Long-term high temperatures affect seed maturation and seed coat integrity in *Brassica napus*

Unnikannan Prabhullachandran[1,2], Ivana Urbánková[3], Alejandro Medaglia-Mata[4,5], Audrey Creff[6], Aline Voxeur[7], Vilma Buršíková[8], Benoit Landrein[6], Jan Hejátko[3], Hélène S. Robert[1]

1. Plant Biotech for stress resilience, Genomics and Proteomics of Plant Systems, Central European Institute of Technology (CEITEC), Masaryk University, Brno, Czech Republic

2. National Centre for Biomolecular Research, Faculty of Science, Masaryk University, Brno, Czech Republic

3. Functional Genomics and Proteomics of Plants, Genomics and Proteomics of Plant Systems, Central European Institute of Technology (CEITEC), Masaryk University, Brno, Czech Republic

4. Bioinformatics Core Facility, Central European Institute of Technology (CEITEC), Masaryk University, Brno, Czech Republic

5. Department of Biology, Faculty of Medicine, Masaryk University, Brno, Czech Republic

6. Laboratoire Reproduction et Développement des Plantes, Université de Lyon, ENS de Lyon, UCB Lyon, CNRS, INRAE, INRIA, Lyon, France

7. Université Paris-Saclay, INRAE, AgroParisTech, Institute Jean-Pierre Bourgin for Plant Science (IJPB), Versailles, France

8. Department of Plasma Physics and Technology, Faculty of Science, Masaryk University, Kotlářská 2, 611 37, Brno, Czech Republic.

Hélène S. Robert (corresponding author helene.robert.boisivon@ceitec.muni.cz)

ORCID

UK 0000-0001-6430-575X

IU 0009-0005-0794-1553

AMM 0000-0003-3496-0571

AC 0000-0001-7736-5882

AV 0000-0001-9452-6756

VB 0000-0001-5505-6632

BL 0000-0002-2371-9996

JH 0000-0002-2622-6046

HSR 0000-0002-6610-836X

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ABSTRACT

Temperatures above the optimum growth temperature affect seed development;

accelerating the embryo development and producing seeds with ruptured seed coats.

However, the underlying mechanism of this effect remains unclear. To investigate

temperature-induced seed coat rupture, we used a combination of detailed phenotyping,

transcriptomics, histology, immunolabelling, cell wall profiling and seed coat mechanics to

analyse oilseed rape seeds. Our data suggest that high temperatures accelerate embryo

growth, resulting in the formation of larger embryos but not larger seeds. The formation of

large embryos increases the mechanical stress exerted on the seed coat cells by the embryo,

reducing their thickness. Prolonged exposure to high temperatures during seed development

causes the seed coat to mature prematurely, resulting in the accumulation of

demethylesterified pectin and making the cell wall more rigid. This inhibits cell growth and

limits the expansion of the seed. The consequences of these events result in tension building

up in the seed coat cells. These cells eventually undergo seed coat rupture, affecting the

quality of the seed. Our work on seed maturation and the mechanism of heat-induced seed

coat rupture provides valuable insights for future research into generating thermotolerant

Brassica napus, crucial in the context of changing climates.

HIGHLIGHTS

• Growth of *Brassica napus* under long-term high temperatures accelerated the embryo

growth and led to half of the seeds undergoing seed coat rupture phenotype.

• Pathways linked to cell wall modification were found to be significantly misregulated at

high temperatures. The stiffening of the seed coat correlated with increased pectin

demethylesterification.

• The faster-growing embryo imparted increased tension to the developing seed coat cells,

reducing the thickness of each individual layer. While the seed coat was stiffening, it was

unable to restrict the embryo growth, resulting in its rupture.

KEYWORDS

Brassica napus, seed development, cell wall, long-term high temperature, pectin, seed coat

rupture, heat stress.

1. INTRODUCTION

The adverse impacts of global warming on agricultural production pose a major challenge to

global food security. Extreme weather events, such as heat stress, drought and floods, have

the potential to affect the production of staple crops, such as rice, wheat, maize, and soybean

(Agnolucci & De Lipsis, 2020; Heino et al., 2023; Jägermeyr et al., 2021; Zhao et al., 2017). The

latest average annual global temperature rise in 2025 was 1.19°C above preindustrial levels

(Lenssen et al., 2024; *NASA Goddard Institute for Space Studies*, 2026), highlighting the need

to adapt agricultural practices to higher temperatures.

Brassica napus (canola or oilseed rape), an allotetraploid species of the Brassicaceae family,

is the second most widely cultivated oilseed crop, used for the production of vegetable oil,

biofuel, and protein in animal feed. Cultivation of oilseed rape at temperatures above the

optimum growth temperature of 21°C for prolonged periods, especially during the flowering

stage, resulted in several adverse effects, including rapid vegetative growth, reduced viability

of female gametophytes, increased seed abortion rate, accelerated embryo development,

and a reduction in seed oil composition (Mácová et al., 2022; Secchi et al., 2023; Young et al.,

2004). One of the distinctive phenotypes observed during seed development of certain canola

cultivars subjected to prolonged heat stress that affects seed yield is the occurrence of the

preharvest sprouting phenotype (Mácová et al., 2022), which is associated with an initial

rupture of the seed coat during seed maturation. For our study we termed it as seed coat

rupture (SCR) phenotype. The exact mechanism by which this phenotype is regulated at

elevated temperatures remains unclear in *Brassica napus*.

In Brassicaceae, seed size is regulated by the interaction between maternal and zygotic signals

that coordinate the proper development of the seed coat, endosperm, and embryo (Li et al.,

2019). During the maturation of *Arabidopsis* seeds, the pressure generated by the interaction

between the developing embryo and the endosperm within the seed, driven by embryo

growth, exerts tension on the developing integuments (Creff et al., 2015, 2023). The

generated tension is sensed by a specific layer of the seed coat's outer integument (oi), the

adaxial epidermis (oi1). This mechanical stimulus triggers a transcriptional response marked by the activation of the mechanosensitive gene *EUI-like P450A1* (*ELA1)*, which is believed to promote cell wall stiffening through demethylesterified pectin accumulation, and thus, regulating seed size (Creff et al., 2023). Cell wall stretching enables the growth of a plant cell which depends on the mechanical strength and dynamic extensibility of the wall (Geitmann & Ortega, 2009). The strength and integrity of the wall during growth is maintained actively by the modification of the cell wall elements (Cosgrove, 2024). The dry mass of the primary plant cell wall is composed of cellulose, hemicellulose, and pectin (Ayala Soto & Serna Saldívar, 2020; Cosgrove, 2024). Pectin forms a hydrated gel-like matrix in which cellulose and hemicellulose cross-link to form the cell wall. It is abundant in the middle lamella, an adhesive layer between adjacent cells. The most abundant pectin, homogalacturonan (HG), is produced in a highly methylesterified state. It can undergo demethylesterification by the activity of pectin methylesterase (PME) based on developmental response (Turbant et al., 2016; Wu et al., 2018; Xu et al., 2022). Blockwise removal of methyl groups can lead to the formation of Ca^{2+} cross-links, which makes the cell wall more rigid and inhibits growth alternatively, random removal can lead to pectin degradation, affecting wall rheology (Bidhendi & Geitmann, 2016; Wu et al., 2018). Seed size correlates with endosperm proliferation and development. The two processes are linked by a brassinosteroid-induced cell expansion and increased levels of methylesterified pectin in the seed coat, which helps to regulate seed size (Lima et al., 2024).

