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Adaptive reprogramming during early seed germination requires temporarily enhanced fermentation – a critical role for alternative oxidase (AOX) regulation that concerns also microbiota effectiveness

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Abstract:

Plants respond to environmental cues via adaptive cell reprogramming that can affect whole plant and ecosystem functionality. Microbiota constitutes part of plant's inner and outer environment. This *Umwelt* underlies steady dynamics, due to complex local and global biotic and abiotic changes. Hence, adaptive plant holobiont responses are crucial for continuous metabolic adjustment at systems levels. Plants require oxygen-dependent respiration for energy-dependent adaptive morphology, such as, germination, root and shoot growth, formation of adventitious, clonal and reproductive organs, fruits and seeds. Fermentative paths can help in acclimation and, to our view the role of alternative oxidase (AOX) in coordinating complex metabolic and physiologic adjustments is underestimated.

Cellular level of sucrose is an important sensor of environmental stress. We explored the role of exogenous sucrose and its interplay with AOX during early seed germination. We found that sucrose-dependent initiation of fermentation during the first 12 hours after imbibition (HAI) was beneficial to germination. However, parallel enhanced AOX expression was essential to control negative effects by prolonged sucrose treatment. Early down-regulated AOX activity until 12 HAI improved germination efficiency in the absence of sucrose, but suppressed early germination in its presence. Our results also suggest that seeds-inoculated arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi can buffer sucrose stress during germination to restore normal respiration more efficiently.

Following this approach, we propose a simple method to identify organic seeds and low-cost *on-farm* perspectives for early selection on disease tolerance, predicting plant holobiont behavior and improving germination. Furthermore, our research strengthens the view that AOX can serve as powerful functional marker source for seed hologenomes.

Keywords: seed quality, ROS, Warburg effect, bacterial endophytes and mycorrhizal fungi, organic seeds, biotic stress, *on-farm* seed selection

1 **Introduction:**

2 Understanding the role of microbiota in adaptive plant robustness is important for crop
3 improvement and for developing innovative tools that could allow more efficient plant
4 selection (Arnholdt-Schmitt et al., 2014, Nogales et al., 2015, Arnholdt-Schmitt et al.,
5 2015, Arnholdt-Schmitt et al., 2018). Research on the relevance of endophytic and
6 associated microbiota and usage of microbiota inoculation are often hampered by low
7 reproducibility, which is due to a lack of better understanding the fundamental principles
8 of functional plant-microbiota interaction (Arnholdt-Schmitt, 2008, Vicente and Arnholdt-
9 Schmitt, 2008, Mercy et al., 2015, Campos et al., 2015, Mercy et al., 2017, Bedini et al.,
10 2018). Albornoz et al. (2020) emphasizes the need for studying mycorrhizal benefits on a
11 case-by-case basis that should consider more holistic and context-dependent views on
12 mycorrhiza functioning at plant family- and biome-wide levels. Also, it is widely
13 confirmed that endophyte effects are genotype-specific (Abdelrazek et al., 2020a,b).
14 Further, Durán et al. (2018) identified bacterial endophytes as drivers for soil suppressive
15 take-all disease. Nevertheless, they highlighted that they did not find relevant correlation
16 between disease suppression and reduced pathogen biomass. In our opinion, these are key
17 observations. They encourage us to continue working on the hypothesis that individual
18 plant host's competence for resilience plays the most critical role for beneficial or non-
19 beneficial plant – microbiota interaction, which can be superior to plant families and biome
20 origins.

21

22 However, there is lack of knowledge on traits that aid in (a) early prediction of the strength
23 of plants and (b) demonstration of its relevance for plant-microbiota interactions and (c)
24 transformation of such knowledge into user- and environment-friendly applications for
25 sustainable agriculture. We earnestly aim with our perspective to understand these
26 phenomena and to contribute to the knowledge base towards closing these three gaps.

27

28 The capacity for efficient reprogramming as a trait *per se* is recognized as marker for
29 adaptive plant robustness (Cardoso and Arnholdt-Schmitt, 2013). Seed germination can
30 serve as an experimental *in vitro* tool to study environmental stress-induced
31 reprogramming and to identify early functional markers and tools for predicting plant
32 performance under field conditions (Mohanapriya et al., 2019). Dry seeds are known to
33 respond to water imbibition and subsequent penetration of oxygen. Thus, radicle

34 emergence can be seen as an indicator of environmental stress recovery from the dry-to-
35 water imbibed conditions and low-to-high oxygen status.

36

37 Efficient seed germination under field conditions is especially required in organic
38 agriculture, where application of chemical herbicides for suppressing weed competition
39 and pesticides shall be avoided in support of healthy food and feed production and to
40 improve sustainability of bio-based socio-economic systems. At the same time, organic
41 agriculture impacts seeds quality and the amount of microbiota in seeds (Naomi Cope-
42 Selby et al., 2017, Wassermann et al., 2019). Recently, the use of the so-called ‘organic
43 seeds’ versus conventionally produced seeds is raised as an ethical issue (www.liveseed.eu;
44 effective European regulation from 1.1.2021: EC No 2018/848). However, the better
45 quality of organic seeds in terms of their contribution to agriculture sustainability,
46 nutritional quality and yield performance is under intensive debate (e.g. Voss-Fels et al.,
47 2019, Bhaskar et al., 2019) and requires scientific clarification (Simon et al., 2017,
48 Abdelrazek et al., 2020a,b). Appropriate methods and tools are the need of the time in order
49 to discriminate organic versus conventional seeds by traits that should at the same time
50 allow predicting the assumed superior quality of organic seeds.

