vrn2-1* IMs and FMs, *CLV3* was more strongly expressed in slightly expanded domains, indicating accumulation of more floral stem cells. Furthermore, *CLV3* expression was also temporally extended and maintained beyond stage 6 of flower development, consistent with the hypothesis that increased and prolonged stem cell activity induces the formation of a fifth whorl (Supplementary Fig. S5F). Although *WUS* is also expressed beyond flower stage 6 (Fig. 2K, L, P), the *WUS* expression domain in *emf2-10 vrn2-1* IMs and FMs appeared smaller and the staining weaker (Fig. 2G, H),

suggesting that weaker WUS is not the reason but the consequence of increased CLV3 expression.

In order to determine whether the *clv*-like phenotype of flowers with strongly depleted PcG activity might be due to lost or reduced activity of *CLV3* or of the CLV3 receptors, we combined *emf2-10 vrn2-1* with several *CLV3* signaling mutants. We examined the floral organ number in *clv3-2 emf2-10 vrn2-1* triple mutants and found that the carpel number was increased to 7.8 in comparison with 6.0 in *clv3-2* single mutants and 3.9 in *emf2-10 vrn2-1* double mutants (Fig. 2M–O, Q). Thus, *clv3-2* mutants strongly enhanced PcG double mutants, indicating that *CLV3* signaling and PcG proteins restrict the



**Fig. 2.** Effects of strong PcG deficiency on meristem size and FM indeterminacy and genetic interaction with loss of *CLV3* function. (A–D) Increased meristem size of the vegetative SAM (A, B) and IM (C, D) in *emf2-10 vrn2-1* (*ev*) mutants in comparison with the wild type (WT: Ws-0). (E–J) *CLV3* and *WUS* RNA *in situ* hybridizations in *ev* mutant IM and FMs in comparison with the WT [Ws-0 (E, G) and La-0 (I)]. (K, L) *WUS::GUS* staining in *Ler-*0 and *emf2-10 vrn2-1* (*ev*). (L) In the inset, the arrow indicates *WUS::GUS* expression in an *ev* flower with slotted gynoecial tube (floral stage  $\geq$ 7; Smyth *et al.*, 1990). (M–O) Additive increase of ectopic carpels in *clv3-2 emf2-10 vrn2-1* (*clv3-2 ev*) triple mutants. (N) Note that tissue of the fifth whorl grew out the unfused carpels. (P) *WUS* RNA *in situ* hybridizations of *ev* flower, stage 9 (Smyth *et al.*, 1990). *WUS* is expressed in the indeterminate FM (arrow) and anthers (asterisk). (Q) Flower organs in *clv3-2 ev* triple mutants ±SEM; *n*≥30. (R) RT–qPCR analyses of gene expression in *clv3-2 ev* triple mutant inflorescence apices; columns indicate expression changes normalized by *elF4*, relative to expression in *Ler-*0, ±SEM (*n*=3). All scale bars=100 µm, with the exception of (M–O)=1 mm.

number of carpels independently. Also, the valveless phenotype was enhanced in *clv3-2 emf2-10 vrn2-1* siliques (Supplementary Fig. S4). The analysis of *clv1-11 emf2-10 vrn2-1* and *crn-1 emf2-10 vrn2-1* triple mutants gave similar results (Supplementary Fig. S5). From this genetic analysis, we conclude that *CLV3* signaling and PcG proteins restrict the size and termination of FMs independently of one another.

We confirmed by RT-qPCR that CLV3 is up-regulated in emf2-10 vrn2-1 inflorescences and found synergistically enhanced *CLV3* expression (96.3 $\times$  higher than the wild type) in clv3-2 emf2-10 vrn2-1 triple mutants (Fig. 2R). This is in line with our carpel number analysis (Fig. 2Q), and the conclusion that CLV3 signaling and PcG proteins control the floral stem cell population in parallel pathways. Similar to the stem cell marker CLV3, the meristem marker STM was up-regulated in emf2-10 vrn2-1 (Fig. 2R). Notably, loss of CLV3 had no significant effect on STM expression either in PcG-deficient or in wild-type plants, indicating that PcG activity but not CLV3 signaling restricts STM expression. We also confirmed the down-regulation of WUS in emf2-10 vrn2-1 inflorescences (Fig. 2R). Thus, we reasoned that the increased CLV3 expression could cause the lower WUS expression, but we found only a partial rescue of WUS in clv3-2 emf2-10 vrn2-1 triple mutants (Fig. 2R), suggesting the up-regulation of other WUS repressors in emf2-10 vrn2-1.

Our genetic analysis of flower phenotype and gene expression in *clv3-2 emf2-10 vrn2-1* triple mutants revealed that *CLV3* signaling and PcG proteins control the floral stem cell population in parallel pathways. Although *WUS* expression was temporally extended beyond floral stage 6 in PcG double mutants, *WUS* expression was lower in *emf2-10 vrn2-1* meristems. This finding suggests that the expansion of the stem cell domain is at least partially independent of *WUS* expression levels. It also gives rise to the possibility that PcG proteins control FM size and determinacy by repressing other meristematic regulators through H3K27me3 deposition.

