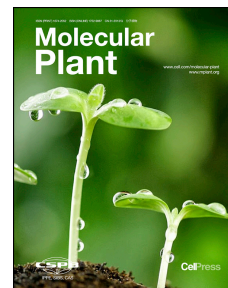


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Synergizing Genome Editing and Artificial Intelligence for Predictive Crop Design

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# 1 Synergizing Genome Editing and Artificial Intelligence for

## 2 Predictive Crop Design

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27 **Running title:** GE–AI Synergy for Crop Design

## 28 **Abstract**

29 The convergence of genome editing (GE) and artificial intelligence (AI) is shifting crop  
30 improvement from empirical optimization toward predictive design. In this Perspective, we  
31 propose that GE and AI are linked by a reciprocal innovation cycle. AI improves GE by  
32 enabling more accurate guide RNA design, editing outcome and off-target prediction, and  
33 data-driven development of next-generation editing systems. In turn, GE provides a  
34 powerful experimental platform to validate AI predictions, dissect causal genotype-to-  
35 phenotype relationships, and generate high-resolution perturbation datasets for iterative  
36 model refinement. This bidirectional interplay is beginning to accelerate the engineering of  
37 complex agronomic traits, including trait stacking, metabolic rewiring, climate resilience,  
38 stress tolerance, nutritional enhancement, and *de novo* domestication. Here, we argue that  
39 this synergy is emerging most clearly in predictive editing design and iterative model  
40 validation, although robust breeding-scale evidence remains limited. We also discuss  
41 emerging opportunities for AI-guided closed-loop editing platforms and generative  
42 biological design, together with key bottlenecks, including limited training data, biological  
43 complexity across scales, model interpretability, and heterogeneous regulatory landscapes.  
44 We argue that integrating AI with GE can establish a practical framework for predictive  
45 crop design and enable more efficient and sustainable crop engineering.

## 46 **Short summary**

47 Genome editing and artificial intelligence are jointly transforming crop improvement from  
48 empirical breeding toward predictive design. This article highlights how their integration  
49 can accelerate trait engineering, optimize breeding decisions, and support the  
50 development of resilient, high-performance crops for future agriculture.

51 **Keywords:** Genome editing; Artificial intelligence; bidirectional reinforcement; Crop  
52 improvement; crop design; foundational framework

## 53 **1. The GE–AI Co-Evolution in Crop Sciences**

54 Feeding a projected global population of 9 billion by 2050 presents an unprecedented  
55 challenge for global agriculture, one further intensified by accelerating climate volatility that  
56 threatens to diminish crop productivity and destabilize food systems (Kompas et al., 2024;  
57 Lenaerts et al., 2019). Meeting these demands sustainably will require technological  
58 breakthroughs that move beyond the inherent limitations of traditional breeding, which  
59 remains slow, resource-intensive, and constrained in its ability to predictably engineer  
60 complex, multigenic traits (Yuan et al., 2024). The advent of genome editing (GE),  
61 particularly CRISPR/Cas systems, has fundamentally transformed plant bioengineering by  
62 enabling precise, targeted genetic modifications and markedly accelerating the  
63 development of improved cultivars (Chen et al., 2019; Gaj et al., 2013; Gao, 2021). A  
64 notable illustration is the editing of promoter regions, which enables precise, quantitative  
65 modulation of gene expression without altering coding sequences, thereby improving  
66 agronomic traits while minimizing pleiotropic effects. Representative examples include  
67 fine-tuning of fruit size and plant architecture without disrupting gene function in tomato  
68 (Rodríguez-Leal et al., 2017), which is an empirical study of promoter architecture that  
69 demonstrated the principle of quantitative trait modulation through promoter engineering.  
70 Regulatory-region engineering of *IPA1* in rice to decouple the trade-off between panicle  
71 architecture and tillering (Song et al., 2022). While not AI-driven, these works provide the  
72 foundational knowledge that AI models can now leverage to predict optimal promoter  
73 targets. Unlike traditional coding-region editing, which aims to obtain qualitative traits  
74 through loss or alteration of function, promoter editing achieves fine-tuning gene  
75 expression levels by precisely regulating cis-regulatory elements (CREs). This approach  
76 generates continuous, predictable quantitative trait variations and typically does not  
77 completely disrupt gene function.

78 In parallel, AI has become central to advancing GE. Machine learning (ML)  
79 approaches now underpin key steps in the GE workflow, including optimizing guide RNA  
80 (gRNA) design, predicting editing efficiencies, and reducing off-target risks (Chuai et al.,  
81 2018; Huang et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2019). Beyond tool enhancement, AI's capacity to  
82 integrate and interpret large-scale multi-omics datasets is poised to substantially  
83 strengthen breeding pipelines and contribute to global food-security solutions (Farooq et

84 al., 2024). Importantly, the convergence of AI and GE establishes a dynamic feedback  
85 system: AI-driven predictions inform editing strategies, while GE-derived outcomes  
86 generate high-fidelity empirical data that validate, constrain, and continually improve  
87 computational models (Dixit et al., 2024; Sulis et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2023b; Zhao et al.,  
88 2025).

