1 **Title**: ABI5 Binding Proteins are substrates of key components in the ABA core signaling pathway
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3 **Short title:** SnRK2s and PP2Cs regulate AFP2 phosphorylation
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20 **One-Sentence Summary:** An inhibitor of ABA-INSENSITIVE5 is proposed to act as a hub in ABA signaling,
21 and its stability, localization and function are regulated by changes in phosphorylation state.
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24 **Author contributions:** RRF conceived the project and supervised construction of genetic lines and
25 physiological assays; all authors performed experiments; RRF wrote the article, with contributions
26 from BJEM and TL, and serves as the author responsible for contact.

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ABSTRACT

The central components of the ABA core signaling pathway are families of receptors, clade A type 2C

protein phosphatases (PP2Cs), SNF1-Related Protein Kinases (SnRK2s), and diverse sets of proteins

regulated by phosphorylation via these kinases, including bZIP transcription factors such as ABA-

INSENSITIVE(ABI)5. The larger network of ABA signaling factors includes additional kinases and E3 ligases

that modify these components to affect their activity and stability. The ABI5-Binding Proteins (AFPs) are

negative regulators of ABA response. This study shows that the AFPs interact with specific family

members of all components of this pathway and are substrates for SnRK2s and PP2Cs. AFPs also interact

with subsets of MAP kinases (MPKs) and 14-3-3 proteins previously found to regulate activity of the ABI5-

related clade of transcription factors. Residues predicted to be phosphorylated are conserved between

AFPs, but are located within regions predicted to be unstructured. ABA promotes phosphorylation of

AFP2, but conditions that prevent phosphorylation of AFP2 result in decreased stability, a shift in

localization toward dispersed foci, and reduced effectiveness for inhibiting ABA response at germination.

Thus, AFP2 appears to be an important hub in the ABA core signaling pathway.

 INTRODUCTION

The phytohormone ABA regulates diverse responses in plants, in part mediated by large changes in gene

expression. Although transcriptome experiments in diverse tissues at various stages of growth have

identified many thousands of ABA-regulated genes, very few of these are consistently ABA responsive

across all of these conditions (reviewed in Finkelstein, 2013). However, some loci encode core

components regulating these diverse responses. The central components of the ABA core signaling

pathway are families of receptors, protein phosphatases, protein kinases, and diverse sets of proteins

regulated by phosphorylation via these kinases. In the absence of ABA, PP2C clade A protein

phosphatases bind to SNF1-Related Protein Kinase2s (SnRK2s), sterically preventing them from becoming

phosphorylated and active. When ABA is present, PYRABACTIN RESISTANT (PYR/PYL)/REGULATORY

COMPONENT OF ABA RECEPTOR (RCAR) receptors bind and inactivate these PP2C phosphatases, thereby

permitting phosphorylation and activation of the SnRK2 class kinases (Cutler et al., 2010). These kinases

can then phosphorylate regulatory proteins such as the ABA-INSENSITIVE(ABI)5/ABA RESPONSE ELEMENT

BINDING FACTOR (AREB/ABF) clade of bZIP transcription factors, leading to ABA-induced changes in gene

expression. Several of these bZIP proteins are bound in a phosphorylation-dependent manner by 14-3-3

proteins, and this interaction can be required for gene activation by the bZIP factor (Schoonheim et al.,

2007; Camoni et al., 2018).

The clade A PP2Cs are monomeric Ser/Thr phosphatases that were initially identified genetically by

dominant mutations in ABA-INSENSITIVE(ABI)1 and ABI2 (Koornneef et al., 1984), resulting in ABA

resistance due to their inability to be inactivated (reviewed in Finkelstein, 2013). Additional members of

the clade, e.g. ABA-HYPERSENSITIVE GERMINATION(AHG)1 and AHG3, were identified based on loss of

function mutations conferring hypersensitivity to ABA, reflecting their role as negative regulators of ABA

response (Yoshida et al., 2006; Nishimura et al., 2007). These PP2Cs have overlapping expression patterns

and functions, such that double mutants are more hypersensitive than the single mutants. Interactome

and other studies have identified numerous substrates for these PP2Cs, including members of multiple

families of kinases and transcription factors involved in response to ABA and abiotic stresses (Lumba et

al., 2014; Yilmaz et al., 2022).

The SnRK2 Ser/Thr kinases are a plant-specific subfamily of the SnRKs, comprising 10 family members in

Arabidopsis thaliana (reviewed in Kulik et al., 2011). Although all SnRK2s function in stress responses,

this subfamily is further divided into three groups distinguished by their response to ABA. Group 1 does

not respond to ABA, group 2 shows minimal response to ABA, and group 3 is strongly activated by ABA.

In Arabidopsis, group 3 consists of SnRK2.2, SnRK2.3 and SnRK2.6. These kinases have partially

redundant functions, with SnRK2.2 and SnRK2.3 playing major roles in seed dormancy, control of

germination and seedling growth, while SnRK2.6 has greater effects on stomatal regulation. Triple

mutants defective in all three are highly resistant to ABA and exhibit extreme drought sensitivity and

severely stunted growth. In contrast, SnRK2.10 is a member of group 1 and responds to osmotic stress,

but is not part of the ABA core signaling pathway.

Mitogen activated protein kinases (MAPKs) are another conserved family of Ser/Thr kinases, some of

which regulate abiotic stress and ABA response. MAPKs are the final step in the MAPK cascade,

composed of MAP kinase kinase kinases (MAPKKKs/MAP3Ks/MEKKs) that phosphorylate and activate

MAP kinase kinases (MAPKKs/MAP2Ks/MEKs), which in turn phosphorylate/activate the MAPKs (also

known as MPKs) (Jagodzik et al., 2018). Over 100 genes encode members of these families in

Arabidopsis thaliana, regulating diverse processes with substantial overlaps in function. Although not

part of the ABA core signaling pathway, cross-talk between these pathways occurs at various levels:

SnRK2s phosphorylate some MAPKs (Umezawa et al., 2013), while MAP3Ks phosphorylate SnRK2s and

are required for their activation by ABA (Takahashi et al., 2020). MAPK cascades regulate ABA response

through effects on gene expression, including induction of transcription factors such as ABI3 and ABI5

(Lee et al., 2014), and activation or stabilization of other factors, e.g. ABI4, by phosphorylation (Guo et

al., 2016; Eisner et al., 2021; Maymon et al., 2022). MPK3 and MPK6 function in diverse pathways

including stomatal development, root growth, pollen tube growth, immune response, and response to

ABA.

Although not initially characterized as part of the core signaling pathway, a group of ABI5-binding

proteins (AFPs) identified by a yeast two-hybrid screen using ABI5 as bait were shown to be important

ABA-inducible negative regulators of ABA response (Garcia et al., 2008). One of these, AFP3, is among the

few genes that are ABA-induced in many different contexts, but especially during vegetative growth

(Finkelstein, 2013). In contrast, AFP1 and AFP2 are most active during germination and seedling

establishment. The AFPs have three highly conserved domains, including an ethylene-responsive element

binding factor-associated amphiphilic repression (EAR) domain in the "A domain" and a nuclear

localization signal in the "B domain," in addition to the C-terminal domain initially shown to interact with

the ABI5/ABF/AREB transcription factors (Garcia et al., 2008). Overexpression of the AFPs results in

extreme ABA resistance, including decreased expression of many seed maturation genes, failure to

acquire desiccation tolerance, and ability to germinate on 100-fold higher ABA concentrations than wild-

type seeds (Lynch et al., 2017).

Studies addressing the mechanism by which AFPs inhibit ABA response have demonstrated interactions

with co-repressors including TOPLESS/TOPLESS-RELATED (TPL/TPR) and Histone Deacetylase (HDAC)

subunits, suggesting effects on chromatin remodeling (Lynch et al., 2017). Although mechanistically

more obscure, the AFPs also interact directly with DELLA proteins, antagonizing their inhibitory effects

on germination (Finkelstein and Lynch, 2022). The AFPs have also been proposed to confer ABA

resistance by promoting ABI5 degradation, functioning as adaptors for E3 ligases that ubiquitinate ABI5

and possibly related bZIP proteins (Lopez-Molina et al., 2003). However, tests of the timecourse of

germination in the presence of low concentrations of ABA show that germination mostly precedes

degradation of ABI5 (Lynch et al., 2022). Furthermore, the interactions with several such E3 ligases

(DWA1, DWA2 and KEG1) are rather weak and loss of function mutations for these ligases do not block

the ABA resistance conferred by AFP2 overexpression.

Outside of the conserved domains, much of the AFP sequences are predicted to be intrinsically

disordered (Lynch et al., 2017; Varadi et al., 2023), raising the possibility that the AFPs can assume a

variety of structures due to post-translational modifications, consistent with the diversity of their

observed protein interactions. Furthermore, much recent work highlights the tendency of

intrinsically disordered regions to drive phase transitions forming bimolecular condensates (reviewed

in Liu et al., 2023). The current work reports interactions between AFPs and the PP2Cs, SnRK2s and

MPKs previously shown to regulate ABA response, and addresses the functional significance of these

interactions. Additional interactions with ABA receptors and 14-3-3 proteins may affect the activity

of signaling complexes containing some of these factors.

RESULTS

Interactions between AFPs and components of the ABA core signaling pathway

Our early studies of the AFPs revealed no obvious biochemical function, so we used AFP2 as bait in a

yeast two-hybrid screen to identify additional interacting partners that might provide clues regarding

function. This screen produced a diverse set of potential interactors including multiple ABI5/ABF/AREB

clade bZIP proteins, ABI clade protein phosphatases (PP2Cs), and a variety of kinases. Further specific

pairwise yeast two-hybrid assays, expanding this study to include all four members of the AFP family and

seven members of the ABI PP2C clade, showed strong interactions between all AFPs and AHG1 and

AHG3. When the AFPs were present as Binding Domain (BD)-fusions, additional interactions were limited

to either AFP1 or AFP2 for only one other PP2C tested, ABI1 (Fig.1). Interactions mapped to the C domain

of AFP1, but to several regions of AFP2.

