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The WRKY Transcription Factor Family in Model Plants and Crops

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ABSTRACT

The WRKY gene family in flowering plants encodes a large group of transcription factors (TFs) that play essential roles in diverse stress responses, developmental, and physiological processes. In this review, we provided a comprehensive screenshot about the studies on WRKY TFs in model plants and in crops of economical relevance. Specifically, we discussed the history of discovery and functional characterization, classification, and evolutionary history, 3D structure and physiological functions of WRKY transcription factors. Based on the previous functional studies of WRKY genes in model plants such as *Arabidopsis* and rice, we summarized various roles of WRKY TFs in a broad range of biological processes as well as their degradation process. We also discussed the characterization and functional studies of WRKY TFs in important crops. Considering the rapid progress of high-throughput techniques, especially genomics and transcriptomics, which have been instrumental in advancing our understanding of the crop genomes, we comment one-by-one on the applications of a suite of new and high-throughput techniques to accelerate the studies of WRKY genes in crops.

KEYWORDS

environmental stress; gene family; growth and development; transcription factor; WRKY

I. Studies on WRKY transcription factor family in model plants

A. A brief discovery history of the wrky genes

Transcription factors (TFs) play essential roles in plants, as well as in all other living organisms, by controlling the expression of genes involved in various cellular processes (Riechmann and Ratcliffe, 2000; Amor *et al.*, 2004; Han *et al.*, 2014). TFs also play a central role in the process of crop domestication and are targets of molecular breeding of crops (Doebley *et al.*, 2006; Century *et al.*, 2008). For example, five of the six major genes controlling morphological and structural changes during crop domestication are TFs (Doebley *et al.*, 2006). The accumulation of completely sequenced plant genomes and the development of bioinformatics tools have largely facilitated the identification, functional characterization, and evolutionary studies of TF families in plants.

Angiosperm genomes are predicted to contain more than 1,000 TF genes, which were classified into 58

families based on their DNA binding domains (Zhang *et al.*, 2011). The WRKY gene family is the 7th largest TF family in flowering plants following basic helix-loop-helix (bHLH), myeloblastosis (MYB), Ethylene responsive factor (ERF), NAM (no apical meristem), ATAF1/2 and CUC2 (cup-shaped cotyledon) (NAC), basic leucine Zipper (bZIP), and C2H2 families (Jin *et al.*, 2014). WRKYs have attracted a lot of attention because they are involved in a broad range of biological processes, including diverse biotic/abiotic stress responses, developmental, and physiological processes (Birkenbihl *et al.*, 2017b; Jiang *et al.*, 2017). The WRKY TFs are defined by the presence of a WRKY domain, a ~60-residue DNA-binding domain containing a highly conserved heptapeptide motif WRKYGQK. The first WRKY gene was identified in 1994 from eudicot crop sweet potato (*Ipomoea batatas*), encoding a 549 amino acid protein called SPF1 (SWEET POTATO FACTOR1) (Ishiguro and Nakamura, 1994). The SPF1 protein binds to the promoter of two genes coding for sporamin (protease inhibitor) and

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one beta-amylase gene in tuberous roots (Ishiguro and Nakamura, 1994). In 1995, two WRKY proteins, ABF1 and ABF2, were isolated from a monocot plant wild oat, *Avena fatua*. Both proteins have a zinc finger structure (C-X₄₋₅-C-X₂₂₋₂₃-HXH) within the DNA binding domain following the WRKYGQK sequence, and are involved in the regulation of seed germination (Rushton *et al.*, 1995). In 1996, three WRKY members, WRKY1, WRKY2, and WRKY3 were identified in parsley (*Petroselinum crispum*). The three WRKY genes can be induced by elicitors, and all the three WRKYs regulate ribosomal protein gene expression (Rushton *et al.*, 1996).

B. Updates of research tools

The first WRKY gene was cloned by means of southwestern screening of the cDNA library (Ishiguro and Nakamura, 1994). The same method was used to identify and clone WRKY genes in the 1990s (Rushton *et al.*, 1995; Pater *et al.*, 1996; Eulgem *et al.*, 1999; Yang *et al.*, 1999). After completion of the first sequenced plant genome *Arabidopsis thaliana*, 68 WRKY genes were identified based on homology search using BLAST (Altschul *et al.*, 1990; The Arabidopsis Genome Initiative, 2000). In another study, 75 WRKY genes were identified from the *Arabidopsis* genome (Riechmann and Ratcliffe, 2000). In the rice genome, 83 WRKYs were identified using BLAST-based search (Goff *et al.*, 2002). Protein homolog searches have been greatly facilitated by (i) the development of the hidden Markov model (HMM), (ii) the implementation of HMMER software (Eddy, 2009), and (iii) the availability of HMM seeds for various gene families (Eddy, 1996), which were designed to increase the sensitivity of homology searches. HMM method was first employed to identify the WRKY genes in the rice genome (Xie, 2005). The rapid accumulation of WRKY gene sequences (6,320 sequences from 89 species) in the Pfam database (Finn *et al.*, 2014) makes it possible to screen genomes for WRKY sequences by means of HMM-based searches without using BLAST or other computationally expensive bioinformatics tools.

The implementation of other bioinformatics tools has strongly accelerated researches on WRKYs. A plant transcription factor database, PlantTFDB, recorded 58 TF gene families from 165 plant species, including 14,549 WRKY genes (Jin *et al.*, 2017). An online database (www.mpipz.mpg.de/20985/WRKY_References) has been developed reporting all the WRKY-related publications. Phylogenetic tree reconstruction tool MEGA (Tamura *et al.*, 2013; Kumar *et al.*, 2018) and multiple sequence alignment tools have been extensively used for phylogenetic analyses. The Gene Structure Displayer Server (<http://gsds.cbi.pku.edu.cn/>) is useful for WRKY

structure display (Li *et al.*, 2017a). Various tools, such as Trinity (github.com/trinityrnaseq) and SOAPdenovo (Li *et al.*, 2010), are very popular in expressional quantification of WRKY genes. BLAST, Jbrowse, and complicated search systems (such as Phytomine and Biomart) have been developed and integrated into comprehensive databases such as Phytozome (phytozome.jgi.doe.gov) and EnsemblPlants (plants.ensembl.org). Many gene family-specific databases have also been constructed, including those for rice kinase genes (<http://kinase.com/web/current/#>) (Dardick *et al.*, 2006) and the homeobox gene family (Zhong *et al.*, 2008). However, a WKRY-specific database is still not yet available. We believe that a WKRY-specific database would facilitate the studies of WKRY genes through providing access to the sequence, structure, expression patterns of WRKY genes, and related publications for WRKY genes.

C. Classification of the wrky gene family

The current and widely accepted system of WRKY classification was established in 2000 based on the genomic characterization of this gene family in *Arabidopsis* (Eulgem *et al.*, 2000). According to this classification, WRKY genes in plants were hitherto classified into the following three groups: I, II, and III based on the number of WRKY domains and the features of their zinc-finger-like motif (Eulgem *et al.*, 2000), with group II WRKYs further divided into the following five subgroups: IIa, IIb, IIc, IId, and IIe based on their phylogenetic relationships (Eulgem *et al.*, 2000). Group I WRKY proteins harbor two WRKY domains, whereas groups II and III WRKY proteins contain only one WRKY domain. Group II and III WRKY proteins differed by the type of zinc finger motif. The zinc finger motif in group II is same as group I, which is C-X₄₋₅-C-X₂₂₋₂₃-H-X₁-H, whereas the zinc finger in group III is C-X₇-C-X₂₃-H-X₁-C (Bakshi and Oelmüller, 2014). To illustrate evolutionary relationships of WRKY proteins, we built a phylogenetic tree based on members from four representative land plants, including *Arabidopsis thaliana*, *Vitis vinifera*, *Oryza sativa*, and *Selaginella moellendorffii* (Figure 1). The phylogenetic tree supports the previous classifications. The groupings of WRKY genes are further supported by their conserved intron-exon structures (Figure 1). Each of the subgroup or subfamilies contains a characteristic intron insertion in the coding region. A highly conserved phase-2 intron is present between the WRKYGQK motif and the zinc finger motif in the subfamily I's C-terminal WRKY domain, and subfamily IIc, IId+IIe, and III (Figure 1). In contrast, both subfamilies IIa and IIb contain the same conserved intron within the zinc finger motif (Zhang and Wang,

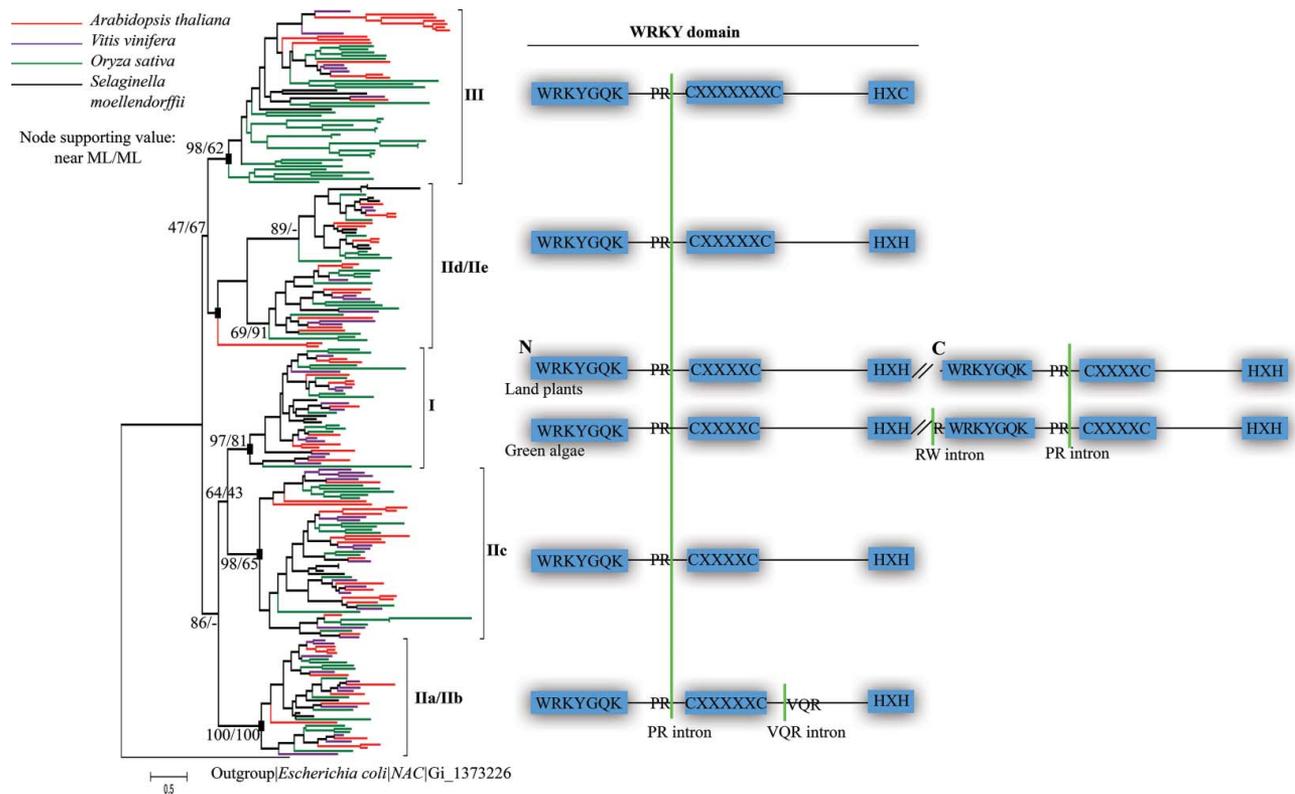


Figure 1. Classification of land plant WRKY gene family. The phylogenetic tree was reconstructed using both near maximum-likelihood (ML) and ML method based on the WRKY amino acid sequences from four representative land plants: *A. thaliana*, *V. vinifera*, *Oryza sativa*, and *S. moellendorffii*. The WRKY gene family is classified into I, IIa, IIb, IIc, IIa/IIb, IIc, IIe, and III subfamilies with evidence of tree topology and conserved intron insertion patterns.

2005). This pattern suggests that the phase-2 intron between WRKYGQK and the zinc finger motifs was probably present in the common ancestor of WRKY family, but was subsequently lost in subfamilies IIa and IIb. Because both the split of IIa and IIb and split of IIc and IIe have occurred in the ancestor of land plants (Zhang and Wang, 2005), much later than other groups, we thereby propose that IIa and IIb should be merged as a single subfamily, and merge the IIc and IIe subfamilies (Figure 1).