89 This convergence of molecular precision and computational prediction represents a  
90 transformative synergy for crop improvement (Figure 1). In this Perspective, we use “AI–  
91 GE synergy” in a narrower sense to refer to cases in which AI models contribute to the  
92 prediction, design, or optimization of editing outcomes, and genome editing in turn provides  
93 experimental data for iterative model improvement. Yet its full potential remains tempered  
94 by persistent challenges, including model brittleness (Table 1: the tendency of AI models  
95 to fail when presented with data that deviates from their training distribution), gaps in high-  
96 quality training data, and regulatory fragmentation across jurisdictions. In this perspective,  
97 we trace the development of this emerging integration, examining the bidirectional  
98 relationship between AI-driven acceleration of genome editing technologies and the use of  
99 GE as a biological validation framework for AI models (Figure 1). We first outline AI’s role  
100 as a computational engine for editor design, optimization, and performance forecasting,  
101 and then examine how GE generates empirical datasets that ground-truth and iteratively  
102 refine these models. Through selected case studies, along with an assessment of  
103 emerging opportunities and remaining obstacles, we identify future priorities for advancing  
104 equitable, scalable, and sustainable agricultural innovation. Key concepts underlying the  
105 GE-AI synergy are summarized based on our assessment of current field practices in Table  
106 1 (Glossary of Key Terms). Importantly, not all computational or high-throughput  
107 approaches associated with genome editing should be considered evidence of true GE-AI  
108 synergy. In this Perspective, we use the term more specifically to describe situations in  
109 which AI contributes to the prediction, design, or optimization of editing outcomes, and  
110 genome editing in turn generates experimental data that can iteratively refine these models.  
111 We therefore distinguish genuine AI-enabled editing frameworks from broader digital tools,  
112 rule-based design systems, or screening platforms that support genome editing workflows  
113 but do not yet constitute closed-loop AI-guided crop design. Under this definition, the

114 strongest current evidence lies in predictive editing design and model-guided optimization,  
 115 whereas many breeding-oriented applications remain emerging rather than fully  
 116 established.

117 **Table 1. Glossary of Key Terms in GE–AI Synergy for Predictive Crop Design.**

Term	Definition
<b>AI Concepts</b>	
Artificial Intelligence (AI)	Computational methods that learn from data to predict, classify, or design biological outcomes.
Machine Learning (ML)	A subset of AI that identifies patterns from data to make predictions or decisions without explicit rule-based programming.
Deep Learning	A branch of ML that uses multi-layer neural networks to learn complex patterns from large datasets.
Explainable AI (XAI)	Methods that help interpret how AI models generate predictions or decisions.
Federated Learning	A distributed learning approach in which models are trained across multiple sites without sharing raw data.
Hallucination	AI generation of plausible-looking but biologically invalid or non-functional outputs.
Model Brittleness	Reduced model reliability when applied to data that differ from the training distribution.
<b>Model Architectures</b>	
CNN / Transformer / Hybrid	Neural network designs tailored to biological sequence features. <b>CNNs</b> excel at detecting local motifs (e.g., PAM-proximal nucleotides for sgRNA efficiency); <b>Transformers</b> capture long-range dependencies (e.g., enhancer-promoter loops); <b>Hybrid models</b> (e.g., StripedHyena) balance local precision with global context.
<b>Generative Design</b>	
Diffusion Models	Generative models that create new structures by learning to reverse a noise-adding process.
<i>De Novo</i> Design	Computational creation of novel biological sequences or molecules from desired functional specifications rather than natural templates.
<b>Genome Editing and Crop Design</b>	
Genome Editing (GE)	Technologies enabling precise DNA modifications using programmable nucleases; the experimental execution layer of the GE-AI synergy.
CRISPR/Cas Systems	RNA-guided editing toolkit (Cas effector proteins + guide RNAs); AI-optimizable at both effector and targeting components.
Off-Target Effects	Unintended genomic modifications at non-target sites; AI mitigation via learning mismatch tolerance patterns and chromatin accessibility.
GE–AI Synergy (Closed-Loop)	An iterative framework in which AI-guided design is tested by genome editing and the resulting data are used to improve subsequent models.

Multi-Omics Data	Integrated molecular datasets (genome, epigenome, transcriptome, metabolome) that serve both as training inputs for AI and as validation metrics for GE outcomes.
Trait Stacking	The simultaneous introduction or optimization of multiple agronomic traits. AI optimizes genetic combinations to avoid negative epistasis and balance pleiotropic trade-offs.
<i>De Novo</i> Domestication	Rapid conversion of wild species to elite crops via editing domestication genes; AI-enabled target identification and multiplex strategy design.

## 2. AI-Assisted Computational Engine for GE

Artificial intelligence (AI), particularly its subset of machine learning (ML), is transforming genome editing by providing the computational power necessary to extract meaningful patterns from increasingly large and complex omics datasets (van Dijk et al., 2021). Modeled loosely on biological neural architectures, modern AI systems excel in predictive modeling, functional inference, and *de novo* biological design, thereby offering capabilities that markedly enhance the precision, efficiency, and scalability of genetic engineering workflows (Richards et al., 2022; Richards et al., 2019). In this section, we examine how AI functions as a computational engine for GE along two primary axes: optimizing targeting strategies to improve editing accuracy and mitigate risk, and enabling the rational design and refinement of genome-editing machinery itself.

### 2.1. AI Model Architecture Comparison and Biological Utility

The rapid development of AI has given rise to a diverse ecosystem of model architectures applied to genome engineering and functional genomics. As a powerful automatic feature extractor, CNN (see Table 1) excels at recognizing local dependency patterns and spatial hierarchical features from one-dimensional sequence data (Alipanahi et al., 2015). This makes it highly advantageous for automatically learning key sequence motifs, capturing position-specific effects (e.g., the influence of nucleotides proximal to the PAM site), and performing end-to-end efficiency prediction (e.g., sgRNA sequences) (Chuai *et al.*, 2018). Consequently, CNN became the mainstream underlying architecture in the early development of gene editing prediction tools.