Tests of interactions with kinases showed all AFPs except AFP4 interacted with SnRK2.3, SnRK2.6, and

MPK3, but not with SnRK2.10 (Fig.2). The BD-MPK6 fusion conferred growth without requiring an AD-

interaction partner, but reporter activation was again enhanced by interaction with AD-fusions to AFP1,2

and 3. Surprisingly, activity was impaired when BD-MPK6 was co-expressed with AFP4 or AFP2-C. Only

AFP2 interacted with SnRK2.2 in this assay. Interactions with subdomains were very weak, suggesting

that regions across the entire protein were required for these interactions.

In contrast to the strong interactions between AFPs and bZIPs, PP2Cs and kinases, relatively weak

interactions were observed between AFPs and a few members of the PYR/PYL/RCAR family of ABA

receptors: PYLs 2, 7, 9, 11 and 12 (Fig. 3A, Supp Fig. 1). All of these are expressed in maturing, dry

and/or imbibing seeds, coinciding with peak expression of AFP1, AFP2, and ABI5 (Supp. Fig. 2).

Furthermore, PYLs 11 and 12 promote ABI5-mediated ABA response during germination and their

expression is regulated by ABI5 (Zhao et al., 2020), and PYLs 7 and 9 are members of the small subset

of receptors that can interact with AHG1 (Tischer et al., 2017). This result suggests that several AFPs

can interact with all components of the ABA core signaling pathway.

Many phosphorylation-dependent protein activities, including hormone signaling, are regulated by 14-3-

3 proteins that bind to phosphorylated Ser or Thr residues within specific contexts (Camoni et al., 2018).

The Arabidopsis genome encodes thirteen expressed 14-3-3 proteins, designated GENERAL REGULATORY

FACTORS(GRFs), many of which are also expressed in maturing, dry and germinating seeds (Supp Fig 2).

Previous studies in multiple cereal grains and Arabidopsis have shown a role for 14-3-3 proteins in ABA-

regulated transcriptional complexes, including direct interactions with members of the ABI5/ABF clade of

bZIPs (Jaspert et al., 2011). We initially tested the Arabidopsis 14-3-3 proteins with the highest homology

to the barley and rice proteins shown to interact with HvABI5 and HvABF1 (Schoonheim et al., 2007), and

that are expressed in dry, imbibed or germinating seeds: GRF1 (14-3-3 chi), GRF2 (14-3-3 omega), GRF3

(14-3-3 psi), GRF4 (14-3-3 phi), and GRF7 (14-3-3 nu). AD fusions with GRF1,2,3,4, and 7 all interacted

weakly with a BD-AFP1 fusion, but only the AD-GRF3 and -GRF4 fusions interacted above background

with BD-AFP2 (Fig. 3BC). Interaction with ABI5 was substantially stronger (Supp Fig 3). Consistent with the

importance of phosphorylation for 14-3-3 binding, a BD-fusion to AFP2 with alanine substitution

mutations in 2 binding sites predicted by 14-3-3-Pred

(https://www.compbio.dundee.ac.uk/1433pred/)(Madeira et al., 2015) had greatly reduced interactions

with the GRFs (Supp Fig 3). In addition to their relatively strong interactions with AFP1 and AFP2,

transcripts for both GRF3 and GRF4 are present at similar levels to those of these AFPs in dry and imbibed

seeds (Supp. Fig. 2), so our further studies focused on interactions with these family members.

The interactions between AFP1, AFP2, PP2Cs, kinases, receptors and GRFs were further tested by BiFC

assays, using split YFP fusions in transiently transformed *N. benthamiana*. These studies showed

interactions between both AFPs and SnRK2.3, SnRK2.6, MPK3, MPK6, AHG1, AHG3, GRF3, GRF4, PYL2 and

PYL9, confirming the yeast two-hybrid results, but interactions with GRF7 and AHG3 were much weaker

in these assays (Fig.4). Although none of the 14-3-3 proteins showed any specific interaction with PP2Cs

or a SnRK that interacts with AFP2 in the yeast two-hybrid assay, GRF4 interacted strongly with MPK3 and

SnRK2.6, and very weakly with AHG1, in BiFC assays (Supp Fig 3). Further mapping of the BiFC

interactions between domains of the AFPs with AHG1 and SnRK2.3 showed that all AFP domains

interacted with AHG1 (Supp Fig 4) (Erickson McNally, 2016). In contrast, SnRK2.3 interacted with only the

B and C domains of AFP2, and the A and B domains of AFP1.

The BiFC assays also showed some differences in localization. Fluorescence was diffuse throughout the

nuclei when AFPs and kinases were co-expressed, but localized to nuclear punctae when AFPs and AHG1

were combined (Fig 4 and Supp Fig4). Although GRF4 was distributed throughout the cell when forming

homodimers, or heterodimers with GRF3 and GRF7, their interactions with AFPs were mostly limited to

nuclei (Fig.4), suggesting that the AFPs promote nuclear localization of these 14-3-3 proteins.

AFPs are substrates for SnRK2s and PP2Cs

We had previously observed that YFP-AFP2 fusions migrate as doublets and occasionally even triplets on

SDS-PAGE, suggesting the possibility of post-translational modifications (Erickson McNally, 2016). These

doublets are especially pronounced in any fusions containing the B domain of AFP2 (Fig. 5A). To

determine whether the observed interactions between AFP2 and these kinases and phosphatases

reflected a substrate role of AFP2, these proteins were transiently co-expressed in *N. benthamiana*. Co-

expression with SnRK2.3 shifted the YFP-AFP2-AB fusion to predominantly the slower mobility form,

whereas co-expression with AHG1 or AHG3 resulted in a shift toward the higher mobility form (Fig.5B).

YFP-AFP2-AB affinity purified with GFP-trap beads cross-reacted with an anti-phosphoserine antibody,

and this reaction was enhanced in the slower migrating form, confirming that the altered mobility was

due at least in part to phosphorylation (Fig.5C).

AFP2 contains 40 serines and 22 threonines, constituting nearly 18% of the total amino acids in AFP2,

many of which are conserved between AFP1 and AFP2 (Supp. Fig.5). Of these, 17 serines and 11

threonines were predicted to be phosphorylated by the PhosPhAt database (Zulawski et al., 2012), but

only 9 serines and 1 threonine are predicted at high stringency by http://musite.sourceforge.net/ (Table

1). PhosPhAt lists only three documented phosphorylated residues, following ionizing radiation stress:

T76, S232 and S234 (Roitinger et al., 2015). Of these, only T76 was predicted by both programs. Based on

the consensus target sites of R-X-X-S and S-D for ABA-induced phosphorylation by SnRK2s (Wang et al.,

2013), potential targets in AFP2 are S85, S112, S150, S187, and S259. Of these, only S85 and S112 are

conserved between AFP1 and AFP2. Similarly, two consensus sequences, P-X-S/T-P and S/T-P, are highly

abundant in protein substrates of MAPKs (Seger and Krebs, 1995) such that potential targets of MAPKs

are T76, S221 and T319 of AFP2, all of which are conserved between AFP1 and AFP2. Three consensus

motifs have been proposed for 14-3-3 target binding sites, two of which are present in AFP2: S112 fits

the mode I consensus and both S346 and T347 fit the C-terminal mode III consensus (reviewed in Camoni

et al., 2018). The 14-3-3 Pred program scores S112 and S85 as highly likely binding sites, with relatively

moderate scores for T16, S38, and S259.

We took three approaches to identifying actual phosphorylation sites: *in vivo* phosphorylation in *N.*

benthamiana, *in vitro* phosphorylation with purified recombinant proteins, and site-directed mutagenesis

of predicted phosphorylation sites. The *in vivo* approach transiently co-expressed YFP-AFP2 and Myc-

SnRK2.3, then used GFP-trap beads and size fractionation by SDS-PAGE to enrich the YFP-AFP2 fusion for

mass spectrometric analysis. Multiple runs generated a diverse set of possible phosphorylated residues,

possibly reflecting activity of endogenous kinases in addition to the transiently expressed SnRK2.3.

Consequently, we focused on specific target sites of SnRK2s by incubating recombinant His6- AFP2-AB

(aa1-149) fusions with GST-SnRK2.6 *in vitro*, resulting in a shift of the His-AFP2-AB fusion to a higher

apparent molecular weight (Fig. 5D). Mass spectrometric analysis of this slower mobility form confirmed

that S112 was phosphorylated (Supp Fig 6). *In vitro* kinase assays including gamma-labeled ATP,

comparing wild-type to either S112A or phosphomimetic S112E or S112D mutants of His6-AFP2-AB,

showed that phosphorylation by SnRK2.6 was still possible until the S85 was also converted to alanine

(Fig. 5E). The phosphomimetic mutants appeared to have an intermediate degree of phosphorylation

between the wild type and S112A forms, suggesting that true phosphorylation at S112 affected the

likelihood of additional phosphorylation. In contrast, a His6-AFP2-C fusion (aa-149-348) was not

phosphorylated by SnRK2.6 (Supp Fig 7A).

Immunoblot analyses of possible *in vivo* phosphorylation by Myc-MPK3 showed either no shift in mobility

for the YFP-AFP2-AB domain fusion or an apparent compression to the higher mobility form for the YFP-

AFP2-BC domain fusion (Fig.5F). Surprisingly, although neither the S85A, S112A double mutant nor the

T76A, S85A, S112A triple mutant of the His6-AFP2-AB domain fusion could be phosphorylated by SnRK2.6

in vitro (Fig 5G), only the double mutant ran as a single high mobility form when expressed as a YFP-

fusion *in vivo* (Fig.5H)*. The triple mutant ran at the same mobility as wild-type when expressed as a YFP

fusion *in vivo*. The T76A mutant of the His6-AFP2-AB domain fusion showed a slight shift toward the

lower mobility form, relative to the wild-type fusion (Fig. 5H). However, similar to the wild-type fusion, its

mobility was not altered by co-expression with Myc-MPK3 (Supp*.* Fig.7B).

In vitro kinase assays with His6-AFP2-BC domain fusions showed that an S112A substitution greatly

reduced phosphorylation of this domain by SnRK2.6 (Fig.5I). Similarly, S112A mutations blocked *in vivo*

phosphorylation of YFP-AFP2-BC fusions by SnRK2.3 when transiently co-expressed in *N. benthamiana*

(Supp Fig.8A). Phosphorylation of S112A in the *in vitro* reactions was not affected by phosphomimetic

mutations in S221 or T319 ("2xD"), but these mutations reduced mobility of the fusion (Fig. 5I).