#### Genome-wide analyses of changes in H3K27me3 levels after floral meristem determinacy

We reasoned that profiling of the dynamics of H3K27me3 accumulation rather than profiling the loss of H3K27me3 in unconditional PcG mutants could identify meristematic genes that are silenced by PcG proteins during early flower development. To investigate the dynamics of H3K27me3, we took advantage of the previously described *AP1-GR ap1-1 cal-1* floral induction system (Wellmer *et al.*, 2006), which can provide synchronized flower tissue of specific developmental stages (Fig. 3A, B). To assess the correlation of FM termination and changes of H3K27me3 levels, we chose floral primordia in stage 7 (t5, 5 d after induction with dexamethasone), which constitutes the earliest floral stage without meristematic tissue. We performed RT–qPCR and ChIP-qPCR to validate the t5 samples in comparison with the non-induced reference

samples with IM tissue (t0). In wild-type inflorescences, *SVP* mRNA accumulates in floral primordia at stage 1 and 2 and is silenced in floral primordia during stage 3 (Fig. 3C). In the t5 samples, expression of the stem cell marker *CLV3* was reduced to background levels, indicating the presence of only post-meristematic tissue, while *SVP* mRNA levels were decreased to <3% of the mRNA levels in the t0 samples, whereas *SVP* H3K27me3 levels tripled (Supplementary Fig. S6). These data suggested that the tissues of the *AP1-GR ap1-1 cal-1* t0 and t5 samples were homogenous and the t5 sample showed synchronized and uniform floral induction, so we proceeded with the ChIP-Seq approach.

In floral stage 7 (t5), we identified 466 differentially methylated peaks corresponding to 420 differentially methylated genes (DMGs) including SVP (Fig. 3D-F). A total of 296 coding genes, three miRNAs, and five transposable elements significantly increased H3K27me3 levels in comparison with the controls (t0) (Fig. 3D). OBO1 showed the highest increase in H3K27me3 levels (16.8-fold), while OBO2 was the most heavily methylated H3K27me3 target gene at t5 (190.3 RPKM in Table 1 and Supplementary Table S5). On the other hand, chromatin loci of 110 coding genes, one miRNA, and five transposable elements had significantly decreased H3K27me3 levels in the t5 samples compared with the control (t0) samples (Fig. 3D). The strongest H3K27me3 reduction of all coding genes occurred at SEP3 chromatin (Supplementary Fig. S8A, B; Supplementary Table S6), which encodes the most prominent E function cofactor for ABC-type MADS TFs (Pelaz et al., 2001; Melzer et al., 2009; Immink et al., 2009; Lopez-Vernaza et al., 2012; Hugouvieux et al., 2018). Although WUS and AG were not among the DMGs identified by the ChIP-Seq, we confirmed by independent ChIP-qPCR experiments that the WUS-AG negative feedback loop was accompanied by reduced H3K27me3 levels at AG, whereas the WUS gene locus significantly gained H3K27me3 (Supplementary Fig. S9).

We compared our H3K27me3 datasets with published expression data (Ryan et al., 2015). We found that changes of H3K27me3 and expression levels were highly negatively correlated (Fig. 4A-C). In further comparison, we identified 151 coding genes that significantly gained H3K27me3 and had decreased expression rates, whereas 49 loci lost H3K27me3 and increased expression accordingly (Fig. 4D, E; Supplementary Fig. S10; Supplementary Table S5, S6). To verify our ChIP-seq data and the published expression data, we performed ChIP-qPCR and RT-qPCR for some TF genes of interest on independent AP1-GR ap1-1 cal-1 t0 and t5 samples (Supplementary Fig. S8). Notably, TFs were highly over-represented (40.4% and 26.5%) within the genes that showed a negative correlation between changes in gene expression and changes in H3K27me3 (Fig. 4D, E). The majority of the genes, which are targeted by these H3K27me3-regulated TFs, are not H3K27me3 targets (Supplementary Fig. S11). This suggests that regulation by H3K27me3 is part of an epigenetic switch, which stabilizes the expression changes of a few hundred TFs that, in turn, control transcriptional changes of thousands



**Fig. 3.** Genome-wide changes of H3K27me3 levels during early flower development. (A, B) The *AP1-GR ap1-1 cal-1* system (Wellmer *et al.*, 2006) provides an enormous amount of either undifferentiated inflorescence meristem (A, non-induced) or synchronized flower tissue (B, induced). (C) *SVP* RNA *in situ* RNA hybridization in a wild-type inflorescence grown under long-day conditions. *SVP* is expressed throughout stage 1 floral primordia (1) whereas in stage 2 flower primordia (2), the *SVP* expression domain divides the flower meristem (FM) and cryptic bract (CB). Note that *SVP* is not expressed in flower primordia stage 3 or older; IM, inflorescence meristem. (D–F) *AP1-GR ap1-1 cal-1* ChIP-Seq data. (D) Number of differentially methylated peaks (identified by DiffBind) and gene loci (identified by ChIPseeker) encoding proteins, miRNAs, or transposable elements. The differentially methylated peaks and genes are listed in Supplementary Table S3 and S4, respectively. A cluster analysis (DiffBind) can be found in Supplementary Fig. S7. (E) Close-up of the genomic region containing the *SVP* locus (blue). H3K27me3 levels at *SVP* increased significantly, whereas neither of the neighboring H3K27me3 target sites showed significant changes. (F) Comparison of all H3K27me3 target genes that are differentially methylated in IMs (t0) and flowers, stage 7 (t5). Each point represents an H3K27me3-enriched gene. ChIP-Seq data were normalized to RPKM. Genes encoding MADS domain TFs (blue), homeodomain (HD) TFs (red), or other proteins of interest (green) are indicated.

