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ETHYLENE RESPONSE FACTOR6, a central regulator of plant growth in response to stress

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ABSTRACT

ETHYLENE RESPONSE FACTOR6 (ERF6) has emerged as a central player in stress-induced plant growth inhibition. It orchestrates complex pathways that enable plants to acclimate and thrive in challenging environments. In response to various abiotic and biotic stresses, ERF6 is promptly activated through both ethylene-dependent and -independent pathways, and contributes to enhanced stress tolerance mechanisms by activating a broad spectrum of genes at various developmental stages. Despite the crucial role of ERF6, there is currently a lack of published comprehensive insights into its function in plant growth and stress response. In this respect, based on the tight connection between ethylene and ERF6, we review the latest research findings on how ethylene regulates stress responses and the mechanisms involved. In addition, we summarize the trends and advances in ERF6-mediated plant performance under optimal and stressful conditions. Finally, we also highlight key questions and suggest potential paths to unravel the ERF6 regulon in future research.

KEYWORDS: ERF6, ethylene, plant growth, biotic stress response, abiotic stress response, signaling network

1 | INTRODUCTION

Being sessile organisms, plants need to adapt to a wide range of (a)biotic stresses (Zhu 2016; Brenya *et al.* 2022). To properly react to these environmental changes, multiple sophisticated mechanisms, like hormone signal transduction and kinase cascade activation, are induced, enabling plants to complete their life cycle under suboptimal growth conditions (Yu *et al.* 2020; Waadt *et al.* 2022; Zhang & Zhang 2022). Members of the APETALA2/ETHYLENE RESPONSIVE FACTOR (AP2/ERF) transcription factor family rapidly respond to environmental stimuli and alter downstream target gene expression to enable survival under stress conditions (Feng *et al.* 2020; Shoji & Yuan 2021). The ERF subfamily consists of 65 members in *Arabidopsis* (Nakano *et al.* 2006), all featuring a conserved AP2 domain that enables them to bind to target gene promoters and regulate gene expression, by acting either as activators or repressors (Wessler 2005). Other protein domains are distinct in different ERFs, which allow classification into several sub-groups.

ERF6, a transcriptional activator, belongs to the ERF group IX subfamily, which is further categorized into three subgroups based on the conserved motifs (CMIX) found in the proteins (Figure 1a) (Nakano *et al.* 2006). For instance, both ERF14 and ERF15 are classified under group IX-c due to the presence of the CMIX-1 motif, whereas the three osmotic stress-induced *ERF1A* and *ERF2* and *ERF13* belong to group IX-a as they share one CMIX-3 motif, a putative transcription activation domain. By contrast, ERF6 and its closest homolog ERF5 are classified within group IX-b, due to the presence of the CMIX-2 motif in their N-terminus, along with an additional putative MITOGEN-ACTIVATED PROTEIN KINASE (MAPK) phosphorylation motif, designated as CMIX-5, located in the C-terminus. Mutations in these domains would significantly impact the stability and function of ERF proteins. For example, a single nucleotide substitution in the AP2 domain can lead to the loss of ERF6 function (Li *et al.* 2019). Alternatively, the Ser residues in the ERF6 CMIX-5 are crucial for ERF6 phosphorylation and stability: MPK3/MPK6 phosphorylate these residues, promoting ERF6 stabilization (Meng *et al.* 2013; Wang *et al.* 2013). In concert, compared to *35S::ERF6^{WT}*, a higher level of ERF6 protein is detected in the *35S::ERF6^{4D}* line, where these Ser residues were altered to mimic phosphorylation (Meng *et al.* 2013). Notably, inhibition of the 26S proteasome pathway still enhanced the ERF6 protein level in the *35S::ERF6^{4D}* line, suggesting that ERF6 is also subjected to an ubiquitin-proteasome degradation pathway independent of the MPK3/MPK6-mediated phosphorylation.

In contrast to group IX-c proteins, the roles of group IX-a and IX-b proteins in plant growth and stress response have been extensively investigated (Skirycz *et al.* 2011; Van den Broeck *et al.* 2017; Yu *et al.* 2024b). ERF6 serves as the core member in subgroup IX-b when it comes to studying stress-related phenotypes, as either *ERF6* loss- or gain-of-function mutants display clear sensitivity or tolerance to various stresses (Nakano *et al.* 2006). Interestingly, the role of ERF6 in stress responses was not restricted to Arabidopsis, but the peanut (*Arachis hypogaea*), grapevine (*Vitis vinifera*) and longan (*Dimocarpus longan*) *ERF6* orthologs were also associated to growth and stress response (Du *et al.* 2023; Zhang *et al.* 2023). Additionally, multiple stress conditions, including cold, hypoxia, osmotic and high light stress, and also fungal or bacterial attacks, are able to rapidly induce *ERF6* expression and stabilize ERF6 proteins, whereas cadmium represses *ERF6* (Figure 1b)(Hruz *et al.* 2008; Dubois *et al.* 2013; Meng *et al.* 2013; Vogel *et al.* 2014; Chen *et al.* 2024). Interestingly, the *ERF6* homolog *ERF5* is also induced by these stress conditions, suggesting that the upregulation of both *ERF6* and *ERF5* under multiple stresses may be subjected to similar transcriptional regulatory mechanisms (Moffat *et al.* 2012; Pan *et al.* 2012; Son *et al.* 2012; Wang *et al.* 2018; Illgen *et al.* 2020). Given the presence of MYB and WRKY binding motifs in both the *ERF6* and *ERF5* promoters, it is possible that these groups of transcription factors are involved in coordinating the expression of *ERF6* and *ERF5*. Notably, *ERF5* orthologs were also found to be stress-responsive in apple (*Malus domestica*), tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum*) and tobacco (*Nicotiana tabacum*) (Zhu *et al.* 2018; Ji *et al.* 2022; Wang *et al.* 2022a). Downstream, upon activation, ERF6 regulates downstream targets involved in signal transduction, lactoperoxidase activity and glutathione binding, contributing to the coordination of various biological processes such as leaf growth, detoxification and defense responses against pathogens. Moreover, being the stress-responsive hormone, ethylene plays a crucial role in the transcriptional activation of *ERF6* (Skirycz *et al.* 2011). Given the pivotal role of ethylene in the regulation of ERF6 activity, we begin this review with a brief summary of the ethylene biosynthesis and signaling pathway and its involvement in plant growth regulation during environmental stress. More importantly, we highlight that ERF6 acts as a key regulator in stress signaling and growth.