Challenges are arising since rapid accumulation of genome sequencing data will lead to discovery of many new members and even novel WRKY subfamily. For example, four *Arabidopsis* WRKYs have been found fused with additional domains, (i) Leucine-rich repeat (LRR) domains at the N-terminal (At4G12020, At5g45050, At5G45260), and (ii) BDP1 domain at the N-terminal (At1G55600). Although the tandem duplicated gene pair *At5g45050* and *At5G45260* were grouped into the IIc subfamily, phylogenetic places of *At4G12020* and *At1G55600* were uncertain (Figure 1). Recruitment of novel domains/genes will lead to the birth of novel subfamilies, such as the subfamily I with two WRKY domains. The future of WRKY classification will obviously be challenged in facing the tremendous WRKYs from various plants.

D. Origin and diversification of WRKY genes

WRKY genes were initially believed to be plant-specific (Eulgem *et al.*, 2000). Sampling from broader taxonomic groups revealed that WRKY genes are also present in other eukaryotic lineages, such as fungi, Amoebozoa, diplomonads, and slime molds (Zhang and Wang, 2005; Rinerson *et al.*, 2015). Based on the distribution patterns of WRKYs, it was speculated that nonplant WRKYs originated from multiple ancient gene transfer events (Rinerson *et al.*, 2015). However, it seems large-scale sampling will be required to elucidate the gene transfer details.

Zhang and Wang (2005) showed that only subfamily I WRKYs are present in green algae, whereas subfamilies IIa+IIb, IIc, and IIc+IIe evolved in the common ancestor of land plants, and subfamily III emerged in the common ancestor of seed plants. Based on a larger number of sequences from more algal species and more detailed analyses, it was found that subfamily IIc could be traced back to an ancestral sequence in Charophyte alga *Klebsormidium flaccidum* (aka *K. nitens*) (Rinerson *et al.*, 2015). Also, subfamily III members were found in moss, but IIa were originated in seed plants. In the latter study, two alternative hypotheses regarding the evolution of the WRKY gene family were proposed (Rinerson *et al.*,

2015): (i) all WRKY genes were originated from Group I C-terminal WRKY domains; (ii) subfamilies IIa and IIb evolved directly from an ancestral algal WRKY gene with a single domain that was separated from the subfamily I-derived lineage.

The classification of the WRKY gene family is supposed to change as far as a higher number of sequences from different organisms are considered. Currently, the most comprehensive study of the WRKY gene family only includes 43 plant species and other eukaryotes (Mohanta *et al.*, 2016), without considering any species from glaucophyta, rhodophyta, pteridophyta, chlorophyta, and charophyta, which are important for evolutionary inferences. This study (Mohanta *et al.*, 2016) refreshed and challenged the current classification, introducing a differential classification of WRKYs in dicots and monocots. However, such classification will probably change again as far as more genomes are available.

E. Structure of WRKY genes and proteins

Although WRKY proteins can greatly vary in size, all of them harbor a conserved WRKY domain consisting of two parts, the DNA-binding heptapeptide WRKYGQK, and the zinc-finger binding motif. The two motifs together span approximately 60 amino acids in length at

the N-terminus and at the C-terminus in the WRKY domains (Figure 2A) (Eulgem *et al.*, 2000). Some WRKY genes encode triple or tetrad WRKY domains in which some are fused genes encoding novel domains such as ZF-SBP, CBS, kinase, PAH, ULP_PROTEASE, TIR, NAC, LRR, ATP_GRASP, B3 (Figure 2A) (Mohanta *et al.*, 2016). According to the current version of Pfam database (Version 31), 69 domain architectures have been identified based on 6320 WRKY proteins from 89 species (<http://pfam.xfam.org/family/PF03106#tabview=tab1>). Subfamily I of WRKY proteins contain two WRKY domains. The C-terminal WRKY domain functions in DNA binding, but the function of the N-terminal WRKY domain remains unclear (Duan *et al.*, 2007). Only the C-terminal WRKY domain is present in the members of subfamily II and III.

The WRKY domain includes a positively charged β strand that binds to the *cis*-acting element designed as W-box (C/T)TGAC(C/T). In a genome-wide investigation, W-box is the predominant binding motif for three *Arabidopsis* WRKYs, namely WRKY18, WRKY33, and WRKY40 (Birkenbihl *et al.*, 2017a). W-box elements are prevalent in plant genomes. For example, 32,162 TTGACY, 60,612 TTGAC, and 14,857 TTTGACY were identified in *Arabidopsis*. Recent work (Brand *et al.*, 2013) suggests that the W-box has a degenerated/core TGAC

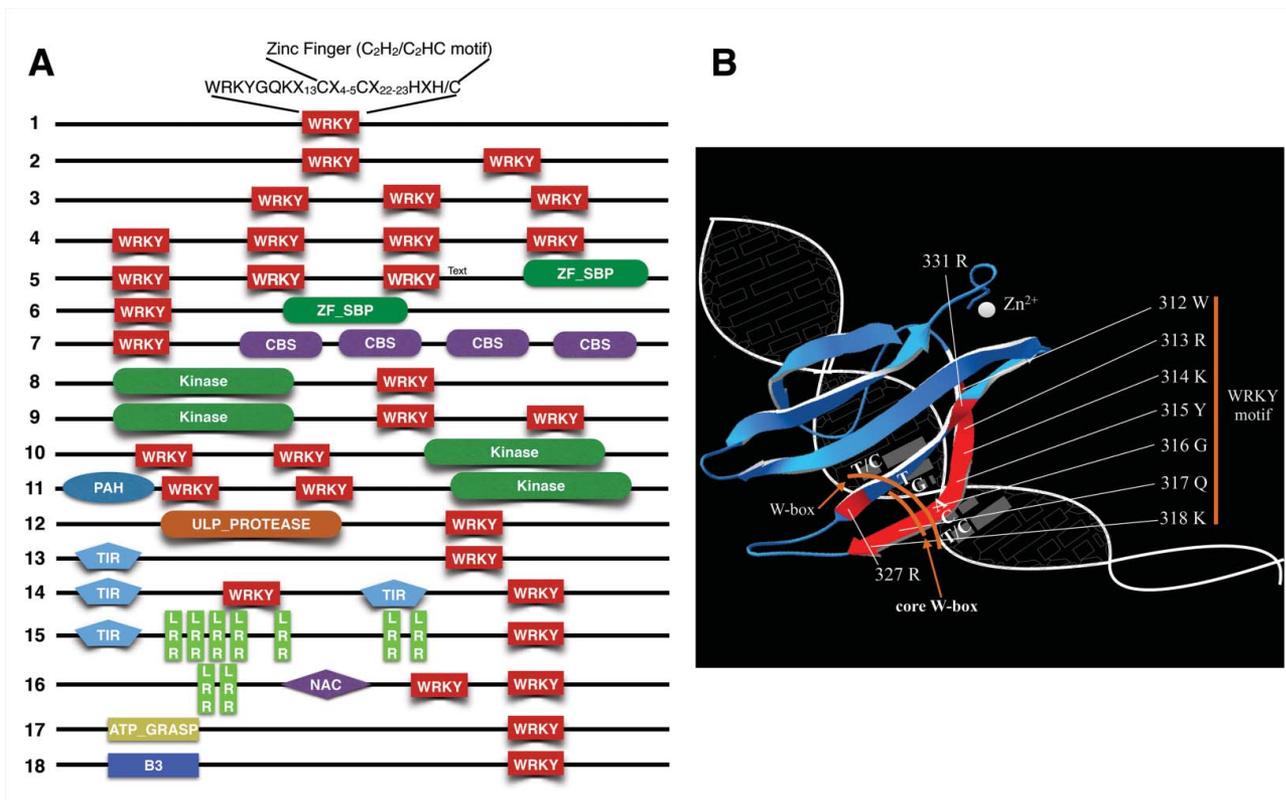


Figure 2. Domain structure of WRKY family and the working mechanism of a typical WRKY protein. (A) Representative domain organizations of WRKY proteins. (B) 3D structure of a WRKY protein and its binding to a W-box on the gene promoter.

motif, composed of an ultra-conserved GAC core and the upstream thymine and downstream pyrimidine (C/T). The GAC core interacts with the WRKY proteins whereas the flanking residues help dictate recognition by specific WRKY factors. These motifs are widely found in genes with various functions (Jiang *et al.*, 2017). Multiple W-box elements could form a cluster in promoter regions, for example, the barley WRKY38 requires two neighboring W-boxes for efficient binding (Marè *et al.*, 2004).

WRKY proteins also bind to non-W-box DNA *cis* elements. For example, the WT-box (GGACTTTC) is required for binding of *Arabidopsis* WRKY26 and WRKY41 (Kanofsky *et al.*, 2017) and WRKY70 (Machens *et al.*, 2014). However, not all WT-box can be bound by WRKYs based on yeast one-hybrid screens (Kanofsky *et al.*, 2017). In rice, the OsWRKY13 protein binds to both W-box and PRE4 element (Cai *et al.*, 2008). NtWRKY12 from tobacco binds specifically to the WK box (TTTTCCAC) (van Verk *et al.*, 2008). Future chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP)-seq studies are needed to unravel the diversity of sequences that are recognized by WRKYs.

The three-dimensional (3D) structure of a TF is valuable for studying its binding and activation mechanism. Currently, three 3D structure models related to *Arabidopsis* WRKY proteins are available in the PDB database (www.rcsb.org), namely 1WJ2 and 2LEX for the C-terminal WRKY domain of AtWRKY1, 2AYD for the C-terminal WRKY domain of AtWRKY1. 2AYD has the best resolution at 1.6 Å. A typical WRKY domain comprises five parallel β -strands (Figure 2B). The core WRKYGQK motif locates on the second, and the outermost β -strand, enabling its interaction with the major DNA groove. The WRKY domain is similar to the glial cell missing (GCM) and the NAC domains in terms of sequence and structure (Babu *et al.*, 2006). The WRKY and GCM domains share the zinc finger domain, but the WRKY domain contains a conserved DNA-binding motif WRKYGQK.

Variants of the WRKYGQK motif have been found in various plant lineages (Mohanta *et al.*, 2016), including WRKYGEK, WRKYGKK, WSKYEQK, WRKYSEK. Some variants have differences only in the WRKY pattern, such as WRRY, WSKY, WKRY, WVKY, WKKY, WRIC, WRMC, WIKY, and WKRY (Jiang *et al.*, 2017). Because changes in WRKYGQK pattern could alter their DNA binding affinity, some of these variants might lack DNA-binding affinity and even ability.

F. Functions and regulatory network of WRKYs

WRKY genes have been extensively studied in the eudicot model plant *A. thaliana* and monocot model plant *O.*

sativa. Therefore, the roles of WRKYs in diverse cell signaling and physiological processes discussed here are based mainly on studies from the two model organisms.

1. Abiotic stress

Harsh environmental factors such as drought, flooding, salinity, heat, low temperature, and strong ultraviolet (UV) radiation, adversely affect the growth and development of plants. It was projected that elevated global CO₂ would also bring more unexpected abiotic stresses for plant growth (Feng *et al.*, 2014). Therefore, it is important to study the molecular mechanism of abiotic stresses and to identify important genes responsible for stress-tolerance (Chen *et al.*, 2013a). In plant cell signaling, WRKY TFs have been regarded as a jack of many trades (Bakshi and Oelmüller, 2014) from plant growth and various stress responses, providing an important basis for genetic improvement of crops.

Drought and salt stresses. Drought stress and salt stress both cause cellular dehydration and are key environmental factors influencing plant yield and spatial distribution (Bartels and Sunkar, 2005). At the molecular level, responses to drought and salt stresses usually share the same signal transduction pathways, causing reactive oxygen species (ROS) and abscisic acid (ABA) accumulation (Bartels and Sunkar, 2005; Miller *et al.*, 2010). All WRKY subfamilies have members involved in response to drought and salt stresses (Figure 3). AtWRKY18, AtWRKY40, and AtWRKY60, which are subfamily IIa/IIb members, negatively regulate the transcription of receptor-like kinase CRK5. AtWRKY18 and AtWRKY40, but not AtWRKY60, directly bind to the promoter of CRK5. Knock-out of all the three genes led to the significantly increased expression of CRK5, but no change of CRK5 expression was observed if only one or two of them were knocked out, suggesting a close interaction between the three WRKY genes (Lu *et al.*, 2016).