In this study, we used a multi-methodology approach to investigate the occurrence of the temperature-induced SCR phenotype. The results show that SCR occurs in seeds around 20 days after pollination (20 DAP) when plants are cultivated at elevated temperatures for a prolonged period. The pressure induced by unrestricted embryo growth led to increased tension in the seed coat, characterised by reduced thickness of the seed coat layers, and resulted in early changes in cell wall composition. Accumulation of demethylesterified pectin made the cell wall of the seed coat more rigid inhibiting the cell growth by expansion. It correlates with a reduced elasticity, making the seed coat more prone to rupture. The precise mechanism by which accelerated embryo development influenced by heat stress-mediated seed development in oilseed rape plants remains to be elucidated. A deeper understanding of the effects of prolonged elevated temperatures on seed development could prove

invaluable in the generation of thermotolerant varieties of canola varieties, which would help

to improve crop yields in the context of global warming in the 21st century.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 Plant materials and growth conditions

Brassica napus spring cultivar, Topas DH4079, was used for this study. Seeds were sterilised,

germinated, and grown initially in the phytotron (21°C, 16/8 h long day period, 150

µmol/m^2/s) until the emergence of the first flowering buds, as previously mentioned (Mácová

et al., 2022). Plants were then transferred to greenhouse chambers with control temperature

(CT) and heat (HT) conditions maintained under a long-day regime (16/8 h), LED lights with a

light intensity of 150 µmol/m^2/s, 35%–45% humidity and temperature of 18°C during the night

and ramping to 21°C (CT) and 32°C (HT) during the day. Seeds used for the experiments are

obtained from hand-pollinated flowers. The age of the seeds is counted from the day after

pollination (DAP).

2.2 Seed phenotyping

Roughly ten hand-pollinated and dried siliques from four plants in each of the five biological

replicates from CT (n=116) and HT (n=245) conditions were screened for the total, intact

(round intact seeds with intact embryo), seeds undergoing SCR (partial or fully ruptured seed

coat with intact embryo or germinating embryo respectively) and dead seeds (empty and

shrunken without embryo) (Fig. S1a-c). Fresh seeds from 14 to 20 DAP were collected from

Topas grown at CT and HT for embryo staging. The whole seed and its isolated embryo were

imaged using a Levenhuk M500 base digital camera attached to a Zeiss stemi 305

stereomicroscope. Later, the images were used to measure the seed and embryo areas using

ImageJ for 14, 18 and 20 DAP. The ratio of the embryo-to-seed area was calculated to get

information on the space occupied by the embryo within the seed at each stage of

development. Statistical significance was accounted for by a two-way ANOVA test with

Tukey's multiple comparisons (* $p < 0.0332$, ** $p < 0.0021$, *** $p < 0.0002$, and **** $p <$

0.0001).

2.3 RNA extraction and sequencing

RNA was extracted from 50 mg of ground tissue of 14, 18 and 20 DAP intact from CT and HT,

and 20 DAP SCR seeds from HT only are collected from three plants in each of the four

biological replicates using a NucleoSpin RNA Plant and Fungi kit (Macherey-Nagel) following

the manufacturer's protocol. The samples were treated with RNase-free rDNase (Macherey-

Nagel) and repurified using the RNeasy MinElute Cleanup Kit (Qiagen). The samples were

sequenced by Novogene Genomic Sequencing Labs. After sample quality control and library

preparation, paired-end short-read RNA sequencing was performed on poly-A RNA using an

Illumina Novaseq Sequencing platform. Quality check of raw paired-end fastq reads was

carried out by FastQC (Andrews, 2010), and their origin was categorised using BioBloomTools

v2.3.4 (Chu et al., 2014). The Illumina adapters and quality trimming of raw fastq reads were

performed using Trimmomatic v0.39 (Bolger et al., 2014) with settings CROP:250 LEADING:3

TRAILING:3 SLIDINGWINDOW:4:5 MINLEN:35. Trimmed RNA-Seq reads were mapped to the

Brassica napus genome (genome build: Bra_napus_v2.0) with gene annotation (NCBI *Brassica*

napus Annotation Release 101) using STAR v2.7.3a (Dobin et al., 2013) as splice-aware short

read aligner and default parameters except outFilterMismatchNoverLmax 0.1 and

twopassMode Basic. Quality control after alignment concerning the number and percentage

of uniquely- and multi-mapped reads, rRNA contamination, mapped regions, read coverage

distribution, strand specificity, gene biotypes, and PCR duplication was performed using

RSeQC v4.0.0 (L. Wang et al., 2012), Picard toolkit v2.25.6 (Broad Institute and GitHub

Repository, 2018), Qualimap v.2.2.2 (Okonechnikov et al., 2016). All compatible results and

statistics were processed by MultiQC v1.10.1 (Ewels et al., 2016). The sequence data have

been deposited in the NCBI under the Bio-Project PRJNA1188476

(https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/bioproject/PRJNA1188476).

The differential gene expression analysis was calculated based on the gene counts produced

using featureCounts from Subread package v2.0 (Liao et al., 2014) and further analysed by

Bioconductor package DESeq2 v1.34.0 (Love et al., 2014). Because of its conservative features

and to prevent false positive results, data produced by DESeq2 with independent filtering

were chosen for the differential gene expression analysis. Genes were considered to be

differentially expressed based on a cut-off for adjusted p-value ≤ 0.05 and log2FC ≥1 or ≤-1.

The data are compiled in Table S1, Table S2, Fig. S8, and Fig. S9. Clustered heatmaps were

generated from selected top differentially regulated genes using R package pheatmap v1.0.12

(Kolde, 2015), volcano plots were produced using ggplot2 v3.3.5 package (Wickham, 2011),

and MA plots were generated using ggpubr v0.4.0 package (Kassambara, 2018). GO enrichment is done taking all the Entrez gene IDs and cross-mapping them against UniProt IDs, then taking all the transcript sequences and mapping them (using BLAST) against the NCBI Nucleotide database subset for all species under taxons 3701 (*Arabidopsis* genus) and 981071 (*Brassicaceae* tribe) obtaining RefSeq gene IDs which were cross-mapped against UniProt IDs and then used in GO enrichment.

2.4 Seed embedding and sectioning for seed coat thickness measurements

Seeds were fixed in FAA (45% ethanol, 5% acetic acid and 1.85% formaldehyde) for 24 h under vacuum, followed by another incubation at 4°C for 24 h in fresh FAA. The seeds were washed once with water. Tissue softening was done with Franklin Maceration solution (1:1 v/v of 30% H_2O_2 and glacial acetic acid) for 4 h at 60°C. Dehydration was done using 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60% ethanol series in 10% glycerine for 1 h at 30°C, followed by 4 days in 70% ethanol at 4°C and dehydration with 80, 90 and 95% ethanol for 1 h at room temperature. Infiltration and embedding with Technovit 7100 (Kulzer Technik Gmbh) were performed according to the manufacturer's protocol with the following modifications. The initial infiltration was performed in a 50% infiltration solution in ethanol overnight at room temperature, followed by incubation for one week at 4°C in 100% infiltration solution with 1% w/v Technovit 7100 Hardener I. Embedding was performed with 6.6% w/v Technovit 7100 Hardener II in infiltration solution and incubated for 8 days at -18°C to delay initial polymerisation. The samples were then incubated at room temperature to complete the polymerisation process. The 3-μm sections were prepared with a Leica RM2235 microtome using an attached stainless-steel knife.

