

1 Writing the pause: epitranscriptomics in the eco-evolutionary 2 logic of dormancy

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14 Abstract

15 Dormancy has been widely recognized as an evolutionarily conserved strategy that enables cells
16 and organisms to endure environmental stress, resource scarcity, or developmental arrest.
17 While transcriptional regulation has been extensively studied in this context, increasing
18 attention is being directed toward post-transcriptional mechanisms that allow rapid and
19 energy-efficient control of gene expression. Among these, epitranscriptomic modifications,
20 chemical marks added to RNA, have emerged as dynamic and reversible regulators of mRNA
21 fate. In this perspective, it is proposed that RNA modifications can play a central role in
22 establishing and maintaining dormancy across diverse biological systems. Evidence from plant
23 seeds, microbial persisters, stem cells, and dormant cancer cells suggests that specific RNA
24 marks, such as N6-methyladenosine (m6A), influence mRNA stability, translation, and
25 localization in a context-dependent manner. It is argued that these modifications serve as a
26 molecular interface between environmental signals and cellular responses, fine-tuning the
27 transition between active and paused states. By examining dormancy through an

28 epitranscriptomic lens, a unifying model is presented in which RNA modifications contribute to
29 the evolutionary flexibility of dormant programs. This article highlights key mechanistic insights,
30 evolutionary parallels, and outstanding questions at the intersection of RNA regulation and
31 cellular dormancy.

32

33 **Keywords:**

34 Dormancy, Epitranscriptomics, RNA modifications, Cellular quiescence, Eco-evolutionary
35 adaptation

36

37 **1. Introduction**

38 Dormancy has been recognized as a widespread and evolutionarily conserved strategy that
39 enables cells, tissues, and entire organisms to withstand periods of environmental or
40 physiological stress (Miller, Brown, Enderling, Basanta, & Whelan, 2021; Webster & Lennon,
41 2025). Across the tree of life, from unicellular bacteria to multicellular plants and mammals,
42 dormancy has been employed as a temporally controlled mechanism that promotes survival
43 during unfavorable or unpredictable conditions (McDonald et al., 2024; Özgüldez & Bulut-
44 Karslioğlu, 2024; Wilsterman, Ballinger, & Williams, 2021). Rather than representing a passive
45 shutdown, dormancy has been increasingly understood as a highly regulated, energy-
46 conserving state that involves distinct molecular, metabolic, and structural features (Alekseev &
47 Vinogradova, 2019; Klupczyńska & Pawłowski, 2021; Montrose, López Cabezas, Paukštytė, &
48 Saarikangas, 2020; Pranzini, Raugei, & Taddei, 2022; Sajeev, Koornneef, & Bentsink, 2024; S.
49 Yang et al., 2025). Its prevalence across phylogenetically distant organisms has been
50 interpreted as evidence of strong selective pressure favoring phenotypic plasticity and
51 reversible growth arrest under stress (Constant, Dobson, Hahold, & Giroud, 2023; Webster &
52 Lennon, 2025; Wilsterman et al., 2021). In prokaryotes, dormancy has been observed in the
53 form of spore formation or persister cell states, where replication is halted and metabolic
54 activity is drastically reduced, allowing survival in the presence of antibiotics or immune

55 responses (McDonald et al., 2024; Walker, Sanabria, & Youk, 2024). In plants, seed dormancy
56 has evolved as a developmental pause that is tightly regulated by environmental cues such as
57 temperature, light, and moisture (Klupczyńska & Pawłowski, 2021; Sajeev et al., 2024). In
58 animals, dormancy-like states, including diapause in invertebrates and quiescence in adult stem
59 cells, have been shown to underlie developmental timing and tissue regeneration (Wilsterman
60 et al., 2021). Similarly, in oncology, a dormant phenotype has been increasingly attributed to
61 disseminated tumor cells that evade chemotherapy and remain clinically undetectable for years
62 before reactivation (S. Yang et al., 2025).

63 Despite their varied contexts, all forms of dormancy are characterized by a shift in cellular
64 priorities: from active proliferation or differentiation to survival and maintenance (Considine,
65 2024; Gomis & Gawrzak, 2017; Pshennikova & Voronina, 2022). This transition is achieved
66 through global suppression of biosynthetic processes, reduced transcriptional output, and
67 highly selective translation of stress-adaptive proteins (Amissah, Combs, & Shevtsov, 2024;
68 Buijs, Vogelzang, Nijveen, & Bentsink, 2020; Jobava et al., 2021; Koli & Shetty, 2024; Tognacca &
69 Botto, 2021). Such states are not only reversible but are often poised for rapid reactivation
70 upon re-exposure to permissive conditions (Özgüldez & Bulut-Karslioglu, 2024; Pshennikova &
71 Voronina, 2022). This reversibility has underscored the need for regulatory mechanisms that
72 can efficiently toggle gene expression without relying solely on genomic or transcriptional
73 alterations. Given the limitations of transcription-based regulation in energy-restricted
74 environments, it has been hypothesized that post-transcriptional control plays a central role in
75 dormancy (Collignon et al., 2023; Craft et al., 2020; Luján-Soto & Dinkova, 2021; Pi et al., 2022;
76 Reynolds, 2019; Tognacca & Botto, 2021). Recent studies have pointed to the significance of
77 mRNA stabilization, selective translation, and RNA-protein granule formation in sustaining the
78 dormant state (Collignon et al., 2023; Escalante & Gasch, 2021; Ignatov et al., 2015; Lorenzo-
79 Orts & Pauli, 2024). These mechanisms allow cells to preserve transcripts for future use,
80 degrade non-essential messages, or modulate translation rates in a transcript-specific manner.
81 However, the emerging field of epitranscriptomics has introduced an additional layer of
82 regulation that may operate as a rapid and reversible switch during dormancy transitions
83 (Collignon et al., 2023; Dhingra, Gupta, Gupta, Agarwal, & Katiyar-Agarwal, 2023; Shao, Wong,

84 Shen, & Yu, 2021). Thus, dormancy can be viewed not merely as a passive delay in growth, but
85 as a highly evolved, dynamically regulated, and energy-efficient survival program. Its recurrence
86 across evolutionarily distant lineages suggests the existence of conserved molecular
87 frameworks, among which RNA-based regulation is increasingly considered to be fundamental.
88 In this context, the role of RNA modifications as part of the dormancy machinery is now gaining
89 attention as a key mechanistic and evolutionary feature of this ancient adaptive state.