Transiently expressed YFP-AFP2-BC mutant fusions converting S112, S259, S221 or T319 to alanine all still

appeared as doublets in immunoblot analysis, as did double mutants combining predicted SnRK2 targets

(S112A, S259A) or potential MPK targets (S221A, T319A) (Fig. 5J). However, both single and double

mutants affecting S221 and T319 reduced the shift toward lower mobility, and both double mutants were

under-accumulated relative to the wild type. The triple mutant (S112A,S221A,T319A) fusion was rarely

detectable. In contrast, YFP-AFP2-BC fusions with phosphomimetic mutations converting S221 alone or in

combination with S112 and T319 to aspartic acid all resulted in compression to a single intermediate

mobility form (Fig.5K). Co-expression with MPK3 also converts most of the wild type AFP2-BC fusion

toward higher mobility forms, but has little effect on the S221A,T319A mutant which already displays a

higher mobility than the wild type (Fig.5F,K). In contrast to the higher mobility on Laemmli SDS-PAGE of

AFP2-BC co-infiltrated with MPK3, analysis on Phos-tag gels showed a shift toward decreased mobility,

reflecting increased phosphorylation (Supp Fig 8B). The S221A mutation alone blocked the

phosphorylation seen in the wild-type BC domain, but a phosphorylated form reappeared in the

S221A,T319A mutant. Although the S221A,T319A mutant migrated similarly to the wild-type BC domain,

co-expression with MPK3 actually resulted in the appearance of a novel phosphorylated form, visible in

both gel systems, suggesting that loss of both "consensus" MPK targets led to phosphorylation of an as-

yet unknown alternative residue, possibly by an unidentified endogenous kinase.

Given that ABA activates the group 3 SnRK2s, we tested whether these mutations affected any post-

translational modifications induced by ABA treatment. Transiently expressed wild type YFP-AFP2-AB

domain fusions shifted toward slower mobility forms after 4 hrs exposure to 30 μM ABA, but the S112A

mutation alone, or in combination with T76A and S85A ("3xA"), blocked this shift (Fig. 6A). Similarly, the

highest mobility form of the YFP-AFP2-BC domain fusion shifted to an intermediate slower mobility

following ABA treatment and this was blocked in the S112A,S259A mutant. In contrast, the S221A,T319A

mutant continued to show a shift of the highest mobility form in response to ABA, but had greatly

reduced expression of the slowest mobility form under any condition. In stable transgenic Arabidopsis

lines carrying the wild-type YFP-AFP2-BC domain fusion, this shift in mobility was induced by exposure to

as little as 1 μM ABA for 6 hrs or by 1 hr of treatment with 20 μM ABA (Supp Fig 9AB). Similar to the

transient expression assays, only those lines with the S112A mutation blocked the shift to slower mobility

(Fig. 6B), suggesting that this residue is modified in response to ABA treatment. Phos-tag gel analysis

showed that the ABA-induced shift in mobility correlated with S112-dependent changes in

phosphorylation (Supp Fig 8C), but surprisingly, "phosphomimetic" Asp substitutions at S112, S221, and

T319 did not prevent phosphorylation of this fusion. A similar mobility shift of the YFP-AFP2-BC domain

fusion was seen in response to salinity stress imposed by at least 50 mM NaCl (Fig.6C).

Comparison of transcript levels for wild-type vs. mutant fusions in tissue harvested in parallel to that used

for protein extracts showed that levels were somewhat variable for all constructs, as expected for a

transient system, but the reductions in protein levels of the mutant forms were far greater than any

changes in transcript levels (Supp Fig 10). Although some transiently expressed transgene transcripts

were two- to three-fold lower for the mutant constructs, this was not sufficient to explain the at least

ten-fold decreases in YFP-AFP2-AB protein or the five- to ten-fold decreases in YFP-AFP2-BC protein

fusions. Stable transformants carrying the S221A,T319A mutant YFP-AFP2-BC fusion also showed at least

five-fold less protein despite a similar transcript level as the wild-type fusion. Similarly, the YFP-AFP2-

BC(S112A) mutant form showed a roughly four-fold reduction in protein/transcript in stable

transformants. All of these results are consistent with possible defects in stability or translation of the

fusions.

Functional tests of physiological significance of phosphorylation

To further address the functional relevance of these differences in phosphorylation, we tested stability and potential proteasomal degradation by assaying accumulation following treatment with either the translation inhibitor cycloheximide (CHX) or the proteasome inhibitor MG132. In transient expression assays, the highest mobility form of the AB domain decreased in CHX, resulting in a shift toward a higher fraction in the lower mobility form, but the high mobility form was stabilized by MG132 (Fig.6D), consistent with proteasomal degradation of the high mobility/unphosphorylated form. This preferential stability of the low mobility form was still seen in the T76A mutant, but was reduced in all the mutant fusions affecting SnRK2 targets: S85A, S112A, and the T76A,S85A,S112A (3xA) triple mutant, consistent with a role for SnRK2-mediated phosphorylation in regulating protein stability. The S85A mutant appeared to have an even higher mobility than the wild-type fusion forms (Fig.5H,6D).

The YFP-AFP2-BC domain fusions were tested in both transient and stably transformed tissue. All stable transformants showed reduced fusion accumulation following CHX treatment and increased accumulation in MG132-treated seedlings (Fig. 6E). The fusion combining S221A and T319A mutations had severely decreased accumulation in both stable and transiently transformed tissue (Fig. 6E and Supp.Fig.10). ABA treatment also increased accumulation of the fusions and this was especially pronounced in the S221A,T319A transgenic lines, indicating that this effect did not depend on phosphorylation at either of these residues (Supp Fig 11). Although the double mutants were stabilized by MG132 treatment, this treatment was not sufficient to increase accumulation of the S112A, S221A, T319A (3xA) mutant in transiently transformed tissue (Supp.Fig.12). Furthermore, the limited YFP-AFP2-BC(3xA) fusion visible was present in only a small fraction of cells, mostly in small punctae throughout the cytoplasm, not concentrated in the nuclei as for all other YFP-AFP2 fusion constructs.

Having observed that co-expression of nYFP-AFP fusions with cYFP-AHG1 led to formation of nuclear punctae in the BiFC assay, we tested whether mutations preventing phosphorylation would lead to similar changes in localization. Whereas transiently overexpressed full-length YFP-AFP2 fusions appear mostly diffuse through nuclei, but generally excluded from nucleoli, YFP-AFP2-AB domain fusions display as dense bundles of foci (Fig.7). YFP-AFP2-AB(S112A) and (3xA) mutants appear to form fewer foci. Although not uniform across the leaf, the two double mutants of the YFP-AFP2-BC domain fusions tend toward more discrete areas of accumulation, appearing either more excluded from some regions (S112A,S259A) or more focused in a few foci (S221A,T319A), consistent with effects of phosphorylation

state on changes in aggregation state.

Complexes of signaling proteins may be scaffolded by 14-3-3 proteins such as the GRFs, which recognize

phosphorylation in several consensus motifs. The S85 and S112 residues of AFP2 are both SnRK2 target

sites and predicted binding sites for 14-3-3 proteins. Similar to the yeast two-hybrid result, comparison of

BiFC assays with GRF4 and either wild type AFP2 or a S85A,S112A mutant show greatly reduced

interactions with the mutant (Fig.7). However, GRF4 still interacts with the S112A mutant of the AFP2-BC

domain, consistent with the potential for additional 14-3-3 binding sites in this domain.

We previously showed that overexpression of YFP fusions to either full-length AFPs or just the BC

domains were sufficient to confer resistance to ABA inhibition of germination in transgenic Arabidopsis,

but AB-domain fusions had almost no effect (Lynch et al., 2017). The full-length AFP2 fusions conferred up

to 100-fold reductions in ABA sensitivity and produced desiccation intolerant seeds, while the AFP2-BC

domain fusions conferred up to 30-fold reductions in ABA sensitivity and did not impair seed viability.

Arabidopsis carrying transgenes with mutations either blocking phosphorylation or creating

phosphomimetics were tested for effects on ABA sensitivity of germination and AFP protein stability.

Although overexpression of full-length AFP2 with a variety of mutations permitted germination on up to

50 μM ABA, lines carrying phosphomimetic (S85E,S112E) or non-phosphorylatable (S85A,S112A) mutant

YFP-AFP2 fusions differed from those with the wild-type fusion in that seedling greening was still greatly

impaired by ABA (Fig. 8 and Supp Fig 13). The poor viability of seeds and seedlings expressing the full-

length YFP-AFP2 resulted in partial silencing of these transgenes over generations, and led us to focus on

AFP2-BC domain fusions for additional mutant analyses. When overexpressed in a wild-type background,

all YFP-AFP2-BC domain fusions conferred similar resistance up to 10 μM ABA, but the mutants with

alterations in the residues predicted to be phosphorylated by MPKs were less effective than the wild-type

fusion in permitting germination on ABA higher than 30 μM (Fig.8). Comparison of protein levels showed

that only the S221A,T319A mutant had reduced fusion protein accumulation, but accumulation could be

increased by MG132 treatment (Fig.6E). The well-expressed transgenes from the wild-type background

were backcrossed into the *afp2* mutant to create isogenic lines with similar transgene expression levels

(Supp Fig. 9C), resulting in similar resistance to ABA as seen in the wild-type background (Fig. 8).

Germination *sensu stricto* is defined as complete when the radicle emerges from the seed coat, and is

usually followed by cotyledon greening during seedling establishment in the light. However, some ABA

resistant lines including *abi5* mutants and AFP over-expressors often reverse this order when

germinating in the presence of ABA, such that their cotyledons turn green prior to radicle emergence

(Supp. Fig. 13). Consequently, at the higher ABA concentrations, the fraction of seeds that have turned

green may be higher than the fraction that has completed germination (Fig.8). This was especially true

for seeds expressing the wild-type and S112A mutants of the YFP-AFP2-BC fusion in the *afp2* mutant

background. In contrast, the S221A,T319A mutant was less effective than the other constructs in

reducing ABA sensitivity in the *afp2* background and severely delayed greening when germinating on

ABA.