2 | OVERVIEW OF ETHYLENE BIOSYNTHESIS AND SIGNAL TRANSDUCTION IN *ARABIDOPSIS*

The biosynthesis of ethylene consists of three simple steps, with the first step being the conversion of the amino acid methionine (Met) into S-adenosyl-methionine (SAM) by SAM synthases (Lieberman & Kunishi 1965; Yang & Hoffman 1984; Wang *et al.* 2002). Subsequently, 1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylic acid (ACC)-SYNTASEs (ACS) catalyze the rate-limiting step of ethylene biosynthesis by converting SAM to ACC (Figure 2a). ACC is then converted into ethylene, through further processing by ACC-OXIDASE (ACO). As the rate of ethylene biosynthesis is limited by the ACS level, regulation of *ACS* gene expression is a key mechanism to control ethylene production (Chae & Kieber 2005; Park *et al.* 2021). This is done post-translationally, for example by MPK3/MPK6 and CASEIN KINASE 1.8 (CK1.8), phosphorylating ACS2 and ACS5, respectively, leading to increased ethylene levels under stress conditions (Tan & Xue 2014; Wang *et al.* 2022b).

Upon ethylene accumulation, the ETHYLENE RESPONSE1 (ETR1) receptor inhibits the kinase CONSTITUTIVE TRIPLE RESPONSE1 (CTR1) from phosphorylating ETHYLENE-INSENSITIVE2 (EIN2), resulting in the cleavage of its C-terminal end (EIN2-CEND) (Figure 2a) (Kieber *et al.* 1993; Alonso *et al.* 1999; Hall *et al.* 2000; Zhao *et al.* 2021a). Consequently, EIN2-CEND translocates to the nucleus, protecting EIN3 and EIN3-LIKE1 (EIL1) from degradation by EIN3-BINDING F-BOX PROTEIN (EBF1/2) (An *et al.* 2010; Qiao *et al.* 2012; Li *et al.* 2015). Downstream, the ERFs are activated for the ethylene response (Solano & Ecker 1998; Binder 2020; Feng *et al.* 2020). Interestingly, despite CTR1 being generally considered as a negative regulator of ethylene signaling, a recent study found that the CTR1 protein still partially translocates to the nucleus and triggers a second ethylene response in an EIN2-independent manner (Figure 2a) (Park *et al.* 2023). Moreover, the nuclear localization of EIN2 is also modulated by the glucose-activated TARGET OF RAPAMYCIN (TOR) kinase, suggesting a role of EIN2 in response to metabolic signals (Fu *et al.* 2021). In addition to the canonical CTR1-mediated ethylene signaling pathway, ethylene signal transduction can circumvent the CTR1 kinase. This non-canonical transduction might be achieved by the interaction of ETR1 and the cytokinin-positive regulator HISTIDINE-CONTAINING PHOSPHOTRANSMITTER (AHP) (Scharein *et al.* 2008; Zdarska *et al.*

2019). Overall, these diverse regulatory mechanisms illustrate the need for a precise control of ethylene synthesis and signaling transduction in plants (Figure 2a).