90

91 **2. Dormancy-regulating signaling pathways across biological kingdoms**

92 Plant dormancy, particularly in seeds and buds, is governed primarily by the abscisic acid (ABA)
93 and gibberellin (GA) signaling pathways (Tuan, Kumar, Rehal, Toora, & Ayele, 2018). ABA
94 induces and maintains dormancy under stress by promoting desiccation tolerance and
95 repressing growth-related genes (Maia, Dekkers, Dolle, Ligterink, & Hilhorst, 2014), while GA
96 promotes dormancy release and germination by activating growth-promoting gene expression
97 (Ogawa et al., 2003). Sugar signaling, mediated through the SnRK1 kinase pathway, also plays a
98 crucial role in energy sensing and metabolic adjustment during dormancy (Choudhary, Kumar,
99 Kaur, & Kaur, 2022). Additional regulation comes from auxin and cytokinin signaling, which
100 influence bud dormancy and reactivation (Matilla, 2020; Qiu et al., 2019; Schaller, Street, &
101 Kieber, 2014). Recent research has demonstrated that m⁶A RNA methylation plays a key role in
102 regulating these hormone pathways: m⁶A marks affect the stability and translation of ABA and
103 GA pathway transcripts, thereby modulating the timing and sensitivity of dormancy induction
104 and release (Amara, Shoaib, & Kang, 2022; Shen & Yu, 2025; J. Tang, Yang, Duan, & Jia, 2021;
105 Huihui Wang et al., 2025; X. Wu et al., 2024). This indicates a functional epitranscriptomic layer
106 fine-tuning the plant's dormancy transitions (Figure 1A).

107 In animals, dormancy (often termed quiescence in stem cells or latency in cancer) involves a
108 complex interplay of metabolic and stress-related pathways (Dias, Bouma, & Henning, 2021;
109 Özgüldez & Bulut-Karslioglu, 2024). The mTOR and AMPK pathways are central: mTOR
110 promotes growth and biosynthesis under favorable conditions (Alhasan et al., 2021; Bulut-
111 Karslioglu et al., 2016), while AMPK becomes activated during energy stress to conserve

112 resources and promote dormancy (Kadekar & Roy, 2019; Kamata, Yamada, & Sekijima, 2023;
113 Rider, 2015). FOXO transcription factors support dormancy through stress resistance and cell
114 cycle arrest (van der Weijden et al., 2024), while pathways like TGF- β , Notch, and Wnt/ β -
115 catenin regulate stem cell quiescence and dormancy plasticity in cancer (Abravanel et al., 2015;
116 Dias et al., 2021; R. Fan et al., 2020; Herrick, Lin, Peterson, Schnittke, & Schwob, 2017; Prunier,
117 Baker, ten Dijke, & Ritsma, 2019; van der Weijden & Bulut-Karslioglu, 2021). Increasingly,
118 evidence highlights a significant role for m⁶A RNA methylation in modulating these pathways.
119 For instance, m⁶A regulates mTOR and AMPK signaling by affecting the translation of key
120 metabolic genes (G. Li et al., 2021; J. Liu et al., 2023). FOXO mRNAs are also subject to m⁶A-
121 dependent stabilization or decay, influencing stress adaptation (X. Li et al., 2023; Lin et al.,
122 2020; Xi Liu et al., 2024). In cancer cells, m⁶A modification of Wnt pathway transcripts
123 modulates self-renewal and exit from quiescence (K. Li et al., 2023; Shouyi Zhang et al., 2023).
124 Similarly, TGF- β pathway components are regulated by m⁶A-dependent RNA decay or
125 translational control, fine-tuning cell cycle arrest and reactivation (W. Fan et al., 2024; Feng
126 Zhang et al., 2024). These recent findings suggest that epitranscriptomic mechanisms are
127 deeply embedded in the regulation of dormancy decisions in animal cells (Figure 1A).

128 Fungal dormancy is most commonly observed in spores and quiescent vegetative states,
129 regulated primarily by nutrient-responsive pathways like TOR, cAMP-PKA, and AMPK-like
130 kinases (Plank, 2022; G. Sun, Qi, & Wilson, 2019). When nutrients are scarce, TOR signaling is
131 inhibited, prompting a shift from proliferation to dormancy; cAMP-PKA signaling similarly
132 balances growth and stasis. While epigenetic regulation in fungal dormancy is well-established,
133 epitranscriptomic regulation is an emerging field. Recent studies in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*
134 have identified m⁶A modifications in transcripts related to metabolic adaptation and stress
135 resistance, though specific pathway interactions are still being uncovered (Scutenaire et al.,
136 2023; Hong Wang, Zhao, Cheng, Bi, & Zhu, 2022; Yadav & Rajasekharan, 2017). There is
137 preliminary evidence that m⁶A affects mRNAs involved in the TOR and stress response
138 pathways (Bodi, Bottley, Archer, May, & Fray, 2015; Z. Ren et al., 2022), likely influencing the
139 timing of sporulation or quiescence. However, unlike in plants and animals, these interactions
140 remain under-characterized and necessitating deeper mechanistic study.

141 Bacterial dormancy, including sporulation, persistence, and latency, is regulated by unique
142 prokaryotic pathways such as the stringent response (via (p)ppGpp), toxin-antitoxin systems,
143 and two-component regulatory systems (Abid et al., 2025; McDonald et al., 2024). These
144 networks help cells survive antibiotic stress, nutrient deprivation, and immune evasion by
145 shutting down transcription, translation, and replication. Unlike in eukaryotes,
146 epitranscriptomic regulation in bacteria is less extensively studied, though it is gaining attention
147 (Tan et al., 2024). Some studies have identified bacterial RNA modifications, including m⁶A and
148 m⁵C, in transcripts related to dormancy, persistence, and stress response (Antoine et al., 2021a;
149 Riquelme-Barrios et al., 2025; Vargas-Blanco & Shell, 2020). However, direct crosstalk between
150 specific dormancy pathways (e.g., RelA and SpoT-mediated stringent response) and RNA
151 methylation remains speculative and largely unexplored (Pletnev et al., 2020; Yu et al., 2025).
152 Current evidence suggests that while bacteria may use RNA modifications for fine-tuning gene
153 expression during dormancy, detailed molecular mechanisms are still emerging.