Transformer, equipped with self-attention mechanisms, employs capturing long-range dependencies between any positions within a sequence (Avsec et al., 2021; Rives et al.,

141 2021). This directly addresses the complex biological characteristics of "long-distance site  
142 interactions" in biological sequences, such as enhancer-promoter interactions on the  
143 genome or tertiary structure interactions in proteins. This renders it well-suited for the  
144 prediction of off-target effects, the design of highly specific gRNAs, and the annotation of  
145 functional elements within large crop genomes. Nevertheless, these models typically  
146 require substantial computational resources and large-scale training datasets—resources  
147 that remain in short supply for non-model crop species.

148 While CNNs and Transformers offer complementary strengths, integrating both  
149 approaches enables hybrid architectures that balance local precision with global context-  
150 awareness. For instance, StripedHyena, used in the Evo model, combines the efficiency  
151 of convolutions with the context-awareness of attention mechanisms to tackle multi-scale  
152 biological problems (Nguyen *et al.*, 2024). In addition, protein language models (e.g.,  
153 ESMFold, ProGen) leverage evolutionary-scale sequence data to capture latent structural  
154 constraints, offering an alternative paradigm for *de novo* protein engineering (see Section  
155 2.2). These models preserve interpretability while sustaining high predictive performance,  
156 which is a critical equilibrium for applications in gene editing, as reliability and transparency  
157 directly impact experimental validation.

158 This architectural diversity empowers researchers to match tools to specific biological  
159 tasks: CNNs remain sufficient for high-throughput sgRNA screening, where local PAM-  
160 proximal features dominate; Transformers are preferable for promoter engineering  
161 requiring long-range chromatin loop modeling; Hybrid models and language models excel  
162 in *de novo* enzyme design demanding multi-scale constraints or evolutionary context. The  
163 choice of architecture ultimately depends on the specific task, the volume of available data,  
164 and the requirements for interpretability.

165 A coherent evaluation framework is therefore essential to fairly compare architectural  
166 strengths and weaknesses. Key benchmarks should include not only classical predictive  
167 metrics such as precision, recall, F1-score, and AUC, but also task-specific criteria  
168 including gRNA efficiency correlation with wet-lab validation, off-target prediction accuracy,  
169 inference speed on gigabase-scale genomes, and generalization performance across  
170 cultivars, tissues, and experimental conditions. Without standardized benchmarks, even

171 sophisticated architectures risk being validated in limited settings, limiting their translational  
172 value to crop breeding and genome engineering.

## 173 **2.2. Optimization and *De Novo* Editor Design**

### 174 **2.2.1. *De Novo* Design and Discovery of Novel Editing Systems**

175 A major frontier in AI-driven genome engineering is the refinement and *de novo* design  
176 (see Table 1) of genome editors, which shifts the role of AI from prediction to generative  
177 creation (Figure 1). The breakthrough in protein structure prediction, exemplified by  
178 AlphaFold, has yielded highly accurate structural models for vast numbers of proteins,  
179 including those central to genome editing systems (Abramson et al., 2024;  
180 Tunyasuvunakool et al., 2021). RoseTTAFold provides robust, open-source protein  
181 structure prediction to support the engineering and refinement of Cas nucleases and  
182 accessory proteins (Humphreys et al., 2021), while ESMFold delivers high-speed, accurate  
183 folding predictions for single sequences, making it particularly useful for iterative design  
184 workflows (Lin et al., 2023). Building on these advances, diffusion models (see Table 1)  
185 such as RFdiffusion now operate as 'structure-generation' engines capable of end-to-end  
186 *de novo* design of protein scaffolds and functional domains, thereby enabling the creation  
187 of entirely new classes of genome-editing enzymes (Watson et al., 2023).

188 These structural insights have also enabled AI-driven mining of natural diversity. Tools  
189 such as FLSHclust and CHOOSER have uncovered previously unrecognized CRISPR  
190 systems, including self-processing Cas12 variants and Cas $\lambda$  homologs, thereby extending  
191 the available genome-editing toolkit (Altae-Tran et al., 2023; Li et al., 2024). These  
192 successes underscore AI's strength in integrating structural and sequence-based  
193 information to detect distant homologies and functional relationships that traditional  
194 alignment approaches miss. AI-driven exploration of protein space is continually revealing  
195 new systems and functional components. For example, structural modeling has provided  
196 key insights into the evolutionary origins of Cas13 and has identified novel proteins suitable  
197 for next-generation base-editing systems (Huang *et al.*, 2023; Yoon et al., 2024). Notably,  
198 AI-guided mining recently identified the TranC family of RNA-guided nucleases,  
199 illuminating the evolutionary transition from transposons to Cas12-like systems and  
200 revealing how RNA modularity drives CRISPR architectural innovation (Jin et al., 2025).

201 Moving beyond natural evolution, deep learning models such as ProGen and  
202 EVOLVEpro now enable *de novo* design and creation of proteins with tailored biochemical  
203 properties, unlocking forms of genome manipulation that were previously unreachable by  
204 natural evolution alone (Jiang et al., 2024; Madani et al., 2023). This capability has already  
205 produced new CRISPR systems—including EvoCas9-1 and OpenCRISPR-1—that match  
206 or exceed the performance of their naturally occurring counterparts (Nguyen *et al.*, 2024;  
207 Ruffolo et al., 2025). By coupling structural prediction with generative modeling, AI is now  
208 enabling the creation of highly specific, multifunctional genome editors designed to meet  
209 diverse and complex engineering needs.