Several WRKY genes involved in the drought stress response are ABA-dependent. In *Arabidopsis*, AtWRKY1 is involved in the stomatal closure via the regulation of membrane transporters to maintain moisture (Qiao *et al.*, 2016). Also, AtWRKY1 TF binds to the promoter of MYB2, ABCG40, DREB1A, and ABI5, thus regulating the drought response. AtWRKY1 knockout mutant showed a higher sensitivity to ABA and lower drought resistance than wild type, suggesting a negative regulatory role of AtWRKY1 in ABA signaling pathway of guard cells (Qiao *et al.*, 2016). Compared with wild-type, the AtWRKY63 knockout mutant had decreased tolerance to drought stress (Ren *et al.*, 2010). AtWRKY46, AtWRKY54, and AtWRKY70 all belong to the group III and are engaged in BR signaling to regulate both growth

and osmotic stress (Chen *et al.*, 2017). Drought leads to high expression of ABA, which induces high expression of *AtWRKY57* that binds to W-box in the promoter region of the downstream response genes (*RD29A*, *NCED3* are both VQ motif-containing genes). This activates gene expression, resulting in a high seed germination rate in drought environment (Jiang *et al.*, 2012). In addition, *AtWRKY63* binds to the *ABF2* promoter and activates expression of *RD29A* and *COR47* (Ren *et al.*, 2010).

In rice, overexpression of *OsWRKY30* dramatically enhances drought resistance, which is a signal hub to downstream of proteins *OsMAK3*, *OsMPK4*, *OsMPK7*, *OsMPK14*, *OsMPK20-4*, and *OsMPK20-5* (Shen *et al.*, 2012). Drought-induced senescence could increase the expression level of *OsWRKY80*, which is putatively regulated by ABA (Ricachenevsky *et al.*, 2010). *OsWRKY47* binds to the W-box in the promoters of *Cys Rich Repeat Secretory Protein 55 Precursor* and *Calmodulin-Binding Protein*. Knockout mutants of *OsWRKY47* are highly susceptible to drought and have reduced yield, whereas mutants with overexpression of *OsWRKY47* are more resistant to drought (Raineri *et al.*, 2015). Furthermore, *OsWRKY45* was also found involved in ABA signaling and salt stress in rice (Tao *et al.*, 2011).

Salt stress is another important negative factor of plant growth and development. Salt stress usually produces ROS, which are one of the primary signal transduction signals. *AtWRKY8* is highly expressed in plant roots and is significantly upregulated under salt stress. The knockout mutant of *AtWRKY8* is more sensitive to salt with seed germination and subsequent inhibited growth. *AtWRKY8* regulates Na^+ / K^+ balance by binding to a VQ motif in the promoter of *RD29A* (Chen *et al.*, 2010; Hu *et al.*, 2013). *AtWRKY28* acts synergistically with *AtHBH17* (*AtAIB*), a member of the bHLH family, to increase tolerance to salt stress and oxidative stress in the presence of high salt concentrations. Under the high mannitol concentration, *AtWRKY28* causes the plant roots to elongate, and effectively enhances plant tolerance to drought stress (Babitha *et al.*, 2013; Chen *et al.*, 2013b). Another WRKY family member, *AtWRKY75*, is also found involved in the response of plants to salt stress (Chen *et al.*, 2013b; Hossain *et al.*, 2016). *AtWRKY15* is induced by ROS. The increased expression of *AtWRKY15* makes *Arabidopsis* more susceptible to osmotic stress and oxidative stress (Vanderauwera *et al.*, 2012). *OsWRKY30* and *OsWRKY72* from subfamily III are activated by ROS, and overexpression of them makes plants more susceptible to salt stress (Yu *et al.*, 2010; Scarpeci *et al.*, 2013). In general, as shown in Figure 3, five members of the IIC population (*AtWRKY57*, *AtWRKY28*, *AtWRKY8*, *AtWRKY75*, and *OsWRKY72*)

are involved in osmotic stress. Thus, the IIC members may be the key TFs involved in response to drought and salt stress.

Temperature-induced stresses. Temperature changes have broad effects on plant physiology. WRKY transcription factors play an important role in the response to temperature stress. *AtWRKY25*, *AtWRKY26*, and *AtWRKY33* participated in heat-induced signal transduction. The heat shock transcription factors, *HsfA2*, *HsfB1*, *heat shock protein 101* (*Hsp101*), and *zinc finger protein 10* (*Zat10*), are the master regulators in the activation of transcriptional networks (Ohama *et al.*, 2016). These proteins contained W-box sequences that were recognized by the three WRKY proteins (Li *et al.*, 2011). *AtWRKY39* is induced by heat stress, positively regulating the crosstalk of jasmonate (JA) and salicylic acid (SA) pathways that mediate the heat response (Jqw *et al.*, 2010). Under the control of the *HSP101* promoter, overexpressing *OsWRKY11* enhances heat and drought tolerance in transgenic rice seedlings (Wu *et al.*, 2009).

AtWRKY34, a pollen-specific gene, receives cold signals and transmits to the *C-repeat/DRE-Binding Factor*, effectively alleviating the pollen's cold stress (Zou *et al.*, 2010). *OsWRKY71* is controlled by hypothermia, which activates the expression of downstream genes *OsTGFR*, *OsDREB1A*, *TPP1*, and *WSI76*, thereby enhancing plant cold tolerance (Kim *et al.*, 2016). In addition, *OsWRKY76* leads to the increased expression of abiotic stress-associated genes such as peroxidase and lipid metabolism genes to alleviate cold stress (Yokotani *et al.*, 2013).

Waterlogging stress. WRKY transcription factors were involved in the response of waterlogging stress. The expression of *AtWRKY22* was rapidly and strongly induced upon submergence (Hsu *et al.*, 2013). *AtWRKY22* protein binds to *TRE1*'s promoter and represses its expression, affecting the plant's resistance to flooding by influencing plant stomatal activity. In addition, *AtWRKY22* also regulates the expression of *MYB15*, *PUB24*, and *ACS7*, which are related to the plant immune response (Cai *et al.*, 2013). Thus, waterlogging induced the expression of *AtWRKY22* that triggered the immune response in *Arabidopsis*, and contributed to plant resistance to pathogen infection during waterlogging (Hsu *et al.*, 2013).

Ultraviolet stress. Visible light is an essential factor for plant growth, whereas the relationship between UV and plant growth and development is still insufficient. UV-B is a wavelength of 280–315 nm moderate wavelength UV light that may damage DNA bases. Overexpression of

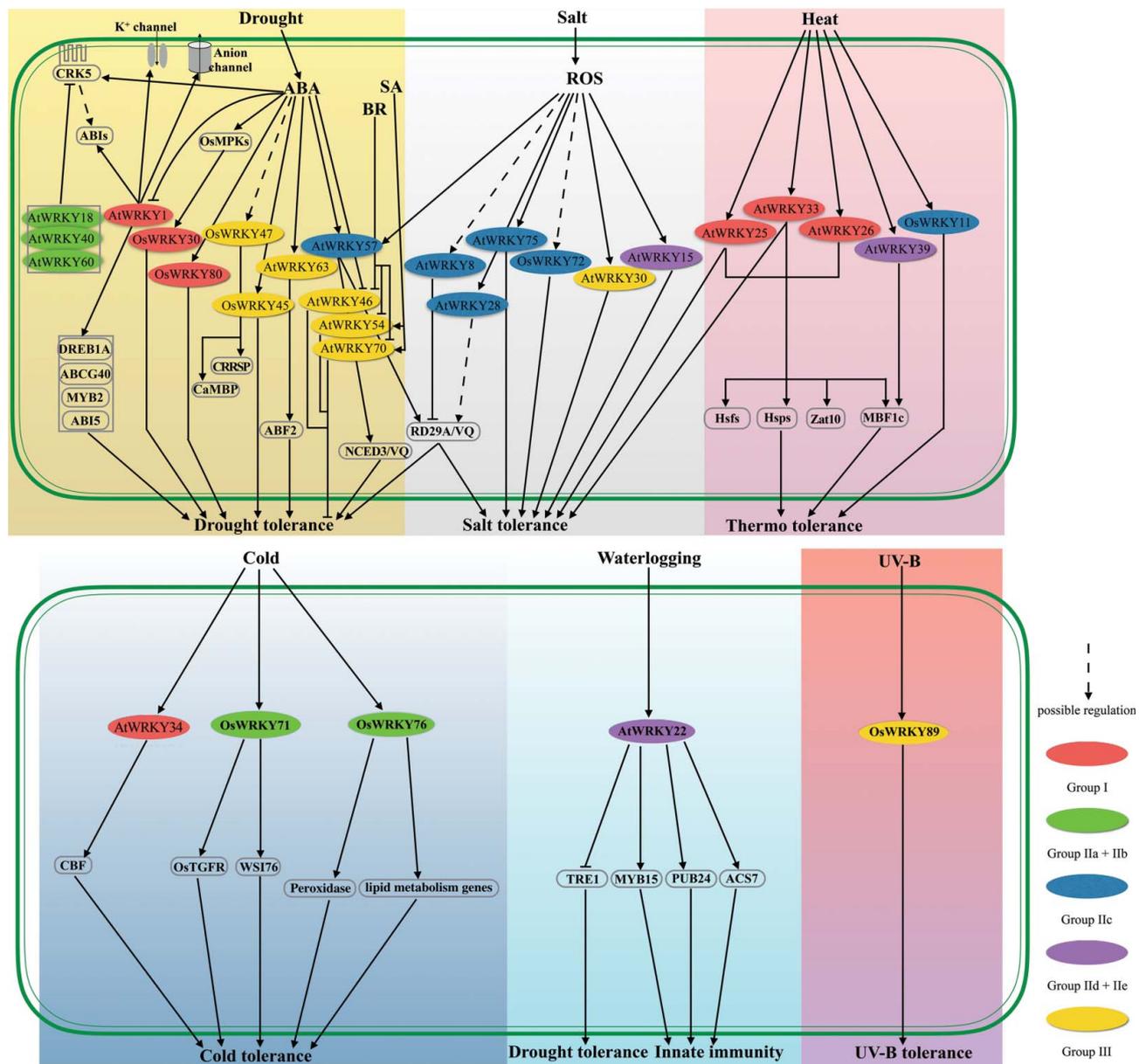


Figure 3. WRKYs in plant abiotic stress signaling network. References were mentioned in the main text.

OsWRKY89 significantly increased the resistance of plants to UV-B (Wang *et al.*, 2007). However, whether or not other WRKYs are involved in response to UV-induced stress or how WRKYs regulate UV-induced signal transduction remains to be elucidated.

In summary, molecular studies have identified many WRKY genes that are involved in various abiotic stress responses. However, there is a need in the future for more extensive field studies of WRKY genes to test the applications of these genes in agriculture.

2. Biotic stress

WRKYs are known to play important roles in plant immune responses to various biotic stresses. Summarized from various publications, members from all

subfamilies of WRKYs have been found to be involved in the microbe-associated molecular pattern-triggered immunity, PAMP-triggered immunity, effector-triggered immunity, or system acquired resistance (SAR).

AtWRKY33 and *AtWRKY25* proteins (members of subfamily I) bind to the activated MKS1p. This pathway is required for both repression of SA-dependent resistance as well as activation of JA-dependent defense (Andreasson *et al.*, 2005). *AtWRKY3* enhances the resistance to the necrotrophic pathogen, whereas *AtWRKY4* enhances the resistance to both necrotrophic pathogen and biotrophic pathogen. Overexpression of *AtWRKY3* and *AtWRKY4* inhibit pathogen-induced PR1 (Lai *et al.*, 2008). *OsWRKY3* is light-dependent and binds to the upstream sequence of *OsNPR1* and is involved in

immune regulation through SA or JA-induced immune signaling cascade systems. Overexpression of *OsWRKY3* upregulated *OsPR1b*, *phenylalanine ammonialyase ZB8* and peroxidase *POX22.3* (Liu *et al.*, 2005). *OsWRKY71* is upregulated by SA, methyl jasmonate (MeJA), and pathogen infection. *OsWRKY71* overexpression mutant showed enhanced resistance to *Xanthomonas oryzae* (Xoo), and *OsPR1b* and *OsNPR1* were also upregulated in the mutant, indicating that they may be regulated by *OsWRKY71* (Liu *et al.*, 2007).