3 | THE MULTIPLE ROLES OF ETHYLENE IN STRESS RESPONSES

Although the chemical structure of ethylene is simple, ethylene broadly affects a large variety of pivotal biological processes (Bleecker & Kende 2000; Dubois *et al.* 2018; Hartman *et al.* 2021; Huang *et al.* 2023). Multiple stress conditions, such as wounding, osmotic stress and cold, alter ACS expression or ACS protein stability, inducing ethylene synthesis (Figure 2b) (Dong *et al.* 2011; Catalá *et al.* 2014; Li *et al.* 2018). Further downstream, a wide array of proteins acts to connect the ethylene accumulation to a proper stress response, depending on which type of stress is perceived. As such, the core component of the SALT OVERLY SENSITIVE (SOS) pathway, SOS2, interacts with CTR1 to induce EIN2-CEND cleavage, initiating the activation of salt-responsive genes and enhancing plant resilience to salt stress (Li *et al.* 2024). Ethylene is involved in temperature stress resistance as well (Bolt *et al.* 2017; Antonietta *et al.* 2023; Huang *et al.* 2023), as the ethylene-insensitive mutants *etr1-1* and *ein2-5* show heat sensitivity and freezing tolerance (Figure 2b) (Larkindale *et al.*, 2005; Shi *et al.*, 2012). Recent findings revealed that moderate increases in temperature disrupt EIN3 protein proteolysis by targeting the degradation of EBF1/2 through SALT- AND DROUGHT-INDUCED RING FINGER1 (SDRF1), as such modulating the ethylene response during changing temperature (Hao *et al.* 2021). Ethylene also serves as the primary signal in response to flooding stress (Hartman *et al.* 2019; Hartman *et al.* 2021). The intrinsic ethylene levels rise rapidly in waterlogged root tips and further induce EIN2-dependent core hypoxia genes transcription when O₂ is depleted (Hinz *et al.* 2010; Licausi *et al.* 2011; Yang *et al.* 2011). In addition, ethylene also contributes to flooding acclimation by promoting the phosphorylation of the initiation factor 2 α (eIF2 α) by GENERAL CONTROL NON-DEREPRESSIBLE 2 (GCN2) (Lageix *et al.* 2008). This phosphorylation inhibits overall protein translation, while stimulating the translation of hypoxia-related mRNAs (Cho *et al.* 2022). Finally, with the increase of ethylene production upon osmotic stress, several *ERFs*, including *ERF1*, *ERF2*, *ERF5*, *ERF6* and *ERF11* are rapidly induced in growing leaves (Skirycz *et al.* 2011). Interestingly, this type of induction is still observed in the absence of EIN3 and EIL1, suggesting that an EIN3 and EIL1-independent pathway is established for the regulation of *ERFs* by osmotic stress. Possibly, *ERFs* that can be activated

post-translationally (by MPK3/MPK6, Figure 1b) and that can activate their own expression, such as ERF6, could be one of these pathways. In conclusion, ethylene plays a complex role in the interaction of plants with environmental stress (Figure 2b).

4 | ERF6 CONNECTS ETHYLENE AND GIBBERELLIN SIGNALING IN GROWTH REGULATION

Growing evidence indicates that ERF6 functions as a central molecular hub to fine-tune plant growth and defense tradeoffs. In *Arabidopsis*, ERF6 inhibits cell division and expansion, ultimately resulting in the suppression of leaf growth (Dubois *et al.* 2013). Therefore, *ERF6* overexpression results in dark green and dwarf plants, while *erf5erf6*, double loss-of-function mutants, and the double mutant of *erf6* with another ERF, *erf13*, are larger compared to wild-type plants (Dubois *et al.* 2013; Meng *et al.* 2013; Chen *et al.* 2024). Among the early induced ERF6 target genes, *GIBBERELLIN 2- β -DIOXYGENASE 6* (*GA2OX6*) was identified. The oxygenase GA2OX6 is responsible for inactivating gibberellin (GA), a crucial phytohormone promoting growth. GA blocks root and leaf growth through the degradation of the GA repressor protein DELLA (Yamaguchi 2008; Davière & Achard 2013). During the vegetative stage, DELLA proteins orchestrate cell division and cell expansion through the promotion of genes encoding cell cycle inhibitors like *KIP-RELATED PROTEIN 2* (*KRP2*) and *SHOOT MERISTEMLESS* (*STM*) and the repression of *EXPANSIN8* (Achard *et al.* 2009; Serrano-Mislata *et al.* 2017). Interestingly, ERF6 stabilizes DELLA proteins, most likely as a consequence of the induction of *GA2OX6* (Figure 1c). Furthermore, overexpressing *GA20-OX* in the *35S::ERF6-GR* line, in which ERF6 is tagged with a rat glucocorticoid receptor domain to control its activation, reverses the dwarf phenotype caused by ERF6, highlighting the essential role of the GA-DELLA module in ERF6-mediated growth inhibition. In addition, the upregulation of *ERF6* also induces its downstream target *ERF11* (Figure 1c). In turn, ERF11, a transcriptional inhibitor, competes with ERF6 for the regulation of downstream target genes, such as *MYB51*, *GA2OX6*, in a dose-dependent manner, leading to the downregulation of *GA2OX6* and partial abolishment of the dwarfism caused by elevated *ERF6* expression (Dubois *et al.* 2015). On top of its negative effect on *GA2OX6* expression, ERF11 enhances the GA response in the internode by stimulating the production of bioactive GA₄ and

physically antagonizing DELLA proteins (Figure 1c). As a result, it facilitates cell expansion and promotes increased plant height (Zhou *et al.* 2016).

Overall, these studies demonstrate that ERF6 connects ethylene and GA signaling in a dual manner (Figure 1b). On one front, ERF6 inhibits GA signaling by enhancing *GA2OX6* expression, thereby reducing the levels of bioactive GAs. Conversely, ERF6 induces *ERF11*, encoding a protein that promotes the GA response in the internode. Although these two pathways seemingly counteract each other, it suggests that the regulation of plant growth by ethylene and GA does not occur in a linear manner but likely involves feedback loops or tissue-specific regulation to finely modulate plant growth.