51

52 **Background:**

53 Cellular reprogramming is an energy intensive phenomenon. Reactive oxygen species
54 (ROS) are known to interact with redox-sensitive protein cysteine thiol groups relevant for
55 energy metabolism and metabolic channeling linked to cell differentiation and cell cycle
56 regulation (Bigarella et al. 2014, Dumont and Rivoal, 2019; Qi et al., 2020; Gupta et al.
57 2020a, Gupta et al., 2020b, Pengpeng et al., 2020). Sugars and sugar phosphates interact
58 with hormone-mediated signaling networks to modulate energy metabolism. Auxin-
59 stimulated sugar metabolism was frequently reported (e.g. Zhao et al., 2021). But only few
60 examples revealed that sucrose can induce new cell programs (Grieb et al., 1994, see in
61 Zavattieri et al., 2010) and also, vice versa, can change auxin metabolism (Lin et al., 2016,
62 Meitzel et al., 2020). In maize, sucrose stimulated more cell cycle markers during
63 germination than glucose (Lara-Núñez et al., 2017). Down-stream of sugars, two important
64 antagonistic protein kinases are involved in energy sensing and physiological adaptation
65 (reviews in Bayey-Serres et al., 2018, Schmidt et al., 2018, Sakr et al., 2018). While sucrose
66 non-fermenting-1-related protein kinase1 (SNRK1) is activated when energy is depleted

67 (Schmidt et al., 2018, Wurzinger et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2020), TOR (target of
68 rapamycin) is induced under conditions of energy excess and stimulates cell cycle
69 progression and cell proliferation (Sangüesa et al., 2019). Sucrose can have various
70 functions: besides its nutritional role it acts as signaling component (Baena-Gonzalez et al.,
71 2017, Sakr et al., 2018), as osmotic stressor that can disrupt communication within and
72 between cells (Moon et al., 2015) and was shown to trigger aerobic alcohol fermentation
73 in support of respiration and biosynthesis of higher molecular weight compounds, such as
74 lipids (Mellema et al., 2002). Alcohol fermentation was found to play critical role in
75 controlling tissue level pyruvate in plants and, thereby, adapt respiration rates to the
76 prevailing cellular energy status (Zabalza et al., 2009). Fan et al. (2020) identified hormone
77 and alcohol degradation pathways as the most activated during early stages of somatic
78 embryogenesis (SE), which is a prominent example of *de novo* programming. Ethanol has
79 been shown to reduce ROS levels and led to high induction of alternative oxidase (AOX)
80 and glutathione-S-transferase transcripts (Nguyen et al., 2017). Transcriptome analyses at
81 2,4-D - induced reprogramming indicated that the extent of aerobic fermentation is
82 connected to cell proliferation and was regulated by interacting levels of sucrose and AOX
83 (Costa et al., 2021; preprint). Transient up-regulation of genes related to alcoholic and
84 lactic fermentation was shown to be associated with glycolysis and modified complex
85 stress signaling patterns with enhanced superoxide dismutase and decreased transcript
86 levels of nitric oxide - producing nitrate reductase. Further, our data signaled activation of
87 cell death-regulating system and arrested cell cycles at reduced alpha-tubulin transcription
88 at the earliest step in reprogramming. Considering generality of these observations, we
89 proposed a reference transcriptome profile to identify virus traits that link to harmful
90 reprogramming (Arnholdt-Schmitt et al., 2021 In Press). This approach helped identifying
91 an early trait for combating SARS-CoV-2 that covers ROS/RNS balancing, aerobic
92 fermentation regulation and cell cycle control (Costa et al., 2021; preprint).

93

94 In seeds, fermentation and alternative respiration are dominating (references in Arnholdt-
95 Schmitt et al., 2018, Mohanapriya et al., 2019). During seed germination, structural and
96 functional acclimation of aerobic respiration is central and determines temperature-
97 dependent efficiency of germination (Bello and Bradford, 2016, Gaël Paszkiewicz et al.,
98 2017). Nevertheless, markers for respiration and oxygen consumption were not superior to
99 simple germination tests for predicting seed vigor from single seeds (Powell et al., 2017).
100 However, it was suggested that alternative respiration plays the most critical role during

101 germination (Arnholdt-Schmitt et al., 2018 and references herein, Mohanapriya et al.,
102 2019). This role requires managing ROS/RNS increase and channeling energy and
103 substance flow from fermentation when carbohydrate storages are released and enzymes
104 get into motion (Saleh and Kalodimos, 2017), but the respiration chain is still structurally
105 restricted and overloaded at massively incoming oxygen. AOX is mainly regulated by
106 pyruvate (Millar et al, 1996, Hoefnagel et al., 1997, Albury et al., 2009, Hakkaart et al.,
107 2006, Carré et al., 2011, Selinski et al., 2018) and, strikingly, Ito et al. (2020) showed in
108 *Arum* that energy-related metabolic regulation can be determined by temperature-
109 dependent switching between AOX polymorphisms in the binding site for AOX-pyruvate.
110 In this scenario, it might be of interest that AOX was essential in ethylene-induced drought
111 tolerance and mediating autophagy generation via balancing ROS levels (Zhu et al., 2018).
112 Thermo-inhibition of carrot seed germination could be circumvented by seed priming,
113 which was found to be linked to increased ethylene production at higher temperatures
114 (Nascimento et al., 2013). Ethylene biosynthesis was found to be induced by H₂O₂ and
115 acted positively on germination independently from auxin-coordinated hormonal crosstalk
116 linked to ABA suppression and gibberellin activation (Wojtyla et al., 2016). During plant
117 ethylene biosynthesis cyanide is generated as by-product of the pathway and suspected to
118 help shifting cyt respiration to alternative respiration (Siegieñ and Renata Bogatek, 2006,
119 Machingura et al., 2016). Eckert et al. (2014) stressed that microbiota have developed
120 ethylene-producing pathways to profit during invasion and to evade from defense
121 responses of the host plants. Mercy et al. (2017) observed that KCN treatment of
122 mycorrhizal seedlings promoted local arbuscular formation.