Ten WRKY genes of subfamily IIc are involved in plant immunity (Figure 4). *AtWRKY28* and *AtWRKY75* are detected to be upregulated by oxalic acid and *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum* infection using microarray screening. These genes are TFs involved in SA and JA/ET-dependent defense signaling pathways, suggesting that *AtWRKY28* and *AtWRKY75* may enhance plant resistance to oxalic acid and fungal infection through the JA/ET pathway (Chen *et al.*, 2013b). In the *AtWRKY48* overexpression mutant, the expression of *PR1* is downregulated, indicating that *AtWRKY48* could regulate plant immunity by negative regulation of Pathogenesis-Related (PR) genes (Xing *et al.*, 2008). In the *AtWRKY50* and *AtWRKY51* double knockout mutant, both the SA content and the JA pathway-related *PDF1.2* gene expression levels are reduced, suggesting that *AtWRKY50* and *AtWRKY51* mediate SA- and low-oleic acid-dependent repression of JA signaling (Gao *et al.*, 2011). *AtWRKY57* also plays a regulatory role in the process of plant

immune response by increasing the susceptibility of plants to *Botrytis cinerea*. *AtWRKY57* competes with *AtWRKY33* for binding to the promoters of *SIGMA FACTOR BINDING PROTEIN1 (SIB1)*, *SIB2*, *JASMONATE ZIM-DOMAIN 1 (JAZ1)*, and *JAZ5*, thus affecting the JA-mediated defense signal pathway (Jiang and Yu, 2016). Overexpression of *OsWRKY13* enhances the resistance of rice to bacterial blight and rice blast. *OsWRKY13* plays a negative regulatory role in the JA-induced defense signaling pathway, and plays a positive role in the SA-induced defense signaling pathway (Qiu *et al.*, 2007). *OsWRKY89* could be induced by MeJA to enhance the resistance to *Magnaporthe grisea* and *Sogatella furcifera* (Wang *et al.*, 2007).

In *Arabidopsis* and rice, ten members from the IIa+IIb group are involved in the plant immune response (Figure 4). *AtWRKY18*, *AtWRKY40*, and *AtWRKY60* are partially functionally redundant. In the *AtWRKY18* and *AtWRKY40* double knockout mutant, a series of immune-related genes such as *camalexin* are detected and showed higher tolerance to the powdery mildew organism, *Golovinomyces orontii* (Schön *et al.*, 2013). *In vitro* experiments, *AtWRKY40* regulates immune responses through binding to the promoter of *ENHANCED DISEASE SUSCEPTIBILITY1*, AP2-type TF *redox-responsive transcription factor 1*, and a JA-signaling repressor gene *JAZ8* (Pandey *et al.*, 2010). Overexpression of *AtWRKY18-AtWRKY40* and *AtWRKY18-AtWRKY60* leads to a higher susceptibility to

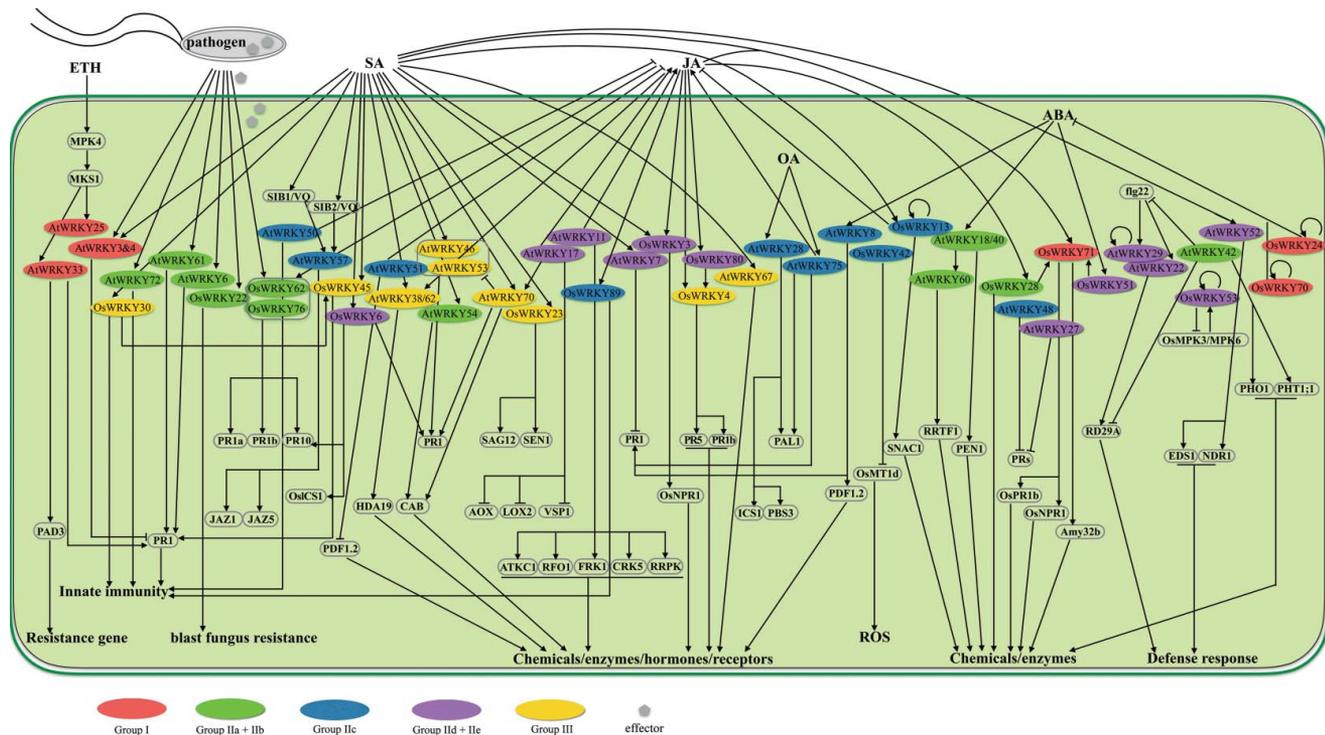


Figure 4. WRKYs in plant abiotic stress signaling network.

Pseudomonas syringae and *Botrytis cinerea*, suggesting that they have functional or physical interactions in the regulation of plant immunity, and this effect is mediated by regulation of the JA and SA pathways (Xu *et al.*, 2006). The *AtWRKY6* knockdown mutant has a greater leaf infection area than the wild type, suggesting that *AtWRKY6* might be involved in the regulation in a specific cell layer in the region surrounding the infected area (Robatzek and Somssich, 2002). *AtWRKY61* enhances plant resistance to Turnip Crimp Virus, and *AtWRKY61* may have similar regulatory effects on SAR and PR gene regulation (Gao *et al.*, 2016). *AtWRKY72* has a positive regulatory effect on the induction of root-knot nematode, *Meloidogyne* species and the downy mildew, *Hyaloperonospora arabidopsidis*. This process is not related to the SA signaling pathway, but may be related to the expression of R gene *Mi-1* (Bhattarai *et al.*, 2010). *OsWRKY62* and *OsWRKY76* proteins form homodimers and heterodimers, and overexpression of the two genes increases susceptibility to *Magnaporthe oryzae* and *Xoo*. In the double-knockout mutant of *OsWRKY62* and *OsWRKY76*, phytoalexin and the expression levels of many resistance genes increases, suggesting that the two genes have a negative regulatory effect on plant disease resistance (Liu *et al.*, 2016). Overexpression of *OsWRKY28* could enhance the susceptibility of *M. oryzae* to rice blast, and *OsWRKY28* could negatively regulate the resistance gene to maintain the dynamic balance (Chujo *et al.*, 2013). *OsWRKY22* is found to be involved in defense of *M. oryzae*, *M. grisea*, and *Blumeria graminis*. Interestingly, *OsWRKY22* does not show any interaction with other *OsWRKYs* in coregulatory assays, suggesting that this gene may have a unique role in plant defense (Abbruscato *et al.*, 2012).

Eleven members of IId+IIe subfamily are involved in immune regulation (Figure 4). *AtWRKY27* has a negative effect on plant immunity, and its knockout mutant shows symptoms of *Ralstonia solanacearum* infection. The expression levels of *Nitrate Reductase 2* (NR2/NIA2) and *Asparagine Synthase 2* (ASN2) increase in the *AtWRKY27* mutant. As the promoter region of these two genes contains W-box, they may be regulated by *AtWRKY27* (Mukhtar *et al.*, 2008). *AtWRKY52* (aka *Resistance to Ralstonia solanacearum 1*, *RRS1*) is a receptor of the nucleotide-binding, LRR (NB-LRR). *AtWRKY52* interacts with resistance gene *RPS4* (*Resistance to Pseudomonas syringae 4*, a member of NB-LRR), bacterial response factors *AvrRps4* and *PopP2* to form complexes to coactivate immune response. *AvrRps4* and *PopP2* bind directly to the WRKY motif of *AtWRKY52*. *AtWRKY52* together with *RPS4* form a bait region that allows the bacterial effector to more easily detect the WRKY motif to

which it binds (Sarris *et al.*, 2015). The flagellin receptor FLS2 is a LRR receptor kinase. It activates the Mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) signaling cascade and thereby activates the *AtWRKY22* and *AtWRKY29*, involved in regulating the immune responses to bacteria and fungi (Asai *et al.*, 2002). Knockout experiments showed that *AtWRKY11* and *AtWRKY17* are partially functionally redundant. The double knockout mutant of *AtWRKY11* and *AtWRKY17*, genes activated by the JA signaling pathway, is more resistant to *P. syringae* than any of the single knockout mutants (Journot-Catalino *et al.*, 2006). *AtWRKY7* plays a negative regulatory role in the immunization of *P. syringae* infection and is upregulated by SA induction. Expression of the *PR1* gene regulated by SA is increased in the knockout mutant, whereas in the overexpressed mutant PR-related gene expression it is significantly lower, suggesting that *PR1* may be the target of *AtWRKY7* (Kim *et al.*, 2006). *OsMKK4* activates *OsMPK3/OsMPK6*, then the latter recognizes SP cluster located in *OsWRKY53*. Plants overexpressing phosphorylated *OsWRKY53* show higher resistance to rice blast than plants overexpressing unphosphorylated *OsWRKY53* itself, indicating that the modified status of the WRKY gene is responsible for its function (Chujo *et al.*, 2014). By binding to the *cis*-element W-box and WLE1 on the promoter of the defense gene *OsPR10a*, *OsWRKY51* enhances plant resistance to *Xoo* by activating the expression of this gene (Hwang *et al.*, 2016). In addition, *OsWRKY51* has a negative regulatory role in the GA signaling pathway (Zhang *et al.*, 2009). *OsWRKY31* could be induced by *M. grisea*, and lots of defense genes such as *PBZ1* and *OsSci2* could be upregulated in the overexpression mutant of *OsWRKY31*. At the same time, the sensitivity of this mutant to indolebutyric acid (IBA), 1-naphthaleneacetic acid (NAA), and 2,4-D decreased, indicating that *OsWRKY31* may be involved in multiple signal transduction systems (Zhang *et al.*, 2008). *OsWRKY68* binds to the W-boxes of the *PR1b* promoter region and, by activating the gene, participates in *Xa21*-regulated *Xoo*-related resistance expression (Shuo *et al.*, 2016).

Nine WRKYs have been reported to participate in the immune response to subfamily III, including five *AtWRKYs* and four *OsWRKYs* (Figure 4). *AtWRKY38* and *AtWRKY62* are induced by *P. syringae* or SA; they then negatively control the expression of the defense gene *Nonexpressor of PR Gene1* (*NPR1*). In a single WRKY knockout mutant, the expression of the *PR1* and disease resistance are both enhanced and to a greater extent in the double knockout mutants.