5 | ERF6 TRANSMITS OSMOTIC STRESS SIGNALS TO DOWNSTREAM STRESS DEFENSE GENES

For decades, in-plate osmotic stress has been utilized to mimic drought stress *in vitro* since both conditions lead to turgor loss in plants. However, unlike drought stress, osmotic stress generated by mannitol, sorbitol, sucrose or NaCl triggers plasmolysis and, thus, a distinct downstream molecular response compared to in soil-applied drought stress (Yu *et al.* 2024a). Notably, *ERF6* gene expression is quickly induced by osmotic stress but not by drought stress (Clauw *et al.* 2015; Dubois *et al.* 2017). Upon short-term osmotic stress treatment, a series of molecular events takes places (reviewed in Yu *et al.* (2024a)). Changes in membrane tension activate the hyperosmolarity-gated calcium channel OSCA1 protein, initiating the influx of cytosolic free Ca²⁺ into the cytoplasm (Yuan *et al.* 2014; Pei *et al.* 2022; Han *et al.* 2024). These calcium ions are subsequently taken up by the chloroplast with the help of CHLOROPLAST-LOCALIZED MITOCHONDRIAL CALCIUM UNIPORTER (cMCU). Further downstream, histidine kinases (HKs) and receptor-like kinases (RLKs) directly perceive the physiological alterations (Hoang *et al.* 2021). The ethylene receptor ETR1, which is one of the HK kinases in play, interacts with the RAF-like kinase ARK to transfer the signal to the subclass III-type sucrose-non-fermenting-1(SNF1)-related protein kinase 2 (SnRK2), which in turn induces an osmotic stress response (Lin *et al.* 2020; Soma *et al.* 2020).

Interestingly, within 10 min, the stromal Ca^{2+} signal also initiates the activation of MPK3/MPK6 and the expression of *ERF6* (Teardo *et al.* 2019). Accordingly, in the absence of cMCU, plants fail to induce *ERF6* expression, enhancing resistance towards mannitol. Confirming this finding, our lab previously observed that treating plants with mannitol causes a rapid increase in ACC levels, together with a fast elevation of *ERF5* and *ERF6* gene expression in actively growing young leaves (Skirycz *et al.* 2011). The fast induction of *ERF5* and *ERF6* by osmotic stress may be attributed to elevated ethylene levels, but given the completion of this signal transduction within 10 min, it is plausible that the induction of *ERF6* expression does not occur via the canonical ethylene signaling pathway. An alternative could be the earlier-discussed MPK3/MPK6 cascade that is activated by ethylene. Upon *ERF6* activation by osmotic stress, *ERF6* in turn regulates the expression of its targets. When comparing genes that are activated by osmotic stress and by *ERF6*, we observed not only stress-responsive genes, such as *SALT TOLERANCE ZINC FINGER (STZ)* and *MYB51*, but also many genes associated with growth (Figure 1c) (Skirycz *et al.* 2011). Accordingly, mutation of *ERF5* and *ERF6* allows plants to grow better than wild-type plants when exposed to mild osmotic stress, suggesting a growth-repressive function for *ERF5* and *ERF6* under osmotic stress.

While there is currently no clear evidence in the literature that drought stress triggers *ERF5* and *ERF6* expression, one study reported that *ERF5* and *ERF6* might participate in the regulation of the drought response (Arjmand *et al.* 2023). In addition, two studies performed on tomato observed that increasing the expression of the paralog *SlERF5* could enhance the survival rate of tomato plants subjected to severe drought (Pan *et al.* 2012; Zhu *et al.* 2018). However, when overlapping the genes that are upregulated by both drought stress and *ERF6*, only 12 genes were identified, indicating that *ERF6* may not serve as the primary regulator in the drought response (Figure 1c). Additionally, it remains unclear whether *ERF5* and *ERF6* overexpression lines exhibit a more tolerant phenotype under severe drought stress in *Arabidopsis*.

6 | ERF6 PROTECTS PLANTS UNDER OXIDATIVE AND HIGH LIGHT STRESS

Rapid induction of the *ERF6* gene is also triggered by high light and oxidative stress (Vermeirssen *et al.* 2014). Under high light and oxidative stress, reactive

oxygen species (ROS) like superoxide anion ($O_2^{\bullet-}$) and hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) are produced, leading to cellular membrane damage, protein structure alterations and even cell death (König *et al.* 2018; Shi *et al.* 2022; Wu *et al.* 2023). In response to ROS, plants produce ROS scavenger-like SUPEROXIDE DISMUTASES (SODs) that convert $O_2^{\bullet-}$ to H_2O_2 , which is subsequently eliminated by CATALASES (CATs) and PEROXIDASES (PRXs) (Waszczak *et al.* 2018; Abuelsoud *et al.* 2020). In contrast, low-level ROS function as signaling molecules to efficiently modulate various cellular processes, like cell proliferation and differentiation, by activating protein cascades and regulating gene expression (Mittler 2017; Qi *et al.* 2018).

ERF6 is considered as a ROS-responsive gene, with its expression being strongly and rapidly stimulated either by exogenous ROS application from the herbicide paraquat or by subjecting young seedlings to high light conditions (Figure 1b) (Sewelam *et al.* 2013; Wang *et al.* 2013; König *et al.* 2018; Roeber *et al.* 2021). The mechanism by which the ROS signal activates *ERF6* is not fully elucidated. One possible pathway could involve ethylene, as ROS has been shown to induce *ACS* genes in rice and *Arabidopsis* (Wi *et al.* 2012; Martin *et al.* 2022). Furthermore, ROS activate MPK3/MPK6, leading to the stabilization of the *ERF6* protein (Meng *et al.* 2013; Wang *et al.* 2013). Additionally, in the *triose phosphate translocator* (*TPT*) mutant, where the export of triose phosphate from the chloroplast to the cytosol is compromised, early *ERF6* induction by high light is absent, suggesting a role for metabolic signals in regulating early *ERF6* responses (Vogel *et al.* 2014).