In addition to decreasing ABA sensitivity at germination, AFP2 overexpression inhibits various aspects of

seed maturation including accumulation of storage proteins (e.g. cruciferins) and some late

embryogenesis abundant (LEA) proteins (Lynch et al., 2022). To determine whether the phosphorylation

state of AFP2 was important for this regulation, we compared storage protein accumulation in wild-type

vs transgenic seeds with either wild-type or mutant AFP2 fusions. Surprisingly, even though most

mutants were less effective than wild-type AFP2 for conferring ABA resistance, most of the well-

expressed mutant forms resulted in a much greater decrease in storage protein accumulation than seen

when overexpressing the wild-type AFP2 fusion (Fig. 9). However, examination of multiple ages of seed

lots showed that the major differences in storage protein levels reflected loss during aging (Supp Fig 14).

Furthermore, this was not directly related to the level of ABI5 accumulation in that lines with very little

storage protein still had ample ABI5. ABI5 is activated by phosphorylation and already appears as a

triplet in dry seeds of all genotypes, but shifts to a more highly phosphorylated state when incubated on

ABA (Supp Fig 15). The two BC domain mutant fusions producing the greatest reduction of storage

protein accumulation ((S112A,S259A) and "3xD") had similar effects on ABA sensitivity of germination

and seedling establishment (Fig. 8 and Supp Fig 13). However, they differ in that the S112A,S259A

mutations also adversely affect seed longevity, resulting in decreased viability within 4 months and

complete lethality by 6 months (Fig.9, Supp. Fig 14). It is noteworthy that the S112A,S259A mutant form

of AFP2-BC accumulates to higher levels in seeds than the wild-type construct, suggesting that this form

might have greater effects on disrupting seed maturation, but this difference fades away during seedling

growth (Supp Fig 15).

DISCUSSION

Post-translational modification of ABA core signaling components

The core signalosomes of ABA signaling comprise the PYR/PYL/RCAR receptors, clade A PP2C protein

phosphatases, and SnRK2 kinases (reviewed in Lim et al., 2022; Née and Krüger, 2023). Each of these

components is encoded by a multigene family that is differentially expressed, with different interaction

characteristics and ABA sensitivities, creating the potential for a range of responses at different ABA

concentrations in different tissues (Tischer et al., 2017). In the canonical view, ABA bridges the receptors

with PP2Cs, effectively inactivating the PP2Cs and releasing the SnRK2s to become phosphorylated and

active. When active, the SnRK2 kinases regulate the activity of many effector proteins, including the

ABI5/ABF/AREB clade of bZIP transcription factors and ion channels. However, AHG1 differs from the

other clade A PP2Cs in that it does not bind to the active sites of group 3 SnRK2s, interacts with only a

subset of receptors and requires high ABA concentrations to do so (Tischer et al., 2017; Krüger et al.,

2024).

All signalosome components are also subject to post-translational modifications including

phosphorylation, which may be activating or inhibitory (reviewed in Lim et al., 2022). Upstream elements

of the pathway can be phosphorylated by a variety of kinases. TOR, *Arabidopsis* Early flowering 1 (EL1)-

like casein kinase (AEL), and C-terminally encoded peptide receptor 2 (CEPR2) modify distinct sites on

various ABA receptors, but all negatively regulate ABA response, whereas cytosolic ABA receptor kinase

1 (CARK1) activates several ABA receptors. At least two PP2Cs, ABI1 and ABI2, are phosphorylated by the

Pathogenesis Related 5 Receptor-like Kinase 2 (PR5K2), resulting in negative regulation of ABA response

(Baek et al., 2019). Although the SnRK2 kinases can auto-phosphorylate, they can also be activated by

glycogen synthase kinase (GSK)3-like kinases (Cai et al., 2014) and RAF/MAPKKKinases (M3Ks) as part of

ABA-induced responses (Nguyen et al., 2019; Takahashi et al., 2020).

Ubiquitination leading to proteasomal degradation has also been documented for several ABA receptors

(PYR1, PYL4, and PYL8) and clade A PP2Cs (ABI1 and PP2CA/AHG3) (reviewed in Lim et al., 2022). SnRK2

stability can also be modified by ubiquitination (Maszkowska et al., 2021) and SnRK2 activity may even be

modified by non-covalent interactions with ubiquitin (Shao et al., 2023). Ubiquitin-specific proteases

(UBPs) can also modify ABA response by removing ubiquitin from targets (Zhao et al., 2016; Liu et al.,

2022). Although not limited to effects on ABA response, UBP12 and UBP13 fine-tune ABA signaling by

modifying stability of factors that in turn regulate stability of an ABA receptor.

Activity and stability of the ABI5/ABF/ABRE clade of bZIP transcription factors is also regulated by a

variety of post-translational modifications including phosphorylation, ubiquitination, sumoylation, and S-

nitrosylation (reviewed in Yu et al., 2015). Multiple kinases, including SnRK2s, CBL-interacting protein

kinase (CIPK)26, SOS2-like protein kinase 5 (PKS5), BRASSINOSTEROID INSENSITIVE(BIN)2, and MPK3,

phosphorylate overlapping and discrete subsets of amino acid residues within ABI5 (Wei et al., 2022;

Lyzenga et al., 2013; Zhou et al., 2015; Bhagat et al., 2021). Our immunoblots detected multiple forms of

ABI5 in dry seeds and seeds germinating in the presence of ABA, but it is currently not clear which

modifications are present on these ABI5 proteins.

The AFPs interact with multiple members of this clade of bZIPs (Garcia et al., 2008) and AFP1 was initially

proposed to assist degradation of these bZIPs by promoting interactions with E3 ligases that ubiquitinate

ABI5 (Lopez-Molina et al., 2003). Although these proposed E3 ligase interactions appear weak at most

(Lynch et al., 2022), subsequent studies including the present one have expanded the list of AFP

interactors to include proteins representing all elements of the ABA signalosome, some MPKs, several

14-3-3 proteins, the DELLA repressors of GA signaling (Finkelstein and Lynch, 2022), the flowering

regulator CONSTANS (Chang et al., 2019), WRKY36 and AHG1 in dormancy regulation (Deng et al., 2023;

Krüger et al., 2024), several chromatin modifying factors (Pauwels et al., 2010; Lynch et al., 2017), and

the protein kinase SALT OVERLY SENSITIVE(SOS)2 in regulating germination under salt stress (Wang et al.,

2024). This extensive list of interactions is consistent with a role for AFPs as signaling hubs in a variety of

processes, but raises the question of how specificity is achieved. Some of the likely options are regulated

expression affecting availability of these proteins in different organs or stages of growth, and changes in

phosphorylation state or other post-translational modifications leading to changes in structure of the

disordered regions.

Kinases regulating ABA response target AFPs

The kinase families most highly associated with ABA or osmotic stress signaling are the SnRK2 kinases

acting in the ABA core signalosome, SnRK3/CBL interacting kinases (CIPKs), MAP kinases and calcium-

dependent protein kinases (CDPKs). Many proteins can be phosphorylated at multiple sites, by multiple

kinases, and the different sites may be phosphorylated sequentially with initial modifications altering the

efficiency of subsequent events (reviewed in Miller and Turk, 2018). For example, mammalian GSK3

kinases often require "priming" by phosphorylation at a residue 4 or 5 amino acids C-terminal to the

target (Sutherland, 2011). Furthermore, modifications at different sites may have opposing effects on

activity of the substrate.

We focused on specific SnRK2s and MAP kinases that interacted with AFP1 and/or AFP2 in yeast two-

hybrid and/or BiFC assays, using *in vitro* kinase assays and co-expression to test for altered mobility on

SDS-PAGE and Phos-tag gels. Mass spectrometric analysis identified Ser-112 of AFP2 as the sole residue

phosphorylated by SnRK2.6, consistent with results reported for a phosphorylated site conserved in all

four AFPs (Krüger et al., 2024). Mutagenesis converting this residue to either alanine or a

phosphomimetic amino acid reduced, but did not eliminate, phosphorylation of the AFP2-AB domain.

This indicated that SnRK2.6 could phosphorylate additional residues, albeit not efficiently enough to be

detected by mass spectrometry. Mutagenesis converting an additional predicted SnRK2 target, Ser-85, to

alanine eliminated phosphorylation of the AFP2-AB domain. In contrast, combining the S112A mutation

with alanine substitution of Ser-259, the residue with the next highest match to the SnRK2 consensus

target in the AFP2-BC domain, was not sufficient to eliminate phosphorylation of this domain *in vitro*, but

did block ABA-induced changes in mobility of the YFP-AFP2-BC fusion in stable transgenic plants.

Mutations affecting predicted MAP kinase target residues did not block ABA-induced changes in mobility

of protein fusions, but severely reduced stability and consequently accumulation of these proteins.

Based on the structure predicted by AlphaFold, nearly all the predicted SnRK2 and MAPK

phosphorylation sites are in regions predicted to be disordered (Supp. Fig.14), consistent with the

observation that substrates are often bound to the kinase active site in an extended conformation

(reviewed in Miller and Turk, 2018).

AFPs form biomolecular condensates

Predictions of AFP structures show a series of likely protein binding regions separated by intrinsically

disordered regions (Lynch et al., 2017) and the AFPs have been reported to interact with diverse proteins.

Intrinsically disordered regions are recognized as drivers of biomolecular condensate formation, often

through multivalent interactions, i.e. with multiple other molecules (Emenecker et al., 2021). Post-

translational modifications such as phosphorylation alter the charge distribution, and consequently the

potential for interactions leading to condensate formation. Initial descriptions of the AFPs showed a

variety of localization patterns, depending on the experimental conditions. Transient over-expression of

AFP(1)::CFP in either onion epidermal cells or Arabidopsis seedlings treated with ABA produced diffuse

nuclear localization, but co-bombardment with 35S::ABI5 resulted in co-localization in nuclear bodies

(Lopez-Molina et al., 2003). Although many of these nuclear bodies also contained COP1, no direct

interactions with COP1 were shown. Stable expression of *AFP2pro:AFP2:GFP* in an *afp2* mutant

background was also primarily nuclear, but excluded from nucleoli, in ABA- or NaCl-treated seedlings

(Garcia et al., 2008). These conditions enhanced accumulation of both AFP2 and ABI5, but did not result

in restriction to nuclear bodies, consistent with diffuse nuclear localization of AFPs likely to be in a

phosphorylated state due to ABA or stress exposure. However, within 7 hrs of removal from these stress

treatments AFP2:GFP was no longer visible in the nuclei, but still detected by immunoblot. In addition,

some punctate fluorescence was visible in the cytoplasms of a few cells near the root meristem.