### 210 **2.2.2. Optimization and Refinement of Editing Tools**

211 The same AI-driven approaches extend to the enhancement of existing editing machineries.  
212 For instance, ProMEP (Huang *et al.*, 2023) was used to engineer the TnpB protein,  
213 increasing its editing efficiency threefold, while AI-guided optimization of Cre recombinase  
214 achieved a 3.5-fold boost in recombination activity (Fei et al., 2025). Specifically, the AiCE  
215 (AI-formed Constraints for Protein Engineering) framework, an approach that integrates  
216 structural and evolutionary constraints, was used to model the evolutionary trajectories of  
217 several genome-editing enzymes (Fei *et al.*, 2025). AI-driven approaches have also  
218 contributed to innovations such as traceless Re-pegRNA architectures, which enable  
219 scarless, megabase-scale genome manipulation (Sun et al., 2025). Collectively, these  
220 developments highlight how AI can refine and expand genome-editing systems, improving  
221 precision and efficiency while lowering developmental barriers and cost.

222 Complementing these advances, an expanding set of AI-enabled tools is broadening  
223 the capabilities available to genome engineers. Notably, specialized models can now  
224 generate custom-designed zinc-finger arrays, providing a programmable alternative to  
225 CRISPR-based systems and further diversifying the molecular toolkit for targeted DNA  
226 recognition (Ichikawa et al., 2023). The integration of these computational platforms is  
227 catalyzing a new phase of innovation, improving both the design and functional  
228 performance of genome-editing reagents.

### 229 **2.3. Outcome Prediction, Precision Targeting, and Risk Mitigation**

230 AI optimization of genome editing extends from enzyme engineering to the precision  
231 deployment of these tools *in planta*. Three computational capabilities are of paramount  
232 importance: predicting editing outcomes to maximize efficiency, designing optimal single-  
233 guide RNAs (sgRNAs) for precise targeting, and mitigating off-target effects to ensure  
234 specificity. Together, these functions bridge the gap between the design of molecular tools  
235 and the achievement of desired phenotypes in crop systems.

### 236 **2.3.1. AI-Guided Design of sgRNAs and Editing Outcome Prediction**

237 A more profound shift is underway from predicting the efficacy of conventional designs to  
238 the *de novo* generation of optimized sgRNAs. Tools such as sgRNA Gen employ deep  
239 generative models to create sgRNAs *de novo*, producing highly efficient sequences without  
240 relying on natural templates (Xia et al., 2025). Large language model-based methods  
241 advance this capability through deep learning of sequence–function relationships, enabling  
242 precise prediction of functional sgRNAs for various Cas9 variants while significantly  
243 improving both efficiency and specificity (Ruffolo et al., 2025). This shift from rule-based  
244 selection to *de novo* guide RNA design represents a technological leap in genome editing,  
245 substituting trial-and-error screening with predictive, data-driven workflows.

246 Besides sgRNA optimization, AI-directed approaches can also guide the engineering of  
247 the editing machinery. DeepCas9variants identifies the most effective Cas9 variant for a  
248 given genomic site, whereas the PAMmla framework links amino acid composition to PAM  
249 specificity, thereby facilitating the development of Cas9 variants with customized targeting  
250 profiles (Silverstein et al., 2025). These approaches are particularly valuable in polyploid  
251 crops with complex genomes, such as wheat and rapeseed, where targeting flexibility is  
252 essential for accessing diverse genomic loci.

253 AI-assisted prediction of editing efficiencies has evolved from simple statistical models  
254 to sophisticated deep learning frameworks. For base editing, DeepBE forecasts outcomes  
255 across diverse genomic contexts, enabling researchers to select optimal sgRNAs before  
256 experimental validation (Kim et al., 2023). As for prime editing, a modality particularly  
257 relevant for precise crop improvement, the ePRIDICT model integrates chromatin  
258 accessibility features to predict editing success, addressing the challenge that chromatin

259 states in plants vary dramatically across tissues and developmental stages (Mathis et al.,  
260 2024).

### 261 **2.3.2. Crop-oriented sgRNA Design, Editing-outcome Prediction, and Risk** 262 **Mitigation**

263 The essence of gene editing lies in precise sgRNA design, which dictates editing  
264 efficiency and specificity. While fundamental principles are similar across kingdoms, plant-  
265 specific differences in PAM sequences, GC content, and target selection necessitate  
266 tailored tools (Lei et al., 2014). More importantly, however, current plant-focused platforms  
267 do not solve a single unified prediction problem; rather, they address different layers of the  
268 editing workflow, including guide selection, editing-outcome estimation, and off-target risk  
269 assessment. This fragmentation partly explains why the field still relies on combining  
270 multiple tools rather than on an integrated predictive framework. Crop gene editing  
271 prediction has evolved through three phases: statistical modeling, deep learning adoption,  
272 and AI integration.

273 CRISPR-P, an early plant-specific tool trained on Arabidopsis and rice data, remains  
274 widely used in model plants (Lei *et al.*, 2014; Liu et al., 2017). CRISPR-GE offers a more  
275 comprehensive platform, integrating sgRNA design, primer design, off-target analysis, and  
276 mutation detection via Gradient-Boosting Regression incorporating GC content,  
277 dinucleotide frequency, and chromatin accessibility (Xie et al., 2017). In parallel, broadly  
278 adopted platforms such as CRISPOR and CHOPCHOP remained useful in plant studies  
279 because of their accessibility, transparency, and multi-model comparison functions, even  
280 though they were not developed specifically for crop systems (Concordet and Haeussler,  
281 2018; Labun et al., 2019)—CHOPCHOP for its user-friendly interface (Labun *et al.*, 2019)  
282 and CRISPOR for algorithmic transparency and multi-model evaluation (Concordet and  
283 Haeussler, 2018). Taken together, these tools illustrate the first major stage of the field:  
284 sequence-centered guide design. Their practical value is clear, but their predictive scope  
285 is often constrained by training data derived from a limited number of species or  
286 experimental contexts, which reduces transferability across diverse crop genomes.