Similarly to the osmotic stress-responsive genes, a significant portion of the ROS-responsive genes can be regulated by *ERF6*. Approximately 15% of genes induced by ROS are upregulated in *35S::ERF6^{4D}* young seedlings and/or by *35S::ERF6-GR* (Figure 1c) (Dubois *et al.* 2013; Meng *et al.* 2013; Sewelam *et al.* 2013; Wang *et al.* 2013). Moreover, *ERF6* is able to bind to a specific element called ROS7/GCC in the promoter regions of target genes (Wang *et al.* 2013). Genes such as *WRKY33*, which are upregulated by ROS and *ERF6*, have one or more ROS7/GCC boxes in their promoter regions, indicating potential direct binding of *ERF6* during the ROS response. Although no ROS7/GCC box was identified in the promoters of *MYB51* and *DARK INDUCIBLE11* (*DIN11*), these two genes are also promoted by ROS and *ERF6*, but potentially through another binding site. Interestingly, some genes commonly upregulated in the *35S::ERF6-GR* and *35S::ERF6^{4D}* plants, like *PATHOGENESIS-RELATED* (*PR5*) and *PROTODERMAL FACTOR1.2* (*PDF1.2*), are not induced by short-term H_2O_2 in the wild type but can be further induced by *ERF6*

upon exogenous H₂O₂ application. Hence, these genes could also be classified as ROS-responsive genes possibly directly regulated by ERF6. Conversely, evidence suggests that ERF6 alters the H₂O₂ level in plants, as an increased H₂O₂ content was observed in the *erf6* mutant. Accordingly, *erf6* displays a more sensitive phenotype in response to oxidative stress. This may be achieved by the strong downregulation of ROS-induced *CATALASE3* (*CAT3*) and *MONODEHYDROASCORBATE REDUCTASE3* (*MDAR3*), two enzymes responsible for ROS-detoxification, in *erf6* (Sewelam *et al.* 2013).

Altogether, these published studies support a role for ERF6 in the oxidative stress response. ERF6 is transcriptionally induced by ROS and stabilized at the protein level (Wang *et al.* 2013). Subsequently, ERF6 participates in the ROS response to protect plants by activating oxidative stress-defense genes and by, likely indirectly, regulating ROS-detoxification enzymes to maintain the ROS levels at a low, harmless level.

7 | ERF6 IS REQUIRED FOR THE BIOTIC STRESS RESPONSE

Plants frequently encounter biotic stress, including attacks from bacteria, viruses, fungi or oomycetes. In response to these pathogens, plants reprogram multiple hormone signaling pathways to combat the invaders. Different hormones play distinct roles toward specific pathogens (Bastías *et al.* 2022). Upon necrotrophic pathogen attack, jasmonic acid (JA) levels are quickly elevated and promote the expression of the downstream *ERF1* and *ORA/ERF59* genes, and these ERFs further induce *PDF1.2* expression (Berrocal-Lobo *et al.* 2002; Zander *et al.* 2014; Song *et al.* 2022). Ethylene also accumulates during necrotrophic pathogen infections and triggers the expression of *ERF1*, *ORA/ERF59* and *PDF1.2* (Kim *et al.* 2018; Yang *et al.* 2021). In contrast, biotrophic pathogens activate the salicylic acid (SA) pathway, stimulating SA synthesis and subsequently inducing the expression of a group of WRKY transcription factors and *Pathogenesis-Related* (*PR*) genes (van Verk *et al.* 2011; Han *et al.* 2022).

Whereas ethylene might play a less prominent role in the biotic stress response compared to JA or SA, studies have demonstrated significant functions for ERF6 in regulating genes responsive to biotic stresses (Figure 1b-c). Upon necrotrophic pathogen attack, *ERF5* and *ERF6* are strongly induced in infected leaves (Moffat *et al.* 2012). Transcriptome analysis in *35S::ERF6^{4D}* and *35S::ERF6-GR* lines identified a substantial number of genes belonging to the *GLUTATHIONE S-TRANSFERASE*

(*GST*), *PR*, and *PDF* families that are typically highly induced by pathogens. An overlap analysis of genes induced by the necrotrophic pathogen *Botrytis cinerea* and the ERF6-responsive genes shows that approximately 58% and 31% of pathogen-responsive genes are upregulated in *35S::ERF6^{4D}* and *35S::ERF6-GR* plants, respectively (Sham *et al.* 2014) (Figure 1c). Among these genes, *PDF1.1* and *PDF1.2* are of particular interest: following *B. cinerea* inoculation, both genes are strongly induced in *35S::ERF6^{4D}* but not in *35S::ERF6-EAR* plants, where the ERF6 function is repressed by the ERF-associated amphiphilic repression (EAR) motif. This indicates a critical role for ERF6 in regulating the expression of genes involved in the defense response against necrotrophic pathogens. Moreover, ERF6 promotes the biosynthesis of 4-methoxyindol-3-ylmethylglucosinolate (4MI3G) by directly triggering the genes encoding key enzymes in this pathway, such as *CYP81F2* and *INDOLE GLUCOSINOLATE O-METHYLTRANSFERASE* (Xu *et al.* 2016). 4MI3G is a natural product derived from aliphatic glucosinolates that increases plant innate immunity against various fungal and oomycetic pathogens (Bednarek *et al.* 2009; Tao *et al.* 2022). Supporting this, the *ERF6*-overexpressing plants exhibit an increased resistance against the necrotrophic *B. cinerea*, while *B. cinerea* causes more damage to *35S::ERF6-EAR* plants (Xu *et al.* 2016). Furthermore, the *PDF1.2* promoter contains a ROS/GCC-box *cis*-element, which can be bound by ERF6. Strikingly, overexpressing *ERF6^{4D}* in the constitutive ethylene response mutant *etr1-1* and ethylene insensitive mutant *ein2* does not influence the positive impact of ERF6 on *PDF1.2* expression, demonstrating that alternative signaling pathways, rather than ethylene signaling, are involved in this context (Meng *et al.* 2013). However, it is worth noting that another study presented contradictory results, where overexpression of *ERF5* causes hypersensitivity to necrotrophic fungi *Alternaria brassicicola*, while the *erf5erf6* double mutant exhibited enhanced tolerance against this pathogen (Son *et al.* 2012).