Subsequent studies of interactions between AFPs and ABI5/ABF proteins by split YFP BiFC assays using

transient over-expression in *N. benthamiana* also showed nuclear localization, but no foci (Lynch et al.,

2017).

In the current BiFC assays, we found that co-expression of AFPs with kinases revealed interactions in

nuclei, but excluded from nucleoli, whereas co-expression with PP2Cs resulted in formation of nuclear

bodies over a broad range of sizes (Fig.4), suggesting that dephosphorylated AFPs were more prone to

form condensates. However, YFP-AFP2 co-expressed with cYFP-GRF4 also formed numerous small

nuclear condensates, consistent with interactions dependent on phosphorylation. In an effort to

determine which residues were most important for regulating condensate formation, we tested

localization of YFP-AFP fusions with alanine substitutions at known or predicted phosphorylation sites.

Surprisingly, the wild-type YFP-AFP2-AB domain fusion formed clusters of nuclear bodies, similar to the

"grapebunch-like" condensates observed for ARF proteins (Powers et al., 2019), but the alanine-

substituted mutant AFP2-AB domain fusions formed fewer clusters. This might reflect formation of

complexes by phosphorylation- dependent interactions with 14-3-3 proteins that are reduced in the

mutants. In contrast, the wild-type YFP-AFP2-BC fusion was mostly diffuse, but YFP-AFP2-BC fusions with

mutations preventing phosphorylation of the predicted kinase target residues were more likely to form

condensates, sometimes with small internal areas of exclusion (donut-shaped). When co-expressed with

the tagged PP2C phosphatase myc-AHG1, full-length AFP2 formed punctae whether or not the SnRK2 or

GRF target residues could be phosphorylated. The AFP2-AB domain also continued to form punctae

when co- expressed with AHG1, but fewer punctae formed when AHG1 and the AFP2-BC domain were

co- expressed. In combination with the previously described diffuse nuclear localization in ABA-treated

roots, this suggests that condensate formation is negatively correlated with ABA-induced

phosphorylation.

Physiological significance of AFP phosphorylation state

The AFPs have recently been reported to function as a downstream element of DOG1 control of

dormancy. Proteomic and genetic studies showed that DOG1 maintains dormancy by repressing AHG1

and AHG3 activity (Krüger et al., 2024). In non-dormant or *dog1* mutant seeds AHG1 dephosphorylates

AFP2 at S112 and AFP1 at the corresponding conserved serine, allowing the AFPs to function as

repressors of ABA response, resulting in germination. These results are consistent with our observation

that ABA promotes a shift to the phosphorylated state, whereas co-expression with AHG1 has the

opposite effect. Our studies used a gain of function approach, such that overexpression of the AFP

domains and mutant forms leads to ABA resistance if the AFPs are physiologically active.

Functional tests of the physiological significance of these phosphorylation options focused on effects on

ABA sensitivity of germination, cotyledon greening, storage protein accumulation, and seed longevity. We

previously reported that overexpression of YFP-AFP2 could reduce ABA sensitivity nearly 100-fold and

was so extreme in a wild-type background that homozygous transgenic lines failed to complete seed

maturation and become desiccation tolerant (Lynch et al., 2017). Homozygous YFP-AFP2 transgenes are

tolerated in an *afp2* mutant background, where the total AFP2 concentration is lower, and YFP-AFP2-BC

domain fusions are sufficient to reduce sensitivity only 30- to 50-fold, also resulting in viable seeds. The

reduced impact of the truncated protein might reflect the loss of the EAR domain, and therefore

interactions with TPL/TPR co-repressors. However, these fusions could still inhibit ABI5 and related

AREB/ABF clade transcription factors via interactions with their C domains (Garcia et al., 2008).

Comparison of endogenous AFP and ABI5 levels over a range of ABA concentrations showed that ABI5 is

usually in excess post-stratification, ranging from 8-10 fold higher than AFP1/2 when exposed to 1 µM

ABA, but increasing to as much as 30 fold higher after 5d post-stratification on media containing 10 µM

ABA (Garcia et al., 2008). Extended incubation on the higher ABA concentrations led to accumulation of

more AFP protein, effectively reducing the ABI5/AFP ratio, which was accompanied by increased

germination. If this ratio is a sensor of physiological state that regulates germination, the severe

disruption of the ratio by the AFP over-expression approach might be acting by titrating their interacting

factors.

Mutations of the BC domain fusions converting only the SnRK2 targets, S112 or both S112 and S259, to

alanine had minimal effect on ABA sensitivity of germination. However, the double mutant substantially

reduced seed longevity. In contrast, mutants preventing phosphorylation of both predicted MPK target

residues, S221 and T319, were less effective than the wild-type BC domain in conferring ABA resistance

to concentrations higher than 10 µM ABA. This might reflect the reduced accumulation of this mutant

form due at least in part to its reduced stability. Overexpression of phosphomimetic mutants did not

confer greater ABA resistance than provided by the wild-type YFP-AFP2-BC. Although the mutants with

the strongest effects on ABA sensitivity (S112A,S259A and 3xD) had cruciferin levels similar to wild-type

seeds when fresh, they showed accelerated loss of these storage proteins during storage. Cruciferins

have been found to serve as protectants from oxidative stress leading to seed deterioration during

ageing (Nguyen et al., 2015), but the 3xD mutants remained viable despite a massive loss of cruciferins

within a year, suggesting that they rely on alternative protectants. A more detailed comparison of the

proteomes or metabolomes of these mutants might identify components critical for seed longevity.

Although phosphomimetic substitutions are often used to simulate phosphorylated forms of proteins,

they frequently do not confer the expected activities, especially if the phosphorylation is a binding site

for an adaptor protein, e.g. 14-3-3 proteins (Kozeleková et al., 2022; Dephoure et al., 2013).

Consequently, it is not surprising that the alanine and aspartic acid substitutions have some similar

effects since both types of mutations prevent true phosphorylation. Given that AFP2 phosphorylation is

required to interact with the 14-3-3 proteins, this might represent a sequestered state induced by ABA,

maintaining ABI5 and other downstream signaling factors active. As ABA levels decrease post-

stratification, increased activity of the AHG PP2Cs could release the AFPs from complexes with the 14-

3-3 proteins, permitting more inhibitory interactions with ABI5/ABFs/AREBs.

Finally, what is the physiological significance of these condensates? In other well-characterized plant

systems, condensates include miRNA processing bodies (Xie et al., 2021), light response complexes

regulating translation (Jang et al., 2019), high temperature-induced de-repression of gene expression

(Bohn et al., 2024), sensors of hydration regulating germination (Dorone et al., 2021), and cytoplasmic

sequestering of inactive transcription factors (Powers et al., 2019). Thus, they may represent complexes

required for activity or inactivity of the relevant proteins. In the current work, all AFPs or AFP domains

tested were present as overexpressed fusions to all or part of YFP. A trivial explanation is that at least

some of these simply reflect high protein concentrations produced by over-expression in transient

systems. However, different mutations or co-expression conditions led to different localizations, and the

BiFC studies permit visualization of only the fusion pairs being tested. As discussed above, the AFPs

interact with many different proteins and are likely to be modified at additional sites by kinases not yet

tested. Consequently, it is possible that these AFPs, and their variants created by distinct post-

translational modifications, are present in diverse complexes with different functions, i.e. acting as

signaling hubs.

Materials and Methods

Plant Materials and Transgenes

Arabidopsis plants were grown in pots in growth chambers under continuous light at 22°C. The

35S::YFP:AFP2 fusion and split YFP fusions for AFP1 and AFP2 were described in (Lynch et al., 2017). The

split YFP fusions for SnRK2s and AHGs were described in (Lynch et al., 2012). The *35S::YFP:AFP2* fusion

lines in the wild-type and *afp2* mutant backgrounds were lines #4A2 and H1, respectively, reported in

(Lynch et al., 2017). Mutations affecting potential phosphorylation sites were created by PCR using

primers shown in Supp. Table 1 with plasmids encoding cDNAs for full-length AFP2 or specific

subdomains as templates. *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*-mediated direct transformation of constructs

with mutations in potentially phosphorylated residues was performed by the floral dip method (Clough

and Bent, 1998), followed by selection of BASTA-resistant seedlings. Homozygous lines were identified

by production of 100% BASTA-resistant progeny. Following crosses between *35S:YFP:AFP2-BC* fusion

lines and *afp2* mutants, YFP-AFP2-BC overexpressing progeny were selected by BASTA resistance and

homozygous *afp2* segregants were identified by PCR-based genotyping.

Split YFP fusions for MPKs, GRFs and PYLs were constructed using the Gateway compatible pSITE-nEYFP-

C1 (GenBank Acc# GU734651) and pSITE-cEYFP-C1 (Acc# GU734652) vectors and PCR products with attL

ends added as described in (Fu et al., 2008), following manufacturer's instructions for LR Clonase

reactions (Invitrogen). BiFC assays were conducted as described in (Lynch et al., 2017).

Yeast Two-Hybrid Constructs and Assays

Fusions between the GAL4 activation domain (AD) and full-length PP2C cDNAs were described in (Lynch

et al., 2012). Fusions between the AD domain and full-length and partial AFP cDNAs were described in

(Lynch et al., 2017). Fusions between the AD domain and 14-3-3 cDNAs were constructed by CRE-lox

recombination between pUNI clones and the pACT2-lox vector (Liu et al., 1998). Fusions between the

GAL4 DNA binding domain (BD) and either AFP or PYL cDNAs were constructed using the pGBKT7-DEST

vector (Lu et al., 2010) and PCR products with attL ends. BD fusions with SnRK2.2, 2.3 and MPK6 were

constructed by CRE-lox recombination using the pAS2lox vector and by LR Clonase reactions with the

pGBKT7-DEST vector and pDONR clones for SnRK2.6, SnRK2.10, and MPK3.

BD fusions were transformed into yeast line PJ69-4A selecting for growth on yeast synthetic medium

(YSM) without trp. AD fusions were transformed into Y187, selecting for growth on YSM without leu.