287 CRISPR-BETS represents a step toward outcome-aware design for base editors by  
288 prioritizing guides predicted to introduce stop codons. Nevertheless, the predictive scope

289 of CRISPR - BETS is restricted by rule - based assumptions and the limited training data.  
290 (Wu et al., 2021). Tools like CCTop and Cas-Designer enable sensitive off-target scanning  
291 with customizable mismatch and PAM rules, but they primarily prioritize sequence-level  
292 specificity rather than in planta editing outcomes (Maas et al., 2015; Park et al., 2015). This  
293 reveals a second limitation in current crop editing pipelines: efficiency, product spectrum,  
294 and off-target liability are usually modeled separately, even though breeders ultimately  
295 need to optimize them jointly in a species- and locus-dependent manner.

296 The optimal strategy involves cross-utilizing multiple tools: initial screening with  
297 CRISPR-P 2.0 or CRISPR-GE, efficiency evaluation via CRISPOR or CHOPCHOP, and  
298 off-target validation with CCTop. A central challenge is that most available models remain  
299 sequence-aware but not sufficiently context-aware: they rarely incorporate chromatin state,  
300 repair pathway bias, transformation system effects, genotype dependence, or species-  
301 specific editing behavior at a scale relevant to crop improvement. Next-generation AI-  
302 driven platforms will transform this landscape by using deep learning to predict sgRNA  
303 efficiency in crop cells, integrating rule-based outcome prediction, and learning composite  
304 specificity scores, including off-target effects. More importantly, future systems will need to  
305 move beyond isolated prediction tasks toward unified models that jointly estimate editability,  
306 expected editing outcomes, and biosafety risk in realistic crop backgrounds.

307 To conduct a meaningful evaluation of these plant-specific AI tools, a structured  
308 benchmarking framework needs to be established. This framework should delineate  
309 standardized datasets that cover both model and non-model crop species, consistent  
310 performance metrics, and evaluation criteria that account for cross - species transferability,  
311 computational efficiency, and usability within practical breeding pipelines. Only via  
312 systematic and reproducible validation can plant - specific AI tools evolve from specialized  
313 software components into reliable and widely adopted instruments for precision genome  
314 editing in agricultural applications. The long-term goal is therefore not merely better sgRNA  
315 design software, but a context-aware and benchmarked predictive framework for robust  
316 genome editing across diverse crop systems.

### 317 **2.3.3. Comprehensive Prediction and Mitigation of Off-Target Effects**

318 Off-target activity (see Table 1) remains a major barrier to the reliable application of  
319 genome editing technologies in crops, particularly in polyploid species where multiple  
320 homoeologous loci must be considered simultaneously. AI now enables genome-wide  
321 assessment of both on-target and off-target effects across CRISPR/Cas systems, base  
322 editors, and prime editors. Tools such as CRISOT provide a unified framework for  
323 evaluating editing specificity by integrating RNA–DNA interaction fingerprints to predict  
324 unintended cleavage sites (Chen et al., 2023). In plant applications, these predictive  
325 capabilities are being extended to address species-specific challenges. For example, AI-  
326 driven screening of transposon elements has identified candidates suitable for hybrid  
327 systems that enable highly accurate, RNA-delivered insertion of large DNA fragments (Fei  
328 *et al.*, 2025). Together, these advances strengthen the precision and translational potential  
329 of genome editing by ensuring that engineered modifications are both efficient and specific.

330 By integrating these capacities of design, prediction, and risk mitigation, AI is  
331 transforming genome editing from a trial-and-error discipline into a predictive engineering  
332 workflow. This integration lays the groundwork for the next generation of precision editing  
333 platforms, where models trained on diverse genomic and epigenomic contexts will enable  
334 the reliable and specific modification of even the most complex crop genomes.

### 335 **3. GE as the Biological Validation Platform for AI-assisted** 336 **Predictions**

337 Despite remarkable advances, the iterative improvement of AI models is fundamentally  
338 constrained by the scarcity of high-quality biological validation data. GE could ideally  
339 function as the definitive testing ground to overcome this limitation, translating *in silico*  
340 predictions into biological reality. Each edited organism becomes an empirical benchmark,  
341 yielding quantitative fitness data, high-resolution mutation readouts, and multi-omics  
342 profiles that iteratively refine, constrain, and stress-test AI models against the inherent  
343 complexity of living systems.

#### 344 **3.1. Bridging *In Silico* and *In Planta***

##### 345 **3.1.1. Validating Multi-Gene Editing Strategies Across Plant Systems**

346 The progression from computational prediction to measurable organismal trait offers one  
347 of the clearest demonstrations of GE-AI synergy. A striking example comes from forestry,  
348 where machine learning was used to evaluate nearly 70,000 candidate editing strategies  
349 across 21 monolignol biosynthesis genes. From this expansive *in silico* screen, seven  
350 optimal multi-gene strategies were prioritized for empirical testing. The resulting CRISPR-  
351 edited trees exhibited a 35% reduction in lignin content and more than a 200% increase in  
352 both carbohydrate-to-lignin (C/L) and syringyl-to-guaiacyl (S/G) ratios, thereby validating  
353 the model's predictions and offering a blueprint for sustainable fiber production (Sulis *et al.*,  
354 2023).

355 Beyond forestry, multi-gene-editing frameworks have been extended to major crop  
356 species. For example, the development of the BREEDIT platform in maize enables rapid  
357 generation of combination mutants through a high-throughput gene-mining pipeline,  
358 thereby accelerating the identification of candidate genes and gene combinations for  
359 complex trait improvement (Lorenzo *et al.*, 2023). Similarly, whole-genome sequence  
360 analysis in tomato enabled the design of sgRNAs capable of simultaneously targeting  
361 multiple homologous genes using the CRISPyS algorithm, facilitating the functional  
362 dissection of loci underlying fruit shape, size, flavor, and disease resistance (Berman *et al.*,  
363 2025).