123

124 Recently, we identified AOX as stress level - sensing coordinator for auxin-inducible
125 metabolic reprogramming by comparing induction of SE and seed germination
126 (Mohanapriya et al., 2019; see also Arnholdt-Schmitt et al., 2018). Association of AOX to
127 target cell reprogramming was also observed in other systems such as adventitious root
128 induction in olive (Macedo et al., 2009, Porfirio et al., 2016) and elicitor-induced hairy
129 roots (Sircar et al., 2012). Furthermore, our group had contributed to novel functional
130 marker strategies by highlighting AOX as a marker across taxonomic borders that
131 considered 'shared' AOX genes in plant holobionts (Arnholdt-Schmitt 2005a and b,
132 Arnholdt-Schmitt et al., 2006, Arnholdt-Schmitt, 2008, Campos et al., 2015, Mercy et al.,
133 2017, Bedini et al., 2018). Based on the role of AOX in carbohydrate metabolism
134 (Vanlerberghe et al., 1994), our approach stimulated reflecting on the role of fermentation

135 and sugars for plant –mycorrhiza interaction (Mercy et al., 2017, Bedini et al., 2018) and
136 had led to a privately explored patent (Mercy and Mercy, 2014). However, the early phase
137 of reprogramming was not sufficiently considered in that research (Mercy et al., 2017) to
138 drive our core functional marker approach (Arnholdt-Schmitt, 2008, Mercy et al., 2015).
139 Recently, Mohanapriya et al. (2019) observed that AMF inoculation in imbibed seeds
140 interacted with the AOX-inhibitor SHAM and palliated negative SHAM effects on early
141 germination. Also, AMF effects in seeds seemed to be modified by non-culturable
142 microbiota. Integrated *in silico* studies on experimental data revealed that endophytes
143 interact with AOX expression in a species-, stress-, and developmental-dependent manner.
144 *Enterobacter* species could reduce salt-induced expression of AOX1a and kept its mRNA
145 level low when applied together with salt. Costa et al. (2021; preprint) highlighted that
146 microbiota - plant genotype interaction and its impact on early carrot seed germination can
147 be modified by SHAM.

148

149 In our earlier work (Mohanapriya et al. 2019), we demonstrated successful prediction by
150 oxycaloric equivalents from germinating seeds at 10 HAI. The present perspective
151 questions the metabolic nature of AOX coordination and provides deeper phenotyping
152 during germination of endophyte-free and microbiota-inoculated seeds focused at early
153 times around 12 HAI. **Figure 1** demonstrates the step-by-step rationale of fundamental
154 insights and deduced practical strategies.

155

156 **In summary**, we found that **(a)** during *Arabidopsis thaliana* seed germination *ADH*
157 transcript levels increased 12 h after seed stratification in water followed by a decline and
158 that increase in *ADH* transcript levels was in general accompanied by increased *AOX1a*
159 transcript accumulation (Figure 1.B.2) **(b)** in agreement with **(a)**, germinating carrot seeds
160 displayed a higher level of biochemically determined *ADH* at 12 HAI than at 24 HAI. In
161 the presence of 3% sucrose, this level was enhanced (Figures 1.A.3 and 1.B.3) **(c)** short
162 pulses of sucrose of 2h at water imbibition enhanced early germination in seeds of two
163 different species, *viz.*, carrot and wheat (Figures 1.A.2, S2, 1.E.3). In carrot, we showed
164 that the effectiveness of such early sugar pulse was dependent on sucrose concentration. A
165 short pulse could be substituted by a longer pulse at a lower concentration of sucrose
166 (Figure 1.A.2) **(d)** to the contrary, SHAM treatment until 6 HAI and 12 HAI suppressed
167 germination in the presence of 3% sucrose. However, it favored early germination in the
168 absence of sucrose (Figure 1.C.1).

169

170 (e) Three carrot native bacterial endophytes were used for carrot seed inoculation on two
171 cultivars and showed a tendency to improve germination (Figure 1.D.1). However, a
172 positive effect was dependent on cultivar-endophyte interaction. SHAM treatment reduced
173 early germination percentage of endophyte-treated seeds against the respective endophyte-
174 treated controls. This was observed in all cases though to a different degree (Figure 1.D.2
175 and table S2) (f) sucrose had differential impacts on endophyte-mediated effects on
176 germination and was dependent on cultivar and endophytes. However, in no case
177 endophytes improved germination of sucrose-treated seeds to higher levels than the
178 endophyte-treated controls without sucrose (Figure 1.D.2 and table S2) (g) In a good
179 germinating carrot cultivar, the two selected *Rhizophagus* strains acted both negatively on
180 early germination, while in a later germinating carrot cultivar, both *Rhizophagus* strains
181 acted positively (Figure 1.D.1 and table S2). Sucrose could improve *Rhizophagus* effects
182 on early germination to higher levels than the AMF-treated controls in both the cultivars.
183 However, this was dependent on cultivar-strain interaction. In the presence of sucrose,
184 strain M1 improved germination of both cultivars compared to M1-treated control seeds
185 (Figure 1.D.2). (h) at lower concentrations of SHAM (5 mM), early germination could be
186 improved to higher levels as compared to the AMF-treated controls (Figure 1.D.2), but this
187 was observed only in the better germinating cultivar, which had not shown positive AMF
188 effects against non AMF-treated controls (Figure 1.D.1 and table S2)