Interactions were tested by matings between pairs of lines carrying BD- and AD-fusions; following

overnight incubation on YPD plates, matings were replica plated to YSM lacking leu and trp to select for

diploids or YSM also missing histidine and, in some cases, adenine to screen for diploids that had

activated the HIS3 and ADE2 reporter genes. Diploids carrying BD-PYLs and AD vector or AD-AFPs were

grown in YSM lacking leu and trp, then diluted to an OD600 of 0.9, before making serial 10-fold dilutions

that were spotted in replicates on YSM lacking lacking leu and trp, or also lacking his. Diploids combining

BD-AFPs with AD vector or AD-GRFs were also analyzed by growth assays with serially diluted cultures.

Plant growth conditions

Germination assays testing ABA sensitivity of age-matched seeds were performed on minimal nutrient

media supplemented with ABA at concentrations over the range from 0-50 µM, as described in (Lynch et

al., 2017). Accumulation of fusion proteins was assayed by immunoblots of seeds or seedlings harvested

after 5d incubation on Germination Medium (GM: 0.5x MS salts and vitamins, 1% sucrose) or minimal

media solidified with 0.7% agar, then subjected to ABA, cycloheximide or MG132 for the indicated times.

For transient expression *Agrobacterium* lines expressing fusion proteins were combined with GV3101

expressing the P19 protein of tomato bushy stunt virus to enhance transient expression, as described in

(Voinnet et al., 2003). Cultures of all bacteria to be used in infiltration were grown overnight in YEP

media with appropriate selective antibiotics, diluted to an OD_{600} of 1.0 in 10 mM $MgCl_2$, 10 mM MES pH

5.6, 0.2 mM acetosyringone and rocked at room temperature for 2-3 hrs prior to mixing and infiltration

of leaves on 2-3 week old *Nicotiana benthamiana* plants. Fluorescence was scored 2-4 days later, using

an Olympus AX70 microscope or a Leica SP8 Resonant Scanning Confocal microscope. Confocal images

were processed with Fiji (Image J) to produce maximum intensity Z-stack composites.

Immunoblots

Arabidopsis seedlings or *N. benthamiana* leaf tissue were ground directly in 2x Laemmli loading buffer

(1.5-2 µL/mg FW), microfuged 10 min at 4°C to pellet debris, then the supernatants were boiled 5 min

prior to fractionation by SDS-PAGE or SuperSep™ Phos-tag™ PAGE (Fujifilm Wako Chemicals). Proteins

were transferred to nitrocellulose filters and stained with Ponceau S, as described in (Lynch et al., 2017).

Filters were blocked with Casein blocking buffer (LI-COR Biosciences, Lincoln, NE), then co-incubated with

anti-GFP mAb (1:10000, UBPBio, Aurora, CO) and/or anti-actin mAb (A0480, Sigma) primary antibodies,

followed by anti-mouse secondary IRDye 800 conjugated IgGs, and visualized using the 800 channel of

the Licor Odyssey Infrared Imaging System. Mature dry Arabidopsis seeds were ground in 20 µL/mg FW

1x Laemmli loading buffer, then processed as above. ABI5 was detected with anti-ABI5pAb (1:10000,

Ab98831, AbCam) primary antibodies, followed by anti-rabbit secondary IRDye 700 conjugated IgGs, and

visualized using the 700 channel of the Licor Odyssey Infrared Imaging System.

Recombinant protein purification

Fusions between His6-tags and full-length, partial and mutant AFP coding sequences were constructed by

CRE-lox recombination between pUNI cDNAs and the pHB3-His6 vector. Primers used for subcloning and

mutagenesis are shown in Supplementary Table 1. Plasmids carrying fusion genes were transformed into

E.coli BL21C+ and expression was induced by growth overnight at 19-20°C in Overnight ExpressTM Instant

TB medium (Novagen). Cells were harvested, resuspended in Lysis Buffer (8.3 M urea, 0.1 M

NaPhosphate pH 8). His6-fusions were affinity purified in batch mode with HIS-select Nickel Affinity beads

(Millipore P6611) according to the manufacturer's protocol for denaturing conditions, eluting with 8 M

urea, 0.1 M NaPhosphate pH 5.5.

GST fusions to full length SnRK2.6 also made use of the pUNI vector system, and induction overnight in

TB Express, but proteins were extracted under native conditions with CelLytic B in 1x PBS, 10 mM DTT, 83

units/mL Benzonase nuclease, 1 mM PMSF, 5 mg/mL lysozyme , followed by purification on glutathione-

agarose beads (UBP-Bio, P3060-10) and elution with 30 mM Tris pH9, 300 mM NaCl, 5 mM DTT, 0.5%

Triton-X100, 1 mM PMSF, 40 mM glutathione.

In vitro kinase assays

Purified GST-SnRK2.6 was activated by 1 hr pre-incubation in kinase buffer (25mM Tris pH 7.5, 12 mM

MgCl2, 2 mM DTT) with 1 mM ATP, then combined with His-AFP fusions maintaining the buffer and ATP

concentrations for a further hr of incubation. Phosphorylation was monitored in wild-type and mutant

constructs by incorporation of ^{32}P from gamma-labeled ATP (0.1-0.2 µCi/rxn) during the latter incubation.

SDS sample buffer was added to 1x final, samples were boiled 5 min., then fractionated on 13% SDS-

PAGE, dried and autoradiographed. Following assays with only cold ATP, gel slices containing lower

mobility products were excised and sent to UC Davis for mass spec analysis. Additional SnRK assays with

mutant AFP fusion proteins were analyzed by ProQ Diamond Phosphoprotein staining according to

manufacturer's instructions (Invitrogen).

qRT-PCR analysis

RNA was isolated from *N. benthamiana* leaf tissue or Arabidopsis seedlings as described in (Lynch et al., 2017). DNA-free total RNA was prepared by incubation with RQ1 DNase (Promega) and RNAsin for 15 min. at room temperature, followed by inactivation of the DNase by addition of EGTA, then clean-up over Qiagen RNeasy or Zymo-Clean columns according to manufacturers' instructions. Approximately 0.5 μg of RNA was used as template for cDNA synthesis by GoScript reverse transcriptase (Promega), using a 10:1 mix of random hexamers and oligo dT as primers. cDNA concentrations were checked by qRT-PCR, using Forget-Me-Not master mix (Biotium) in an iQ5 cycler (Bio-Rad), according to manufacturer's instructions. Primers used for normalizing were selected for uniform expression in Arabidopsis seeds or young seedlings subjected to a variety of treatments: AT5G46630 and At1g13320 (Czechowski et al., 2005) or a validated reference gene for *N. benthamiana* (Pombo et al., 2019). Equal amounts of cDNA were used as templates for reactions with all other primer sets (listed in Supp. Table 1), quantified relative to a standard curve spanning the range of concentrations present in all genotypes of transgene expression.

Acknowledgements. We thank the ABRC team at Ohio State University for efficient distribution of vectors and cDNA clones, Armann Andaya at UC Davis for MS analysis, Ben Lopez at UCSB for confocal microscopy, and Delaney O'Donnell for assistance with screening transgenic lines. This work was supported by a UCSB Academic Senate Grant to RRF, Faculty Research Assistance Program funds for TL and JL, and National Science Foundation Grant# IOS1558011 to RRF.

728   Table 1. AFP2 predicted phosphorylation sites.

Residue	NetPhos 2.0 score	PhosPhAt score	MUsite score	SnRK2 target	MPK target	in vitro phosphorylated
Y28	0.315	1.59				
S38	0.02	0.11	0.487			
T51	0.781	0.21	0.212			
T76	0.973	1.1	0.841		T-P	
S83	0.971		0.769			
S84	0.947		0.787			
S85	0.997	0.81	0.881	R-S-S-S		Yes
T89	0.014	0.84	0.292			
Y103	0.622	0.97				
T104	0.041	0.19	0.196			
T111	0.9		0.21			
S112	0.321	0.37	0.77	R-T-T-S		Yes!
S129	0.988		0.469			
S150	0.753	0.61	0.46	S-D		
T154	0.084	0.14	0.383			
S156	0.966	0.45	0.737			
T164	0.471	0.75	0.113			
S187	0.179	0.67	0.578	S-D		
T193	0.137	0.91	0.298			
S197	0.323	0.44	0.277	G-S?		
S198	0.725	0.52	0.227			
S199	0.063	0.21	0.154			
S200	0.992	0.65	0.539			
S202	0.996		0.274			
S213	0.572	0.03	0.249			
S215	0.916	0.8	0.402			
S221	0.772	1.13	0.654		S-P	
S232	0.844	0.46	0.47			
S234	0.745	0.56	0.536	G-S?		
T243	0.046	0.21	0.137			
S259	0.985	1.28	0.869	R-V-R-S		
S262	0.763	0.63	0.803			
S273	0.044	0.18	0.348			
S284	0.303	0.34	0.103			
Y299	0.137	0.46				
T319	0.94	0.27	0.247		T-P	
T343	0.689		0.173			

 Figure Legends

Fig.1 Interactions between AFPs and PP2Cs detected by y2h assays. Fusions were combined by matings

between Y187 carrying AD fusions and PJ69-4a carrying BD fusions. After overnight incubation on YPD

media, yeast were replica-plated onto selective media lacking leu and trp (-LW) to maintain the AD- and

BD- fusion plasmids, and lacking histidine and adenine (-HALW) to score interactions between the fusion

proteins.

Fig.2 Interactions between AFPs and kinases detected by y2h assays. The indicated fusions were

combined as described in Fig. 1.

Fig.3 Interactions between AFPs, receptors and GRFs detected by y2h assays. Following matings, the

indicated diploid lines were grown overnight in media lacking leu and trp. After measuring the OD600,

cultures were diluted to the same concentration, then serially diluted 10-fold three times. The diluted

cultures were then replica-spotted onto selective media. The -LW plate serves as a control for accuracy

of the dilutions. Growth on the -HLW plate requires interaction between the AD- and BD- fusions to

complement the *his3-200* allele of these yeast.

Fig.4 Interactions between AFPs and SnRK2s , PP2Cs, GRFs and receptors detected by split YFP assays.