By contrast, ERF6 contributes a negative role during infection with biotrophic pathogens, like *Golovinomyces cichoracearum*. For example, ERF6 indirectly suppresses the expression of *RESISTANCE TO POWDERY MILDEW 8.1 (RPW8.1)*, which encodes an atypical resistance protein involved in broad-spectrum resistance against powdery mildew pathogens (Zhao *et al.* 2021b). Therefore, the *erf6* mutant shows increased immunity against powdery mildew pathogens. Comparative analysis of genes upregulated in *35S::ERF6^{4D}* and *35S::ERF6-GR* plants with those responsive to the pathogen *Pseudomonas syringae (Pst)* reveals

a significant overlap. Because the *erf6* mutant displays increased susceptibility to *Pst* DC3000 infection, these data suggest that ERF6 also participates in defense against *P. syringae* (Son *et al.* 2012; Gupta & Senthil-Kumar 2017). One of the critical genes involved in defense against *P. syringae* is SA-induced *PR1*, which has been shown to be induced upon *ERF5* or *ERF6* overexpression (Son *et al.* 2012). In accordance, overexpressing *ERF5* or *ERF6* has been associated with an increased resistance to *P. syringae*, although this could not be confirmed in another study (Moffat *et al.* 2012). Discrepancies observed in these studies might be attributed to variations in time points or methods of pathogen invasion.

Besides fungi and bacteria, other pathogens, like the root-knot nematode *Meloidogyne incognita*, also trigger ERF6 function (Warmerdam *et al.* 2019). A genome-wide association analysis of genome loci linked to invasion by this nematode highlights ERF6 for modulating defense processes against these destructive pathogens. After *M. incognita* infection, 327 genes that are enriched for nucleotide metabolism, photosynthesis and hormone metabolism processes, are differentially expressed in the hypersusceptible *erf6* mutant, but not in the wild type, underscoring the control of ERF6 over this response and its contribution to the plant's tolerance. Interestingly, the ethylene synthesis genes *ACO2* and *ACO3* are repressed in nematode-infected *erf6* roots, suggesting that ERF6-dependent ethylene synthesis may be required for the resistance to *M. incognita* (Warmerdam *et al.* 2019). Taken together, these findings underline the complex and context-dependent roles of ERF6 in modulating plant responses to different types of pathogens, highlighting the need for further research to elucidate the intricate signaling pathways involved in plant-microbe interactions.

8 | CONCLUDING REMARKS AND PERSPECTIVES

Although emerging evidence highlights the role of ERF6 in the regulation of plant growth and diverse stress responses, several unresolved questions deserve to be explored in future studies. First, apart from the stress conditions discussed earlier, it is worth noting that other environmental stresses, like virus infection, hypoxia and cold stress, can also trigger the expression of *ERF6* (Dubois *et al.* 2013; Illgen *et al.* 2020). Given that *ERF5*, a close homolog of *ERF6*, has been implicated in plant resistance against viruses, it is interesting to address the questions of whether *ERF6* plays a similar role in viral response regulation and whether these regulatory mechanisms overlap.

Second, in response to many abiotic stresses, both ethylene and *ERF6* expression are induced within a very short time, raising the question of how *ERF6* transcription is regulated so fast. Presently, EIN3 and EIL1 are the sole known transcription factors partially involved in *ERF6* expression regulation. An alternative is that ethylene-induced MPK3/MPK6 activity leads to increased phosphorylation of *ERF6* (Meng *et al.* 2013). This more stable form of *ERF6* might initiate a positive feedback loop that promotes *ERF6* expression. Furthermore, it has been observed that *ERF6* transcripts are unstable, as evidenced by the detection of *ERF6*-derived siRNAs in the *35S::ERF6-GR* line (Li *et al.* 2019). Therefore, it is possible that *ERF6* transcripts rapidly accumulate by modulating the siRNA-mediated post-transcriptional gene silencing pathway during early stress responses (Wu *et al.* 2020), and this novel hypothesis requires exploration.

Third, the current understanding of the regulation of *ERF6* by post-translational modifications is still incomplete. Actually, only phosphorylation of *ERF6* by MPK3/MPK6 at specific sites has been studied (Meng *et al.* 2013; Wang *et al.* 2013). However, *in silico* analysis predicts other potential phosphorylation sites that remain to be investigated (Netphos 3.1, Blom *et al.* 2004), and it is known that the interplay between different phosphorylations is vital for fine-tuning protein activities (Fu *et al.* 2021; Bilbrough *et al.* 2022). Additionally, a prior study confirmed that the phosphorylated form of *ERF6* can be stabilized by proteasome inhibition, suggesting the possibility of *ERF6* being ubiquitinated. Therefore, deciphering novel phosphorylation and ubiquitination sites and revealing the regulatory processes controlling them could provide valuable insights into the regulation of the stability or function of the *ERF6* protein.