### 364 **3.1.2. Fine-Tuning Gene Expression for Trait Improvement**

365 One notable example study is the application of deep learning models to identify cis-  
366 regulatory elements (CREs) in crop genomes, providing a mechanistic foundation for  
367 targeted manipulation of gene expression. By incorporating the concept of “editing  
368 plasticity”, this work enabled the prediction and experimental validation of expression  
369 changes in maize, ultimately increasing  $\alpha$ -tocopherol accumulation (Qiu *et al.*, 2025). This  
370 hybrid approach combining AI and GE demonstrates a scalable path for quantitative trait  
371 optimization beyond natural allelic variation.

### 372 **3.1.3. Engineering Plant Immunity via AI-Discovered Components**

373 AI is also being used to strengthen plant immunity. For example, AI-based screening  
374 approaches have identified anti-protein-degradation peptides (APPs) capable of stabilizing  
375 the MYC2 transcription factor, a central regulator of immune responses. Experimental

376 validation of these AI-designed peptides demonstrated enhanced tolerance to citrus  
377 Huanglongbing (HLB), highlighting the efficiency of AI in uncovering actionable molecular  
378 strategies (Zhao *et al.*, 2025). In a related effort, AI-guided engineering of the selective  
379 cold shock protein receptor (SCORE) in citrus showed that its recognition spectrum could  
380 be broadened to detect cold shock proteins (CSPs) from additional pathogens, including  
381 those responsible for HLB (Ngou *et al.*, 2025). While these studies currently rely on peptide  
382 synthesis and transient assays for validation, the integration of GE to introduce these AI-  
383 optimized modifications as stable, heritable edits represents the critical next step for  
384 translating computational discoveries into crop improvement.

### 385 **3.2. Data Generation for AI Refinement**

#### 386 **3.2.1. Multi-Omics Data Fuels Iterative Model Improvement**

387 Beyond validating individual predictions, the datasets generated through GE experiments  
388 are essential for the continual improvement of AI models. High-quality multi-omics profiles  
389 spanning genomic, transcriptomic, epigenomic, and metabolomic layers from edited plants  
390 provide the ground-truth information needed to retrain and refine predictive algorithms. For  
391 example, one study integrated diverse multi-omics datasets with AI-based analysis to  
392 identify gene combinations associated with drought resistance in maize. Subsequent  
393 CRISPR/Cas9 editing confirmed the functional relevance of these targets (Xie and Zhang,  
394 2025). This establishes a virtuous cycle in which each round of genome editing not only  
395 validates AI predictions but also enriches the underlying training data, yielding  
396 progressively more accurate models (Figure 1).

#### 397 **3.2.2. GE as a Functional Testbed for AI-Predicted Structures**

398 This iterative feedback model is broadly applicable. In another study, AI-identified genes  
399 associated with high yield and disease resistance in maize were edited, producing lines  
400 with markedly improved agronomic traits (Chen *et al.*, 2025). Similarly, GE provides  
401 functional validation for *de novo* protein designs generated by AlphaFold and related  
402 platforms, offering direct empirical readouts of editing efficiency that validate structural  
403 predictions (Fei *et al.*, 2025; Huang *et al.*, 2023). Collectively, these examples illustrate  
404 how GE transforms AI from a strictly predictive framework into a dynamic learning system  
405 that evolves through continuous empirical feedback.

### 406 **3.3. A Validation Framework for GE-AI Integration**

407 A major barrier to meaningful AI–GE integration in crops is the lack of a shared  
408 validation framework. Current models are often assessed using heterogeneous datasets,  
409 species-specific assumptions, and tool-specific criteria, making it difficult to compare  
410 performance or judge biological relevance across studies. To address this gap, we propose  
411 a three-tier framework that integrates computational benchmarking, experimental  
412 validation, and iterative model refinement.

413 At the first tier, *in silico* benchmarking should evaluate models for sgRNA activity, off-  
414 target propensity, editing outcomes, and regulatory sequence design using standardized  
415 crop datasets and harmonized metrics. Beyond conventional measures such as accuracy,  
416 precision, and recall, benchmarking should also assess robustness across species,  
417 genomic contexts, and training–test splits, thereby revealing the extent to which models  
418 are transferable beyond their original datasets.

419 At the second tier, *in planta* validation should test whether predicted edits retain utility  
420 in real crop systems. This step should measure not only editing efficiency and specificity,  
421 but also molecular and phenotypic consequences in representative crop genotypes. Cross-  
422 species validation in crops such as rice, wheat, maize, and tomato is particularly important  
423 for defining the practical boundaries of model generalization.

424 At the third tier, iterative feedback should use experimental results to refine predictive  
425 models. Multi-omics data from edited plants can capture downstream regulatory and  
426 metabolic consequences that are invisible to sequence-only models, thereby enabling  
427 more context-aware prediction. Repeated cycles of prediction, editing, phenotyping, and  
428 retraining could progressively improve model reliability and biological realism.

429 Under this framework, tools such as CRISPR-P, CRISPR-GE, and DeepBE could be  
430 benchmarked using common crop-specific standards rather than isolated case studies.  
431 More broadly, such a framework would shift the field from fragmented tool evaluation  
432 toward a reproducible and crop-aware foundation for AI-guided genome editing.