AtWRKY38 and AtWRKY62 interact with *Histone Deacetylase 19*, which plays a positive role in plant immunity and inhibits the activity of AtWRKY38 and AtWRKY62 (Kc *et al.*, 2008). In general, AtWRKY38 and AtWRKY62 play negative roles in plant defense. AtWRKY46, AtWRKY53, and AtWRKY70 are functionally redundant and play a synergistic role in the immune process. AtWRKY46 can be induced by SA and *P. syringae*. AtWRKY46-AtWRKY53 or AtWRKY46-AtWRKY70 double-knockout mutants, as well as AtWRKY46-AtWRKY53-AtWRKY70 three-gene knockout mutants increase sensitivity to *P. syringae*, and show lower *PR1* gene expression. The expression profiles show that AtWRKY46, AtWRKY53, and AtWRKY70 may play a role in SA signaling pathway (Hu *et al.*, 2012). In rice, OsWRKY4 and OsWRKY45 are involved in controlling rice sheath blight resistance. The OsWRKY4 expression level is rapidly upregulated in plants infected with the fungal pathogen *Rhizoctonia solani*. Additional experiments show that overexpression of OsWRKY4 increases the resistance of plants to *R. a solani* infection. In the overexpression mutants, the expression levels of the resistance genes *PR1a*, *PR1b*, *PR5*, and *PR10/PBZ1* are enhanced. As these downstream genes are involved in JA and ET-mediated response pathway, OsWRKY4 may regulate JA and ET signaling pathway in immune regulation. Furthermore, W-box and TG-like (TGAC [C/T]) *cis*-elements are found in the promoter regions of *PR1b* and *PR5*, suggesting that they may be target genes for OsWRKY4 (Wang *et al.*, 2015). OsWRKY45-1 (from japonica) and OsWRKY45-2 (from indica) are two alleles of OsWRKY45, and they have opposite effects in plant immunoregulation. OsWRKY45-1 and OsWRKY45-2 have negative and positive regulatory effects on the infection of *Xoo* and *Xoo* pv *oryzicola* (*Xoc*), respectively. The expression of OsWRKY45-1 could lead to the increase of JA and SA content in tissues and defense-related genes. In plants overexpressing OsWRKY45-2, the expression of JA is also upregulated, while the expression of SA is downregulated, accompanied by the increased expression of downstream defense genes. In addition, overexpression of both WRKYs can enhance plant resistance to *M. grisea* (Tao *et al.*, 2009; Cheng *et al.*, 2015). OsWRKY77 could regulate the expression level of *PR1*, *PR2*, and *PR5* in rice, and thus enhance the resistance of plants to *P. syringae* (Lan *et al.*, 2013). Overexpression of OsWRKY23 activates a series of *PR* genes, thereby increasing plant resistance to *P. syringae* (Jing *et al.*, 2009).

In summary, each subfamily of WRKY has been shown to be involved in the biotic stress response, suggesting that (i) the ancestor of WRKYs might already

have evolved the functions in plant immunity, and (ii) a dosage of WRKYs is a critical element for the environmental adaptation of plants.

3. Growth and development

The WRKY genes are involved in a wide-range of plant growth and developmental processes (Table 1). Six *Arabidopsis* WRKY genes and one rice WRKY gene have been reported to participate in the process of seed growth and maturation (Table 1). AtWRKY28 participates in the megasporocyte cell fate (Zhao *et al.*, 2017). AtWRKY2 and AtWRKY34 are redundantly involved in pollen formation, pollen tube elongation, seed germination, and early growth after germination. AtWRKY2 knockout mutant showed high sensitivity to ABA, suggesting that AtWRKY2 regulates seed germination (Jiang and Yu, 2009). In the AtMPK3-AtMPK6 double knockout mutant, AtWRKY34 cannot be phosphorylated; thereby, its function is inhibited (Guan *et al.*, 2014). The homozygous AtWRKY10 (also called as *MINISEED3*, *MINI3*) knockout mutants have a smaller seed size, are slower in development, and have early cellularization of the endosperm (Luo *et al.*, 2005). The OsWRKY78 knockout mutant showed semidwarf and small kernel phenotype and produced smaller seeds, suggesting that OsWRKY78 plays an important role in stem elongation and seed development regulator in rice (Zhang *et al.*, 2011). The AtWRKY41 protein binds to three adjacent W-boxes in the promoter of the *ABSCISIC ACID INSENSITIVE 3* (*ABI3*). Knockout of AtWRKY41 m significantly down-regulated *ABI3* and influenced the seed dormancy (Ding *et al.*, 2014).

In addition to regulation of seed growth, the WRKY genes are involved in regulation of seed coloration (Table 1). AtWRKY44 (also known as *transparent testa glabra*, *TTG2*) regulates the epidermal color of *Arabidopsis* seeds by participating in transcriptional regulation. AtWRKY44 binds directly to the upstream regulatory region of *TT12*. *TTG1*, *TT2*, and *TT8* are involved in the biosynthesis of proanthocyanidins in *Arabidopsis* and the pigmentation, thus, making *Arabidopsis* seeds brown-colored skin (Gonzalez *et al.*, 2016; Johnson *et al.*, 2002).

The WRKY genes are also involved in plant root development (Table 1). Auxin induces the expression of AtWRKY23, *AUXIN RESPONSE FACTOR7* (*ARF7*), and *ARF19*, serving as part of the auxin feedback loop, to regulate the proper growth of plant roots and the local synthesis of flavonoids (Grunewald *et al.*, 2012). AtWRKY44 and AtWRKY75 both regulate the development of root hairs. AtWRKY44 is the downstream gene of *TTG1* and *GLABROUS1*. It expresses continuously in the root hairs and can cooperate with *GLABRA2* to control the growth of root hairs on plants (Johnson *et al.*, 2002). In the

Table 1. WRKY as key regulators in plant growth and development.

Name	Gene Locus ID	Function	References
AtWRKY28	At4G18170	Ovule development	Zhao <i>et al.</i> , 2017
AtWRKY2	AT5G56270	Seed germination, postgermination growth	Jiang <i>et al.</i> , 2009
AtWRKY10	AT1G55600	Seed size	Luo <i>et al.</i> , 2005
AtWRKY34	AT4G26440	Seed germination, postgermination growth	Guan <i>et al.</i> , 2014
AtWRKY41	AT4G11070	Seed dormancy	Ding <i>et al.</i> , 2014
AtWRKY44	AT2G37260	Seed coat tannins in the proanthocyanidin	Gonzalez <i>et al.</i> , 2016
OsWRKY78	LOC_Os01g54600	Seed development; stem elongation	Zhang <i>et al.</i> , 2011
AtWRKY23	AT2G47260	Root growth; biosynthesis of flavonols	Grunewald <i>et al.</i> , 2011
AtWRKY44	AT2G37260	Root hair growth	Verweij <i>et al.</i> , 2016
AtWRKY75	AT5G13080	Root hair growth	Devaiah <i>et al.</i> , 2007
OsWRKY31	LOC_Os06g30860	Root formation and elongation	Zhang <i>et al.</i> , 2008
AtWRKY75	AT5G13080	Leaf senescence	Li <i>et al.</i> , 2012
AtWRKY6	AT1G62300	Leaf senescence	Robatzek <i>et al.</i> , 2016
AtWRKY54	AT2G40750	Leaf senescence	Besseau <i>et al.</i> , 2012
AtWRKY70	AT3G56400	Leaf senescence	Besseau <i>et al.</i> , 2012
AtWRKY53	AT4G23810	Leaf senescence	Zentgraf <i>et al.</i> , 2009; Miao and Zentgraf, 2010
AtWRKY57	AT1G69310	Leaf senescence	Jiang <i>et al.</i> , 2014
AtWRKY22	AT4G01250	Leaf senescence	Zhou <i>et al.</i> , 2011
AtWRKY26	AT5G07100	Leaf senescence	Li <i>et al.</i> , 2017
OsWRKY42	LOC_Os05g46020	Leaf senescence	Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2016
OsWRKY23	LOC_Os01g53260	Leaf senescence	Jing <i>et al.</i> , 2009
OsWRKY80	LOC_Os09g30400	Leaf senescence	Ricachenevsky <i>et al.</i> , 2010
OsWRKY14	LOC_Os01g53040	Leaf senescence	Kang <i>et al.</i> , 2011
AtWRKY12	AT2G44745	Flowering time	Li <i>et al.</i> , 2016
AtWRKY13	AT4G39410	Flowering time	Li <i>et al.</i> , 2016
AtWRKY71	AT1G29860	Flowering time	Yu <i>et al.</i> , 2016
OsWRKY11	LOC_Os01g43650	Flowering time; plant height	Cai <i>et al.</i> , 2014
AtWRKY45	AT3G01970	Phosphate uptake	Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2014
AtWRKY42	AT4G04450	Phosphate uptake	Su <i>et al.</i> , 2015
AtWRKY75	AT5G13080	Phosphate uptake	Devaiah <i>et al.</i> , 2007
AtWRKY6	AT1G62300	Phosphate uptake; Boron uptake	Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2009; Kawajima <i>et al.</i> , 2010
OsWRKY74	LOC_Os09g16510	Phosphate uptake	Dai <i>et al.</i> , 2016

AtWRKY75 knockout mutant, the number and length of the root hairs show an increase compared with the wild-type, suggesting that *AtWRKY75* is a negative regulator of root hair development (Devaiah *et al.*, 2007). *OsWRKY31* was also found induced by auxin. Compared with the wild-type, plant lateral root formation and elongation are inhibited in the *OsWRKY31* overexpression mutant. This mutant also shows tolerance to high concentrations of plant growth regulators IBA, NAA, and 2,4-D, suggesting that overexpression of *OsWRKY31* may affect the transport process of auxin (Zhang *et al.*, 2008).

Twelve WRKY genes from rice and *Arabidopsis* have been reported to participate in senescence (Table 1). *AtWRKY6* binds to a receptor-like kinase *Senescence-induced receptor-like serine/threonine-protein kinase* and regulates the leaf senescence process (Robatzek and Somssich, 2002). *AtWRKY75* mutant showed leaf senescence inhibition, suggesting that *AtWRKY75* has a positive effect on leaf senescence (Li *et al.*, 2012). *AtWRKY53* has a positive effect on plant senescence (Miao and Zentgraf, 2010), whereas *AtWRKY54* and *AtWRKY70* function redundantly, and potentially interact with *AtWRKY30*, negatively regulating the plant senescence (Besseau *et al.*, 2012). *AtWRKY57* acts as a node in the

crosstalk of JA and auxin, and mediates the leaf senescence (Jiang *et al.*, 2014). *AtWRKY22* is promoted by darkness and suppressed by light and involved in darkness-induced leaf senescence (Zhou *et al.*, 2011). *AtWRKY26* is also a positive regulator of leaf senescence (Li *et al.*, 2017b). In rice, *OsWRKY14* is involved in methanol-induced tryptophan biosynthesis as well as tryptophan-induced secondary metabolites (Kang *et al.*, 2011). Overexpression of *OsWRKY23* could accelerate leaf senescence under dark induction (Jing *et al.*, 2009). Using an overexpression mutant, *OsWRKY42* shows early leaf senescence, accumulation of ROS, and decreased chlorophyll content (Han *et al.*, 2014). *OsWRKY80* showed a high level of expression in dark-induced senescent plant leaves, which was induced by 6-Benzylaminopurine and ABA, suggesting that it is a typical senescence-related gene (Ricachenevsky *et al.*, 2010).

Control of flowering time is an important part of the development process of angiosperm plants (Table 1). *AtWRKY12*, *AtWRKY13*, and *AtWRKY71* are involved in this process (Table 1). *AtWRKY12* and *AtWRKY13* have opposite regulatory effects on the flowering time under short daylight conditions. The flowering time of the *AtWRKY12* knockout mutant is delayed compared with wild-type, whereas *AtWRKY13* induces flowering.

FRUITFULL (*FUL*), a direct downstream target gene of *AtWRKY12* and *AtWRKY13*, is the signaling pathway hub of these two WRKY genes. In addition, *AtWRKY12* and *AtWRKY13* can also affect plant flowering by partially regulating *GA3* (Li et al., 2016). *AtWRKY71* has a positive effect on plant flowering, both the active target mutant and the overexpression mutant has earlier flowering time than the wild type. In specific, promoter sequences of *FT*, *LFY*, *API*, and *CAL* (but not *FUL*) harbor W-boxes (TTTGACT/C), *AtWRKY71* affects the flowering time of plants by directly regulating these genes (Yu et al., 2016). *OsWRKY11* acts as a *trans*-regulatory factor, delaying the flowering time of plants by downregulating gene expression of *Early Heading date Ehd2/ROOT INITIATION DEFECTIVE RID1/Indeterminate 1 (Osl1)*; also, its downstream genes include *Heading date1 (Hd1)*, *Ehd1*, and *Hd3a* (Cai et al., 2014).