of genes that are largely not H3K27me3 targets. Furthermore, the three miRNA genes *MIR2111B*, *MIR319A*, and *MIR165B* gained H3K27me3 (Fig. 3D; Supplementary Table S7), indicating

indirectly positive regulation of coding genes by H3K27me3mediated repression of miRNA genes during early flower development (Lafos *et al.*, 2011). 

 Table 1.
 Selection of TF genes, encoding known or putative floral meristem regulators, which gained H3K27me3 and were significantly reduced in expression during FM arrest

Gene Annotation		H3K27me3 (RPKM)		
Gene ID	Name	tO	t5	FC
(A) HD TF genes				
AT5G02030	PENNYWISE (PNY/BLR/RPL)	6.3 ± 0.4	46.9 ± 2.2	7.4
AT1G23380	KNOTTED-like from Arabidopsis thaliana 6 (KNAT6)	5.7 ± 0.1	35.4 ± 4.3	6.2
AT1G70510	KNOTTED-like from Arabidopsis thaliana 2 (KNAT2)	5.4 ± 0.2	24.6 ± 2.5	4.5
AT1G62360	SHOOT MERISTEMLESS (STM)	46.9 ± 1.3	116.0 ± 2.0	2.5
AT2G27990	POUND-FOOLISH (PNF/BLH8)	8.7 ± 0.3	21.3 ± 0.6	2.4
AT4G08150	BREVIPEDICELLUS (BP/KNAT1)	26.1 ± 1.3	52.7 ± 3.6	2.0
AT5G41410	BELL 1 (BEL1)	50.1 ± 0.1	78.9 ± 0.7	1.6
AT2G33880	STIMPY (STIP/WOX9)	94.2 ± 2.4	136.3 ± 2.7	1.4
(B) MADS TF genes	S			
AT5G62165	FOREVER YOUNG FLOWER (FYF/AGL42)	10.5 ± 0.3	47.3 ± 6.3	4.5
AT5G60910	FRUITFULL (FUL/AGL8)	8.8 ± 0.7	36.8 ± 4.0	4.2
AT2G45660	SUPPRESSOR OF OVEREXPRESSION OF CONSTANS 1 (SOC1/AGL20)	4.7 ± 0.2	18.9 ± 3.7	4.0
AT2G22540	SHORT VEGETATIVE PHASE (SVP/AGL22)	40.0 ± 2.1	110.2 ± 14.4	2.8
AT4G24540	AGAMOUS-LIKE 24 (AGL24)	40.7 ± 3.5	93.7 ± 7.3	2.3
AT1G26310	CAULIFLOWER (CAL/AGL10)	44.2 ± 0.1	73.7 ± 10.6	1.7
AT5G51860	AGAMOUS-LIKE 72 (AGL72)	62.7 ± 0.2	84.1 ± 8.7	1.3
(C) Other TFs				
AT2G31160	ORGAN BOUNDARY 1 (OBO1/LSH3)	6.6 ± 0.2	111.5 ± 11.1	16.8
AT5G28490	ORGAN BOUNDARY 2 (OBO2/LSH1)	38.8 ± 0.5	190.3 ± 18.9	4.9
AT5G03840	TERMINAL FLOWER1 (TFL1)	$49.0 \pm 0.4$	118.7 ± 11.2	2.4
AT4G35900	FD (ATBZIP14)	4.5 ± 0.5	9.7 ± 0.2	2.2

Selection of TF genes that were gaining H3K27me3 (ChIP-Seq) and significantly reduced in expression (Ryan *et al.*, 2015) during early flower development. The complete data for 151 genes are listed in Supplementary Table S5. FC, fold change (t5/t0: floral stage 7-IM).

To determine whether TF genes could contribute to the floral indeterminacy and other phenotypes in flowers with strongly depleted PcG activity, we examined the expression and H3K27me3 levels of several TFs in emf2-10 vrn2-1 mutant inflorescences using RT-qPCR and ChIP-qPCR. Independent of whether they had increased or decreased H3K27me3 levels during early flower development, the majority of the tested TF genes (93.3%) lost H3K27me3 in emf2-10 vrn2-1 (Supplementary Fig. S12). Within the TF genes that gained H3K27me3 and decreased expression in AP1-GR ap1-1 cal-1 (t5-t0), we identified eight HD (seven TALE and one WOX) and seven MADS TF genes (Fig. 4F; Table 1). Surprisingly, only five of the eight HD TFs and four of the seven MADS TFs were up-regulated in the PcG double mutants, whereas one MADS and two HD TF genes were down-regulated (Supplementary Fig. S13). Thus, only 60% of the HD and MADS TF genes, whose H3K27me3 levels increased during early flower development, were up-regulated in strongly PcG-deficient flowers, while the down-regulation of three TF genes indicates that PcG proteins can indirectly promote their expression.