## 433 **4. Emerging Spectrum of GE–AI Synergy in Action: Case**

### 434 **Studies**

435 The convergence of GE and AI is moving from a theoretical promise to a demonstrable  
436 impact across agricultural systems. We here illustrate a paradigm shift in which AI identifies  
437 optimal genetic configurations, GE implements precise edits at scale, and iterative data  
438 feedback continually sharpens predictive accuracy (Figure 2).

#### 439 **4.1. Climate Resilience and Nutritional Enhancement**

440 AI-guided GE is delivering rapid solutions for abiotic stress adaptation and nutritional  
441 fortification through precise manipulation of individual regulatory nodes. In rice and tomato,  
442 prime editing-mediated insertion of heat-shock elements (HSEs) into cell wall invertase  
443 (*CWIM*) promoters identified through expression quantitative trait locus (eQTL) modeling  
444 enhanced heat-responsive carbon allocation, mitigating yield losses by up to 41% under  
445 thermal stress (Lou et al., 2025).

446 Concurrently, AI-enabled discovery of non-coding regulatory variants is overcoming  
447 the constraints of natural genetic diversity. AI-guided interrogation of CoQ biosynthetic  
448 pathways identified *Coq1* as the determinant of side-chain length; editing this locus in rice  
449 and wheat shifted production from CoQ9 to CoQ10, enriching antioxidant capacity (Xu et  
450 al., 2025). The created allele is novel and absent from germplasm banks. Similarly,  
451 researchers used the *Basenji2* model to predict that editing a specific 5' UTR variant in  
452 *ZmVTE4* would enhance vitamin E accumulation. GE-mediated validation confirmed a  
453 substantial increase in kernel  $\alpha$ -tocopherol (Qiu et al., 2025). These cases exemplify how  
454 GE-AI synergy transcends natural allelic limitations to achieve predictable metabolic  
455 engineering.

#### 456 **4.2. Biotic Stress Resistance**

457 Biotic stress, arising from interactions with living organisms such as fungi, bacteria, viruses,  
458 nematodes, insects, and parasitic plants, represents a major constraint on plant health,  
459 productivity, and ecosystem stability.

460 A growing body of work demonstrates that genome editing can be used to identify and  
461 deploy rare resistance alleles that balance disease resistance with agronomic  
462 performance—a long-standing challenge in plant breeding. For example, large-scale  
463 screening of genome-edited wheat populations identified the *Tamlo-R32* allele, conferring  
464 complete powdery mildew resistance without yield penalties (Li et al., 2022b). AI-based

465 analysis of the *OSRBL1* promoter subsequently predicted optimal cis-regulatory  
466 modifications, enabling precise editing that generated a gain-of-function allele  
467 (*OSRBL1Δ12*) with broad-spectrum resistance to blast, bacterial blight, and false smut  
468 while maintaining yield stability (Sha et al., 2023). These successes underscore AI's  
469 capacity to navigate complex genotype-phenotype landscapes that confound conventional  
470 breeding, particularly in balancing disease resistance with agronomic performance.

471 Crucially, the convergence of AI and genome editing opens the door to genuinely  
472 synergistic workflows in which predictive models inform precise editing, followed by rapid  
473 experimental validation. As such, as closed-loop GE-AI frameworks mature, they are likely  
474 to underpin the next generation of crop improvement strategies aimed at durable, adaptive  
475 multi-pathogen resistance.

### 476 **4.3. From Trait Stacking to *De Novo* Domestication: AI as the Navigator of** 477 **Complex Genetic Landscapes**

478 The most sophisticated expression of GE-AI integration is the coordinated improvement of  
479 multiple traits, commonly referred to as trait stacking (see Table 1), and the accelerated *de*  
480 *novo* domestication (see Table 1) of wild species (Figure 2). AI, and particularly  
481 reinforcement learning frameworks, is increasingly being used to design multiplex editing  
482 strategies that balance yield, disease resistance, nutritional quality, and other agronomic  
483 traits that have historically been difficult to optimize simultaneously (Fernie and Yan, 2019;  
484 Zhang et al., 2023a).

485 Proof-of-concept studies have demonstrated rapid domestication through editing of  
486 known domestication genes, e.g., *CLV3/WUS* in tomato for fruit size (Zsögön et al., 2018)  
487 or the shattering gene in wild rice (Yu et al., 2021), achieving rapid domestication in years  
488 that took millennia of conventional breeding. These demonstrated successes rely on  
489 rational engineering of well-characterized, monogenic traits. However, the genetic  
490 architectures of modern elite crops emerge from polygenic networks involving epistatic  
491 interactions, pleiotropic trade-offs, and genotype-by-environment dynamics that transcend  
492 rational design. While domestication history is unknown and adaptive traits are dispersed  
493 across diverse germplasms, both trait stacking and *de novo* domestication of wild relatives  
494 require navigating combinatorial explosions beyond human calculation.

495 AI-driven crop genetic improvements necessitate three data pillars: (i) pan-genomic  
496 atlases to identify cryptic beneficial alleles absent from reference genomes; (ii) phenomic-  
497 resolution trait maps linking molecular variation to field performance; and (iii) regulatory  
498 network models predicting non-additive epistasis. Armed with Integrative network data,  
499 machine learning can optimize multiplex editing strategies, balancing yield, resilience, and  
500 nutritional traits, and forecasting G×E interactions in the future.