Four WRKYs and one rice WRKY are involved in plant nutrient utilization in *Arabidopsis* (Table 1). Plant growth and development process require a large amount of phosphorus and boron, and lacking these elements will significantly impact gene regulations. *AtWRKY42*, *AtWRKY45*, and *AtWRKY75* participate in the regulation of phosphorus deficiency signaling, in which *AtWRKY42* knockout mutant is more sensitive to low-phosphorus stress, and their shoots contained less phosphorus than wild-type (Su et al., 2015). *AtWRKY45* can bind to two W-boxes in the promoter region of the *PHOSPHATE TRANSPORTER 1; 1 (PHT1; 1)*, and upregulates the taking up of phosphorus (Wang et al., 2014). *AtWRKY75* has a positive regulatory effect on plant tolerance to phosphorus deficiency, and *AtWRKY75* is significantly upregulated in the condition of insufficient phosphorus in the environment (Devaiah et al., 2007). Besides its role in regulating leaf senescence, *AtWRKY6* is involved in responses to low-phosphorus stress via regulating *PHOSPHATE1 (PHO1)* expression (Chen et al., 2009). *AtWRKY6* is the first characterized TF that is involved in response to boron deficiency (Kasajima et al., 2010). *OsWRKY74* modulates the phosphorus homeostasis and the potential crosstalk between ion and phosphorus starvation (Dai et al., 2017). *OsWRKY80* responds to Fe-excess in rice leaves, stems and roots, suggesting a role in Fe signaling (Klein et al., 2010).

G. Degradation of WRKY Proteins

Similar to other eukaryotes, the ubiquitin-proteasome system (UPS) mediated degradation of TFs plays an important role in the regulation of gene expression (Jakoby et al., 2002; Allen et al., 2008). The degradation of a WRKY transcription factor in Japanese goldthread, *Coptis japonica*, CjWRKY, was regulated by UPS

(Yamada and Sato, 2016). In *Arabidopsis*, *AtWRKY6* is ubiquitinated through interacting with Really Interesting New Gene (RING)-type finger E3 ubiquitin ligase (At1g74410), and this degradation process could be terminated by the 26S proteasome inhibitor MG132 (Chen et al., 2009). Similar to *AtWRKY6*, *AtWRKY53* is also degraded by the action of a Homologous to the E6-AP Carboxyl Terminus (HECT) E3 ubiquitin ligase, which can accelerate the senescence of plant leaf (Miao and Zentgraf, 2010). In Chinese wild grapevine (*Vitis pseudoreticulata*), VpWRKY11 interacts with *Erysiphe necator*-induced RING finger protein 1 (EIRP1) through the RING domain, and degraded by the latter. Through this way, EIRP1 can enhance plant resistance to pathogens (Yu et al., 2013). In rice, *OsWRKY53* was able to bind to the leucine zipper domain of the ubiquitin ligase *OsUPL5*, negatively affecting leaf senescence (Miao and Zentgraf, 2010). *OsWRKY45* was also degraded through ubiquitination, playing an important role in rice defense responses (Matsushita et al., 2013).

II. Studies of WRKY genes in crops

Most crops originated from seed plants including gymnosperms and angiosperms (Feuillet et al., 2011). Unlike the model plant *Arabidopsis*, crops usually have large and complex genomes. For example, maize (*Zea mays*) has a genome of 2,106 Mb, the wheat variety Chinese Spring has an allooctoploid genome of 10.2 Gb (www.wheatgenome.org), and sugarcane (*Saccharum officinarum*) has a basic ploidy unit of 40 chromosomes (<http://ccdb.tau.ac.il>). As of December 31, 2017, the genomes of 270 angiosperm species have been released (www.angiosperms.org). Seventy percent or 168 of the sequenced angiosperm plants are crops and most of the other sequenced plants are the wild relatives of crops with important evolutionary positions.

A. Genome-wide identification of WRKY genes in crops

Genome-wide identification and characterizations of WRKY genes have been carried-out in several crop plants (Table 2). For example, sized duckweed *Spirodela polyrhiza*, which has a small genome, has 43 WRKY genes (Table 2). More than 100 WRKY genes have been identified from crops with large genomes, such as soybean, cotton, and napa (Table 2). Compared to other plants, the Poaceae plants (*Oryza sativa*, *Zea mays*, and *Sorghum bicolor*) are enriched with subfamily III members. Subfamily IIc and subfamily IIa + IIb were specifically amplified in cruciferous and legumes, respectively (Table 2). Since the first release of *Arabidopsis* genome

Table 2. WRKY gene family characterizations in representative crops.

Type	Species	I	Ila + Ilb	Ilc	Ild + Ile	III	Undefined	Total Number	Reported total number/Reference
Vegetable	<i>Solanum tuberosum</i>	35	19	18	33	20	0	80	75 / Schluttenhofer <i>et al.</i> , 2014
Vegetable	<i>Solanum lycopersicum</i>	17	13	16	23	11	1	81	81 / Huang <i>et al.</i> , 2012
Vegetable	<i>Capsicum annuum</i>	15	10	13	14	9	1	62	71 / Diao <i>et al.</i> , 2016
Drink	<i>Coffea arabica</i>	10	9	14	10	5	1	49	49 / Schluttenhofer <i>et al.</i> , 2015
Fruit	<i>Fragaria vesca</i>	9	10	10	12	15	1	58	62 / Wei <i>et al.</i> , 2016
Fruit	<i>Prunus persica</i>	10	11	14	14	8	1	56	58 / Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2016
Fruit	<i>Malus domestica</i>	31	24	33	31	17	5	141	127 / Meng <i>et al.</i> , 2016
Vegetable	<i>Cucumis sativus</i>	15	9	19	16	7	1	62	55 / Xu <i>et al.</i> , 2015
Economic	<i>Glycine max</i>	37	45	37	38	24	4	182	197 / Rushton <i>et al.</i> , 2010
Vegetable	<i>Phaseolus vulgaris</i>	19	21	19	18	14	1	90	90 / Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2016
Economic	<i>Populus trichocarpa</i>	22	14	25	30	10	2	103	104 / He <i>et al.</i> , 2012
Drink	<i>Theobroma cacao</i>	12	11	15	12	6	6	59	18 / Borrone <i>et al.</i> , 2007
Economic	<i>Gossypium raimondii</i>	18	23	35	31	12	2	120	116 / Dou <i>et al.</i> , 2014
Fruit	<i>Carica papaya</i>	10	10	11	11	7	1	49	52 / Pan <i>et al.</i> , 2014
Vegetable	<i>Brassica rapa</i>	28	22	37	26	24	4	141	145 / Kayum <i>et al.</i> , 2015
Model	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>	15	11	17	16	13	2	72	72 / Rushton <i>et al.</i> , 2010
Fruit	<i>Vitis vinifera</i>	12	11	15	14	6	1	59	59 / Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2014
Fruit	<i>Musa acuminata</i>	24	34	30	41	14	0	152	147 / Goel <i>et al.</i> , 2016
Food	<i>Oryza sativa</i>	19	13	17	18	27	7	103	103 / Ramamoorthy <i>et al.</i> , 2008
Food	<i>Zea mays</i>	28	15	22	28	30	0	132	116 / Wei <i>et al.</i> , 2012
Food	<i>Sorghum bicolor</i>	18	14	17	17	24	7	97	68 / Pandey <i>et al.</i> , 2009
Economic	<i>Spirodela polyrhiza</i>	11	8	6	13	3	2	43	34 / Yang <i>et al.</i> , 2015
Wild	<i>Amborella trichopoda</i>	7	6	7	7	4	1	32	29 / Yang <i>et al.</i> , 2015

in 2000, 205 crop genome sequences have been released, whereas only 79 crops have their WRKY genes reported (Figure 5 and Table 3). Considering the importance of crop plants in global economy and human life, further characterizations of the functions of WRKY genes using newly developed techniques will become a necessity.

B. Functional characterization of WRKYs in crops

Although the studies of WRKY in most crops are not as extensive as in those model plants, the WRKY mediated signaling pathway/network has been studied in some crops. Sun *et al.* (2003) identified a WRKY gene *SUS-IBA2* in barley that interacts with cis element SURE

(sugar-responsive) and W-box in the promoter of *iso1*, involved in the sugar signaling and the biosynthesis of starch. In the chili pepper, *Capsicum annuum*, *CaWRKY1* is a negative regulator influencing pathogen infections, and expression was detected after only one-half hour after the infection by *Pseudomonas syringae*. *CaWRKY1* is an ortholog to the *Arabidopsis* WRKY50 and WRKY51 TFs, and therefore might target the same kinds of genes (Oh *et al.*, 2007). In cotton (*Gossypium hirsutum*), plants with overexpression of *GhWRKY44* were more resistant to fungal pathogen *R. solanacearum* and *R. solani*. The expression of *PR-1*, *PR-2*, *PR-5*, *NPRI*, and *PR-4* was also upregulated in overexpressed plants, suggesting that these genes may be involved in the

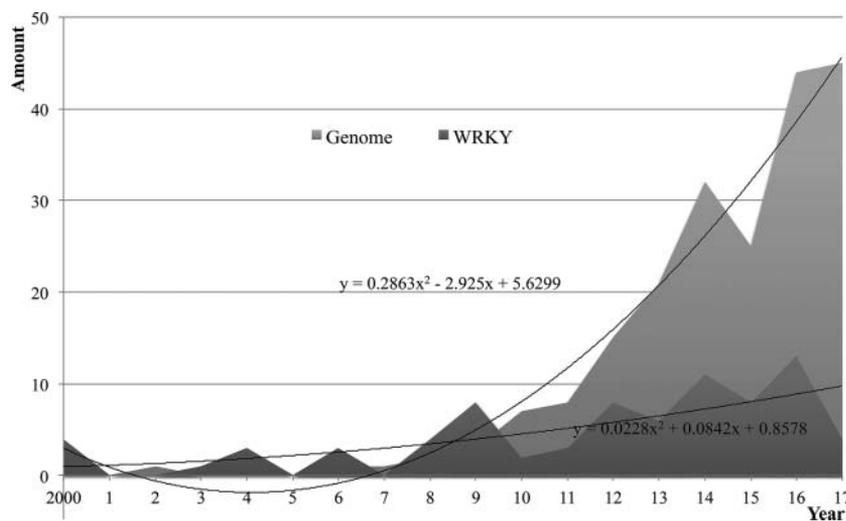


Figure 5. Crop genome decoding progress and WRKY gene family research advances. Statistic resource data could be found at www.angiosperms.org.

Table 3. WRKY research in 205 crop species genomes.