#### PcG proteins promote FM identity and determinacy by silencing AGL24 that encodes a repressor of ABCE function genes and STM

The FM identity genes *LFY* and *AP1* directly up-regulate each other in a positive feedback loop, and control the expression of floral homeotic MADS box genes (Kaufmann *et al.*,

2010; Wagner *et al.*, 1999; Moyroud *et al.*, 2011). As expected, we found *AP3* and *SEP3* within the 49 coding genes which significantly lost H3K27me3 and increased expression rates during early flower morphogenesis (Supplementary Fig. 8A; Supplementary Table S6). To determine if loss of PcG activity promotes the expression of ABCE-type MADS box genes, we performed RT–qPCR with *emf2-10 vrm2-1* inflorescence tips. Surprisingly, the expression of *AP1*, *AP3*, *PI*, *AG*, and *SEP3* was significantly reduced (Fig. 5A). Lower expression of *LFY* could explain the reduced expression rates of its target genes, but *LFY* was more highly expressed (Fig. 5A; Supplementary Fig. S14). An alternative possibility is that genes which encode repressors of the ABCE genes were up-regulated by strong depletion of PcG activity.

During the onset of flower development, *TFL1*, which encodes a repressor of *AP1*, is excluded from emerging floral primordia (Liljegren *et al.*, 1999; Ratcliffe *et al.*, 1999). The *TFL1* gene locus significantly gains H3K27me3 levels in 2 d (t2) (Engelhorn *et al.*, 2017), which developed to robust changes (t5; Supplementary Fig. S8D, E). Notably, the *FD* locus, encoding a bZIP TF that interacts with TFL1 to promote IM fate, also gained H3K27me3 (t5;Table 1). To test the significance of H3K27me3 accumulation, we performed RT–qPCR and found that *TFL1* was strongly up-regulated in *emf2-10 vrn2-1* inflorescences (Fig. 5A). Up to 15% of *emf2-10 vrn2-1* and *iCLF* flowers carry secondary flowers in the axils of leaf-like sepals (Fig. 1G, H, L), which is a phenotype firstly associated with *ap1* 

#### Page 10 of 18 | Müller-Xing et al.



**Fig. 4.** Correlation of genome-wide changes in H3K27me3 levels and gene expression during early flower morphogenesis. (A–C) Correlation of DMGs and gene expression (Ryan *et al.*, 2015). (A) Bar diagram of all DMGs sorted by gain (up) and loss (dw) of H3K27me3. (B) Spearman correlation graph. (C) The DMGs are sorted by fold change of H3K27me3 levels. Numbers in each fold change (FC) category are indicated. (D, E) Venn diagrams (left) presenting the overlap of all coding genes with significant changes in H3K27me3 levels and gene expression (Ryan *et al.*, 2015). Pie charts (right) presenting the over-representation of transcription factors (TFs) in the groups of overlap. (F) Distribution of TFs, with significantly changed H3K27me3 and anti-correlation in expression, sorted by TF gene families. FC, fold change; exp, expression; dw, down; n.s.c., not significantly changed.

A-function mutant flowers, indicating partial reversion of FMs to IMs (Supplementary Fig. S15A–C) (Coen and Meyerowitz, 1991; Irish and Sussex, 1990). Therefore, the *ap1*-like pheno-type could be caused by reduction of *AP1* expression by increased *TFL1*. However, the phenotype of *ap1* mutant flowers also includes loss of most petals, but *emf2-10 vrn2-1* and *iCLF* flowers carry rather more petals, although some *iCLF* flowers had fewer petals (Fig. 1A–D, I; Supplementary Fig. S2B). To determine to what extent the *ap1*-like phenotype in *emf2-10 vrn2-1* flowers is attributable to decreased levels of *AP1* mRNA, we generated *ap1-1 emf2-10 vrn2-1* triple mutants.

The percentage of secondary flowers in the axis of first whorl organs was significantly increased in ap1-1 emf2-10 vrn2-1 mutant flowers compared with ap1-1 single mutants, indicating at least one *AP1*-independent pathway (Supplementary Fig. S15A–F).

Overexpression of the AP1 downstream target AGL24 causes *ap1*-like and indeterminate flowers (Yu *et al.*, 2004) similar to the defects observed in *emf2-10 vrn2-1* mutant flowers (Fig. 5B–D). Indeed, AGL24 was the most up-regulated gene of all key floral regulators that we tested in *emf2-10 vrn2-1* mutant inflorescences, whereas H3K27me3 levels were strongly



Polycomb proteins control floral determinacy by H3K27me3 | Page 11 of 18

**Fig. 5.** Misexpression of *AGL24* represses several PcG target genes partially causing FM reversion and indeterminacy in PcG mutants. (A) RT–qPCR analyses of gene expression of TFs and *CLV3* in *emf2-10 vrn2-1* florescence apices; columns indicate expression changes in *emf2-10 vrn2-1* normalized by *elF4A*, relative to expression in *Ler-0*. Note the logarithmic scale. (B) Overexpression of *AGL24* results in indeterminate flowers carrying swollen siliques