189

190 In **Figure 2**, we present a simplified scheme that summarizes our conclusions based on
191 wet-lab experiments, state-of-the-art knowledge and our hypothetical inferences related to
192 the dynamic metabolic interplay between sucrose, aerobic fermentation, cyt respiration,
193 AOX regulation/alternative respiration, and microbiota on cell reprogram functioning. In
194 this scheme, we separate AOX as a macromolecule (gene/protein) from the functional
195 pathway, the alternative respiration, to highlight the outstanding position of AOX as the
196 key and only enzyme of a pathway that, if present in an organism, was recognized to
197 provide a central metabolism-coordinating function for efficient survival (Mohanapriya et
198 al., 2019, Arnholdt-Schmitt et al., 2021 In Press, Costa et al., 2021; preprint). We consider
199 that under development- and/or environment-induced conditions of rapid sucrose increase,
200 the Cyt pathway is stimulated via enhanced glycolysis, pyruvate production and increased
201 TCA cycling in a way that the respiration chain can get overloaded by electrons followed
202 by enhanced ROS/RNS levels and, on the other hand, restricted due to rapidly consumed

203 oxygen and/or yet low numbers of functional mitochondria in relation to available oxygen
204 during germination. In turn, aerobic alcoholic and lactic fermentation are stimulated (see
205 points a), b) and c), and Costa et al., 2021; preprint). At the same time, AOX is activated
206 (see point d) and in Mohanapriya et al., 2019, Costa et al., 2021; preprint) mainly through
207 AOX gene sequence-dependent pyruvate regulation and ROS/RNS.

208

209 Depending on stress level and the amount of sucrose and duration of a situation of high
210 sugar-level, anaerobic glycolysis can reach high turnover during cell reprogramming and a
211 level of high ATP production even corresponding to the Warburg effect. This latter
212 hypothesis is supported by a parallel research on auxin-induced callus growth (Costa et al.,
213 2021; preprint) where we observed a rapid and high increase in *ADHI* transcripts of 1777%
214 and a parallel increase in *LDH* transcripts of 346%. Warburg effects are increasingly
215 recognized also in human systems (Melkonian and Schury, (2020), Kutschera et al., 2020)
216 as being part of normal physiology. However, in plants they are studied still more in
217 relation to photosynthesis (Kutschera et al., 2020) and anaerobic conditions are best
218 explored in relation to anaerobic conditions under flooding and was related to anaerobic
219 tolerance in rice (Narsai et al., 2017). It was shown that, AOX plays beneficial role under
220 low oxygen and especially during re-oxygenation (Jayawardhane et al., 2020).

221

222 Under increased sucrose, fermentation can escape feedback down-regulation by the help
223 of enhanced alternative respiration, since AOX-transferred electrons enable continuation
224 of TCA cycling for metabolic re-organization though with a relatively less energy
225 efficiency. Thus, fermentation and AOX are complementing each other in order to maintain
226 metabolic and energetic homeostasis thereby avoiding inefficient situations when the
227 respiration chain is overloaded in relation to oxygen availability. As soon as oxidative
228 stress gets sufficiently diminished at equilibrated oxygen availability in the cyt pathway,
229 AOX will be down-regulated and normal respiration will reach priority again for driving
230 growth and development. Fermentation and AOX will again be regulated in adaptation to
231 sucrose- and cyt respiration-transmitted conditions embedded in adaptive hormonal
232 crosstalk and overall complex cellular and apoplasmic network signaling. Thus, rapid down-
233 regulation indicates efficient adaptation of cyt respiration, a dynamic trait appropriate to
234 mark seed vigor (Mohanapriya et al., 2019).

235

236 Sucrose can improve early germination of *Rhizophagus*-treated seeds (see point g) while
237 non-AMF-treated seeds respond upon sucrose typically with a delay in germination (see
238 Figure 1.A.1). This suggests that AMF can alleviate or buffer negative effects of sucrose
239 on germination to relevant degrees by providing an additional sink. This was not indicated
240 for the three tested endophytes (f). Also, early germination of endophyte-treated seeds was
241 reduced at 48 HAI by continuously present SHAM when compared to seed germination of
242 the respective endophyte-treated controls (e). To the contrary, when seeds from the good
243 germinating cultivar were inoculated with *Rhizophagus*, SHAM treatment (5 mM) could
244 improve early germination to higher levels than observed in AMF-treated controls. This
245 observation is in agreement with the palliating effects observed by *Scutellospora calospora*
246 on negative SHAM effects on carrot germination by using the same cultivar (Mohanapriya
247 et al., 2019). In an overall assessment, it is inferred that AMF treatment might improve
248 early germination by alleviating stress by rapid sucrose excess through two mechanisms:
249 providing an additional sink for sucrose and supplying an enhanced capacity and/or
250 engagement of alternative respiration. *Rhizophagus* spores were shown to be a rich source
251 for polymorphic AOX gene sequences (Campos et al., 2015). We believe that there could
252 be operation of two separate mechanisms, since we observed differential effects on early
253 germination of M1-treated seeds upon SHAM-treatment in the two selected cultivars
254 (Figure 1.D). However, M1-treated seeds of both cultivars showed improvement in early
255 germination when sucrose was provided (Figure 1.D). We tend to interpret that the isolated
256 native carrot endophytes were already well integrated into the internal host cell habitat.
257 Thus, their re-inoculation tended to influence early germination positively, but could not
258 provide a striking new advantage or disadvantage when sucrose was enhanced or SHAM-
259 treatment reduced the level of alternative respiration. However, we reported that
260 endophytes modulate AOX transcripts in a species-, stress-, and development-dependent
261 manner and that endophytes could have modified the effect of AMF inoculation on seed
262 germination efficiency (Mohanapriya et al. 2019).