Fourth, we are currently still lacking insights into how exactly *ERF6* regulates its targets. A comparison of two transcriptome datasets from *35S::ERF6-GR* (in very young leaves) and *35S::ERF6^{4D}* (in 12-day-old seedlings) revealed that 50% of genes upregulated by *ERF6^{4D}* are also induced by *ERF6-GR* proteins (Figure 1c). These common genes, including for example *PDF1.2* and *DIN11*, can be considered as robust *ERF6* targets, induced independently of the developmental context. However, not all target gene promoters contain the ROS7/GCC box, suggesting that additional, yet to be discovered, binding sites may be necessary for *ERF6*-mediated transcriptional regulation. Alternatively, a previous study proposed that *ERF6* might be intricately associated with chromatin (Meng *et al.* 2013). This suggests that *ERF6* acts as a pioneering transcription factor to initiate gene

transcription through chromatin remodeling, but more concrete analyses are required to further confirm this and other ERF6 modes of action.

Fifth, given the strong phenotype caused by *ERF6-GR* and *ERF6^{4D}* overexpression, it appears unlikely that the downregulation of the GA response by ERF6 is solely responsible for this phenotype. It is essential to dive deeper into the interplay between ERF6 and a broader array of growth-related genes to gain a comprehensive understanding of how ERF6 regulates plant growth.

Finally, as ERF6 is a central positive regulator of stress responses, it will be exciting to investigate this pathway in crops and explore its potential in contributing to breeding towards stress tolerance. However, because ERF6 is an unstable protein and inhibits leaf growth in *Arabidopsis*, simply knocking-out or overexpressing *ERF6* in crops is would not be sufficient to increase yield. Therefore, an alternative strategy could be to drive *ERF6* expression with a specific promoter that triggers *ERF6* expression in some specific organs or cell types. This method could help mitigate the biomass loss typically associated with growing tissues affected by ERF6 while still preserving the potential for stress resistance. Moreover, most of previous ERF6-related research was performed in *Arabidopsis* and the function of ERF6 and its homolog protein may not be completely conserved in crops. Gaining information from *Arabidopsis* and investigating ERF6 function in crops is therefore necessary to make the knowledge more applicable.

Overall, addressing these outstanding questions will not only deepen our comprehension of the diverse roles executed by ERF6 in plant development and stress responses but will also facilitate the exploration of innovative strategies to enhance crop resilience and productivity in challenging environments.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon request.