ΡI

AG

SEP3

AGL15

WUS

STM

0

LFY

TFL1

AP1

AP3

#### Page 12 of 18 | Müller-Xing et al.

reduced at the AGL24 gene locus (Fig. 5A; Supplementary Figs S12B, S16). Although the expression of TFL1 increased in ap1-1 emf2-10 vrn2-1 mutant inflorescences, the loss of AP1 did not significantly enhance AGL24 expression in the PcG double mutants, suggesting that the strong up-regulation of AGL24 is a direct result of the loss of H3K27me3 at the AGL24 locus rather than an indirect result of reduced AP1 expression (Supplementary Fig. S15G). Furthermore, AGL24 expression was also increased in *iCLF* inflorescences and *clf swn* calluslike tissue (Supplementary Fig. S17). These findings indicate that increased AGL24 activity could cause ectopic secondary flowers and FM indeterminacy in flowers with strongly depleted PcG activity. To test this hypothesis, we generated emf2-10 vrn2-1 lines segregating agl24-1. We found full suppression of the ap1-like phenotype in homozygous agl24-1 emf2-10 vrn2-1 flowers, whereas 2.9% of agl24-1/+ emf2-10 vrn2-1 flowers and 7.8% of emf2-10 vrn2-1 flowers carried at least one secondary flower (Fig. 5F). In contrast, the carpel number was not affected, while the percentage of flowers with a fifth whorl decreased in agl24-1 emf2-10 vrn2-1 triple mutant flowers (Fig. 5G, H). These results suggest that AGL24 misexpression is the main cause of ap1-like flowers and contributes to the fifth whorl, but has no effect on FM size or carpel number in plants with strongly depleted PcG activity. AGL24, SOC1, and SVP redundantly prevent ectopic expression of AP3, PI, AG, and SEP3 in the floral anlagen in the IM and in emerging FMs before stage 3 (Gregis et al., 2006, 2009; Liu et al., 2009). Hence, the strong up-regulation of AGL24 could be one of the key factors that are involved in the decrease of AP1, AP3, PI, AG, and SEP3 expression (Fig. 5A) and therefore the ABC function-related homeotic transformation in flowers with strongly depleted PcG activity. To obtain additional evidence for this conclusion, we examined the expression in the inflorescences of emf2-10 vrn2-1 double and agl24-1 emf2-10 vrn2-1 triple mutant plants using RT-qPCR (Fig. 5I). Consistent with the hypothesis that AGL24 overexpression directly causes the down-regulation of the MADS TFs, the expression of AP1, PI, SEP3, and their target AGL15 was rescued to wild-type levels, whereas AP3 and AG, but also up-regulated TF genes such as LFY and TFL1, were unchanged. This indicates that AGL24 misexpression causes the down-regulation of a subset of the TF genes that are down-regulated in PcG double mutant flowers. Surprisingly, STM expression was synergistically increased in agl24-1 emf2-10 vrn2-1 triple mutants (Fig. 5I). Thus, although AGL24 promotes FM indeterminacy (Yu et al., 2004), AGL24 acts redundantly with PcG proteins to prevent STM misexpression.

# PcG proteins control FM activity by restriction of STM expression

STM is a well-known pluripotency gene belonging to the group of HD TF genes that gained H3K27me3 during FM determinacy (Table 1). As in emf2-10 vrn2-1, we found increased STM mRNA levels in *iCLF* inflorescences and *clf-28* swn-7 callus-like tissue (Fig. 5A; Supplementary Fig. S17). To determine the spatiotemporal expression patterns of STM in PcG double mutant flowers, we analyzed STM expression in emf2-10 vrn2-1 by RNA in situ hybridization and histochemical staining for STM::GUS reporter gene activity (Fig. 6A–D). STM was more strongly expressed in emf2-10 vrn2-1 floral primordia than in the wild type, and, like WUS, temporally extended beyond floral stage 6. This finding suggests that the ectopic expression of STM in the indeterminate FMs contributes to the fifth whorl in flowers with strongly depleted PcG activity. Furthermore, increased STM activity could cause the enlarged FMs and extra floral organ numbers in H3K27me3deficient flowers. To test this hypothesis, we combined the strong STM allele bum1-3 with emf2-10 vrn2-1 and iCLF, constructing two lines with strongly depleted STM and PcG activity (Fig. 6I; Supplementary Fig. S18). Loss of STM affects the four floral whorls differently. While the total number of flower organs was reduced and all carpels lost, bum1-3 flowers also displayed homeotic transformations of petals. The increased numbers of sepals were nearly rescued to the wild type level in bum1-3 emf2-10 vrn2-1 and bum1-3 iCLF flowers, suggesting that increased STM activity contributes to the enlarged FM in the early stages of flowers with strongly depleted PcG activity. Loss of STM also rescued the increased carpel number in the strongly H3K27me3-deficient flowers of bum1-3 iCLF and bum1-3 emf2-10 vrn2-1 triple mutants. Importantly, neither bum1-3 iCLF nor bum1-3 emf2-10 vrn2-1 triple mutant flowers carried any fifth whorl structures (Supplementary Table S9). Similarly, loss of WUS resulted in premature arrest of FM activity in wus-1 emf2-10 vrn2-1 mutant flowers, indicated by lack of most central floral organs (Fig. 6]). These findings indicate that WUS and STM activity are essential for FM indeterminacy in flowers with strongly depleted PcG activity.