154

155 **3. Beyond transcription: the need for post-transcriptional control in dormancy**

156 Dormancy has traditionally been explored through the lens of transcriptional regulation, with
157 many studies focusing on stress-responsive transcription factors, chromatin remodeling, and
158 promoter-level silencing. While such mechanisms have provided foundational insights,
159 accumulating evidence suggests that transcriptional repression alone does not fully account for
160 the dynamic, flexible, and energy-efficient control required during dormancy. In many systems,
161 dormancy has been shown to persist even when transcription is globally reduced, pointing to
162 the existence of additional regulatory layers acting downstream of gene transcription. This has
163 led to increased interest in the post-transcriptional landscape, where RNA molecules and their
164 processing, stability, and translation are tightly regulated in response to dormancy-inducing
165 conditions (Collignon et al., 2023; Luján-Soto & Dinkova, 2021; Pi et al., 2022; Tognacca &
166 Botto, 2021).

167 A compelling need for post-transcriptional control in dormancy arises from the metabolic
168 constraints faced by cells in the dormant state (Storey & Storey, 2004; Tognacca & Botto, 2021).

169 Transcription is an energy-intensive process, and its global suppression under stress is both
170 adaptive and necessary (Logan, Wu, & Storey, 2019; Ramnanan, Allan, Groom, & Storey, 2009;
171 Storey & Storey, 2012). However, survival during dormancy still requires the production of
172 selective proteins involved in stress resistance, metabolic rewiring, and the maintenance of
173 cellular architecture (Bezrukov, Prados, Renzoni, & Panasenko, 2021; Lorenzo-Orts et al., 2023;
174 Sajeev, Bai, & Bentsink, 2019). To resolve this paradox, many organisms rely on stored
175 transcripts, which are preserved in a translationally silent state and selectively activated when
176 needed (Bai et al., 2020; Bazin et al., 2011; Ignatov et al., 2015; Sano, Rajjou, & North,
177 2020)(ref). This allows cells to maintain a minimal yet responsive proteome without initiating
178 new transcription. Moreover, the spatial and temporal regulation of mRNA adds another layer
179 of control that transcription cannot achieve on its own. For example, in plant seeds, bacteria
180 and certain invertebrates, mRNAs critical for germination, sporulation or developmental
181 progression are localized to specific subcellular compartments and remain untranslated until
182 favorable conditions return (Iwańska et al., 2024; Lorenzo-Orts & Pauli, 2024; Özgüldez & Bulut-
183 Karslioglu, 2024; Sano et al., 2020; Stuckas, Mende, & Hundsdoerfer, 2014; Xingzhuo Yang,
184 Zhao, Zhao, & Du, 2024). In stem cells and cancer cells, stress granules and P-bodies serve as
185 reservoirs for silenced mRNAs, whose fate is determined by post-transcriptional cues rather
186 than promoter activity (Fefilova et al., 2022; Lavut & Raveh, 2012; J. Ren, Zhang, Zong, Zhang, &
187 Zhou, 2022). These structures exemplify how dormancy involves dynamic mRNA regulation at
188 the cytoplasmic level, where storage, decay, and translation are finely tuned. Post-
189 transcriptional regulation has also been observed to interact with metabolic signaling pathways
190 known to control dormancy, such as TOR (target of rapamycin) (Alhasan et al., 2021; Bulut-
191 Karslioglu et al., 2016; Yeh & Yong, 2020) and AMPK pathways (Ramnanan, McMullen, Groom,
192 & Storey, 2010; Teraoka et al., 2006; You et al., 2022). These kinases regulate the activity of
193 translation initiation factors and RNA-binding proteins, thereby influencing which mRNAs are
194 translated under dormancy-inducing conditions. Interestingly, both of these metabolic
195 pathways are known to have extensive regulatory crosstalk with epitranscriptomic mechanisms
196 in the same cells that they control dormancy (An & Duan, 2022; T. Chen et al., 2024; G. Li et al.,
197 2021). Thus, post-transcriptional control is not an isolated layer but is functionally integrated

198 with upstream signaling and environmental sensing. Finally, other post-transcriptional
199 mechanisms playing important role in dormancy such as microRNAs (Huo, Wei, & Bradford,
200 2016; Ruksha, 2019) and alternative splicing (J. Li et al., 2021; Penfield, Josse, & Halliday, 2010)
201 are tightly regulated by epitranscriptomic mechanisms such m6A RNA modification (Erson-
202 Bensen & Begik, 2017; Mei et al., 2023; Zhu, Huo, Zhang, Shan, & Pei, 2023).

203

204 **4. The reversible nature of dormancy and RNA modifications**

205 A hallmark feature of dormancy is its reversibility, the ability of cells or organisms to return to
206 an active, proliferative, or developmental state upon receiving appropriate stimuli (Miller et al.,
207 2021; Özgüldez & Bulut-Karslioğlu, 2024; Pshennikova & Voronina, 2022). This reversibility
208 distinguishes dormancy from terminal differentiation or senescence and underpins its adaptive
209 value in fluctuating environments (Fujimaki & Yao, 2020). Mechanistically, such plasticity
210 requires the existence of regulatory systems that are dynamic, sensitive to environmental
211 changes, and energetically conservative. In recent years, RNA modifications have emerged as
212 prime candidates fulfilling these criteria, offering a versatile means of regulating gene
213 expression without permanent genomic changes.

214 The best-characterized RNA modification to date, N6-methyladenosine (m6A), has been shown
215 to influence a wide array of post-transcriptional processes, including mRNA stability, splicing,
216 nuclear export, and translation efficiency (Meyer, 2019; Meyer & Jaffrey, 2014). Importantly,
217 m6A is installed by "writer" complexes such as METTL3/METTL14, removed by "eraser"
218 enzymes like FTO and ALKBH5, and interpreted by "reader" proteins (e.g., YTH domain-
219 containing proteins) (Zaccara, Ries, & Jaffrey, 2019). This tripartite system enables dynamic and
220 reversible control over RNA fate (Fu, Dominissini, Rechavi, & He, 2014; Leighton et al., 2018;
221 Xiong, Yi, & Peng, 2017), which is particularly advantageous in dormant cells that must remain
222 in a poised but inactive state. The reversibility of RNA modifications mirrors the reversible entry
223 and exit from dormancy observed across biological contexts. For instance, in hematopoietic
224 stem cells, m6A levels are dynamically regulated during transitions between quiescent and
225 active states, with specific m6A readers promoting the translation of cell cycle regulators upon