263

264 **Outlook:**

265 Our observations offer new perspectives for low-cost prediction of plant holobiont
266 behavior from seeds and for providing simple and rapid *on-farm* support towards
267 sustainable agriculture. We propose three tools for validation:

268

269 A) Seed selection by help of short germination tests under SHAM discrimination. This tool
270 provides modalities to identify seeds with higher seed vigor, general adaptive plant
271 robustness and superior internal seed quality related to the content of secondary metabolites
272 (Figures 1.E.1, 1.E.2, S3 and S4)

273 B) Discrimination of organic versus conventionally produced seeds with the help of short
274 duration germination tests in water solutions with 5% commercial sugar (Figure 1.E.1)

275 C) Germination improvement by 2 h pulses of commercial sugar (Figures 1.A.1, S1, 1.E.3)
276

277 Furthermore, we encourage developing novel tests for AMF functionality in germinating
278 seeds in the presence of sucrose. This approach targets compatibility between selected
279 plants and AMF strains to support plant holobiont plasticity.

280

281 Our results suggest that polymorphic AOX gene sequences of symbiotic partners can
282 impact plant-AMF compatibility. Therefore, we want to accomplish wider screening of
283 major AOX polymorphisms in species-specific target cells for evaluating plant performance
284 (Abe et al., 2002, Arnholdt-Schmitt et al., 2006, Arnholdt-Schmitt, 2015, Nogales et al.,
285 2016) and in AMF sources (Arnholdt-Schmitt, 2008; Vicente and Arnholdt-Schmitt, 2008,
286 Campos et al., 2015). Such strategy needs to also include near neighboring polymorphisms
287 in conserved functional sites that can discriminate differentially regulated *AOX1* and *AOX2*
288 (Costa et al., 2009). This approach would include screening of compatible AOX
289 polymorphisms from both partners in the proposed functional tests to identify best plant-
290 AMF combinations.

291

292 We hypothesize that the observed integration of bacterial endophytes into host plants with
293 similar sensitivity against SHAM effects might point to synchronized AOX regulation in
294 plant holobionts. Into this derivation would fit that we observed the same tendency of
295 inhibiting sucrose effects on endophyte-free and superficially sterilized seeds (Figure
296 1.A.1), which we noticed also for SE induction (unpublished). Vicente et al. (2015)
297 highlighted a ‘provocative’ lack of interest in bacterial AOX. They anticipated that
298 bacteria-harboring AOX could facilitate adaptation to extreme conditions, which could also
299 be of interest when thinking on plant endophytes and AMF-associated bacteria (Pandit et
300 al., manuscript under preparation).

301

302 This present perspective is complementing Mohanapriya et al. (2019) and Costa et al.
303 (2021; preprint). Joining the central figures of these publications is thought as one teaching
304 tool that can help explaining a straightforward way from fundamental interdisciplinary
305 research to application that might support sustainable socio-economies in view of the
306 diversity of emergent environmental changes.

307

308 **Author Contributions:**

309 BR performed lab analyses on carrot germination, endophyte isolation and inoculation
310 trials related to Figures 1.A.1-3, 1.B.3, 4 and 5, 1.C.1 and 2, and 1.D. JHC coordinated
311 transcriptome analyses supported by KTL. JHC, RS and CN discussed initially the
312 approach of this manuscript with BAS. GM carried out work on Figure S1 and Table S1.
313 SS was responsible for AMF inoculation trials under the head of AA, ESM performed pea
314 studies for Figure E.2 under responsibility of BAS. Under supervision of KJG, ESM
315 together with AK performed germination analyses of transgenic Arabidopsis, and AK
316 carried out the ADH analyses on chickpea. BAS performed *on farm* analyses (Figures 1.E.1
317 and 1.E.3). CN was responsible for statistics and was in part supported by MO. BR and IV
318 helped BAS in literature search. DS contributed with Figure S3. BAS initiated the scientific
319 approach, coordinated overall research and discussion and wrote the manuscript. All co-
320 authors commented research and manuscript during its development and agreed to
321 manuscript submission. BR organized manuscript submission.

322

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Figure Legends:

345 **Figure 1: Step-by-step rationale of our perspective**

346 **A.1 Exogenous sucrose postponed germination of endophyte-free (EFS) and**
347 **superficially sterilized (SSS) carrot seeds:** sucrose inhibited early germination (at 48
348 hours after imbibition (HAI)) dependent on increasing sugar concentrations. This trend was
349 the same for seeds treated to become endophyte-free and seeds that were superficially
350 sterilized. At 120 HAI, the effect of 0.5 to 3% sucrose could not be noticed anymore, while
351 7% sucrose inhibited germination for a prolonged time. This observation indicates a critical
352 role of sucrose during induction of adaptive performance. For confirmation of this role of
353 sucrose, in supplementary **Figure S1**, the effect of sucrose is shown for auxin-dependent
354 early induction of somatic embryogenesis (SE) as the most studied example of *de novo*
355 programming. It demonstrates that (a) sugar is essential for cell reprogramming, since SE
356 induction was not observed at around 45 DAI in controls, but only at 2% and 3% sucrose
357 supply and (b) that SE can be optimized with the help of increasing amounts of exogenous
358 sucrose, since SE induction efficiency was highest at 3% sucrose (Supplementary table
359 S1). Cell reprogramming competes with cell division. This is a common insight, which got
360 here validated again through the observed delay in embryonic versus non-embryonic callus
361 emergence by increasing sucrose concentrations at lower levels. As a general tendency, at
362 increasing sucrose levels, less seeds showed callus growth, which later demonstrated to be
363 embryogenic, in comparison to the higher number of seeds with (non-embryogenic) callus
364 growth at low sucrose levels (Figure S1).