## Discussion

H3K27me3-mediated gene silencing by PcG proteins has been implicated in a wide variety of developmental processes in Arabidopsis, including leaf differentiation and termination of *WUS* during FM arrest (Lafos *et al.*, 2011; Liu *et al.*, 2011;

with a fifth whorl inside (arrow) and *ap1*-like secondary flowers (asterisk). (C) Most *ev* flowers carry a fifth whorl, and a few of them display *ap1*-like flowers (asterisk). (D, E) *emf2-10 vrn2-1* (*ev*) and *agl24-1 emf2-10 vrn2-1* (*agl24-1 ev*) siliques. The arrows mark the dissected fifth whorl carpels. (F) Percentage of the *ap1*-like flower phenotype in *ev*, *agl24-1/+ ev*, and *agl24-1 ev* ( $n \ge 70$ ). (G) Carpel number in *ev* and *agl24-1 ev* ( $n \ge 50$ ). (H) Percentage of flowers with a fifth whorl in *ev* and *agl24-1 ev* ( $n \ge 50$ ). (I) RT–qPCR analyses of gene expression in the *agl24-1 ev* triple mutant in comparison with *ev* double mutant inflorescence apices; columns indicate expression levels normalized by *elF4*, relative to expression in La-0. (A, I) All RT–qPCR experiments were performed with at least three biological replicates. (A, F, H, I) Asterisks indicate significant changes (Student's *t* test:  $*P \le 0.05$ ;  $**P \le 0.01$ ;  $***P \le 0.001$ ). All scale bars=1 mm.



**Fig. 6.** *STM* contributes to FM indeterminacy in PcG mutants. (A, B) *STM::GUS* staining of the wild type (WT; Ler-0) and *emf2-10 vrn2-1* (scale bars=0.1 mm). (C, D) RNA *in situ* hybridizations of *emf2-10 vrn2-1* flowers with *STM*. In contrast to the WT, FMs of *emf2-10 vrn2-1* mutants remain indeterminate after stage 6. *STM* expression (arrowheads) in indeterminate FM, floral stage 10 (C), and floral stage 15 (D). (E–I) Flower organs in *burn1-3* ev triple mutants ±SEM ( $n \ge 30$ ). (J) Flower organs in *wus-1* ev triple mutants ±SEM ( $n \ge 10$ ). (Scale bars=100 µm (A–D) and 1 mm (E–H).

Sun *et al.*, 2019). However, the significance of increasing H3K27me3 levels for silencing of other developmental genes during floral organ morphogenesis and termination of the floral stem cell population remained widely unexplored. Here we reveal new insights into the function of PcG proteins that restrict expression of their direct targets and promote gene expression indirectly by repressing transcriptional repressors in the gene regulatory network of TFs that controls early flower development (Fig. 7).

#### PcG proteins indirectly activate floral regulator genes by silencing of their upstream repressors such as AGL24

In multicellular eukaryotes, including plants, H3K27me3 plays a fundamental role in the epigenetic regulation of tissuespecific expression patterns, which silences its direct targets and promotes gene expression indirectly by repressing miRNA genes (Lafos *et al.*, 2011; Shivram *et al.*, 2019). Although it has been implicated that PcG proteins can indirectly activate their own expression during seed development (Baroux et al., 2006), we provide here genetic evidence that PcG proteins indirectly activate TF genes by silencing of upstream transcriptional repressors. One-third of the tested HD and MADS TF genes, although they lost the repressive H3K27me3 mark, were down-regulated or their expression was not changed in emf2-10 vrn2-1 double mutants (Supplementary Fig. S13). In particular, the down-regulation of ABCE-type MADS genes indicates that PcG proteins can indirectly promote gene expression (Fig. 7). Among the MADS TF genes that showed the expected expression increase, we found AGL24 mRNAs strongly accumulated. Several AGL24 target genes are known. At the onset of flower development, AGL24 acts redundantly with SVP, SOC1, and SEP4 to repress the expression of TFL1, while AGL24 forms heterodimers with AP1 that, redundantly with SVP-AP1 dimers, directly prevent premature expression of BCE-type MADS TF genes (Gregis et al., 2006, 2009; Liu et al., 2013). Furthermore, SVP and AGL24 are direct positive



**Fig. 7.** Concept of epigenetic (co-)regulation of the floral gene regulatory network of TFs by PRC2 (H3K27me3). Hierarchic model of the gene regulatory network with alternating regulation levels of gene silencing by PRC2 activity and gene activation during early flower development. Note that PRC2 activity can indirectly activate genes by silencing of transcriptional repressors such as TFL1 and AGL24. Arrows, transcriptional activation. Arrows with blunt ends represent repression. Red arrows with blunt ends indicate repression by AGL24 in flowers with strongly depleted PcG activity. Gray arrows represent known transcriptional regulation in the wild type, which was suppressed in the strongly PcG-deficient background. Framed arrows: green, up-regulated expression, and red, down-regulated expression in *emf2-10 vrn2-1* double mutants (PcG). Note that although *WUS* expression is reduced in strongly PcG-deficient IMs and FMs, its expression is prolonged in the indeterminate FMs.