226 activation (Chang et al., 2024; Hu Wang et al., 2018; Yao et al., 2018). Similarly, in cancer
227 biology, dormant tumor cells exhibit altered expression of m6A machinery, and changes in m6A
228 status have been linked to both entry into dormancy and metastatic reawakening (Collignon et
229 al., 2023). These findings underscore that RNA modifications act as regulatory switches, not
230 only marking transcripts for degradation or translation, but doing so in a context-sensitive and
231 reversible manner. This molecular flexibility is ideally suited to the demands of dormancy,
232 where a rapid shift in cellular state must be achieved without de novo transcription.
233 Furthermore, the reversibility of RNA modifications offers potential for fine-tuning gene
234 expression thresholds, enabling cells to "test the waters" before fully committing to
235 reactivation. It has also been proposed that external cues, such as hypoxia, nutrient availability,
236 or oxidative stress, can modulate the activity of RNA-modifying enzymes, thereby linking the
237 extracellular environment directly to RNA fate (Ahi & Singh, 2024; Cayir, Byun, & Barrow, 2020).
238 This positions epitranscriptomic machinery as a sensor–effector interface that transduces
239 environmental signals into changes in the translational landscape, an essential capability for
240 reversible dormancy (Buijs et al., 2020; Ramnanan et al., 2009). Altogether, the reversible
241 nature of both dormancy and RNA modifications points to a deep mechanistic compatibility
242 between these two phenomena. By harnessing the inherent flexibility of RNA chemical marks,
243 cells are able to execute reversible gene expression programs that underpin survival, latency,
244 and reactivation, traits that are evolutionarily selected and biologically indispensable.

245

246 **5. Mechanistic insights: epitranscriptomic marks that modulate translation,** 247 **stability, and localization**

248 RNA modifications have gained increasing recognition for their role in modulating the
249 functional fate of transcripts (Arzumanian, Dolgalev, Kurbatov, Kiseleva, & Poverennaya, 2022;
250 Moshitch-Moshkovitz, Dominissini, & Rechavi, 2022; Motorin & Helm, 2022; Zhao, Roundtree,
251 & He, 2016). These modifications, which decorate coding and non-coding RNAs, have been
252 observed to influence three major post-transcriptional processes highly relevant to dormancy:
253 mRNA stability (Basbouss-Serhal, Pateyron, Cochet, Leymarie, & Bailly, 2017; Vargas-Blanco &

254 Shell, 2020), translation efficiency (Basbouss-Serhal, Soubigou-Taconnat, Bailly, & Leymarie,
255 2015; Lorenzo-Orts & Pauli, 2024), and subcellular localization (C. L. K. Nguyen et al., 2025; Xia
256 et al., 2019). Each of these regulatory dimensions contributes to how cells manage their protein
257 output in states of low metabolic activity, making them particularly relevant to dormant
258 conditions where selective protein synthesis is required.

259 Among the various known RNA modifications, m6A is the most extensively characterized in
260 eukaryotic systems (Meyer, 2019; Meyer & Jaffrey, 2014). It has been shown to mark mRNAs
261 for differential decay rates; for instance, methylation near the 3' untranslated region can
262 facilitate transcript degradation via recruitment of YTHDF2 (Sikorski, Selberg, Lalowski,
263 Karelson, & Kankuri, 2023). In contrast, methylation in coding sequences or near the 5' UTR can
264 enhance translation through recognition by other reader proteins, including YTHDF1 and
265 YTHDC2 (Sikorski et al., 2023). This context-dependent interpretation of RNA marks allows a
266 single modification to produce opposing functional outcomes depending on its placement and
267 associated readers (Shi, Wei, & He, 2019). Such a system permits dormant cells to selectively
268 stabilize or degrade transcripts involved in stress resistance, metabolic adaptation, or
269 reactivation readiness (Collignon et al., 2023).

270 Epitranscriptomic marks also control translation efficiency (Meyer, 2019), which is especially
271 critical when dormancy is accompanied by global downregulation of protein synthesis (Buijs et
272 al., 2020; Koli & Shetty, 2024; Ramnanan et al., 2009). Through direct modification of the mRNA
273 or via reader-mediated recruitment of translation machinery, these marks can determine which
274 transcripts bypass translational repression. For example, specific m6A modifications have been
275 associated with cap-independent translation initiation, a mechanism that is favored under
276 stress or when eIF4E-mediated cap binding is inhibited (Coots et al., 2017; Meyer et al., 2015).
277 This permits dormant cells to synthesize a small number of survival-critical proteins even when
278 canonical translation is suppressed.

279 In terms of localization, modifications like m6A and pseudouridine have been found to guide
280 mRNAs into stress granules or P-bodies; cytoplasmic sites involved in mRNA storage or decay
281 (Eyler et al., 2019; Fu & Zhuang, 2020; Loedige et al., 2023; Vaidyanathan, Alsadhan, Merriman,
282 Al-Hashimi, & Herschlag, 2017; Zlotorynski, 2024). These compartments have been repeatedly

283 observed in dormant or quiescent cells across different organisms (Davies, Stankovic, Vian, &
284 Wood, 2012; Kearly, Nelson, Skiryecz, & Chodasiewicz, 2024; Koli & Shetty, 2024; Lee, Cheng,
285 Chao, & Leu, 2016; Shah et al., 2014; M. Zhang, Joyce, Sullivan, & Nussenzweig, 2013). The
286 inclusion or exclusion of mRNAs from these compartments appears to depend, in part, on their
287 modification status (Anders et al., 2018; L. Sun et al., 2023). Thus, RNA modifications act as
288 sorting signals, governing the spatial organization of the transcriptome in a way that aligns with
289 dormancy-associated translational priorities.

290 Beyond m6A, other modifications such as 5-methylcytosine (m5C) and pseudouridine (Ψ) are
291 also gaining attention for their potential roles in dormancy (Blanco et al., 2011; David et al.,
292 2017; Gkatza et al., 2019; Lorenzo-Orts & Pauli, 2024; S. Song & Wood, 2020; Soto, Ortiz,
293 Contreras, Soto-Rifo, & González, 2022). m5C has been implicated in RNA export and stability,
294 while pseudouridine is thought to influence RNA folding and translational fidelity (Wiener &
295 Schwartz, 2020). The full functional scope of these modifications in dormant states remains
296 underexplored, though early findings suggest that they contribute to the precise tuning of RNA
297 behavior required for long-term survival. Taken together, RNA modifications function not only
298 as passive chemical marks but as active regulatory signals that orchestrate the life cycle of
299 individual transcripts. Their capacity to govern stability, translation, and localization in a
300 selective manner makes them ideally suited to control gene expression during dormancy. These
301 mechanisms provide a flexible yet specific mode of regulation that does not depend on ongoing
302 transcription or permanent genetic changes, features that align closely with the core
303 requirements of the dormant state.