2.5 Toluidine blue staining

The sections were stained with 0.05% Toluidine blue (Acros Organics) for 1 minute, followed by four washing steps of three minutes each with water. Later the slides were dried on the hot plate maintained at 70°C. Later the slides were mounted in Entellan (Sigma-Aldrich). Imaging of the sections was performed using a Zeiss AxioImager microscope. The thickness of the seed coat layers was measured in twenty regions per section, for three sections per seed and ten seeds per sample, using Image J. Graphs were plotted with significance calculated using a two-way ANOVA test with Tukey multiple comparisons.

2.6 Staining of lignin and pectin

Seven seeds at 14 and 18 DAP from CT and HT and 22 DAP only from CT were used. Pectin

was detected using a 0.05% w/v Ruthenium Red stain (Sigma-Aldrich) in an aqueous solution.

Sections were rehydrated, stained for 7 minutes in Ruthenium Red, followed by two wash

steps with water, drying on the hot plate and later mounted in Entellan (Sigma-Aldrich). Lignin

was detected with 0.5% Safranin-O (Acros organics) in an aqueous solution; stained for 20

seconds followed by three washes in water. Slides were mounted in Entellan (Sigma-Aldrich)

after drying. Imaging was done using a Zeiss AxioImager microscope.

2.7 Immunolabelling

Seeds at 10, 14, and 18 DAP from CT and HT, in two biological replicates, were fixed in 4% w/v

paraformaldehyde in ice-cold PEM buffer (50 mM PIPES, 5 mM EGTA, and 5 mM $MgSO_4$, pH

6.9). Samples were incubated on ice under vacuum for twice 1 h with fresh fixative solution,

followed by overnight incubation at 4°C. The samples were washed twice with ice-cold PEM

buffer, dehydrated through an ethanol series (50%, 70%, 80%, 90% and 100% three times)

under vacuum and infiltered with increasing concentrations (30%, 50% and 100%) of LR white

resin (Agar Scientific) in absolute ethanol over 8 days before being polymerised at 60°C for 24

h. Six seeds by timepoint per growth condition per biological replicate were sectioned (1 µm

thickness) using a glass knife mounted on a Leica RM2265 or EM UC7 microtome.

Immunolocalizations were performed with JIM5, LM19, LM20, and LM25 antibodies

(Agrisera). For immunolocalisation with LM25, an incubation with 0.1% pectolyase in 1X PBS

was done for 25 min at room temperature and washed once in 1X PBS before the blocking

step. For immunolocalisation with JIM5, LM19, and LM25, the sections were blocked with 3%

w/v BSA in 1X PBS and incubated for 1 h at room temperature. For the immunolocalisation

with LM20, an incubation in CAPS buffer (50 mM CAPS and 2 mM $CaCl_2$) for 1 h followed by

three washes with 1x PBS was performed before blocking with 3% skimmed milk in 1X PBS.

Sections were incubated with 1:10 v/v dilution of antibody prepared with 1% BSA in 1X PBS

for JIM5, LM19 and LM25 and 1% skimmed milk in 1X PBS for LM20 overnight at 4°C in a

humid chamber. The sections were brought to room temperature for 1 h, washed three times

with the above-mentioned buffers and incubated for 1 h in a humid chamber in the dark with

the secondary antibodies. A dilution of 1:100 v/v of secondary antibodies [anti-rat IgG Alexa

488 (Thermo Fisher) or anti-rat IgG Dylight 488 (Agrisera) for JIM5 and anti-rat IgM Dylight

488 (Thermo Fisher) for LM19, LM20 and LM25] in 1% BSA or 1% skimmed milk in 1X PBS was

used. Sections were washed in the respective buffers and 1X PBS, counterstained with 0.025

mg/ml Calcofluor white (Sigma-Aldrich), and mounted with VECTASHIELD antifade mounting

medium (Eurobio). The images were obtained with the ZEISS Axioimager 2 with a 40X dry

objective.

The intensity of the immunofluorescence in the cell walls of the epidermal and palisade layers

of the seed coat was quantified using ImageJ software. Images were adjusted using min/max

settings for optimal representation of fluorescent signals. For the three epidermal layers, a

segmented line with a width of 25 points was used to manually mark the cell walls of adjacent

cells of the same layer. The sum of fluorescence intensity in the three epidermal layers was

represented as one measurement. A region of interest was marked using the polygon

selection tool for the palisade layer. The mean fluorescence value obtained over the marked

regions for the different layers was subtracted from the background signal over the same area

to obtain the final fluorescence intensity.

2.8 Cell wall profiling from the seed coat

The enzymatic fingerprinting of the cell wall of seed coat from 10, 14 and 18 DAP seeds grown

under CT and HT conditions was performed in three biological replicates. The seed coats were

dissected from the seeds and were submerged in 96% (v/v) ethanol. The ethanol fraction was

discarded, and the seed coats were dried in a speed vacuum concentrator at 30°C overnight.

Dried seed coats were digested with 5 U/mg DW sample of *Pectobacterium carotovorum*

endo-polygalacturonase or *Paenibacillus* sp. xyloglucanase (Megazyme, Bray, Ireland) in 50

mM ammonium acetate buffer (pH 5) at 37°C for 18 h. Samples were centrifuged at 13,000

rpm for 10 min, and 100 µl of the supernatants were transferred into vials. For MS analysis,

10 µl of each fraction was injected. The oligosaccharides released from digestion were

separated according to Voxeur et al. (2019). Xyloglucan and pectin fragments were analysed

using an HPLC system (UltiMate 3000 RS HPLC system, Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA)

coupled to an Impact II Ultra-High Resolution Qq-Time-Of-Flight (UHR-QqTOF) spectrometer

(Bruker Daltonics, Bremen, Germany) equipped with an electrospray ionisation (ESI) source

in negative mode with the end plate offset set voltage to 500 V, capillary voltage to 4000 V,

nebuliser to 40 psi, dry gas to 8 l/min and dry temperature of 180°C. The Compass 1.8

software (Bruker Daltonics) was used to acquire the data. Chromatographic separation was performed on an ACQUITY UPLC Protein BEH SEC Column (125A, 1.7 μm, 4.6 mm X 300 mm, Waters Corporation, Milford, MA, USA) coupled with guard Column BEH SEC Column (125A, 1.7 μm, 4.6 mm X 30 mm). Elution was performed in 50 mM ammonium formate and 0.1% formic acid at a flow rate of 0.4 ml/min and with a column oven temperature of 40°C.

2.9 Space-restricted growth of siliques

Silicone tubes with 3-mm cross-section were inserted over developing siliques at 10 DAP and 12 DAP under HT and CT conditions, respectively, in four biological replicates with roughly 20 siliques per replicate. A 10 DAP silique at HT has a similar silique thickness to a 12 DAP silique at CT. Siliques from the same growth conditions without a silicone tube were used as negative control. The number of total, intact, dead and SCR seeds per siliques were estimated when mature and fully dry. For seed coat thickness measurements of space restricted seeds, seed embedding with LR white and seed sectioning (protocol described in section 2.7) was used followed by toluidine blue staining (protocol described in section 2.5). For seed coat thickness measurements, and seed and embryo size measurements, seeds at 24 DAP from CT and 20 DAP from HT were used which are at the same developmental stage.