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FIGURES

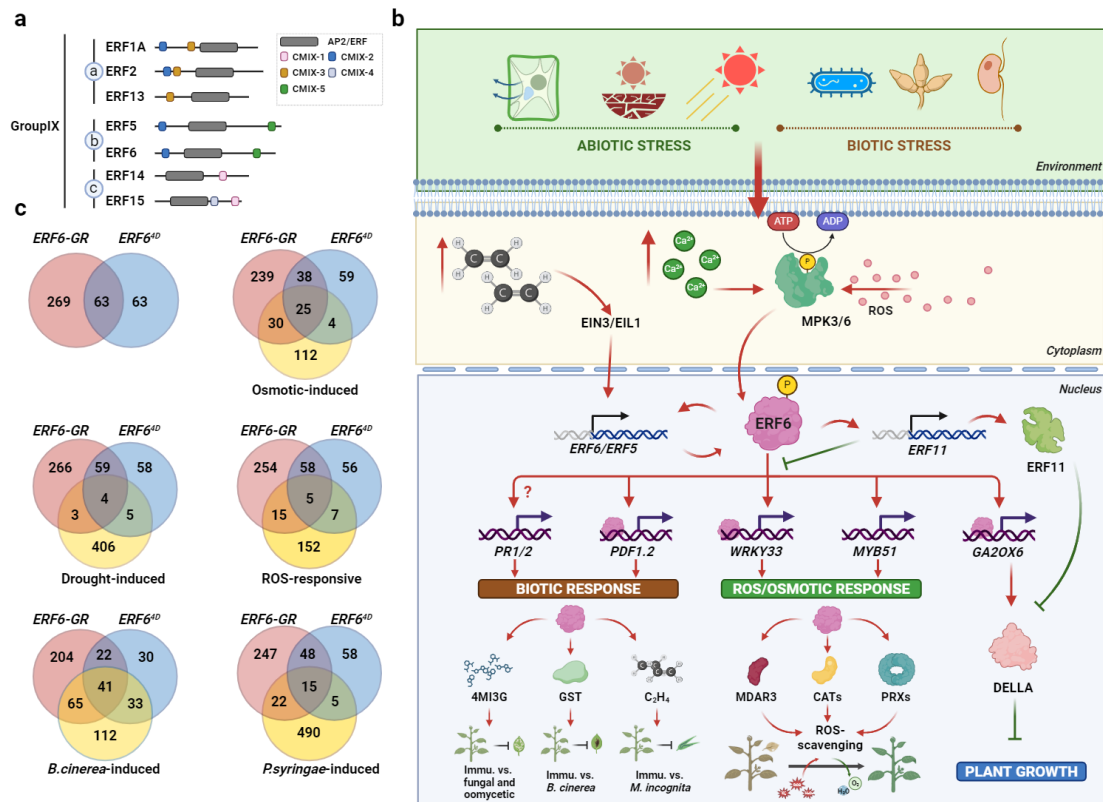


Figure 1 | Overview of the role of ERF6 in plant growth and stress responses. (a) Overview of the ERF group IX members. According to the conserved motifs of group IX (CMIX), the group IX is divided into three sub-groups, including group IX-a, group IX-b, and group IX-c. In group IX-b, ERF5 is the closest homolog of ERF6. (b) Recent advances regarding ERF6's function in plant growth and stress responses. See text for more details. (c) Comparison of genes induced by ERF6-GR or ERF6^{4D} and genes triggered by osmotic stress, reactive oxygen species (ROS), drought stress, *Botrytis cinerea* or *Pseudomonas syringae* based on published microarray or RNA-sequencing data (Wu *et al.* 2012; Dubois *et al.* 2013; Meng *et al.* 2013; Sham *et al.* 2014; Gupta & Senthil-Kumar 2017). The 35S::ERF^{4D} line was generated by substituting Ser-266 and Ser-299 of the ERF6 protein with Asp to mimic the phosphorylation at these specific sites. The figure is created with BioRender.com (<https://www.biorender.com/>).

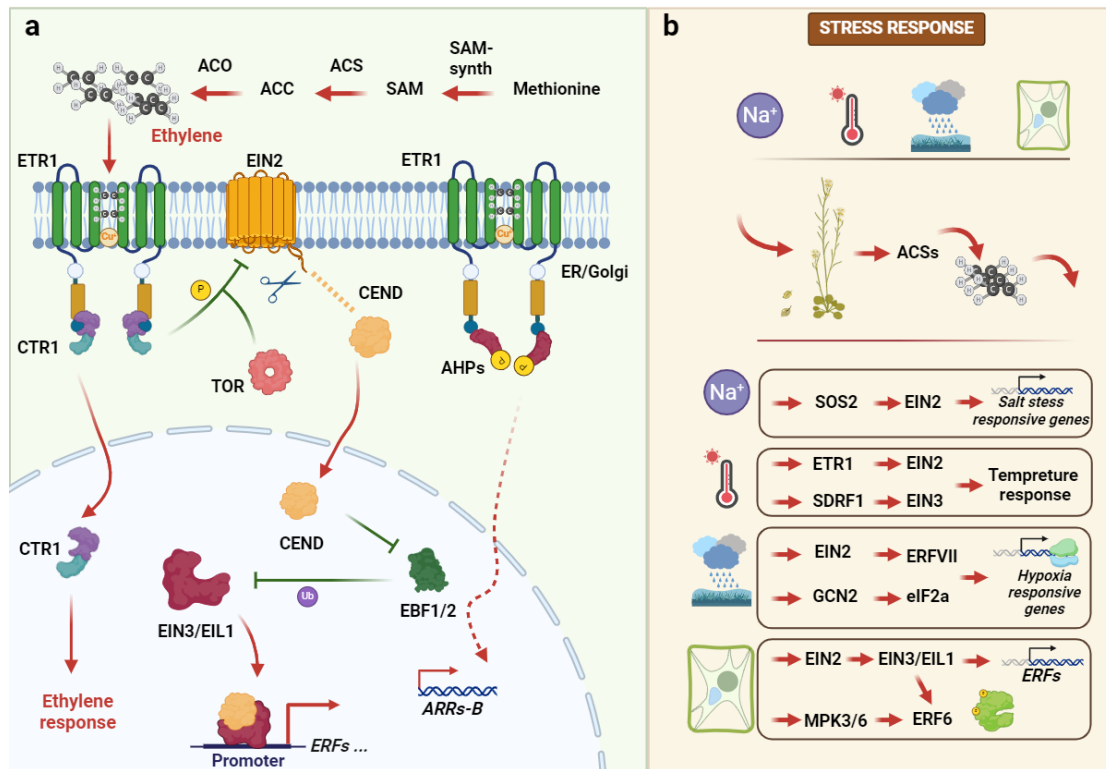


Figure 2 | Ethylene biosynthesis and signaling, and its role in stress responses. (a) The biosynthesis and signal transduction of ethylene. See text for more details. (b) The involvement of ethylene in stress responses. Upon exposure to different stresses, like wounding, pathogens, cold, etc., the genes encoding ACSs are trans-activated and ACSs accumulate to a high level, promoting ethylene biosynthesis. High ethylene levels trigger positive regulators of ethylene responses such as EIN2, EIN3, and ERFs, which in turn activate downstream stress responses. ACC, 1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylic acid; ACO, ACC-OXIDASE; ACS, ACC-SYNTHASE; AHP, HISTIDINE-CONTAINING PHOSPHOTRANSMITTER; ARR-B, type-B *ARABIDOPSIS* RESPONSE REGULATOR; CTR1, CONSTITUTIVE TRIPLE RESPONSE1; EBF1/2, EIN3-BINDING F-BOX PROTEIN; eIF2α, initiation factor 2α; EIL1, EIN3-LIKE; EIN2-CEND, C-terminal domain of ETHYLENE INSENSITIVE2; ERFs, ETHYLENE RESPONSE FACTORS; ETR1, ETHYLENE RESPONSE1; GCN2, GENERAL CONTROL NON-DEREPRESSIBLE 2; Met, methionine; SOS2, SALT OVERLY SENSITIVE 2; SDRF1, SALT- AND DROUGHT-INDUCED RING FINGER1; SAM, S-adenosyl-l-methionine. The figure is created with BioRender.com (<https://www.biorender.com/>).