304

305 **6. Studies linking epitranscriptomics to dormancy in diverse organisms**

306 Across living organisms, diverse forms of dormancy, including seed and bud dormancy in plants,
307 diapause in animals, quiescence in stem cells, sporulation and cyst formation in microbes, and
308 hibernation or estivation in animals, represent distinct but functionally analogous survival
309 strategies (Özgüldez & Bulut-Karslioğlu, 2024; Webster & Lennon, 2025; Wilsterman et al.,
310 2021). Though these states differ widely in their molecular mechanisms and evolutionary

311 origins, they are unified by their role in pausing growth and conserving resources in response to
312 unfavorable conditions. Common physiological traits include metabolic downregulation,
313 increased stress tolerance, and reversible developmental arrest. Rather than reflecting a shared
314 molecular toolkit, dormancy across life forms represents a conserved strategy at the level of life
315 history and ecological function, enabling organisms to endure environmental stress and resume
316 activity when conditions improve. However, certain molecular mechanisms, such as RNA
317 chemical modifications, are emerging as key candidates that may contribute to this convergent
318 strategy across domains of life.

319 Examples from multiple biological systems have begun to demonstrate a functional intersection
320 between epitranscriptomics and dormancy. These case studies provide crucial validation of the
321 hypothesis that RNA modifications may participate in regulating entry into, maintenance of,
322 and exit from dormant states. Though much of the mechanistic detail remains under active
323 investigation, current findings across plants (Z. Li et al., 2024; J. Tang et al., 2021; J. Wang et al.,
324 2024), animals (Rehman, Varma, Gupta, & Storey, 2023; Wade, Hadj-Moussa, & Storey, 2023),
325 microbes (Antoine et al., 2021b; Kouvela, Zaravinos, & Stamatopoulou, 2021; Fan Zhang et al.,
326 2024), and cancer and stem cell biology (Blanco et al., 2011; Collignon et al., 2023; Gkatza et al.,
327 2019; Feng Zhang et al., 2024) reveal regulatory patterns that support a potentially important
328 role for epitranscriptomic control.

329 In plant biology, dormancy is most prominently observed in seeds, which must survive long
330 periods in a metabolically inactive state. Recent transcriptome-wide mapping in the plant
331 model, *Arabidopsis thaliana*, has revealed dynamic changes in m6A methylation patterns during
332 the activation of germination. Also an m6A mRNA eraser (demethylase) and a reader found to
333 be involved in the transition from dormancy to germination in this species (Z. Li et al., 2024; J.
334 Tang et al., 2021). These modifications are correlated with altered stability and translatability of
335 transcripts involved in hormone signaling, particularly abscisic acid and gibberellin pathways
336 (Amara et al., 2022; Y. Li et al., 2025; Shen & Yu, 2025; Huihui Wang et al., 2025; S. Yin et al.,
337 2022), which are known to regulate dormancy depth and release in plants (X. Wang et al., 2024;
338 Zheng et al., 2015). Moreover, a recent study has demonstrated the involvement of m6A RNA
339 modification in regulation of bud dormancy in plants (J. Wang et al., 2024). m6A marks were

340 also enriched in transcripts associated with desiccation tolerance, suggesting a potential role in
341 stress preparedness during dormancy (Han, Shoaib, Cai, & Kang, 2023; X. Wu et al., 2024).

342 In the microbial world, *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (Mtb) provides a compelling example of
343 long-term dormancy in the form of latent infection (Gengenbacher & Kaufmann, 2012). During
344 the latent phase, Mtb enters a non-replicative but metabolically active state. Although much
345 attention has been placed on transcriptional regulators such as DosR (Boon & Dick, 2012), new
346 evidence points to RNA-based mechanisms as well. Pseudouridine and m6A modifications have
347 been identified to play role in mechanisms contributing to Mtb dormancy (Ma et al., 2024;
348 Tomasi, Kimura, Rubin, & Waldor, 2023), with indications that they may influence the stability
349 of stress-response transcripts under hypoxia or nutrient starvation, conditions characteristic of
350 granulomatous dormancy.

351 In animals, metabolic rate depression (MRD) is a unifying physiological state underlying various
352 forms of dormancy, including hibernation, estivation, torpor, and diapause (Staples, 2016;
353 Storey & Storey, 2004). Characterized by a profound, reversible reduction in energy
354 consumption and biochemical activity, MRD enables animals to conserve resources, maintain
355 cellular integrity, and survive prolonged periods of environmental stress such as cold, heat, or
356 food scarcity. Despite differing triggers and durations, these dormant states converge on MRD
357 as a shared metabolic adaptation for endurance. Recent studies in animals revealed MRD
358 related mechanisms involving m6A RNA modification such as hypoxia-induced MRD condition in
359 naked mole-rats, *Heterocephalus glaber* (Ingelson-Filpula, Kadamani, Ojaghi, Pamenter, &
360 Storey, 2024), freezing and anoxia-induced brain MRD in wood frogs, *Rana sylvatica* (Wade et
361 al., 2023), and dehydration induced whole-body MRD in the African clawed frog, *Xenopus laevis*
362 (Rehman et al., 2023). Another study also revealed changes in RNA A-to-I editing as a
363 mechanism underlying cold induced MRD during hibernation in the brain of the ground squirrel
364 (Riemondy et al., 2018). During the diapause of bivoltine silkworm (*Bombyx mori*), a m6A
365 reader has been shown to play pivotal role in regulation of the mRNA stability of genes in
366 ecdysone synthesis pathway, which are required for this process (Y. Chen et al., 2022; Y. H.
367 Chen et al., 2023). Although intriguing, these examples highlight that our understanding of RNA
368 modification-mediated mechanisms in animal dormancy remains in its early stages, with much

369 still to uncover. They point to a promising frontier in organismal biology, where future research
370 may reveal how epitranscriptomic regulation shapes dormancy across diverse animal systems.

371 In hematopoietic stem cells (HSCs), quiescence serves as a protective mechanism that
372 preserves the long-term regenerative capacity of the cell population. Several studies have
373 shown that the m6A writer METTL3 is essential for HSC activation, while its depletion promotes
374 prolonged quiescence and impairs hematopoietic recovery (Hu Wang et al., 2018; Yao et al.,
375 2018; R. Yin et al., 2022; Zuo et al., 2024). Specific targets of m6A-mediated regulation include
376 mRNAs encoding cell cycle drivers and metabolic regulators. These findings suggest that RNA
377 methylation contributes to the timing and coordination of dormancy exit, enabling a precise
378 transition back to proliferation. In cancer biology, tumor cell dormancy represents a major
379 clinical challenge due to its link to therapy resistance and metastatic relapse. RNA modifications
380 have been found to be dysregulated in dormant cancer cells (Collignon et al., 2023). For
381 instance, high expression of the demethylase ALKBH5 has been correlated with increased
382 dormancy in glioblastoma stem-like cells, partly through the stabilization of transcripts
383 encoding quiescence-associated transcription factors (Q. Cui et al., 2017; Sicong Zhang et al.,
384 2017). Other cancers, including breast and melanoma, show alterations in the balance of m6A
385 writers and erasers during periods of therapeutic dormancy (Z. Yang et al., 2022), suggesting
386 that the epitranscriptome is actively remodeled to support survival without proliferation.