Species	Genome_release	WRKY report	Taxonomy	Crop_attribute
<i>Capsella bursa-pastoris</i>	2017	—	Brassicales	Vegetable
<i>Barbarea vulgaris</i>	2017	—	Brassicales	Vegetable
<i>Momordica charantia</i>	2016	—	Cucurbitales	Vegetable
<i>Brassica juncea</i>	2016	—	Brassicales	Vegetable
<i>Vigna unguiculata</i>	2016	—	Fabales	Vegetable
<i>Zizania latifolia</i>	2015	—	Poales	Vegetable
<i>Moringa oleifera</i>	2015	—	Brassicales	Vegetable
<i>Vicia faba</i>	2015	—	Fabales	Vegetable
<i>Vigna angularis</i>	2015	—	Fabales	Vegetable
<i>Thlaspi arvense</i>	2015	—	Brassicales	Vegetable
<i>Vigna radiata</i>	2014	—	Fabales	Vegetable
<i>Phaseolus vulgaris</i>	2014	—	Fabales	Vegetable
<i>Spinacia oleracea</i>	2013	—	Caryophyllales	Vegetable
<i>Lagenaria siceraria</i>	2013	—	Cucurbitales	Vegetable
<i>Capsella rubella</i>	2013	—	Brassicales	Vegetable
<i>Beta vulgaris</i>	2013	—	Caryophyllales	Vegetable
<i>Cajanus cajan</i>	2011	—	Fabales	Vegetable
<i>Lactuca sativa</i>	2011	—	Asterales	Vegetable
<i>Raphanus sativus</i>	2014	2016	Brassicales	Vegetable
<i>Daucus carota</i>	2016	2015	Apiales	Vegetable
<i>Solanum melongena</i>	2014	2015	Solanales	Vegetable
<i>Brassica oleracea</i>	2014	2015	Brassicales	Vegetable
<i>Solanum pimpinellifolium</i>	2012	2014	Solanales	Vegetable
<i>Cicer arietinum</i>	2013	2013	Fabales	Vegetable
<i>Cucumis sativus</i>	2009	2011	Cucurbitales	Vegetable
<i>Brassica napus</i>	2014	2009	Brassicales	Vegetable
<i>Solanum lycopersicum</i>	2012	2008	Solanales	Vegetable
<i>Medicago truncatula</i>	2011	2008	Fabales	Vegetable
<i>Glycine max</i>	2010	2008	Fabales	Vegetable
<i>Capsicum annuum</i>	2014	2006	Solanales	Vegetable
<i>Brassica rapa</i>	2011	2006	Brassicales	Vegetable
<i>Solanum tuberosum</i>	2011	2000	Solanales	Vegetable
<i>Capsella bursa-pastoris</i>	2017	—	Brassicales	Vegetable
<i>Asparagus officinalis</i>	2017	2017	Asparagales	Vegetable
<i>Momordica charantia</i>	2017	—	Cucurbitales	Vegetable
<i>Cephalotus follicularis</i>	2017	—	Oxalidales	Ornamental
<i>Zoysia pacifica</i>	2016	—	Poales	Ornamental
<i>Fraxinus excelsior</i>	2016	—	Lamiales	Ornamental
<i>Hibiscus syriacus</i>	2016	—	Malvales	Ornamental
<i>Drosera capensis</i>	2016	—	Caryophyllales	Ornamental
<i>Rosa x damascena</i>	2016	—	Rosales	Ornamental
<i>Petunia inflata</i>	2016	—	Solanales	Ornamental
<i>Zoysia japonica</i>	2016	—	Poales	Ornamental
<i>Rosa roxburghii</i>	2016	—	Rosales	Ornamental
<i>Cynara cardunculus</i>	2016	—	Asterales	Ornamental
<i>Nymphaea colorata</i>	2016	—	Nymphaeales	Ornamental
<i>Kalanchoe marnieriana</i>	2016	—	Saxifragales	Ornamental
<i>Kalanchoe laxiflora</i>	2016	—	Saxifragales	Ornamental
<i>Lolium perenne</i>	2015	—	Poales	Ornamental
<i>Phalaenopsis equestris</i>	2014	—	Asparagales	Ornamental
<i>Amaranthus hypochondriacus</i>	2014	—	Caryophyllales	Ornamental
<i>Erythranthe guttata</i>	2014	—	Lamiales	Ornamental
<i>Ensete ventricosum</i>	2014	—	Zingiberales	Ornamental
<i>Petunia integrifolia</i>	2014	—	Solanales	Ornamental
<i>Dianthus caryophyllus</i>	2013	—	Caryophyllales	Ornamental
<i>Tarenaya hassleriana</i>	2013	—	Brassicales	Ornamental
<i>Nicotiana glauca</i>	2013	—	Solanales	Ornamental
<i>Nicotiana glauca</i>	2013	—	Solanales	Ornamental
<i>Lupinus angustifolius</i>	2013	—	Fabales	Ornamental
<i>Nelumbo nucifera</i>	2013	—	Proteales	Ornamental
<i>Mimulus guttatus</i>	2013	—	Lamiales	Ornamental
<i>Kalanchoe fedtschenkoi</i>	2013	—	Saxifragales	Ornamental
<i>Prunus mume</i>	2012	—	Rosales	Ornamental
<i>Aquilegia caerulea</i>	2012	—	Ranunculales	Ornamental
<i>Musa acuminata</i>	2012	2016	Zingiberales	Ornamental
<i>Dendrobium catenatum</i>	2016	2015	Asparagales	Ornamental
<i>Zoysia matrella</i>	2016	2013	Poales	Ornamental
<i>Ipomoea nil</i>	2016	2000	Solanales	Ornamental
<i>Carnegiea gigantea</i>	2017	—	Caryophyllales	Ornamental
<i>Rhododendron delavayi</i>	2017	—	Ericales	Ornamental

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Table 3. (Continued)

Species	Genome_release	WRKY report	Taxonomy	Crop_attribute
<i>Fraxinus excelsior</i>	2017	—	Lamiales	Ornamental
<i>Panax ginseng</i>	2017	2016	Apiales	Medical
<i>Calotropis gigantea</i>	2017	—	Gentianales	Medical
<i>Camptotheca acuminata</i>	2017	—	Cornales	Medical
<i>Rhodiola crenulata</i>	2017	—	Saxifragales	Medicinal
<i>Panax notoginseng</i>	2017	—	Apiales	Medicinal
<i>Erigeron breviscapus</i>	2017	—	Asterales	Medicinal
<i>Citrus medica</i>	2017	—	Sapindales	Medicinal
<i>Mentha longifolia</i>	2016	—	Lamiales	Medicinal
<i>Glycyrrhiza uralensis</i>	2016	—	Fabales	Medicinal
<i>Rhazya stricta</i>	2016	—	Gentianales	Medicinal
<i>Pogostemon cablin</i>	2016	—	Lamiales	Medicinal
<i>Lepidium meyenii</i>	2016	—	Brassicales	Medicinal
<i>Silybum marianum</i>	2016	—	Asterales	Medicinal
<i>Dorcoceras hygrometricum</i>	2016	—	Coleoptera	Medicinal
<i>Ocimum tenuiflorum</i>	2015	—	Lamiales	Medicinal
<i>Ocimum sanctum</i>	2015	—	Lamiales	Medicinal
<i>Azadirachta indica</i>	2012	—	Sapindales	Medicinal
<i>Salix suchowensis</i>	2014	2016	Malpighiales	Medicinal
<i>Salvia miltiorrhiza</i>	2015	2014	Lamiales	Medicinal
<i>Catharanthus roseus</i>	2015	2011	Gentianales	Medicinal
<i>Ficus carica</i>	2017	—	Rosales	Fruit
<i>Dimocarpus longan</i>	2017	—	Sapindales	Fruit
<i>Durio zibethinus</i>	2017	—	Malvales	Fruit
<i>Punica granatum L</i>	2017	2017	Myrtales	Fruit
<i>Fagopyrum tataricum</i>	2017	—	Caryophyllales	Fruit
<i>Ficus carica L.</i>	2017	2017	Rosales	Fruit
<i>Citrus ichangensis</i>	2017	—	Sapindales	Fruit
<i>Citrus grandis</i>	2017	—	Sapindales	Fruit
<i>Macadamia integrifolia</i>	2016	—	Proteales	Fruit
<i>Siraitia grosvenorii</i>	2016	—	Cucurbitales	Fruit
<i>Musa itinerans</i>	2016	—	Zingiberales	Fruit
<i>Olea europaea</i>	2016	—	Lamiales	Fruit
<i>Vitis aestivalis</i>	2016	—	Vitales	Fruit
<i>Artocarpus camansi</i>	2016	—	Rosales	Fruit
<i>Ananas comosus</i>	2015	—	Poales	Fruit
<i>Vaccinium corymbosum</i>	2015	—	Ericales	Fruit
<i>Fragaria orientalis</i>	2015	—	Rosales	Fruit
<i>Fragaria nipponica</i>	2015	—	Rosales	Fruit
<i>Castanea mollissima</i>	2015	—	Fagales	Fruit
<i>Diospyros lotus</i>	2014	—	Ericales	Fruit
<i>Ziziphus jujuba</i>	2014	—	Rosales	Fruit
<i>Vaccinium macrocarpon</i>	2014	—	Ericales	Fruit
<i>Citrus clementina</i>	2014	—	Sapindales	Fruit
<i>Pyrus communis</i>	2014	—	Rosales	Fruit
<i>Actinidia chinensis</i>	2013	—	Ericales	Fruit
<i>Prunus persica</i>	2013	—	Rosales	Fruit
<i>Citrus sinensis</i>	2012	—	Sapindales	Fruit
<i>Cucumis melo</i>	2012	—	Cucurbitales	Fruit
<i>Phoenix dactylifera</i>	2011	—	Arecales	Fruit
<i>Juglans regia</i>	2016	2016	Fagales	Fruit
<i>Musa balbisiana</i>	2013	2016	Zingiberales	Fruit
<i>Morus notabilis</i>	2013	2016	Rosales	Fruit
<i>Juglans regia</i>	2012	2016	Fagales	Fruit
<i>Ginkgo biloba</i>	2016	2015	Gymnosperm	Fruit
<i>Pyrus bretschneideri</i>	2012	2015	Rosales	Fruit
<i>Juglans sigillata</i>	2016	2014	Fagales	Fruit
<i>Malus domestica</i>	2010	2014	Rosales	Fruit
<i>Carica papaya</i>	2008	2014	Brassicales	Fruit
<i>Citrullus lanatus</i>	2012	2012	Cucurbitales	Fruit
<i>Fragaria vesca</i>	2010	2012	Rosales	Fruit
<i>Fragaria x ananassa</i>	2015	2010	Rosales	Fruit
<i>Vitis vinifera</i>	2007	2006	Vitales	Fruit
<i>Citrus parasisi x Poncirus trifoliata</i>	2016	2003	Sapindales	Fruit
<i>Rubus occidentalis</i>	2016	—	Rosales	Fruit
<i>Secale cereale</i>	2017	—	Poales	Food
<i>Chenopodium pallidicaule</i>	2016	—	Caryophyllales	Food
<i>Fagopyrum esculentum</i>	2016	—	Caryophyllales	Food

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Table 3. (Continued)

Species	Genome_release	WRKY report	Taxonomy	Crop_attribute
<i>Manihot esculenta</i> ssp. <i>flabellifolia</i>	2014	2016	Malpighiales	Food
<i>Chenopodium quinoa</i>	2016	2015	Caryophyllales	Food
<i>Setaria italica</i>	2012	2015	Poales	Food
<i>Glycine soja</i>	2014	2013	Fabales	Food
<i>Zea mays</i>	2009	2012	Poales	Food
<i>Sorghum bicolor</i>	2009	2009	Poales	Food
<i>Triticum aestivum</i>	2014	2008	Poales	Food
<i>Oryza sativa</i>	2002	2004	Poales	Food
<i>Hordeum vulgare</i>	2015	2000	Poales	Food
<i>Cucurbita pepo</i>	2017	2012	Cucurbitales	Food
<i>Capsicum baccatum</i>	2017	—	Solanales	Food
<i>Ipomoea batatas</i>	2017	1994	Solanales	Food
<i>Cucurbita moschata</i>	2017	—	Cucurbitales	Food
<i>Cenchrus americanus</i>	2017	—	Poales	Food
<i>Dioscorea rotundata</i>	2017	—	Dioscoreales	Food
<i>Secale cereale</i> L.	2017	—	Poales	Food
<i>Corchorus capsularis</i>	2017	—	Malvales	Economic
<i>Corchirus olitorius</i>	2017	—	Malvales	Economic
<i>Betula pendula</i>	2017	—	Fagales	Economic
<i>Atalantia buxifolia</i>	2017	—	Sapindales	Economic
<i>Quercus lobata</i>	2016	—	Fagales	Economic
<i>Brassica nigra</i>	2016	—	Brassicales	Economic
<i>Eichhornia paniculata</i>	2016	—	Commelinales	Economic
<i>Carthamus tinctorius</i>	2016	—	Asterales	Economic
<i>Pseudotsuga menziesii</i>	2015	—	—	Economic
<i>Lemna minor</i>	2015	—	Alismatales	Economic
<i>Vitis cinerea</i> x <i>Vitis riparia</i>	2015	—	Vitales	Economic
<i>Aquilaria agallocha</i>	2014	—	Malvales	Economic
<i>Eucalyptus grandis</i>	2014	—	Myrtales	Economic
<i>Camelina sativa</i>	2014	—	Brassicales	Economic
<i>Eragrostis tef</i>	2014	—	Poales	Economic
<i>Picea abies</i>	2013	—	—	Economic
<i>Picea glauca</i>	2013	—	Pinales	Economic
<i>Phyllostachys heterocyclus</i>	2013	2017	Poales	Economic
<i>Linum usitatissimum</i>	2012	—	Malpighiales	Economic
<i>Eucalyptus camaldulensis</i>	2011	—	Myrtales	Economic
<i>Sesamum indicum</i>	2014	2016	Lamiales	Economic
<i>Cannabis sativa</i>	2011	2016	Brassicales	Economic
<i>Spirodela polyrhiza</i>	2014	2014	Alismatales	Economic
<i>Hevea brasiliensis</i>	2013	2014	Malpighiales	Economic
<i>Gossypium raimondii</i>	2012	2014	Malvales	Economic
<i>Lotus japonicus</i>	2008	2014	Fabales	Economic
<i>Jatropha curcas</i>	2010	2013	Malpighiales	Economic
<i>Helianthus annuus</i>	2017	2012	Asterales	Economic
<i>Gossypium barbadense</i>	2015	2012	Malvales	Economic
<i>Brachypodium distachyon</i>	2010	2012	Poales	Economic
<i>Populus trichocarpa</i>	2006	2012	Malpighiales	Economic
<i>Gossypium hirsutum</i>	2015	2011	Malvales	Economic
<i>Populus tremulax</i> <i>Populus tremuloides</i> -T89x	2015	2009	Malpighiales	Economic
<i>Populus tremula</i>	2015	2009	Malpighiales	Economic
<i>Pinus taeda</i>	2014	2009	—	Economic
<i>Elaeis guineensis</i>	2013	2009	Arecales	Economic
<i>Nicotiana benthamiana</i>	2012	2009	Solanales	Economic
<i>Ricinus communis</i>	2010	2009	Malpighiales	Economic
<i>Gossypium arboreum</i>	2014	2004	Malvales	Economic
<i>Nicotiana tabacum</i>	2014	2000	Solanales	Economic
<i>Boehmeria nivea</i>	2017	2013	Rosales	Economic
<i>Eucommia ulmoides</i>	2017	—	Garryales	Economic
<i>Handroanthus impetiginosus</i>	2017	—	Lamiales	Economic
<i>Populus pruinosa</i>	2017	2014	Malpighiales	Economic
<i>Corchorus olitorius</i>	2017	—	Malvales	Economic
<i>Corchorus capsularis</i>	2017	2014	Malvales	Economic
<i>Trifolium pratense</i>	2015	—	Fabales	Drink
<i>Camellia sinensis</i>	2017	2016	Ericales	Drink
<i>Humulus lupulus</i>	2014	2016	Rosales	Drink
<i>Coffea arabica</i>	2017	2013	Gentianales	Drink
<i>Coffea canephora</i>	2014	2010	Gentianales	Drink
<i>Theobroma cacao</i>	2010	2004	Malvales	Drink