2.10 Nanoindentation

A cylindrical 3D-printed mould of 2-cm diameter and 0.5-cm height was created with multiple circular wells of 1.8 to 2.4 mm diameter and 1.5-mm depth on the surface for holding the Topas seeds in place during the measurements (Fig. S7). Three 24 DAP seeds from CT and three 20 DAP seeds from HT conditions were used for this study. A Hysitron TI 950 instrument (upgraded to TI980) equipped with a diamond conical indenter with a cone angle of 90° and a tip radius of 0.97 μm was used for the nanoindentation. The indenter was calibrated on fused silica standard and tested on polycarbonate standard sample. Accelerated mechanical property mapping (XPM) was applied, as this mode enables the acquisition of elastic modulus maps with high spatial resolution and short acquisition times. Compared to the classical quasistatic indentation method, XPM is substantially faster, the time required to perform a single quasistatic indent is more than one order of magnitude longer. The reduced measurement time minimizes the effects of thermal drift, seed drying and suppresses the time-dependent mechanical response of the seed material. The maximum load was set to 50

μN, with a loading time of 0.5 s, a holding segment at the maximum load of 0.5 s, and an

unloading time of 0.1 s. Each measurement consisted of a 7 × 7 array of indents covering an

area of 7 × 7 μm². In total, more than 150 nanoindentation data points were acquired using

this method. The data were evaluated according to (Oliver & Pharr, 1992). The indentation

reduced modulus values were acquired directly from the analysis of the indentation unloading

curves. The reduced modulus E_r is calculated as a combination of the sample material and

indenter elastic deformations:

$$\frac{1}{E_r} = \left(\frac{1-v_i^2}{E_i}\right) + \left(\frac{1-v_s^2}{E_s}\right)$$

Here, E_s, v_s and E_i, v_i are the Young moduli and Poisson ratio values of samples and the

diamond indenter, respectively. If the studied samples exhibit low elastic moduli compared

to diamond, the first term in equation may be neglected.

2.11 Statistical analysis

GraphPad Prism v.8.4.3 was used to plot the graphs and calculate the statistical significance

using either ANOVA or multiple comparison tests. For the RNA sequencing experiment, R

programming was used to analyse and represent data and obtain the statistical significance.

3. RESULTS

3.1 *Brassica napus* seed coat integrity is affected by long-term heat stress

We have previously reported that in *Brassica napus* cv. Topas the early seed development is

affected under long-term heat treatment (HT) (Mácová et al., 2022). This study focuses on

the seed coat rupture (SCR) observed in seeds of Topas developed under HT (Fig. 1b), starting

at 20 DAP, while this phenomenon has very rarely been observed in seeds grown under

control treatment (CT) (Fig. 1a, Fig. S1). The SCR phenotype occurred with variable outcomes,

from a minor or incomplete testa break with intact tegmen and embryo remaining within the

seed to a complete seed coat rupture resulting in the embryo root or shoot protruding

through the break site appearing like a germinated seed (Fig. 1b, Fig. S1d-g). Such embryos

often had distinguishable phenotypes (Fig. S1g). The quantification of the seed phenotypes

by counting number of dry seeds per silique revealed a significant decrease in percent of

intact seeds, accompanied by a significant increase in the proportion of dead seeds and SCR

seeds for plants developed under HT compared to that of CT (Fig. S1h). At HT, approximately 50% of the seeds in a silique underwent SCR (Fig. 1c).

Fig. 1. SCR phenotype observed in Topas seeds developed under HT. (a) 26 DAP seeds and matured dry seeds after harvest grown under CT. (b) 26 DAP seeds and matured dry seeds after harvest grown under HT depicting the seed coat rupture (SCR); on the left are seeds with incomplete testa rupture and on the right, seeds with fully ruptured seed coat with protruding embryos. (c) Quantification of the percentage of dry seeds per silique from CT (blue) and HT (red) showing the percent of intact, SCR and dead seeds (n CT= 116, n HT= 245). Phenotypic classification represented in Fig. S1a-c. Asterisks indicate statistically significant differences in HT in a multiple t-test using the Holm-Sidak method (**** corresponds to *p*-values of $p <$ 0.0001. (d) Embryo stage of seeds developed on CT (top) and HT (bottom) from 14 to 20 DAP. The isolated embryo shown on the right is from the seed on the left. Scale bars: 1 mm (a,b) and 3mm (d).

3.2 The embryo-to-seed size ratio is increased at HT

Embryo staging of the seeds from 14 to 20 DAP revealed that embryo development is accelerated in seeds developed under HT compared to seeds grown under CT (Fig. 1d), which is consistent with our previous observations in seeds at early developmental stages (Mácová et al., 2022). We estimated that the embryos in the seeds at HT were four days ahead of the embryos in seeds at CT in their developmental stage, e.g., a 14 DAP embryo at HT would be developmentally similar to an 18 DAP embryo at CT (Fig. 1d).

We studied the seed area and embryo area of seeds at 14 DAP to 20 DAP at CT and HT.

Embryos at HT were more than twice the size of those at the same DAP at CT (Fig. 2a). The

seed area increased from 14 to 20 DAP, and this increase was reduced from 20 DAP as the

seeds entered the maturation phase (Fig. 2b). The seed size at 18 DAP was significantly larger

under HT than under CT (Fig. 2b). We noticed that the seeds did not undergo a compensatory

increase in size to accommodate the HT-induced larger embryos. The embryo-to-seed area

ratio provides valuable insight into the space occupied by the embryo within the seed at a

given DAP under the two growth conditions (Fig. 2c). We observed that the embryos

developed under HT filled significantly more space in the seed than those grown under CT.

These observations suggest that the accelerated embryo growth in HT resulted in the

formation of larger embryos but not larger seeds. When the seed and embryo size were

compared accounting the same embryo developmental stage; at HT, 14 DAP seed and embryo

size were smaller compared to 18 DAP seeds from CT.

As the embryonic developmental shift could be observed phenotypically, we investigated the

transcript profiles by RNA-seq of these seeds (14, 18, 20 DAP) developed in CT and HT. A

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) maps sample relationships (Fig. S2). The 14 DAP seeds

from HT clustered together with the 18 and 20 DAP seed samples from CT, further validating

the observations of the HT-induced accelerated seed developmental process. Next, we

screened the gene ontology (GO) enrichment analysis for GO terms associated with the

process of seed development and cell cycle regulation (Fig. 2d, Fig S3). A significant

enrichment of GO terms associated with seed maturation and positive regulation of

transcription was found when comparing the HT and CT datasets from seeds of the same age

or same development stage: 14 DAP HT vs. 14 DAP CT, 18 DAP HT vs. 18 DAP CT, and 14 DAP

HT vs. 18 DAP CT. GO terms associated to DNA biosynthesis, replication and mitotic DNA

replication initiation are significantly enriched comparing the datasets from SCR and non-SCR

20 DAP seeds developed at HT (Fig. S3).

Fig. 2. Embryo and seed size measurements of *Brassica napus* cv. Topas seeds developed at CT and HT. (a, b) Embryo (a) and seed (b) area measurements in mm^2 of 14, 18 and 20 DAP Topas seeds developed at CT (blue) and HT (red). (c) Ratio of embryo-to-seed size 14, 18 and 20 DAP Topas seeds developed at CT and HT. Asterisks indicate statistically significant differences in HT and between 14 DAP HT and 18 DAP CT in a two-way ANOVA test with Sidak's multiple comparisons (*, **, *** and **** correspond to *p*-values of 0.05 > *p* > 0.005, 0.005 > *p* > 0.0005, 0.0005 > *p* > 0.0005 and *p* < 0.00005, respectively); n.s., not significant. (d) Upregulated GO terms (Log$_2$FC≥1.32) related to plant development with the transcriptional response of Topas seeds to HT (values in the box depict –log$_{10}$q-value).