regulators of *LFY* and *AP1* in FMs (Grandi *et al.*, 2012). Although we could not confirm all of these transcriptional relationships in a strongly PcG-deficient background, we found correlation between ectopic *AGL24* activity and decreased expression of *AP1*, *PI*, *SEP3*, and *AGL15*, which was rescued in *agl24-1 emf2-10 vrn2-1* triple mutants (Fig. 5I). These findings are consistent with the hypothesis that PcG proteins silence *AGL24* but also other floral repressor genes to prevent the down-regulation of several flower development genes (Fig. 7).

#### Ectopic AGL24 expression results in ap1-like floral reversion in emf2-10 vrn2-1 mutants and might contribute to other reversion phenotypes in plants with strongly depleted PcG activity

Overexpression of AGL24 causes an *ap1*-like floral reversion phenotype with ectopic flowers in the axil of first whorl

organs and FM indeterminacy that is not a characteristic of ap1 mutants (Irish and Sussex, 1990; Yu et al., 2004; Liu et al., 2007). Therefore, we concluded that high expression of AGL24 at least partially causes the ap1-like floral reversion and FM indeterminacy in flowers with strongly depleted PcG activity, which we confirmed by genetic and expression analysis (Fig. 5). In PcG double mutants, the partial loss of flowering commitment results in different types of floral reversion including ectopic inflorescences inside siliques (Müller-Xing et al., 2014, 2015). Remarkably, overexpression of AGL24 can result in similar FM to IM reversion independently of the daylength condition (Yu et al., 2004). With the exception of the ap1-like phenotype, emf2-10 vrn2-1 mutants display floral reversions only under non-inductive short-day conditions (Müller-Xing et al., 2014, 2015). Thus, the ectopic expression of AGL24 is not sufficient for FM to IM reversion in emf2-10 vrn2-1 mutants (at least in long days). Previously, we showed that the activities of two other MADS TF genes, *FLC* and *SVP*, are critical for the floral reversion in *emf2-10 vrn2-1* mutants under non-inductive conditions, whereas ectopic *FLC* represses *FT* that is required for maintaining the commitment to flowering (L. Liu *et al.*, 2014; Müller-Xing *et al.*, 2014). Notably, the previous genetic analysis revealed that at least one other PcG target is involved (Müller-Xing *et al.*, 2014), and *AGL24* is a good candidate to act in parallel with *FLC* and *SVP* to promote daylength-dependent floral reversion in PcG double mutants.

#### PcG proteins promote FM determinacy by silencing of several floral regulators including AGL24 and the pluripotency genes WUS and STM

Flower development requires initiation, maintenance, and determinacy of the FM. The CLV3-WUS feedback loop appears to be an intertwined and inseparable machinery that controls the size of the OC (marked by WUS expression) and stem cell domain (marked by CLV3 expression), which maintains all shoot meristems (Brand et al., 2000; Schoof et al., 2000). Most studies of FM determinacy focused on the direct or indirect transcriptional and epigenetic silencing of WUS in floral stage 6 (Lenhard et al., 2001; Lohmann et al., 2001; Zhao et al., 2007; Sun et al., 2009, 2014, 2019; Ji et al., 2011; X. Liu et al., 2011, 2014; Yumul et al., 2013; Huang et al., 2017; Yamaguchi et al., 2018; Fal et al., 2019). Nonetheless, we found that in the enlarged IM and FMs of PcG double mutants, the expression domain of CLV3 was expanded, while WUS expression and domain size were decreased (Fig. 2E-J), indicating uncoupling of stem cell fate and WUS expression levels. Our ChIP-Seq data revealed a large number of TFs that gained H3K27me3 during FM determinacy (Fig. 4D), indicating that PcG proteins have a broader function than just silencing of WUS. Within the TF genes with increased H3K27me3 levels, we found several HD and MADS genes known to regulate FM determinacy including the floral repressor gene AGL24 and the pluripotency genes WUS and STM (Clark et al., 1993; Mayer et al., 1998; Laux et al., 1996; Yu et al., 2004). Although it was suggested that PRC1 directly represses STM (Xu and Shen, 2008), STM is not an H2Aub target gene, nor does the loss of PRC1 activity result in depletion of H3K27me3 at the STM locus (Xu and Shen, 2008; Bratzel et al., 2010; Zhou et al., 2017). In contrast, we showed that the STM locus accumulated high H3K27me3 levels during early flower development that were reduced in emf2-10 vrn2-1 double mutants (Supplementary Fig. S8), while STM expression in FMs was temporally extended and maintained beyond flower stage 6 (Fig. 6A-D). This suggests that PRC2-mediated H3K27me3 accumulation is the key silencing mechanism for STM during FM determinacy.