365

366 **A.2 Short early pulses of sucrose enhanced early germination in carrot seeds: 3%**
367 sucrose applied for 2 h or 10 h from imbibition enhanced early germination to about the
368 same degree compared to the control and to a longer pulse of 30 h. A lower sucrose
369 concentration of 0.5% had the highest effect only by a longer pulse of 10 h and, at 7%
370 sucrose a higher effect against the control was only indicated when given as a short pulse
371 of 2 h. This observation was confirmed with a second carrot cultivar in a rapid *on-farm*
372 check by using a ca. 5% solution of commercial sugar (significant) (**Figure S2**).

373

374 **A.3 Exogenous sucrose enhanced the level of alcohol-dehydrogenase (ADH) at 12HAI**
375 **during carrot germination:** At 12 HAI, treatment with 0.5% and 3% sucrose resulted in
376 an increase in ADH activity as compared to the control, while for 7% sucrose no effect was

377 observed. At 24 HAI, the control indicated decline of ADH values. In the presence of 0.5%
378 and 3% sucrose, this decline was not avoided or might even have been strengthened.
379 However, at 30 HAI, a second phase started, where sucrose enhanced the level of ADH in
380 a concentration-dependent manner including a positive effect of 7% sucrose.

381

382 **B.1 SHAM affects early germination and this links to expression of *AtAOX1a*:** In
383 wildtype *Arabidopsis thaliana* seeds, monitoring germination at 72 HAI showed that
384 SHAM treatment led to reduced germination rates. This inhibition was dependent on its
385 concentration of 0.5 or 1.5 mM. However, when AOX had been silenced (AS), SHAM did
386 not affect germination. To the contrary, when AOX was constitutively overexpressed (OE),
387 SHAM indicated stronger inhibition of germination than in the wildtype. Nevertheless, the
388 three genotypes germinated with similar efficiency in relation to their respective controls.
389 This latter observation points to the fact that AOX is critically important for germination,
390 if present. However, in case it is not present or activated (AS) alternative pathways can
391 substitute the functional role of AOX during germination.

392

393 **B.2 *AtAOX1a* and *AtADH1+2* transcripts accumulated simultaneously:** a study on
394 ADH transcript accumulation in wildtype *Arabidopsis thaliana* confirmed a biphasic
395 activation of *ADH* during germination. A first increase was observed 12 h after
396 stratification (significant), which includes imbibition of water. The second enhancement
397 occurred from 12 h SL shortly before root emergence was monitored at 24h SL. In parallel
398 to increased *ADH* transcript accumulation, *AOX1a* transcripts accumulated during both
399 phases, i.e. induction and early initiation of germination. After early induction, *ADH*
400 transcripts showed a high decline (significant) until the end of the dark stratification phase,
401 while *AOX1a* transcript levels remained more stable. During the second phase at initiation
402 of exponential root length growth in light observed at 48h SL, *AOX1a* transcript
403 accumulation keeps on enhancing, while the increase of ADH transcripts stopped at that
404 time point. This was also indicated at the first phase. *AOX2* transcript accumulation was
405 differentially regulated in comparison to *AOX1a* and showed continuous down-regulation
406 during the whole period, which appeared to be stronger in the SL phase.

407

408 **B.3 Seeds germinating at 3% sucrose showed higher ADH levels at 12HAI and 30HAI:**
409 during early germination of carrot seeds, ADH levels follow a parable, when monitored
410 between 12 and 30 HAI. This was observed in control seeds and seeds germinating at 3%

411 sucrose. Nevertheless, suppressed germination at 3% sucrose was linked to higher levels
412 of ADH at 12 HAI and at 30 HAI. This means, the more efficient germination in control
413 seeds was linked at these two time points to lower levels of ADH. Under both conditions,
414 in the absence of exogenous sucrose and at 3% sucrose, 24 HAI displayed a turning point
415 with lowest ADH activity levels. However, ADH activity at 24 HAI was higher in controls
416 (significant) than under conditions of sucrose-supplementation.

417

418 **B.4 Robustness in chickpea linked to increased ADH levels in seeds at 10HAI in two**
419 **temperatures:** early chickpea plant vigor is critical for plant productivity under terminal
420 drought conditions (Sivasakthi et al., 2017). From the two principle chickpea types, Desi
421 and Kabuli, vast field experience has shown that Desi is clearly superior in terms of multi-
422 stress tolerance and yield performance (Purushothaman et al., 2014). We could in a former
423 research discriminate both types at 10 HAI by a lower oxycaloric equivalent (R_q/R_{CO_2})
424 value due to differential carbon use and, thus, predict posteriori the known better yield
425 stability of Desi (Gunasekaran et al. 2019). Here we show that Desi increased the level of
426 ADH at 10 HAI during germination (significant at 23°C and 28°C), while this was not seen
427 in Kabuli. The reached level of ADH was higher at 23°C than at 28°C.

428

429 **B.5 Pronounced SHAM-effects on ADH levels at 24HAI that show interaction with**
430 **sucrose:** during the germination of carrot seeds, the most pronounced effect of SHAM-
431 treatment on ADH levels was observed at 24 HAI. At that time point, SHAM stimulated
432 ADH level compared to levels observed at 12 HAI and 30 HAI. This happened independent
433 of the presence of sucrose (3%). However, under both conditions, 5 mM SHAM showed a
434 stronger stimulating effect on ADH levels (significant) at 24 HAI than 10 mM SHAM. But
435 the level of SHAM-enhanced ADH was higher at both the tested concentrations of SHAM
436 when sucrose was not present. To the contrary, at both time points 12 HAI and 30 HAI, a
437 higher ADH level in the 0% sucrose controls was associated to higher concentration of
438 SHAM 10mM versus 5mM SHAM. At 3% sucrose, ADH activity was at any time point
439 higher at 5mM SHAM than at 10mM SHAM. Together, these observations point to the
440 importance of differential AOX activity-regulation for optimized germination during all
441 three time points independently on the presence or absence of exogenous sucrose.