3.3 The formation of larger embryos at HT impacts the thickness of the seed coat cells

We hypothesised that the accelerated embryo growth and the possible early transition into the seed maturation phase may interfere with the maternally-derived seed coat development, thereby inducing the SCR phenotype. The seed coat of *B. napus* is composed of three layers of cells (Fig. 3a): an outer epidermal layer of three cell files, a middle palisade

layer made of a single layer of cells with substantial secondary cell walls, and an inner endothelial layer surrounding the endosperm (Jiang & Deyholos, 2010). The thickness of these three layers of the seed coat was measured in seeds of 10, 14, 18, 20, and 22 DAP developed under CT and HT (Fig. 3). Seed coat thickness was not affected by HT in 10 DAP seeds (Fig. 3f-h). However, all three seed coat layers were significantly thinner in older seeds developed under HT (Fig. 3b-h). Taking into account of the same developmental stage of the embryo, we compared the seed coat thickness of seeds from 18 DAP at CT and 14 DAP at HT and observed a significant reduction in thickness of the three layers (Fig. 3b-e). The palisade and the first endothelial layers were the most affected by this reduction, with a 46% reduction in endothelial cell layer thickness induced by HT as the seed aged from 14 DAP to 20 DAP, whereas the thickness reduction was only 12% at CT (Fig. 3i). These results indicate that the HT-induced accelerated embryo growth between 14 and 20 DAP could have physical effects on the development of maternally-derived seed coat cells leading to the thinning of seed coat layers. At equivalent stages of development in Arabidopsis, the seed coat cells are thought to stop dividing, and seed size expansion would rely on seed coat cell elongation (Figueiredo et al., 2016; Garcia et al., 2005; Haughn & Chaudhury, 2005). We hypothesised that faster embryonic growth might result in strain building up among the seed coat cells, promoting cell elongation and providing space for the embryo to expand. In this context, we performed a detailed examination of cell wall constituents in the seed coat.

Fig 3. The thickness of the seed coat cells is reduced in HT. (a-e) Histological sections of Topas
seeds focused on the seed coat, stained with toluidine blue. (a) The seed coat is composed of
an epidermal layer, a palisade layer and an endodermal layer. (b-e) Seed coat of 14 DAP seeds
from CT (b) and HT (d) and 18 DAP seeds from CT (c) and HT (e). Scale bars represent 200 µm.
(f-h) Box-whisker plots show the size mean, median, outliers, and SD in µm of the thickness
of the epidermal layer (f), palisade layer (g) and first endothelial cell layer (h) in 10, 14, 18,
and 20 DAP seeds from CT (blue) and HT (red). Samples with the same letter were not
statistically significantly different. (i) Percentage of reduction in thickness as the seed aged
from 14 to 20 DAP.

3.4 The composition and properties of the seed coat cell wall are altered in HT-grown seeds
Given the developmental differences between CT and HT, we compared the RNA-seq datasets
based on the embryo morphology, rather than seed age: 18 DAP (TCT_18D) versus 14 DAP
(THT_14D). We also compared the transcriptome profiles of seeds exhibiting SCR (THT_20DS)
and non-SCR (THT_20DNS) phenotypes. GO enrichment analysis revealed significant
differences in the regulation of many pathways related to plant cell walls (Fig. 4a). These

included GO terms related to cell wall biogenesis, cell wall thickening, and cell wall
modification. Interestingly, the datasets of HT-grown seeds also showed overrepresentation
of cellulose, pectin, and xyloglucan metabolism and modification pathways, including the
pectinesterase, pectinesterase inhibitor and pectin catabolic pathways. Examining the
differentially expressed genes (DEGs) associated with pectin metabolic pathways revealed
differential regulation of enzymes such as galacturonosyltransferases (GAUTs), which are
involved in pectin biosynthesis (Mohnen, 2008), pectinesterases and pectinesterase
inhibitors, involved in the chemical modification of pectin (Wormit & Usadel, 2018; Wu et al.,
2018; Xu et al., 2022), and polygalacturonases and pectate lyases, which are involved in pectin
degradation (Marin-Rodriguez, 2002; Park et al., 2010; Safran et al., 2023) (Fig. 4b). This
suggests that heat stress may regulate the chemical modification of pectin, a major cell wall
constituent.

To confirm whether transcriptional changes in cell wall-modifying enzymes affect the
secondary cell wall, the levels of pectin and lignin in the seed coat of HT-grown seeds were
tested using Ruthenium Red (Fig. 4c), which stains red the polyanionic molecules in the
deesterified pectin monomers (Nagayama et al., 2019), and Safranin-O (Fig. S4), which stains
the phenolic lignin compounds in bright red (Bond et al., 2008). The cells of the palisade layer
in the seed coat of 14 and 18 DAP Topas seeds grown under HT were stained red more
intensively by both dyes than in the 14, 18 and 22 DAP seeds grown under CT. These
observations suggest that, as they enter the maturation phase, seeds accumulate more
secondary cell wall elements in the seed coat under HT conditions than under CT conditions.

Fig. 4. Transcriptional changes in Topas seeds associated with growth at HT indicate changes in cell wall composition. (a) GO terms associated to cell wall metabolism and regulation with the transcriptional response of Topas seeds to HT are shown (values in the box depict $-\log_{10}$q-value). (b) Heatmap showing the differential transcription of selected genes involved in pectin metabolism in 14 DAP HT vs 18 DAP CT seeds (A), and SCR vs non-SCR seeds (B) at 20 DAP from HT. The full dataset is presented in Tables S1 and S2. (c) Histological sections of Topas seeds focused on the seed coat, stained with Ruthenium Red for pectin. Sections of 14, 18, and 22 DAP CT seeds and 14 and 18 DAP HT seeds are shown. Scale bars represent 200 μm.

3.5 HT accelerates the process of demethylesterification of pectin in the cell wall of the seed coat

We further investigated the presence of pectin and hemicellulose in the layers of the seed coat by immunostaining with selective antibodies (Fig. 5a-c, Fig. S5a). To detect pectin, which is primarily composed of homogalacturonan (HG), we used the LM19 antibody, which binds preferentially to demethylesterified HG, the LM20 antibody that binds preferentially to methylesterified HG, and the JIM5 antibody, which exhibits a high affinity for partially demethylesterified HG (Fig. 5a-c). For hemicellulose, mainly composed of xyloglucan, we used

the LM25 antibody (Fig. S5a). The seed coat of 14 and 18 DAP HT-developed seeds had significantly higher fluorescence levels of the LM19 and JIM5 antibody signals in the palisade layer, indicating an increase in demethylesterified HG in HT seeds (Fig. 5a,b). In contrast, no significant differences in fluorescence intensity for the LM20 antibody signal were observed in the palisade layer in the seed coat of CT and HT seeds (Fig. 5c). In the epidermal layer of HT-developed seeds, the JIM5 and LM19 antibody signal was significantly higher from 14 DAP seeds, while this increase happens at 18 DAP in CT seeds (Fig. 5a,b). The LM20 antibody signal was significantly lower in 18 DAP HT seeds than in all other samples, indicating a reduction in the amount of methylesterified HG (Fig. 5c). These results suggest an early enrichment of pectin and a shift towards demethylesterified pectin in the cell walls of the palisade and epidermal cells in 14 DAP HT-grown seeds. LM25 fluorescence was significantly higher only in the palisade cells of 18 DAP HT-grown seeds compared to CT seeds, suggesting a slight effect of temperature on the amount of xyloglucan in the seed coat of these seeds (Fig. S5a).