Low magnification images were obtained with an Infinity camera on an Olympus AX70 epifluorescence

microscope at 100x magnification. Insets are 400x magnification. High magnification images of individual

nuclei were obtained with a Leica SP8 Resonant Scanning Confocal microscope. Scale bars = 10 μm for

interactions with kinases, 5 μm for interactions with AHG1

Fig.5 AFP2 is a substrate for both specific kinases and PP2Cs. Immunoblot of extracts from transiently

expressed full-length or subdomains of AFP2 as YFP fusions (A). The YFP-AFP2-AB fusion was transiently

co-expressed with fusions to either SnRK2.3 or AHG1 (B) Transiently expressed YFP-AFP2-AB was

immunoprecipitated using GFP-Trap agarose beads; upper panels are Westerns with indicated

antibodies, lower panels are Ponceau stain (C) In vitro kinase reactions with GST-SnRK2.6 and wt or

phosphomutant His-fusions of AFP2-AB resulting in reduced mobility (D,G), incorporation of radioactivity

(E), or reactivity with Pro-Q Diamond stain (G). The 2xA mutant of the AB domain is (S85, S112)A; the

3xA mutant also includes T76A. Co-expression of the wild-type AB and BC domains of AFP2 with MyC-

MPK3 (F) and phosphomutant BC fusions (K). Mobility of transiently expressed wild-type and

phosphomutant AFP2-AB domain fusions (H) and AFP2-BC domain fusions (J,K). In vitro kinase reactions

with GST-SnRK2.6 and wt or mutant His fusions of AFP2-BC, viewed with Pro-Q Diamond stain (I). Lower

panels are Ponceau (A,C,F,H,J,K) or Coomassie (D,E,I) stain. Immunoblots were probed with anti-GFP. For

the BC domain, 2xA = (S112,S259)A; 3xA = (S112,S221,T319)A; 2xD = (S221,T319)D

Fig.6 *In vivo* expression assays with mutant AFPs testing relative significance of specific residues for

ABA/stress-induced modification and stability. Transient expression in *N.benthamiana*, followed by 4 hrs

incubation in GM +/- 30 μM ABA (A). Stable *A. thaliana* transgenic seedlings grown 5d on GM, then

incubated in GM +/- 20 μM ABA for 4.5 hrs (B) or min +/- NaCl (50 - 300 mM) for 2.75 hr (C). Transient

expression of YFP-AFP2-AB fusions in *N.benthamiana*, followed by 6 hrs incubation in GM +/- 20 μM CHX

or MG132 (D). Stable *A. thaliana* transgenic seedlings grown 5d on GM, then incubated in GM +/- CHX or

MG132 for 6 Hrs (E). All upper panels were probed with anti-GFP. Lower panels show either anti-actin

reactivity or Ponceau stain (pink).

Fig.7 Localization of YFP-fusions to wild-type and phosphomutant AFP2-AB and –BC domains, and split

YFP assays with GRF4, in transiently transformed *N. benthamiana*. Confocal images of nuclei: scale bars

= 5 um. nYFP-GRF4/cYFP-GRF4 image: scale bar = 20 um

Fig. 8 Physiological analysis comparing germination (A,C,D) or cotyledon greening (B,E,F) of transgenic

lines overexpressing wild-type (wt) vs phosphomutant or phosphomimetic AFP2 fusions in wt(Col)

background (A,B,C,E) or *afp2* background (A,B,D,F). Data displayed is the average of at least

triplicate assays for each genotype and treatment $\pm$ S.E. Bars with different letters represent

statistically different values using Tukey's HSD post-hoc test (p<0.01).

Fig.9 Effects of phosphomutant or phosphomimetic YFP-AFP2 fusions on storage protein accumulation

and seed longevity. Top: comparison of dry seed protein extracts from lines either segregating a full-

length wild type AFP2 fusion or homozygous for S85E,S112E (S>E) or S85A,S112A (S>A) mutant full-

length AFP2 fusions (left) or AFP2-BC fusions with the indicated mutations (right). Upper panels show

immunoblots of YFP-AFP2(-BC) fusions detected by α-GFP, ABI5, and Actin as a loading control. Lower

panels show Coomassie staining of a comparably loaded higher 15% SDS-PAGE to retain and resolve the

storage proteins. The "old" extracts were from early generations of these lines with high transgene

expression and poor seed viability, while "new" extracts were from later generations with partially

silenced transgenes permitting better viability but still conferring ABA-resistant germination. Bottom:

seedlings from seed stocks of the indicated ages and genotypes, and their % germination, after 5d

growth on minimal medium.

Figure 10. Changing relationships in the ABA core signaling pathway during the transition from seed

maturation to germination. At high ABA concentrations, PP2Cs (e.g. AHG1 & AHG3) are inactive, kinases

(e.g. SnRK2s & MPKs) are active, bZIPs (e.g. ABI5 & ABFs) and AFPs are phosphorylated and are bound by

GRFs (14-3-3 proteins). When the bZIP:AFP ratio is high, ABA-regulated gene expression proceeds and

germination is blocked (Garcia et al, 2008). As ABA levels decrease, ABA induces repressors including AFPs

and PP2Cs in a feedback mechanism, the bZIP:AFP ratio decreases and seed-expressed gene expression

declines. Interaction between AFPs and co-repressors (e.g. TPL/TPR and HDAC components) leads to

inactivation of seed-expressed genes (Lynch et al. 2016). At low ABA levels, the PP2Cs are active and

inactivate the SnRK2s, bZIPs (Lynch et al. 2012) and AFPs, and the latter two classes are proteasomally

degraded. Many additional interactors are not included due to space constraints. The figure was created

with BioRender.com.

Supplementary Figures

Supp. Fig. 1. Yeast two-hybrid test of interactions between ABA receptors and AFPs, presented as GAL4BD-

PYR/PYL and GAL4AD-AFP fusions. The AD fusion to the PP2C HAB1 is included as a positive control, and

pACT is a negative control. Fusions were combined by matings between Y187 carrying AD fusions and PJ69-

4a carrying BD fusions. After overnight incubation on YPD media, yeast were replica plated onto selective

media lacking leu and trp (-LW) to maintain the AD- and BD-fusion plasmids, then replica plated again to

media lacking histidine (-HLW) and supplemented with ABA to score interactions between the fusion

proteins. Lower panel: test of potential positives by dilution assay, as in Fig.3.

Supp. Fig. 2 Expression of PYLs, GRFs and AFPs in maturing embryos, dry seeds and either 24 h post-2d-

stratification or after 24h imbibition in water following 2-4 months after-ripening. Data from (Narsai et

al., 2011; Nakabayashi et al., 2005; Hofmann et al., 2019) displayed on http://bar.utoronto.ca/efp//cgi-

bin/efpWeb.cgi (Winter et al., 2007)

Supp. Fig. 3 Interactions between 14-3-3 proteins (GRFs) and ABA core signaling elements. Top: Yeast

two-hybrid assays combining AD-fusions to 14-3-3 proteins with BD-fusions to wild-type and mutant

AFP2, PP2Cs, SnRK2.3 and ABI5 by matings, as described for Supp.Fig.1.

Bottom: BiFC assays testing GRF interactions with kinases and phosphatases.

Supp. Fig. 4 Biomolecular fluorescence complementation of full length AFP2 (middle) and AFP1 (bottom)

and subdomains versus ABA core signaling components in *N. benthamiana* leaves (100X magnification).

Top panel shows localization of YFP-fused phosphatase and kinase for reference. Color differences are

due to different versions of image capture software. Inset images show examples of nuclear speckles

observed at 200X or 400X magnification

Supp. Fig. 5 Predicted phosphorylated residues in AFP1 and AFP2. Top: PhosPhAt shows possible

phosphorylation sites of AFP1 highlighted in green, with documented sites identified by black letters.

Middle: Alignment of AFP1 and AFP2. A, B and C domains are underlined in blue, green and red,

respectively. Residues fitting consensus for MAPK phosphorylation are in blue, those fitting SnRK2

consensus are in red. Bottom: Disordered regions (score <8) in AFP2 predicted by Attention based

DisOrder PredicTor (ADOPT) (Redl et al., 2023).

Supp. Fig. 6 In vitro kinase reaction of His-AFP2-AB incubated with GST-SnRK2.6 used for mass

spectrometric analysis of phosphorylation site(s). Top: Coomassie-stained SDS-PAGE; the

phosphorylated substrate bands were excised from the gel, and sent to the UC Davis Mass

Spectrometry Facility for analysis following tryptic digestion. Bottom: Summary of Mass Spec analysis

by Scaffold software.

Supp. Fig. 7 Tests of potential phosphorylation sites by kinase reactions with mutant AFP substrates. In

vitro kinase assay comparing phosphorylation of wild-type AFP2-AB domain with phosphomutants or

AFP2-C domain (A). Top two panels are autoradiographs of the Coomassie-stained gel shown in the

bottom panel. Affinity-purified GST-SnRK2.6 was pre-activated, then reactions set up as pool before

aliquoting for combination with His-AFP2 substrates. Coomassie shows loading of AB fusions and SnRK.

"4xA" = (S85,T111,S112,S129)A; as shown in Fig. 5E, (S85,S112)A gives the same result as the 4xA

mutant.

Comparison of wild type and phosphomutant YFP-AFP2-AB domain mobility when transiently expressed

in *N. benthamiana*, either alone or in combination with either Myc-SnRK2.3 or Myc-MPK3 (B). "3xA" =

(T76,S85,S112)A

Supp. Fig. 8 Comparison of phosphorylation status of AFP2-BC domain by Phos-tag gels. YFP-AFP2-BC

fusions were expressed transiently in *N.benthamiana* (A,B,C) or stably in *A.thaliana* (C). Fusions were

expressed alone or in combination with Myc-SnRK2.3 (A), Myc-MPK3 (B) or Myc-AHG1 (C). ABA or GM

incubations were as described in Fig. 6AB. The "3xD" mutant is altered at S112, S221, and T319. The

unphosphorylated AFP2-BC domain is identified by the arrows.

Supp. Fig. 9 Effects of ABA, mutations and genetic background on expression and mobility of YFP-AFP2-

BC transgenes in stably transformed *A. thaliana*. Time course of changes in mobility of wild-type AFP2-

BC in response to 20 μM ABA (A). Dose response of ABA-induced changes in mobility of wild-type AFP2-

BC domain in stably transformed *A. thaliana* incubated for 6 hrs in GM with or without ABA ranging from

1-20 μM (B). Expression of wild-type (wt) YFP-AFP2-BC and transgenes with the indicated mutations in wt

and *afp2* seedlings following germination and 7d growth on minimal media supplemented with 3 μM

ABA (C). Upper panels are immunoblots probed with anti-GFP. Lower panels in B and C are the RbcL

bands seen on Ponceau stained filters

Supp. Fig. 10 Comparison of protein and transcript levels for AFP2-AB or AFP2-BC domain fusions.