immune process as GhWRKY44 target genes (Li *et al.*, 2015). Summer waterlogging can seriously affect the quality of grape fruit, and grape WRKY11 has been confirmed to improve the resistance of grapes to waterlogging. This process is through the regulation of *Atrisine 29A* and *AtRD29B*, two stress response genes (Liu *et al.*, 2011). In maize, *ZmWRKY33* can be induced in high salt and drought conditions. Transgenic experiments show that *ZmWRKY33* overexpression can activate multiple stress response genes, including *RD29A*, thereby enhancing plant tolerance to salt stress (Li *et al.*, 2013). In apple (*Malus domestica*), *MdWRKY13* overexpressing plants showed a higher susceptibility to drought, suggesting that this gene may be a negative regulator of apple stress on drought stress, and further testing suggests that this regulation may be related to the proline degradation gene *p5cs1* (Duan *et al.*, 2014).

C. WRKYs in crop domestication and breeding

TFs are suitable candidates for plant domestication and molecular breeding, because they are linked to the recognition of domestication gene to affect spatial and temporal gene expression (Swinen *et al.*, 2016). Gu *et al.* (2017) reported that a WRKY gene from soybean, *SoyWRKY15a*, was related to seed size and weight variation in wild soybean. The diverged expression levels of *SoyWRKY15a* could distinguish wild soybeans from cultivated soybeans, suggesting a critical role of WRKY genes in the domestication processes of soybean. Because of their critical roles in various signaling pathways, WRKY genes have a very promising potential in plant breeding. Silencing or knockout WRKY genes in feedback inhibition of stress signaling pathways or immune pathways are potential potent targets in molecular breeding of novel crops.

III. Applications of high throughput technologies to accelerate the exploration of crop WRKY genes

Researches based on model plants are instrumental to advance our understandings of the functional roles of the WRKY genes, but it also has limitations. For example, *Arabidopsis* and rice are not ideal study systems for the study of color, floral, nitrogen fixation, perennial, fruit development. The new and improved techniques that have been used in model plants, especially *Arabidopsis*, would significantly facilitate the studies of WRKY genes in crops.

A. Evo-devo based functional inference

Newly duplicated genes usually retain similar functions (Guth and Wegner, 2008). Therefore, phylogenetic analysis of the plant WRKY genes is an effective way to infer the functions of uncharacterized WRKY members based on their evolutionary history and sequence similarity. Such studies could be a convenient way to infer the functions of WRKY genes in crops. Figure 6 shows a phylogenetic tree constructed using WRKYs from the 23 plants listed in Table 2, in which the genes designated by the color dots present those which have been identified, and the hollow circles represent the functional-unknown genes in *Arabidopsis* and *O. sativa*. Most of the subfamily IIa genes are involved in both biotic and abiotic processes, suggesting that this subfamily is largely engaged in stress signaling and those IIa genes in crop may share similar functions. Similarly, the subfamily IIc genes are not involved in the regulation of growth and development, suggesting that this subfamily may have evolved to become stress-specific genes. Although genes in subfamily I cover the three functions with most stress-related, when further divided, the small branches of these genes have only one or two functions. Compared to other well-characterized subfamilies, the functions of most subfamily III genes are unknown.

Whole genome sequencing data make it possible for rapid prediction and retrieval of WRKY genes in a species. Although the numbers of WRKY genes and their

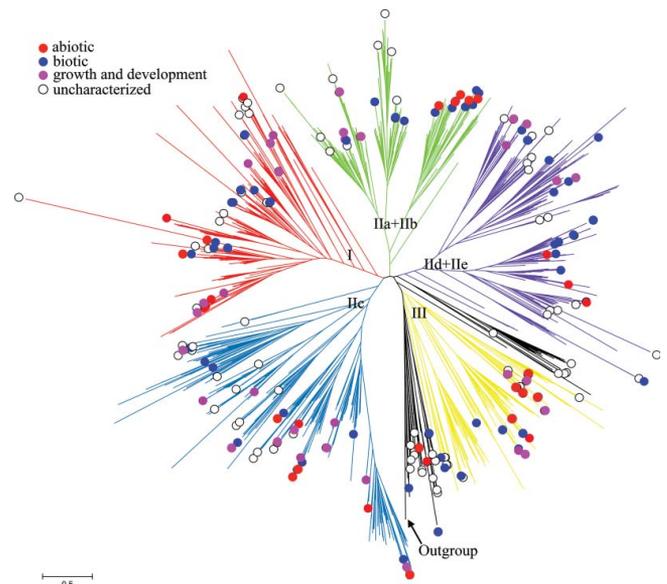


Figure 6. Functional similarity in the phylogenetic view of WRKY gene family in *Arabidopsis* and rice. The phylogenetic tree using by *Arabidopsis* and rice WRKY gene family. The genes designated by the color dots have been identified, and the hollow circles represent the function-unknown genes, which came from *Arabidopsis* and *O. sativa*.

classification in many species have been studied, comparative analysis between multiple species will be helpful to understand the evolutionary patterns of WRKY subfamilies and members. Because there are more than 100 copies in many crops, detailed structural and functional studies of every WRKY gene of each crop species is challenging and time-consuming. It is necessary to establish a public database to include all WRKY genes found in crops that have completed genome sequencing. Second, analytical tools such as sequence retrieval, gene structure and expression analysis, and gene phylogenetic tree construction should be integrated.

B. The temporal and spatial expression patterns of WRKY genes

RNA-seq is a powerful tool to study the temporal and spatial expression patterns of the whole WRKY gene family of a plant. Based on RNA-seq data of samples of mock and pathogen inoculated plants, the expression pattern of all the WRKY family members in plant immune responses have been determined (Okay *et al.*, 2014). Similar researches were conducted for WRKYs in wheat drought stress responses (Okay *et al.*, 2014; Sathapathy *et al.*, 2014). The expression atlas of WRKYs in the American cotton *G. aridum* under drought stress treatment have also been generated (Fan *et al.*, 2015). The newly developed third generation sequencing platforms, such as Pacific Biosciences and Oxford Nanopore Technologies, are able to generate full-length transcriptome, which offers an opportunity to identify the members of WRKY gene family from highly polyploid crops, such as the sugarcane (Hoang *et al.*, 2017), providing unprecedented knowledge of WRKY gene evolution.

C. Functional characterization of WRKY genes using CRISPR

Gene editing tools such as CRISPR (Clustered Regularly Interspaced Palindromic Repeats)-Cas9 (Songstad *et al.*, 2017; Zhang *et al.*, 2017) have been rapidly developed in the past years. The CRISPR/Cas9 system becomes an important tool in plant molecular biology research due to the precise editing or excision of genes. Liu *et al.* 2016b reported the introduction of a special carrier containing CRISPR/Cas9 into tobacco, which successfully knocked out a tobacco's *NbWRKY70* gene. Many WRKYs can be served as good targets because of their roles in the signaling pathways in model plants.

The CRISPR/Cas9 system could create a mutant library in a fast and convenient way, making functional genomics possible for various crops. Recently, the CRISPR/Cas9 system can create small insertions and

deletions (indels) in specific target genes and has been applied to many organisms. Relying on these convenient characters, some CRISPR/Cas9 mutant libraries have been developed for genome-wide mutation screens in cultured eukaryotic cells (Shalem *et al.*, 2015). In rice, the CRISPR/Cas9 system has been successfully applied in the construction of a genome-wide mutant library (Meng *et al.*, 2017). The future application of the CRISPR/Cas9 system in other crops, such as soybean or oilseed plant or other crops, would significantly accelerate the identification and characterization of WRKY genes and have potential use for genetic improvement.

D. Identification of WRKY target genes using ChIP-seq

ChIP-sequencing, also known as ChIP-seq, a powerful tool for studying the interaction between chromatin and DNA, is widely used to determine how TFs influence phenotype-affecting mechanisms. In *Arabidopsis*, AtWRKY18, AtWRKY33, and AtWRKY40 have been demonstrated to modulate pathogen-triggered cellular responses (Walker, 2011). Chip-seq study on *Arabidopsis* revealed that each of the three WRKY proteins bind to more than 1,000 W-box elements, which mainly locate in the 500 bp promoter region. Bioinformatics analyses of these genes identified not only the genes involved in defense signal perception and transduction, but also numerous TFs encoding ethylene response factors. The detailed protocol of WRKY-oriented Chip-seq has been developed to study its genome-wide targets (Walker, 2011). ChIP-seq has also been applied in research of the related TF genes, such as NAC and YABBY (Walker, 2011). Therefore, ChIP-seq techniques will be instrumental for global identification of WRKY targets, contributing to a better understanding of the WRKY signaling network.

E. Online data analysis and visualization

Large-scale sequencing of genomes, transcriptomes, epigenomes, and specific sequencing such as ChIP-seq, has produced a large amount of heterogeneous data. How to integrate and analyze different types of omics data becomes the focus of bioinformatics research. For a large gene family such as WRKY, a database/webserver can share and update the latest omics data, providing powerful and fast computational resources, making it possible to analyze the basic features of the WRKY gene family online. On the other hand, scientists have accumulated 1,001 *Arabidopsis* genome sequences (Weigel and Mott, 2009), 3,000 rice genome sequences (The 3,000 rice genomes project, 2014), and will sequence even more

crop genomes. A main challenge is how to compare the difference of WRKYs as fast as possible.

Although there is no WRKY-centered database at present, we propose the conceptual structure of such database. The database should (i) include as many plant genomes as possible to facilitate WRKY gene prediction, (ii) provide sequence search and comparison, (iii) display the genetic structure, (iv) compare gene expression and pathway, and (v) link to related literature.

IV. Conclusions and perspectives

Since the discovery of WRKY and W-box genes in sweet potato and parsley crops in the 1990s, WRKY research has shifted to the model plant *Arabidopsis*. Many important discoveries about the WRKY transcription factors have been reported, from gene structural evolution to functional network. More in-depth studies focusing on WRKY genes in crops are needed, considering their important economic value and nonlaboratory cultivation that faces broader stresses. Although the study of WRKY genes in crops has become more extensive in the past year, it still falls behind crop genome studies. The genome sequencing data have been rapidly accumulated in plants, particularly in crops. The studies of WRKY genes in the model plant *Arabidopsis* have generated rich functional characterization data, which will be valuable for functional prediction of their orthologous genes in crops. The application of various new and improved technologies will also greatly facilitate the functional characterization of crop WRKY genes. Therefore, we propose that future studies should focus on identification and functional analysis of WRKY genes in crops, which will have promising potential for improving yield and quality of crops and reducing pesticide use.

Conflict of interest

No conflict of interest was declared.

Author contributions

L.Z. and F.C. designed the research. F.C. and Y.H. did the data analysis and wrote the draft manuscript. F.C., Y.Q., K.W., A.V., A.M., Y.Q., H.C., Z.L., and L.Z. discussed and improved the review and wrote the final MS. All authors approved the final version of the manuscript.

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