Fig. 5 Immunolocalization to estimate the degree of pectin methylation using LM19, JIM5, and LM20 antibodies on the seed coat of 14 and 18 DAP CT and HT seeds. The signal is visible in green; the cell structure is marked in magenta with calcofluor white. Scale bars represent 100 μm. Fluorescence intensity was measured in epidermal and palisade cells in 10, 14 and 18 DAP HT and CT seeds. Asterisks indicate statistically significant differences in HT and

 between seed ages in a one-way ANOVA test with Tukey multiple comparisons (*, **, *** and

**** correspond to *p*-values of $0.05 > p > 0.01$, $0.01 > p > 0.001$, $0.001 > p > 0.0001$ and $p <$

0.0001, respectively); n.s., not significant.

To confirm our microscopic observations, we performed enzymatic fingerprinting of the cell

wall of the isolated seed coats from 10, 14 and 18 DAP seeds of Topas grown at CT and HT

(Fig. 6a). Digestion of HG by an endo-polygalacturonase between demethylesterified ester

stretches of the galacturonic acid (GalA) releases several oligogalacturonans (OGs). OGs have

been termed GalAxMeyAcz based on the degree of polymerisation of GalA and the number

of methyl and acetyl groups. In our analysis of the Topas seed coat, we identified GalA3,

GalA3ox, GalA3Xyl, GalA3Me, GalA3MeAc, GalA4Ac, GalA4Me, GalA4Meox, GalA4Me-H_2O,

and DPx>4Mey (methylesterified OGs with degree of polymerisation greater than 4). The total

peak area obtained from the MS analysis was plotted by grouping OGs with and without

methyl groups (Fig. 6b). A significant increase of demethylesterified OGs was released from

the cell walls of 14 DAP seed coat at HT compared to CT, which correlates with the signal

intensity of the LM19 antibody binding to the demethylesterified HGs in the cell walls in the

seed coat layers (Fig. 6b,c). Similarly, a significant increase in the methylesterified OGs with

varying numbers of methyl groups in the seed coats of 14 DAP correlates with the signal

intensity of JIM5 antibody binding to partially methylesterified HGs in the cell walls of the

epidermal and palisade layers (Fig. 6b,c). The release of oxidised OGs is also notable, as this

may reflect the presence of long oxidised OGs trapped within the pectin and not solubilised

through alcohol extraction. Regarding xyloglucan, LXXGAc levels remained unchanged and

correlated with the LM25 signal in the seed coat (Fig. S5b,c). However, a significant increase

in the level of fucosylated subunits was observed in the 14 DAP seed coats of HT compared

to CT (Fig. S5b).

Using a variety of approaches, we uncovered that, between 14 and 18 DAP, seeds grew more

at HT than at CT, probably due to the pressure exerted by embryo growth. We also found that

growth at HT altered the properties of the cell walls in the seed coat of seeds from 14 DAP

onwards. The cell walls of the epidermal and palisade cells accumulated more pectin and

shifted prematurely towards producing demethylesterified pectin, which may have prevented

the cells from elongating. Consequently, seeds grown at HT stopped to grow after 18 DAP, as

the changes to the cell walls stiffened them and inhibited seed growth.

Fig. 6 Pectin enzymatic profiling. (a) Pectin composition of the seed coat cell wall of 10, 14,

and 18 DAP seeds from HT and CT. The graph shows the measurements expressed as peak

area from the MS analysis for GalA3, GalA3ox, GalA3Xyl, GalA3Me, GalA3MeAc, GalA4Ac,

GalA4Me, GalA4Meox, GalA4Me-H_2O and DPx>4Mey (methylesterified OGs with degree of

polymerisation greater than 4). (b) Graph showing the amount grouped as methylesterified

versus non-methylesterified OGs from (c) Graph showing the total intensity signal for pectin

from (Fig. 5).

3.6 HT affects the physical properties of the seed coat

The composition of the seed coat cell wall determines its mechanical strength (Mendu et al.,

2011; Sechet et al., 2018). The enrichment of GO terms associated with secondary cell wall

metabolism and the high content of demethylesterified pectin in the seed coat prompted us

to investigate whether growth at a high temperature affects the mechanical strength of *B.*

napus seed coat cell walls. We hypothesised that the increased demethylesterified pectin

accumulation not only makes the wall stiffer and less extensible, but also makes it more prone

to rupture, causing SCR. We analysed the mechanical properties of the seed coat cell wall

using a nanoindentation technique, which provided valuable insights into the elastic modulus

E_r (MPa). Elastic modulus quantified the elastic response of the seed surface, e.g., its ability

to return to its original shape after the release of the mechanical stress. It indicates how much

a material deforms temporarily (elastically) (Lapointe et al., 2025). It is a measure of stiffness,

meaning the resistance of the seed to elastic deformation. In this study, we compared seeds

at 20 DAP from HT and 24 DAP from CT, to ensure that seeds at the same embryo

developmental stage were analysed. HT seeds were found to have a significantly lower elastic

modulus than CT seeds (Fig. 7a). It indicates that the seed coat of CT seeds can withstand

higher mechanical stress during elastic deformation than the seed coat of HT seeds, suggesting

that HT seeds are stiffer.

Fig. 7 Seed coat mechanobiology of *B. napus* seeds. (a) Measurement of elastic modulus, E_r

(MPa), comparing 20 and 24 DAP seeds from CT and HT respectively. (b) A 3-mm silicon tube

was applied to siliques from 10 DAP CT and 12 DAP HT. Dry seeds were quantified for the

percent of intact, SCR and dead seeds per silique. Asterisks indicate statistically significant

differences in HT and between seed ages in a two-way ANOVA test with Tukey multiple

comparisons (*, **, *** and **** correspond to *p*-values of 0.05 > *p* > 0.01, 0.01 > *p* > 0.001,

and *p* < 0.001, respectively); n.s., not significant. (d,e) Box-whisker plots show the size,

median, outliers, and SD in µm of the thickness of the epidermal layer (c), palisade layer (d)

of seeds at 24 DAP from CT and 20 DAP from HT to account for same developmental stage.