Transient expression in *N. benthamiana* (A-C) or stable transformants in *A. thaliana* (D,E). The standard

series of wt AFP2-AB shows the volume of extract loaded for the standard curve. Amounts of YFP fusion

protein were normalized relative to actin. YFP-fusion transcripts were normalized relative to these stably

expressed endogenous genes: PP2A (Niben101Scf09716g01002.1) of *N.benthamiana* and the geometric

mean of PP2AA3 (At1g13320) and AP2M (At5g46630) of Arabidopsis.

Supp. Fig. 11. Confocal images of root tips of transgenic Arabidopsis expressing the indicated YFP-AFP2-

BC fusions. Seedlings were grown 4d post-stratification on minimal medium, then transferred to GM

with or without 20 μM ABA for 1 day. Scale bar = 20 μm

Supp. Fig. 12. Comparison of stability and accumulation of transiently expressed wild type, double

(S112A,S259A or S221A,T319A) or triple (3xA=S112A,S221A,T319A) mutant AFP2-BC domain fusions to

YFP. Following infiltration, *N. benthamiana* leaf discs were infiltrated with GM (0.5x MS medium) with or

without 20 μM cycloheximide (CHX) or MG132(MG), and incubated 6 hrs prior to harvest for extraction.

Immunoblots were probed with anti-GFP (top panels) after staining with Ponceau (lower panels) (A,B).

Micrographs of *N. benthamiana* leaves used for assay in B, taken with 10x objective on an Olympus AX70

epifluorescence microscope (C). Gain was set at 11.9 for 3xA mutant vs. 2.0 for wild-type. Inset is wild-

type nucleus taken with 40x objective.

Supp. Fig. 13. Germination phenotypes of wild type (Col) and transgenic seeds expressing the

indicated YFP-AFP2 fusions after 7d incubation on either 10 or 50 µM ABA.

Supp. Fig. 14. Effects of phosphomutant or phosphomimetic YFP-AFP2 fusions on storage protein

accumulation and seed longevity. Dry seed protein extracts of the indicated genotypes and ages were

separated on 10% SDS-PAGE for immunoblot or 15% SDS-PAGE for resolution of storage proteins.

Germination was scored at 4d post-stratification incubation on minimal nutrient media.

Supp. Fig. 15. Effect of ABA on accumulation and phosphorylation of ABI5 in seeds with wild type or

mutant YFP-AFP2-BC fusions in an *afp2* mutant background. Protein extracts were separated on 10%

SDS-PAGE (upper panels) or a 7.5% Phos-tag gel, then transferred to filters for immunoblots.

Germination on minimal media supplemented with 3 mM ABA (A3) was scored just prior to harvest.

Supp. Fig. 16. Alphafold prediction of AFP2 structure (Model AF-Q9LMX5-F1) with locations of predicted

SnRK2 or MPK phosphorylation sites labeled.

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Figure 1 interactions between AFPs and PP2Cs detected by y2h assays. Fusions were combined by matings between Y187 carrying AD fusions and PJ69-4a carrying BD fusions. After overnight incubation on YPD media, yeast were replica plated onto selective media lacking leu and trp (-LW) to maintain the AD- and BD-fusion plasmids, and lacking histidine and adenine (-HALW) to score interactions between the fusion proteins.

Figure 2 Interactions between AFPs and kinases detected by y2h assays. The indicated fusions were combined as described in Fig. 1.

Figure 3. Interactions between AFPs, receptors and GRFs detected by y2h assays. Following matings, the indicated diploid lines were grown overnight in media lacking leu and trp. After measuring the OD600, cultures were diluted to the same concentration, then serially diluted 10-fold three times. The diluted cultures were then replica-spotted onto selective media. The -LW plate serves as a control for accuracy of the dilutions. Growth on the -HLW plate requires interaction between the AD- and BD- fusions to complement the *his3-* of these yeast.

Figure 4. Interactions between AFPs and SnRK2s , PP2Cs, GRFs and receptors detected by split YFP assays. Low magnification images were obtained with an Infinity camera on an Olympus AX70 epifluorescence microscope at 100x magnification. Insets are 400x magnification. High magnification images of individual nuclei were obtained with a Leica SP8 Resonant Scanning Confocal microscope. Scale bars = 10 μm for interactions with kinases, 5 μm for interactions with AHG1

Fig.5 AFP2 is a substrate for both specific kinases and PP2Cs. Immunoblot of extracts from transiently expressed full-length or subdomains of AFP2 as YFP fusions (A). The YFP-AFP2-AB fusion was transiently co-expressed with fusions to either SnRK2.3, AHG1 or AHG3 (B). Transiently expressed YFP-AFP2-AB was immunoprecipitated using GFP-Trap agarose beads; upper panels are Westerns with indicated antibodies (C). In vitro kinase reactions with GST-SnRK2.6 and wt or phosphomutant His-fusions of AFP2-AB resulting in reduced mobility (D,G), incorporation of radioactivity (E), or reactivity with Pro-Q Diamond stain (G). The 2xA mutant of the AB domain is (S85, S112)A; the 3xA mutant also includes T76A. Co-expression of the wild-type AB and BC domains of AFP2 with MyC-MPK3 (F) and phosphomutant BC fusions (K). Mobility of transiently expressed wild-type and phosphomutant AFP2-AB domain fusions (H) and AFP2-BC domain fusions (J,K). In vitro kinase reactions with GST-SnRK2.6 and wt or mutant His fusions of AFP2-BC, viewed with Pro-Q Diamond stain (I). Lower panels are Ponceau (A,C,F,H,J,K) or Coomassie (D,E,I) stain. Immunoblots were probed with anti-GFP. For the BC domain, 2xA = (S112,S259)A; 3xA = (S112,S221,T319)A; 2xD = (S221,T319)D

Figure 6. *In vivo* expression assays with mutant AFPs testing relative significance of specific residues for ABA/stress-induced modification and stability. Transient expression in *N.benthamiana*, followed by 4 hrs incubation in GM +/- 30 μM ABA (A). Stable *A. thaliana* transgenic seedlings grown 5d on GM, then incubated in GM +/- 20 μM ABA for 4.5 hrs (B) or min +/- NaCl (50 - 300 mM) for 2.75 hr (C). Transient expression of YFP-AFP2-AB fusions in *N.benthamiana*, followed by 6 hrs incubation in GM +/- 20 μM CHX or MG132 (D). Stable *A. thaliana* transgenic seedlings grown 5d on GM, then incubated in GM +/- CHX or MG132 for 6 Hrs (E). All upper panels were probed with anti-GFP. Lower panels show either anti-actin reactivity or Ponceau stain (pink).

AFP2   AFP2-AB   AFP2-AB (S112A)   AFP2-AB (3xA)   AFP2-BC   AFP2-BC (S112,S259)A   AFP2-BC (S221,T319)A

YFP-AFP2 cYFP-GRF4   nYFP-GRF4 cYFP-AFP2   nYFP-GRF4 cYFP-AFP2 (S85,S112)A   nYFP-AFP2BC cYFP-GRF4   nYFP-AFP2BC (S112A) cYFP-GRF4   nYFP-GRF4 cYFP-GRF4

Figure 7. Localization of YFP-fusions to wild-type and phosphomutant AFP2-AB and –BC domains, and split YFP assays with GRF4, in transiently transformed *N. benthamiana*. Confocal images of nuclei: scale bars = 5 um. nYFP-GRF4/cYFP-GRF4 image: scale bar = 20 um

Figure 8. Physiological analysis comparing germination (A,C,D) or cotyledon greening (B,E,F) of transgenic lines overexpressing wild-type (wt) vs phosphomutant or phosphomimic AFP2 fusions in wt(Col) background (A,B,C,E) or *afp2* background (A,B,D,F). Data displayed is the average of at least triplicate assays for each genotype and treatment ± S.E. Bars with different letters represent statistically different values using Tukey's HSD post-hoc test (p<0.01).

Figure 9. Effects of phosphomutant or phosphomimetic YFP-AFP2 fusions on storage protein accumulation and seed longevity. Top: comparison of dry seed protein extracts from lines either segregating a full-length wild type AFP2 fusion or homozygous for S85E,S112E (S>E) or S85A,S112A (S>A) mutant full-length AFP2 fusions (left) or AFP2-BC fusions with the indicated mutations (right). Upper panels show immunoblots of YFP-AFP2(-BC) fusions detected by α-GFP, ABI5, and Actin as a loading control. Lower panels show Coomassie staining of a comparably loaded higher (15%) SDS-PAGE to retain and resolve the storage proteins. The "old" extracts were from early generations of these lines with high transgene expression and poor seed viability, while "new" extracts were from later generations with partially silenced transgenes permitting better viability but still conferring ABA-resistant germination. Bottom: YFP-AFP2-BC seedlings from seed stocks of the indicated ages and genotypes, and their % germination, after 5d growth on minimal medium.

Figure 10. Changing relationships in the ABA core signaling pathway during the transition from seed maturation to germination. At high ABA concentrations, PP2Cs (e.g. AHG1 & AHG3) are inactive, kinases (e.g. SnRK2s & MPKs) are active, bZIPs (e.g. ABI5 & ABFs) and AFPs are phosphorylated and are bound by GRFs (14-3-3 proteins). When the bZIP:AFP ratio is high, ABA-regulated gene expression proceeds and germination is blocked (Garcia et al, 2008). As ABA levels decrease, ABA induces repressors including AFPs and PP2Cs in a feedback mechanism, the bZIP:AFP ratio decreases and seed-expressed gene expression declines. Interaction between AFPs and co-repressors (e.g. TPL/TPR and HDAC components) leads to inactivation of seed-expressed genes (Lynch et al. 2016). At low ABA levels, the PP2Cs are active and inactivate the SnRK2s, bZIPs (Lynch et al. 2012) and AFPs, and the latter two classes are proteasomally degraded. Many additional interactors are not included due to space constraints. The figure was created with BioRender.com.

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