387 Each of these case studies points to a shared theme: the selective remodeling of RNA
388 modifications is associated with transitions into and out of dormancy. Whether through
389 controlling transcript decay in plants, translational priming in stem cells, or stress adaptation in
390 pathogens and tumor cells, epitranscriptomic mechanisms appear to serve as regulatory
391 switches that operate across a wide range of biological contexts. This broad applicability hints
392 at an evolutionarily conserved function and demonstrate the potential of RNA modifications as
393 targets for modulating dormancy-related processes.

394

395 **7. Epitranscriptomics as a fast, flexible toolkit for adaptation**

396 The persistence of dormancy across distant branches of the evolutionary tree has suggested
397 that this trait provides a substantial adaptive advantage (Constant et al., 2023). In fluctuating or
398 hostile environments, dormancy allows cells and organisms to temporarily suspend growth
399 while remaining viable (Gianinetti, 2023; Jobava et al., 2021; Măgălie, Schwartz, Lennon, &
400 Weitz, 2023; Roberts, Szejner-Sigal, & Lehmann, 2023). The regulatory systems supporting such
401 plasticity must operate efficiently under low-energy conditions, respond quickly to
402 environmental changes, and remain evolutionarily adaptable. Within this context,
403 epitranscriptomics presents itself as a regulatory system capable of fulfilling all these criteria,
404 functioning as a post-transcriptional toolkit that is both fast-acting and evolutionarily flexible
405 (Ahi & Singh, 2024; Dannfald, Favory, & Deragon, 2021; Xiangbo Yang, Patil, Joshi, Jamla, &
406 Kumar, 2022). Unlike changes at the DNA or chromatin level, RNA modifications do not require
407 permanent alterations to the genome; instead, they provide rapid and reversible control over
408 gene expression at the RNA level (Fu et al., 2014; Leighton et al., 2018; Xiong et al., 2017). This
409 form of regulation minimizes energetic cost and allows for tight, transcript-specific responses.
410 Such characteristics are advantageous for survival in variable environments, where immediate
411 and graded responses to stress or resource scarcity may determine evolutionary fitness.

412 From an evolutionary standpoint, RNA-modifying enzymes and reader proteins are conserved
413 across a wide range of organisms. For example, homologs of METTL3 and FTO, the m6A writer
414 and eraser enzymes, have been identified in plants, animals, and fungi (Kim, Hu, Kang, & Kim,
415 2024; C. Liu, Cao, Zhang, & Yin, 2022; Sibbritt, Patel, & Preiss, 2013; Wong & Eirin-Lopez, 2021).
416 This conservation indicates that RNA modifications were likely present in early eukaryotes and
417 may have been co-opted to support dormancy-related processes in different lineages. Yet,
418 despite this conservation, considerable functional diversification has occurred, allowing RNA
419 modification pathways to be tailored to specific ecological niches and developmental programs
420 (C. Liu et al., 2022; H. Sun, Li, Liu, & Yi, 2023; Wilkinson, Cui, & He, 2022). In microbial species,
421 RNA modifications may provide a means for bet-hedging, where subpopulations enter
422 dormancy even in the absence of external cues, enhancing survival against unpredictable
423 threats (Antoine et al., 2021a; Hou, Masuda, & Foster, 2020; Morawska, Hernandez-Valdes, &
424 Kuipers, 2022). In plants, seed dormancy has evolved in multiple lineages, often in response to

425 local or global climatic pressures (Jaganathan & Phartyal, 2025; Jayasuriya & Phartyal, 2024;
426 Koutouan-Kontchoi, Phartyal, Rosbakh, Kouassi, & Poschlod, 2020; Rosbakh et al., 2023). The
427 ability to adjust the sensitivity of dormancy-related transcripts through epitranscriptomic
428 mechanisms may offer a tunable system that enhances fitness across diverse environments
429 (Tognacca & Botto, 2021; Xiang et al., 2024). In higher organisms, the evolutionary adaptation
430 of epitranscriptomic systems has been associated with lifespan extension (McMahon, Forester,
431 & Buffenstein, 2021; Wagner & Schosserer, 2022), tissue regeneration (G. Cui et al., 2023;
432 Weng et al., 2018), and cancer resistance (L. Tang et al., 2024), all of which involve quiescent or
433 dormant cellular states (Heyman, Kumpf, & De Veylder, 2014; Rumman, Dhawan, & Kassem,
434 2015; Stuart & Brown, 2006). For instance, long-lived mammals exhibit distinct expression
435 patterns of RNA-modifying enzymes in tissues known to harbor dormant cells (e.g., skeletal
436 muscles, brain, hair follicles and bone marrow) (Jiapaer et al., 2022; Ogbe et al., 2024; Ozkurede
437 et al., 2019; Z. Wu et al., 2023; R. Yin et al., 2022). These patterns suggest that selection has
438 acted not only on the presence of RNA modifications but on their context-dependent
439 deployment to support long-term cellular maintenance and delayed reactivation.

440 Taken together, the flexibility of RNA modifications also makes them ideal candidates for
441 integration into complex regulatory networks. By interacting with stress pathways, metabolic
442 sensors, and signaling cascades, RNA marks can serve as modular units that plug into pre-
443 existing systems without requiring extensive genetic rewiring. This modularity may explain their
444 frequent repurposing across taxa to regulate dormancy under diverse physiological and
445 environmental conditions. Therefore, the epitranscriptome can be viewed as a core regulatory
446 infrastructure that enhances the evolutionary adaptability of dormancy. It operates with speed,
447 specificity, and minimal energetic demand, properties that are consistently favored under
448 conditions where survival depends on reversible growth arrest and precise reactivation timing.