3.7 Application of mechanical constraints during silique development partially rescues SCR

phenotype

We demonstrated that the seed coat of seeds developed under HT conditions exhibited reduced elastic stiffness and hardness. We then hypothesised that such a seed coat would lack the mechanical strength required to withstand the mechanical stress imposed by the faster-developing embryo, resulting in SCR. Should this be the case, then providing external support to oppose continuous embryo growth would prevent the seeds from the occurrence of SCR. To test this hypothesis, we encased the developing siliques in a silicone tube to create an external mechanical constraint for the seeds, in an attempt to counteract the pressure exerted by the developing embryo on the seed coat (Fig. S6a). It has been demonstrated that applying a mechanical force to the siliques triggers seed maturation by arresting embryonic growth in *B. napus* Reston cv. (Rolletschek et al., 2024). In the CT and HT seeds encased by silicone tube, the embryo size was significantly reduced indicating that the space restriction has constrained the growth of the embryo whereas the ratio of embryo to seed area remained same (Fig. S6c-e). The presence of the silicone tube on the siliques of CT plants did not affect seed viability or promote SCR (Fig. 7b, S6b). Under HT conditions, the external support provided by the silicone tube on the siliques resulted in a significant decrease in the number of seeds undergoing SCR and an increase in the number of intact seeds (Fig. 7b, S6b). Measuring the thickness of the seed coat layers of HT-grown seeds revealed that the palisade layer thickness increased significantly in seeds encased by the silicone tube compared to seeds developed in uncased siliques (Fig. 7c,d). This external mechanical support reinforced the compromised mechanical strength of the seed coat caused by faster embryo development.

4. DISCUSSION

Rising global temperatures have an adverse effect on the production of major staple crops (Agnolucci et al., 2020; Jägermeyr et al., 2021) by hindering the development of seeds, as we observed in *Brassica napus* (Mácová et al., 2022). Understanding how plants perceive heat stress during seed development provides valuable insights into breeding temperature-resilient crops which is of great importance in a changing climate. In our previous study, the occurrence of temperature-induced *in vivo* sprouting was reported in three spring cultivars of *B. napus* (Mácová et al., 2022), which affected seed viability and oil quality. Prolonged growth of Topas at high temperatures resulted in half of the seeds per silique undergoing SCR, a phenomenon rarely observed under optimal conditions. In this study, we aimed to

understand the process resulting in the high-temperature-induced SCR phenotype in *B. napus* Topas cv. during late seed development focusing on seed coat development, cell wall modifications and biomechanics.

The integration of signalling pathways and the physical interactions between the three tissues that comprise the seed - the seed coat, the endosperm, and the embryo - determine the final size, shape, and dormancy state of the mature seed (Li et al., 2019). The *Arabidopsis iku2-2 zou-4* double mutant exhibits reduced seed viability due to developing seeds undergoing testa rupture (Creff et al., 2015), a phenomenon analogous to the SCR phenotype observed in Topas seeds developed at HT. The *haiku2 (iku2)* mutation leads to elevated endosperm pressure, triggering mechanosensitive premature stiffening of the testa. This is likely associated with the accumulation of demethylesterified pectin, ultimately resulting in smaller *iku2* seeds (Creff et al., 2023). Seeds of *zhoupi-4 (zou-4)* have a persistent endosperm at the torpedo stage, even as the embryo expands in size, resulting in large seeds. Testa rupture in *iku2-2 zou-4* seeds may be a consequence of early stiffening of the testa together with increased pressure from the developing embryo and a persistent endosperm. We hypothesise that a similar process occurs in *B. napus* cv. Topas seeds, whereby high temperature alters the mechanosensing-dependent interaction between the embryo and the testa. From the earliest stages onward, high temperature accelerated embryogenesis, resulting in an approximately four-day developmental advancement by the onset of seed maturation (Mácová et al., 2022) and this study). Although final seed size was not affected, the enlarged embryos occupied most of the space in the seed cavity, thereby increasing mechanical stress on the surrounding seed coat and generating tension between the cells involved in seed size regulation. In Arabidopsis, the endosperm plays a significant role in modulating seed coat properties and determining seed size. Owing to technical limitations in *B. napus* Topas seeds, we were unable to assess whether high temperature similarly affected the endosperm. At comparable developmental stages in Arabidopsis, seed size is primarily determined by seed coat cell elongation rather than cell division (Figueiredo et al., 2016; Garcia et al., 2005; Haughn & Chaudhury, 2005). The reduced thickness of the epidermal, palisade and endothelial layers of the seed coat observed in high temperature-developed Topas seeds suggests that these cells accommodated increased mechanical tension predominantly through cell stretching rather than proliferation. To withstand the strain generated between adjacent seed coat cells and

the pressure exerted by the expanding embryo, compensatory stiffening of the seed coat cell wall likely occurred.

The extensibility of the seed coat cells is determined by cell wall composition and the interactions among its structural components, which together permit embryo expansion. Transcriptomic analysis of the seeds revealed temperature-dependent differential regulation of cell wall-related pathways, with enrichment of genes associated with cellulose, pectin and xyloglucan metabolism, secondary cell wall thickening, and pectin modifications. The primary cell wall consists of cellulose and hemicellulose, embedded in a pectin rich matrix (Cosgrove, 2024), whereas the secondary cell wall can be further stiffened by lignin deposition. Cell wall stretching and thinning enables the growth of a plant cell which depends on the mechanical strength and dynamic extensibility of the wall. The strength and integrity of the wall is maintained actively by the synthesis and modification of the cell wall elements (Cosgrove, 2024; Peaucelle et al., 2011). Histochemical staining revealed increased pectin and lignin accumulation in the palisade layer of high temperature-developed seed coats. Consistently, immunolocalisation using pectin-specific antibodies, together with cell wall profiling of early maturing seed coat, further demonstrated alterations in overall pectin composition, particularly in the palisade layer. Because the degree and pattern of pectin methylesterification influence cell wall rheology, these changes are likely to affect mechanical properties. Pectin, particularly its homogalacturonan (HG) subunit, undergoes dynamic methylesterification and demethylesterication, processes that regulate wall extensibility (Du et al., 2022; D. Wang et al., 2025). The increased abundance of blockwise demethylesterified HG in the palisade layer at 14 and 18 DAP suggests enhanced Ca^{2+}-mediated cross-linking, leading to cell wall stiffening and restricted cell expansion. This stiffening may explain why temperature-accelerated embryo growth was not accompanied by a proportional increase in overall seed size.

Nanoindentation analyses of mature seeds provided further insight into the mechanical properties of the seed coat cell walls. Seeds developed under elevated temperature exhibited a lower elastic modulus, indicating that the seed coat cell walls are stiffer and less elastic, which correlates with our finding of reduced degree of pectin methylesterification in the seed coats. Together, these findings indicate that high temperature results in a mechanically stiffer seed coats in HT-grown seed that are less prone to deform than CT-grown seeds.

Although elevated temperature promoted accelerated embryo growth and was associated with mechanosensitive accumulation of demethylesterified pectin in the seed coat cell - changes typically linked to increased wall rigidity - this stiffening was insufficient to constrain embryo expansion. Consequently, the structurally weakened and thinner seed coat lacked the extensibility and mechanical strength required to counterbalance the pressure exerted by the rapidly developing embryo. This mechanical imbalance likely culminated in seed coat rupture (SCR). Consistently, physical restriction of seed growth was previously shown to trigger seed maturation by arresting embryonic growth in *B. napus* cv. Reston (Rolletschek et al., 2024). Similar tubing experiments demonstrated that restricting embryo growth while promoting formation of a thicker palisade layer rescued the SCR phenotype further substantiate our hypothesis.

These results highlight how high temperature perturbs the biomechanical coordination between embryo growth and seed coat resistance, with important consequences for seed coat integrity.