Since loss of either WUS or STM is sufficient for premature FM arrest, it appears redundant to silence both of these and other TF genes that are implicated in promoting meristem activity such as AGL24. Nevertheless, our genetic analysis demonstrates that PcG proteins acts through AGL24, STM, and WUS in floral determinacy (Figs 5H, 6E–I). Some hypotheses about the necessity to silence so many TF genes can be drawn from the features of the floral gene regulatory network. (i) Proper flower development also requires silencing of genes well before FM determinacy during flower stage 6, such as TFL1 at the onset of flower morphogenesis, and AGL24 after floral stage 2, since the repression of AGL24 is essential for the activation of the BCE-type MADS box genes to avoid homeotic transformations. (ii) On the other hand, due to the many positive and negative feedback loops in the gene regulatory network, simultaneous silencing of pluripotency genes might be required to avoid compensatory loops such as we described for WUS (Müller et al., 2006). The uncoupling of stem cell fate and WUS expression levels, which we described here for emf2-10 vrn2-1 mutant flowers, might be a result of a different compensatory loop. (iii) Both wus and stm single mutants display limited organogenesis such as their seedlings producing 1-3 leaves before meristem arrest and flowers bearing a number of floral organs. This indicates a certain delay in stem cell termination. Furthermore, WUS and STM, but also other pluripotency genes such as PNY and PNF, maintain FMs and the floral stem cell pool through distinct mechanisms (Endrizzi et al., 1996; Ung et al., 2011). Therefore, we propose that synchronized silencing of several pluripotency genes can accelerate FM determinacy in a way that cannot be achieved by silencing WUS alone.

## Supplementary data

The following supplementary data are available at *JXB* online. Fig. S1.Test of the internal control *eIF4A* by *TIP41*, *RTFbox*,

and UBQ10 (RT-qPCR).

Fig. S2. Pleiotropic phenotype of *iCLF* flowers.

Fig. S3. Increased size of the vegetative SAM, IM and FMs in *emf2-10 vrn2-1 (ev)* mutants.

Fig. S4. Enhancement of the valveless phenotype in *clv3-2 emf2-10 vrn2-1* triple mutants.

Fig. S5. clv/crn emf2-10 vrn2-1 (ev) triple mutant flowers.

Fig. S6.Validation of *35S::AP1-GR ap1-1 cal-1* samples before H3K27me3 ChIP-Seq comparing undifferentiated IM tissue (t0) and differentiated flower tissue, 5 d after induction (t5, floral stage 7).

Fig. S7. ChIP-Seq cluster analysis (DiffBind).

Fig. S8. Changes of expression and H3K27me3 levels at MADS box and homeobox genes during early flower development–ChIP-Seq and qPCR validation data.

Fig. S9. H3K27me3 levels of the *AG–WUS* feedback loop. Fig. S10. Venn diagram comparing H3K27me3 ChIP-seq data (t5) and gene expression (t5) (Ryan *et al.*, 2015).

Fig. S11.Venn diagram comparing published target genes of key floral TFs and H3K27me3 targets.

Fig. S12. ChIP-qPCR of H3K27me3 level at TF genes in *emf2-10 vrn2-1 (ev)*.

Fig. S13. Expression the 12 HD and nine MADS TF genes, which gained H3K27me3 and decreased in expression during early flower development, in *emf2-10 vrn2-1 (ev)* inflorescence tips using RT–qPCR.

Fig. S14. LFY misexpression in emf2-10 vrn2-1 (ev).

Fig. S15. Genetic interaction of strong PcG deficiency and loss of A-function during flower development.

Fig. S16. Loss of H3K27me3 at the AGL24 locus in *emf2-10 vrn2-1* (*ev*) inflorescences.

Fig. S17. Expression of AGL24 and STM in clf-28 swn-7 callus-like tissue and *iCLF* inflorescences.

Fig. S18. Rescue of the extra floral organ phenotype in *iCLF* by loss of *STM* (*bum1-3* mutants).

Table S1. Primer list for RT-qPCR.

Table S2. Primer list for ChIP-qPCR.

Table S3. Differentially methylated regions (broad peaks) identified by DiffBind with the DESeq2 method (P-value <0.05).

Table S4. Differentially methylated genes (DMGs) identified by ChIPseeker.

Table S5.List of coding genes with increasing H3K27me3 and decreasing expression levels during early flower development.

Table S6. List of coding genes with decreasing H3K27me3 and increasing expression levels during early flower development.

Table S7. miRNA genes changing H3K27me3 levels during early flower development.

Table S8. Genes that are H3K27me3 targets in IM (t0) and/ or flowers (t5, floral stage 7).

Table S9. Carpel number and fifth whorl per silique in PcG and *STM*-deficient flowers (percent).

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#### Author contributions

All authors performed the experiments; RMX and JG: design; RMX and QX: writing with the help of RA and JT; LV and GW: performing the bioinformatics analysis with the technical support of SoC and SuC.

### **Conflict of interest**

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

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#### Data availability

The ChIP-Seq data were deposited in the Gene Expression Omnibus under the series GSE159988. All other relevant data are available within the paper and its supplementary data published online.

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