449

450 **8. Toward a unified model: the epitranscriptomic regulation of the dormant** 451 **state**

452 As evidence accumulates from different systems, a conceptual framework has begun to emerge
453 in which the epitranscriptome is positioned as a central regulator of dormancy. In this unified
454 model, RNA modifications function as key molecular signals that mediate the transition
455 between active and dormant states; modulate transcript fate in response to environmental
456 inputs; and support reactivation when conditions improve. Within this model, the initiation of
457 dormancy involves both transcriptional and post-transcriptional changes. As transcription
458 slows, a subset of transcripts is selectively marked by modifications such as m6A, which either
459 stabilize them for later use or direct them toward silencing in granules (Alriquet et al., 2021;
460 Collignon et al., 2023; Heck & Wilusz, 2019; Loedige et al., 2023; Feng Zhang et al., 2024). These
461 decisions are governed by RNA-binding proteins that recognize specific modifications and
462 coordinate the recruitment of decay factors, translational machinery, or storage compartments
463 (Loedige et al., 2023; D. Song, Chen, Wang, Cheng, & Shyh-Chang, 2024; Zuo et al., 2024).

464 Maintenance of the dormant state is achieved through continued repression of translation,
465 paired with selective access to pre-existing transcripts that remain protected and responsive
466 (Collignon et al., 2023; K. Li et al., 2023; Lorenzo-Orts & Pauli, 2024). RNA marks serve as
467 molecular bookmarks, allowing the cell to preserve information without active transcription.
468 This preservation ensures that essential stress-response or metabolic genes can be re-engaged
469 quickly when conditions change, without the need for new RNA synthesis (Zhou et al., 2015).
470 Upon exit from dormancy, RNA modifications are reinterpreted by shifts in the expression or
471 activity of writer, eraser, or reader proteins. External signals such as nutrient availability or
472 temperature change may influence enzyme localization, substrate affinity, or cofactor
473 availability, leading to a rewiring of the RNA modification landscape (Collignon et al., 2023; K. Li
474 et al., 2023; Lorenzo-Orts & Pauli, 2024; Zhou et al., 2015). This transition permits a rapid and
475 energy-efficient ramp-up of protein synthesis that is essential for re-entering the cell cycle or
476 resuming development.

477 The unified model also accommodates context-specific variations, such as differences in which
478 transcripts are modified or how modifications are interpreted. These variations arise from
479 differences in tissue type, developmental stage, or organismal lineage but are underpinned by
480 the same general principles of reversible, mark-driven regulation. Importantly, the model

481 supports integration with other regulatory layers, including chromatin state, transcription
482 factors, and metabolic cues. By uniting disparate observations under a single framework, the
483 model reinforces the idea that epitranscriptomic regulation is not a peripheral feature of
484 dormancy but a central organizing mechanism. It explains how dormancy can be sustained
485 without genetic alterations; how cells remain responsive during inactivity; and how reactivation
486 is executed with speed and precision. This perspective not only aligns with known biological
487 data but also provides a useful guide for future investigations, enabling the formulation of
488 testable hypotheses regarding the timing, specificity, and function of RNA modifications in
489 dormant states.

490

491 **9. Open questions and future directions**

492 While significant progress has been made in identifying RNA modifications and their potential
493 roles in dormancy, many questions remain unresolved. Addressing these gaps will be essential
494 for fully understanding how the epitranscriptome contributes to the establishment,
495 maintenance, and reversal of dormancy in diverse biological systems. One of the most
496 immediate challenges is the limited resolution of current epitranscriptomic mapping
497 techniques, particularly in dormant cells, which often yield low RNA quantities. Advances in
498 single-cell and low-input RNA modification detection (Bresnahan et al., 2023; Tegowski, Prater,
499 Holley, & Meyer, 2024) are needed to determine the transcript-specific landscape of
500 modifications during dormancy transitions. Such tools would enable researchers to determine
501 whether unique epitranscriptomic signatures define dormant states or predict reactivation
502 potential. The temporal dynamics of RNA modifications during dormancy remain poorly
503 understood. It is not yet clear whether these marks are deposited before dormancy entry as a
504 preparatory measure; added during dormancy to modulate transcript fate; or rapidly rewritten
505 during reactivation. Controlled time-course studies using inducible dormancy models could
506 provide insight into the sequence and causality of these events.

507 Another open question involves the specificity of reader protein interactions. While several
508 readers of m6A and other marks have been identified, their binding preferences under

509 dormancy-inducing conditions are not well characterized. It is possible that shifts in reader
510 expression or post-translational modifications influence how RNA marks are interpreted,
511 leading to different outcomes even with identical modification patterns (T. K. H. Nguyen &
512 Kang, 2024). Furthermore, the extent to which RNA modifications interact with other novel
513 emerging mechanisms of dormancy state regulation in various organisms and cells, such as
514 small or long non-coding RNAs (Reynolds, 2019), enhancer RNAs (So et al., 2022; Tremblay et
515 al., 2024), RNA G-quadruplexes structuring (Zuurbier et al., 2024), intra-cellular phase
516 separation processes (Xin Liu, Zhu, & Zhao, 2023; Xu, Zheng, Lu, Song, & Zhang, 2021), and
517 codon usage bias (Feng, Wang, Guo, Liu, & Long, 2025; Kanduc, 2021; Small-Saunders et al.,
518 2024), is still unclear. Interestingly, all of these novel players in regulation of dormancy are
519 known to have extensive regulatory crosstalk with m6A RNA modifications (Figure 1B). The role
520 of feedback loops, where modifications influence the expression of their own modifying
521 enzymes, also deserves further study, as such loops could stabilize or destabilize dormancy
522 states at cellular level (Deritei, Rozum, Ravasz Regan, & Albert, 2019; J. Wu et al., 2023; Yeo et
523 al., 2018). Finally, the therapeutic implications of modulating RNA modifications in dormant
524 cells remain largely unexplored. In cancer, targeting the epitranscriptome could potentially
525 force dormant cells into reactivation and subsequent vulnerability to therapy (Tamamouna,
526 Pavlou, Neophytou, Papageorgis, & Costeas, 2022). In agriculture, manipulating RNA
527 modification patterns in seeds might offer strategies for improving crop resilience or
528 germination control (Lieberman-Lazarovich, Kaiserli, Bucher, & Mladenov, 2022).

529 In summary, the field stands at a pivotal point, with enough foundational evidence to justify a
530 central role for RNA modifications in dormancy, yet with ample opportunity for discovery.
531 Future work will benefit from multidisciplinary approaches that combine molecular biology,
532 systems-level analysis, and evolutionary perspectives to unravel the full significance of the
533 epitranscriptome in the logic of cellular dormancy.

534

Box 1 Key concepts referred in this article
Dormancy: A reversible, energy-conserving state in which cells or organisms halt growth and division to

survive adverse conditions.

Epitranscriptomics: The study of chemical modifications on RNA molecules that influence their function, stability, and translation without altering nucleotide sequences.

m6A (N6-methyladenosine): The most abundant internal mRNA modification in eukaryotes, regulating RNA metabolism through reader, writer, and eraser proteins.