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COMPETING INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

HSR secured the funding. UP and HSR conceived the project, designed the experiments, and
interpreted the data. UP performed the seed phenotyping, histology, transcriptomics, and
immunolabelling of the seed coat. IU and JH optimised the protocol for Technovit embedding
of oilseed rape seed and prepared the slides for histology. AMM analysed the transcriptomic
data. AC, UP, and BL performed the immunolabelling of the seed coat. AV performed the cell
wall profiling. VB and UP optimised the nanoindentation of Topas seeds. UP and HSR drafted
the manuscript. All authors have proofed and approved the manuscript.

DATA AVAILABILITY

The raw data generated during the current study and analysed in this published article (and
its Supporting Information file) are available in the Zenodo repository (DOI:
10.5281/zenodo.19231242). The dataset supporting the conclusions of this article is
deposited to the NCBI repository (BioProject accession number PRJNA1188476,
https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/bioproject/PRJNA1188476).

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FIGURE LEGENDS

Fig. 1. SCR phenotype observed in Topas seeds developed under HT. (a) 26 DAP seeds and matured dry seeds after harvest grown under CT. (b) 26 DAP seeds and matured dry seeds after harvest grown under HT depicting the seed coat rupture (SCR); on the left are seeds with incomplete testa rupture and on the right, seeds with fully ruptured seed coat with protruding embryos. (c) Quantification of the percentage of dry seeds per silique from CT (blue) and HT (red) showing the percent of intact, SCR and dead seeds (n CT= 116, n HT= 245). Phenotypic classification represented in Fig. S1a-c. Asterisks indicate statistically significant differences in HT in a multiple t-test using the Holm-Sidak method (**** corresponds to p-values of $p <$ 0.0001. (d) Embryo stage of seeds developed on CT (top) and HT (bottom) from 14 to 20 DAP. The isolated embryo shown on the right is from the seed on the left. Scale bars: 1 mm (a,b) and 3mm (d).

Fig. 2. Embryo and seed size measurements of *Brassica napus* cv. Topas seeds developed at CT and HT. (a, b) Embryo (a) and seed (b) area measurements in mm^2 of 14, 18 and 20 DAP Topas seeds developed at CT (blue) and HT (red). (c) Ratio of embryo-to-seed size 14, 18 and 20 DAP Topas seeds developed at CT and HT. Asterisks indicate statistically significant differences in HT and between 14 DAP HT and 18 DAP CT in a two-way ANOVA test with Sidak's multiple comparisons (*, **, *** and **** correspond to p-values of $0.05 > p > 0.005$, $0.005 > p > 0.0005$, $0.0005 > p > 0.0005$ and $p < 0.00005$, respectively); n.s., not significant. (d) Upregulated GO terms ($Log_2FC \geq 1.32$) related to plant development with the transcriptional response of Topas seeds to HT (values in the box depict $-log_{10}q$-value).

Fig 3. The thickness of the seed coat cells is reduced in HT. (a-e) Histological sections of Topas seeds focused on the seed coat, stained with toluidine blue. (a) The seed coat is composed of an epidermal layer, a palisade layer and an endodermal layer. (b-e) Seed coat of 14 DAP seeds

from CT (b) and HT (d) and 18 DAP seeds from CT (c) and HT (e). Scale bars represent 200 μm. (f-h) Box-whisker plots show the size mean, median, outliers, and SD in μm of the thickness of the epidermal layer (f), palisade layer (g) and first endothelial cell layer (h) in 10, 14, 18, and 20 DAP seeds from CT (blue) and HT (red). Samples with the same letter were not statistically significantly different. (i) Percentage of reduction in thickness as the seed aged from 14 to 20 DAP.

Fig.4. Transcriptional changes in Topas seeds associated with growth at HT indicate changes in cell wall composition. (a) GO terms associated to cell wall metabolism and regulation with the transcriptional response of Topas seeds to HT are shown (values in the box depict $-\log_{10}$q-value). (b) Heatmap showing the differential transcription of selected genes involved in pectin metabolism in 14 DAP HT vs 18 DAP CT seeds (A), and SCR vs non-SCR seeds (B) at 20 DAP from HT. The full dataset is presented in Tables S1 and S2. (c) Histological sections of Topas seeds focused on the seed coat, stained with Ruthenium Red for pectin. Sections of 14, 18, and 22 DAP CT seeds and 14 and 18 DAP HT seeds are shown. Scale bars represent 200 μm.

Fig. 5 Immunolocalization to estimate the degree of pectin methylation using LM19, JIM5, and LM20 antibodies on the seed coat of 14 and 18 DAP CT and HT seeds. The signal is visible in green; the cell structure is marked in magenta with calcofluor white. Scale bars represent 100 μm. Fluorescence intensity was measured in epidermal and palisade cells in 10, 14 and 18 DAP HT and CT seeds. Asterisks indicate statistically significant differences in HT and between seed ages in a one-way ANOVA test with Tukey multiple comparisons (*, **, *** and **** correspond to *p*-values of $0.05 > p > 0.01$, $0.01 > p > 0.001$, $0.001 > p > 0.0001$ and $p < 0.0001$, respectively); n.s., not significant.

Fig. 6 Pectin enzymatic profiling. (a) Pectin composition of the seed coat cell wall of 10, 14, and 18 DAP seeds from HT and CT. The graph shows the measurements expressed as peak area from the MS analysis for GalA3, GalA3ox, GalA3Xyl, GalA3Me, GalA3MeAc, GalA4Ac, GalA4Me, GalA4Meox, GalA4Me-H_2O and DPx>4Mey (methylesterified OGs with degree of polymerisation greater than 4). (b) Graph showing the amount grouped as methylesterified versus non-methylesterified OGs from (c) Graph showing the total intensity signal for pectin from (Fig. 5).

Fig. 7 Seed coat mechanobiology of *B. napus* seeds. (a) Measurement of elastic modulus, E_r (MPa) comparing 20 and 24 DAP seeds from CT and HT respectively. (b) A 3-mm silicon tube was applied to siliques from 10 DAP CT and 12 DAP HT. Dry seeds were quantified for the percent of intact, SCR and dead seeds per silique. Asterisks indicate statistically significant differences in HT and between seed ages in a two-way ANOVA test with Tukey multiple comparisons (*, **, *** and **** correspond to *p*-values of $0.05 > p > 0.01$, $0.01 > p > 0.001$, and $p < 0.001$, respectively); n.s., not significant. (d,e) Box-whisker plots show the size, median, outliers, and SD in μm of the thickness of the epidermal layer (c), palisade layer (d) of seeds at 24 DAP from CT and 20 DAP from HT to account for same developmental stage.

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional Supporting Information may be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of the article.

Fig. S1 Representation of seed phenotyping strategy in Brassica napus (Topas).

Fig. S2 Principal component analysis using gene expression data from the samples tested for differences between samples and biological replicates.

Fig. S3 Upregulated GO terms (Log$_2$FC≥1) related to cell cycle regulation with the transcriptional response of Topas seeds to HT (values in the box depict –log$_{10}$q-value).

Fig. S4 Histological sections of Topas seeds focused on the seed coat, stained with Safranin-O for lignin.

Fig. S5 Quantification of xyloglucans in the Topas seed coat.

Fig. S6 Silicone tube mediated space restricted growth of seeds.

Fig. S7 Representative images of the 3-D printed mould for immobilizing the seed during nanoindentation.

Fig. S8 Represents the number of shared downregulated DEGs

Fig. S9 Represents the number of shared upregulated DEGs

Table S1 Full dataset for the DEGs for all the comparisons.

Table S2 Misregulated GO terms associated with plant cell wall, cell cycle, heat response and developmental pathways.