442 **C.1 SHAM pulses \leq 12HAI impact germination efficiency and interact with sucrose**
443 **effects:** in control seeds, short pulses of SHAM (10mM) until 12 HAI enhanced

444 germination efficiency and were more effective than pulses until 6 HAI. However,
445 prolonged SHAM treatment of 72 HAI suppressed early germination. In contrast, at 3%
446 exogenous sucrose, early germination efficiency was reduced against 0% sucrose controls
447 (confirming Figure 1.A.1) and SHAM pulses until 6 HAI and 12 HAI led to complete
448 suppression of early germination. However, from 48 HAI onwards to 72 HAI, continuous
449 SHAM treatment in the presence of 3% sucrose increased germination, while under 0%
450 sugar continuous SHAM suppressed germination also at 72 HAI. Collectively, these results
451 show that plastic AOX regulation was critical for the timing of germination in controls and
452 under conditions of sucrose supplementation.

453

454 **C.2 10HAI and 30-40HAI are critical times for sucrose-SHAM interaction during**
455 **carrot germination:** 10 h of previous water imbibition reduced the strong negative effects
456 of a combination of exogenous sucrose (3%) and SHAM (5 mM) on germination efficiency
457 that were observed at only 2 h of previous water imbibition (significant). Also during the
458 phase of initiated root emergence at 30 HOI (hours of imbibition) a transfer from water to
459 media supplemented with sucrose and SHAM suppressed germination (significant). Water
460 imbibition until 40 h before transfer to sucrose- and SHAM-containing media relieved and
461 even supported germination when monitored at 30 HAI and at 48 HAI (significant).
462 However, this increase in germination efficiency seemed to be restricted from 72 HAI
463 onwards (significant).

464

465 **D. Sucrose and SHAM can improve the effect of AMF on early germination:** in Figure
466 1.D.1, it can be seen that carrot seeds, which were treated with native endophytes (isolated
467 from cv. Kuroda) tended to improve early germination at 48HAI in both the cultivars (not
468 seen for EN3 in cv. Early Nantes). Exogenous sucrose had differential effects depending
469 on endophyte and cultivar (Figure 1.D.2), but in no case could sucrose enhance early
470 germination rates compared to the respective endophyte-treated control (see also
471 Supplementary Table S2). However, SHAM treatment (Figure 1.D.2) reduced early
472 germination against endophyte-treated controls in all cases (see also Table S2). In a
473 separate trial, two AMF strains (M1 and M2) from the species *Rhizophagus* were tested
474 and acted negatively on germination in cv. Kuroda, but positively in slowly germinating
475 seeds of cv. Early Nantes (Figure 1.D.1). Nevertheless, the effect of M1 on early
476 germination could be improved in cv. Kuroda by 0.5% sucrose and 3% sucrose (Figure
477 1.D.2). However, this was not seen for M2. In the better germinating cv. Kuroda, the lower

478 concentration of 5 mM SHAM (Figure 1.D.2) improved the effect of both mycorrhiza
479 species on early germination. In later germinating seeds of cv. Early Nantes, 0.5% sucrose
480 improved the already positive effect on germination (Figure 1.D.1) of *Rhizophagus* strain
481 M1 (Figure 1.D.2). In this cultivar, SHAM decreased the germination rate to the level of
482 the untreated control (Table S2).

483

484 **E.1. On-farm organic vs conventional seed discrimination and organic breeding by**
485 **help of quick germination tests, commercial sugar and SHAM treatment:** seeds from
486 6 of 7 winter wheat cultivars originating from organic agricultural management could be
487 discriminated at 15 HAI through better germination against conventionally produced seeds
488 when germinated in 5% sugar solution. In water, seeds of only 4 cultivars showed better
489 germination for organic seeds. When conventionally produced material was compared,
490 seeds of cultivar 1 showed poor germination. This was much more pronounced, when
491 tested in 5% sugar solution instead of water. Seeds of cultivar 2 demonstrated highest
492 germination rates among all tested cultivars (see Figure S4). This was observed for seeds
493 originating from both agricultural conditions, although higher germination in 5% sugar
494 solution indicated the presence of microbiota (Figure 1.E.1). In contrast to all other
495 cultivars, seeds of cultivar 2 did not differ in germination rates for organic vs conventional
496 production under SHAM treatment when compared to the water control (see also Figure
497 S4). This signals already low levels of AOX at 15 HAI for this cultivar no matter from
498 which agricultural management system seeds originated. Overall, these observations
499 indicate interplay between plant genotype, sugar and AOX activity that impacts differential
500 germination capacities between organic and conventional seeds.

501

502 **E.2. Identification of disease tolerant pea seeds by germination tests under SHAM-**
503 **discrimination (T - tolerant reference; S – susceptible reference):** Pea lines with
504 differential degrees of root rot disease susceptibility could be ranked by employing SHAM-
505 inhibition. The most tolerant line (T) showed the lowest degree of SHAM-related inhibition
506 of germination monitored at 27 HAI. This indicates the reasonability of germination tests
507 under SHAM discrimination for selection of seed vigor and plant robustness.

508 **E.3. On-farm simple seed germination improvement of stored conventional and**
509 **organic wheat seeds by a 2h initial pulse with commercial sugar (cultivar 1 in 1.E.1):**
510 this figure demonstrates the general potential of improving early germination through a

511 short pulse of sugar and its validity across species (here winter wheat, see for carrot Figures
512 1.A.2 and S2), agricultural management practices and also related to the aging of seeds.