RNA writers: Enzymes (e.g., METTL3/METTL14) that install chemical modifications onto RNA, setting the stage for downstream regulatory effects.

RNA erasers: Demethylases (e.g., FTO, ALKBH5) that remove RNA modifications, enabling reversibility and dynamic regulation.

RNA readers: Proteins that recognize specific RNA modifications and mediate effects on stability, localization, or translation.

Cellular quiescence: A non-proliferative, reversible state often observed in stem cells and associated with dormancy.

mRNA stability: The resistance of transcripts to degradation, influenced by sequence elements and post-transcriptional modifications.

Translation control: Regulation of protein synthesis from mRNA, often through modifications or binding proteins that affect ribosome recruitment.

Stress granules: Cytoplasmic aggregates of stalled translation initiation complexes that store mRNAs during stress or dormancy.

P-bodies: Cytoplasmic sites for mRNA decay and storage, often active during translational repression in dormancy.

Bet-hedging: An evolutionary strategy where phenotypic variability increases survival under fluctuating or unpredictable environments.

Cap-independent translation: A mechanism of translation initiation not requiring the 5' cap, often employed during stress or dormancy.

Phase separation: The formation of membraneless compartments (e.g., stress granules) through physicochemical interactions among proteins and RNAs.

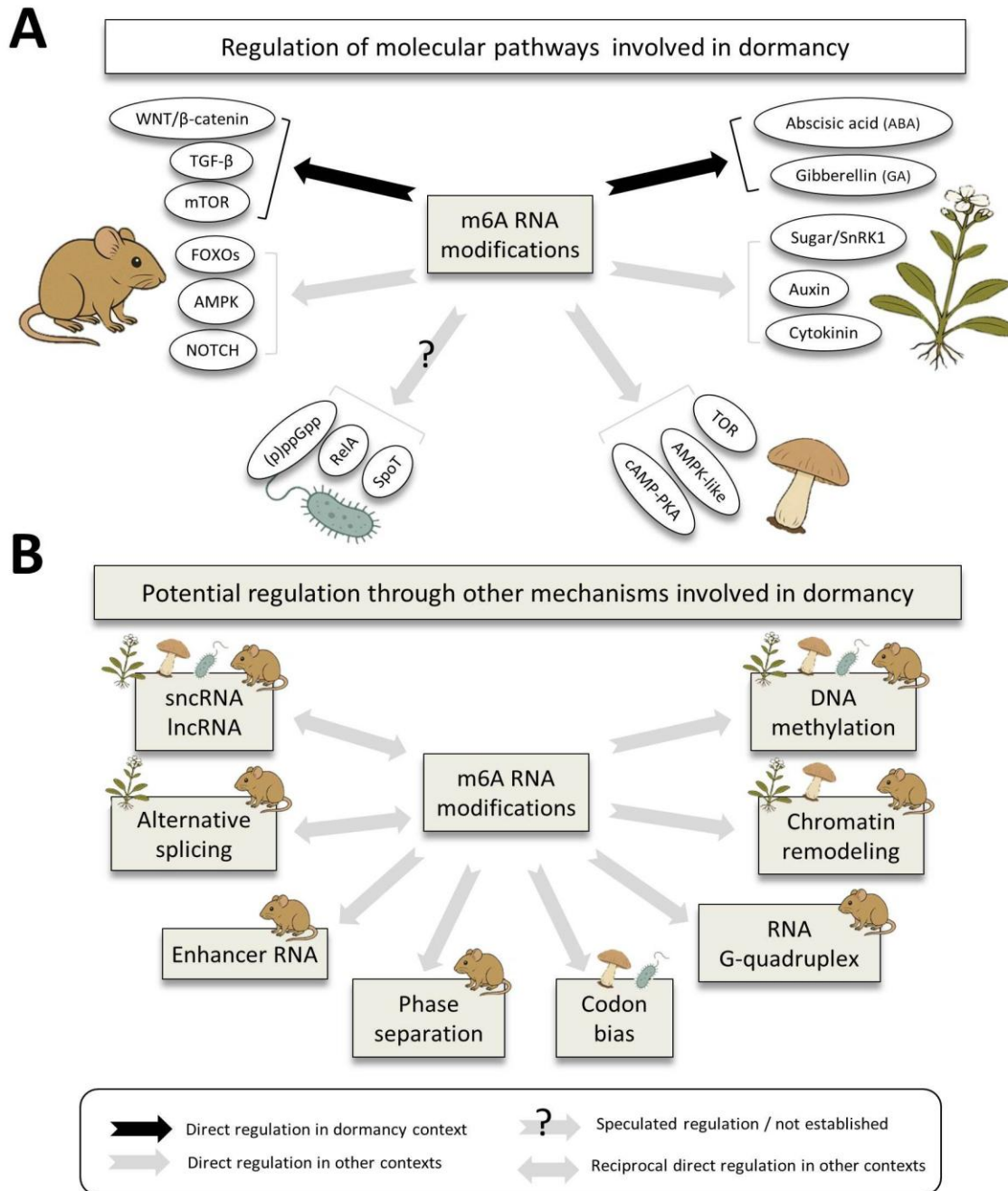
Pseudouridine (Ψ): A common RNA modification that can alter RNA structure and translation, present in tRNAs, rRNAs, and some mRNAs.

m5C (5-methylcytosine): A modification that can influence RNA export, localization, and stability, though its role in dormancy is still emerging.

Transcriptomic plasticity: The ability of a cell to rapidly alter its RNA expression and regulatory landscape in response to environmental changes.

Dormancy entry signals: Environmental or endogenous cues (e.g., hypoxia, nutrient deprivation) that initiate transition into a dormant state.

Reactivation cues: External or internal triggers that prompt exit from dormancy and resumption of cellular activity.



536

537 **Figure 1. Potential involvements of m6A RNA modification in dormancy related molecular**
 538 **mechanisms. (A)** Signaling pathways involved in different types of dormancy state across living
 539 organisms, and their regulatory connections with m6A RNA modification. **(B)** Potential
 540 regulatory effects of m6A RNA modification on dormancy via other mechanisms known to
 541 contribute to this process. The mouse, plant, fungus, and bacterium icons above each
 542 mechanism indicate the existing evidence for that mechanism’s involvement in dormancy in
 543 animals, plants, fungi, and bacteria, respectively.

544

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547

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557

558 **Authors' contributions**

559 E.P.A. conceived the study, drafted the manuscript and designed the figure.

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