513

514 **Figure 2:** A simplified scheme on hypothesis and conceptualization for working out
515 metabolic principles on dynamic cell reprogram-functioning (details explained in text)

516

517 **Supplementary Tables:**

518 **S1: Table S1:** Effect of exogenous sucrose concentration on carrot SE callus induction

519

520 **S2: Table S2:** Microbiota effect on carrot seed germination at different sucrose and SHAM
521 concentrations

522

523 **Supplementary figures:**

524 **S1:** Exogenous sucrose delayed callus emergence and was necessary for SE

525

526 **S2:** 2 h pulse with commercial sugar improved carrot germination efficiency monitored at
527 40 HAI and 50 HAI

528

529 **S3:** Effect of SHAM treatment on accumulation of soluble and wall bound phenolics (A)
530 and flavonoids and lignin (B) in elicitor-treated hairy roots of *Daucus carota*. Values
531 obtained in only elicitor-treated root was considered as 100% and results were expressed
532 in terms of percentage of maximum. The terms E and NE in the x-axis legend denote -with
533 and -without elicitor, respectively. * Soluble phenolics. Values are mean of three
534 independent experiments \pm SD.

535

536 **S4:** Rapid germination check of organic and conventional seeds from seven cultivars in
537 water (control) or under SHAM (5 mM) treatment

538

539 **Supplementary file:** Materials and Methods

Figure 01: Step-by-step rationale of our perspective

Figure 1: Step-by-step rationale of our perspective - Fundamental Insights

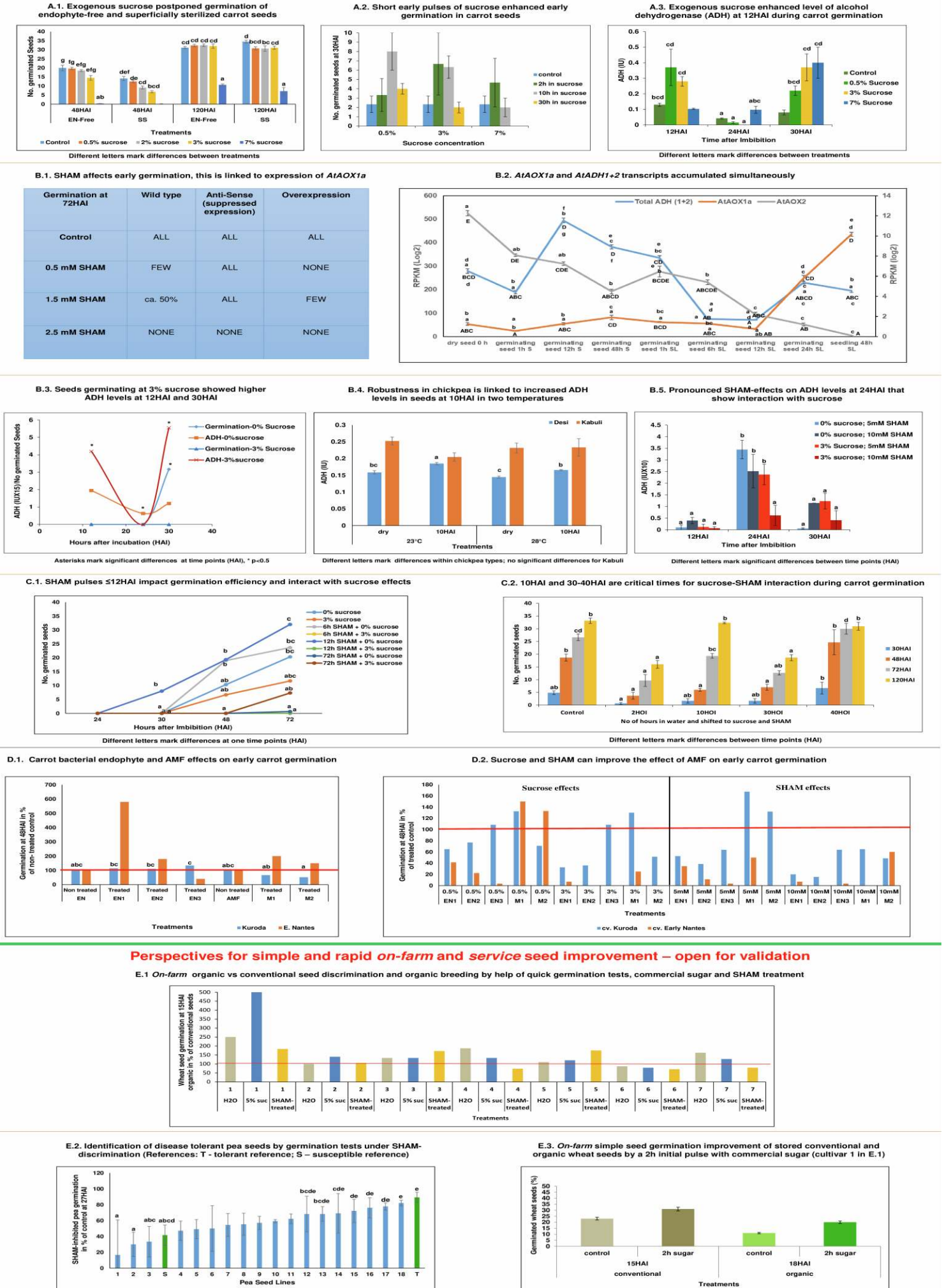


Figure 02: A simplified scheme on hypothesis and conceptualization for working out metabolic principles on dynamic cell reprogram-functioning