## 501 **5. Emerging Frontiers and Technical Hurdles**

### 502 **5.1. Toward Self-Driving Plant Improvement**

503 The convergence of AI and GE is opening the door to a new generation of transformative  
504 agricultural technologies (Figure 3). Among the most forward-looking developments are  
505 autonomous editing platforms that integrate AI-driven design with robotic execution to  
506 automate the entire pipeline, covering target selection, sgRNA design, vector construction,  
507 and delivery to phenotyping and data capture. However, advances remain asymmetric  
508 across this pipeline. Numerous models have been developed to identify key genes within  
509 metabolic pathways (Pei et al., 2025; Wang et al., 2025a; Zhang et al., 2025b), predict  
510 optimal protein structures and functions (Wang et al., 2025b; Yao et al., 2025), and infer  
511 transcriptional regulatory landscapes in plants, exemplified by tools such  
512 as PhytoExpr, Basenji2, and GenoRetriever (Gao et al., 2025; Qiu et al., 2025; Li et al.,  
513 2024). In parallel, a growing ecosystem of online platforms supports sgRNA design,  
514 prediction of editing outcomes, efficiency estimation, and off-target analysis across diverse  
515 genome-editing tools and plant species (Labun et al., 2019; Li et al., 2025a; Lin et al., 2021;  
516 Liu et al., 2017), substantially lowering the barrier to in silico design. In contrast, wet-lab  
517 steps, including vector assembly and genetic transformation, are still largely manual-  
518 operation-driven and lack scalable automation, underscoring the need for coordinated  
519 development of intelligent robotics and adaptive experimental agents. Encouragingly,  
520 progress in AI-enabled phenotyping, such as three-dimensional deep learning-based  
521 analysis in tomato, demonstrates that downstream automation is becoming feasible (Jeon  
522 et al., 2025).

523 Notably, the recent development of CRISPR-GPT demonstrates the feasibility of an  
524 end-to-end AI platform that integrates design, experimental guidance, and data analysis,  
525 successfully enabling even novice users to perform efficient and precise gene knockout  
526 and activation experiments (Qu et al., 2025). These advances suggest that a plant-oriented  
527 counterpart, such as a fully integrated Plant CRISPR-GPT platform, may emerge in the  
528 near future, bringing true end-to-end automation to plant genome editing. One recently  
529 developed high-throughput system, for example, can generate thousands of edited  
530 samples within a single week. The extensive, real-time datasets produced by such  
531 platforms have already enabled the training of specialized predictive models, including the  
532 Chromatin Accessibility Enabled Learning Model (CAELM), which forecasts cytosine base-  
533 editing outcomes by incorporating both sequence context and chromatin accessibility (Li  
534 et al., 2022a). Looking ahead, these autonomous frameworks point toward the emergence  
535 of self-optimizing, closed-loop “design–build–test–learn” workflows capable of  
536 continuously improving their own predictions and output (Figure 1). Such systems lay the  
537 groundwork for the development of SMART crops—plants enhanced with sensing,  
538 monitoring, and responding genetic circuits that dynamically adjust their physiology to  
539 maximize yield or stress resilience. The integration of AI-guided synthetic biology will be  
540 central to enabling these adaptive, high-performance crop systems (Zhang et al., 2025a).

## 541 **5.2. Generative AI and the Hallucination Challenge**

542 Beyond natural variations, generative AI, particularly diffusion models and protein  
543 language models, now enables the *de novo* design of genome editors and synthetic  
544 regulatory circuits. Generative AI is expanding synthetic biology toolkits, with large  
545 language models like GPT-4 extracting structured knowledge to generate datasets for  
546 predicting complex traits such as microbial fermentation yield (Xiao et al., 2023). However,  
547 achieving dynamic, functional protein designs requires next-generation tools incorporating  
548 biophysical constraints, including folding pathways and conformational dynamics  
549 (Winnifrith et al., 2024). These approaches can explore sequence contexts unreachable  
550 by natural evolution, creating novel enzymes with tailored PAM specificities or catalytic  
551 activities (Li et al., 2025b; Notin et al., 2024)—yet challenges persist in multi-component  
552 assembly design, difficult epitope targeting, and predicting protein-metabolite interactions

553 (Wang et al., 2022; Wu et al., 2025; Zambaldi et al., 2024). Future advances hinge on  
554 integrating sophisticated biophysical constraints to enable robust *in vivo* protein and  
555 regulatory circuit design.

556 However, this capability introduces the critical challenge of biological hallucination  
557 (see Table 1): structures that appear energetically stable *in silico* yet fail to fold or function  
558 *in vivo* (Jumper *et al.*, 2021). To mitigate such risks, a multi-tiered quality control strategy  
559 must be established throughout the design process. Tools like ProteinMPNN (Dauparas et  
560 al., 2022) can be used to design more stable and more readily expressed amino acid  
561 sequences for the generated structures. Functional computational validation, including  
562 flexible docking and free-energy calculations, assesses the potential for interactions with  
563 target molecules (Azoitei et al., 2011). Ultimately, high-throughput wet-lab validation,  
564 comprising expression and purification, biophysical characterization, and functional assays,  
565 serves as the gold standard, forming a rational, closed-loop screening pipeline from  
566 computation to experimentation (Wicky et al., 2022).

567 Looking ahead, developing hybrid models that incorporate physical constraints,  
568 constructing enhanced datasets that include dynamic functional information and negative  
569 feedback, and establishing an automated "design-build-test-learn" experimental loop will  
570 be key to advancing generative AI from "pattern imitation" toward "reliable biological  
571 creation".

### 572 **5.3. Protein-coding Region Prediction Challenges**

573 AI applications in plant genome editing are expanding from target identification toward  
574 optimizing the entire design chain, with promoter editing emerging as a particularly  
575 promising direction. Unlike complete gene disruption, promoter editing offers higher safety  
576 and flexibility (Rodríguez-Leal *et al.*, 2017). Deep learning models integrating chromatin  
577 accessibility and epigenomic data can efficiently predict regulatory regions, enabling  
578 optimal target identification (Avsec *et al.*, 2021).

579 However, predicting phenotypic outcomes from coding mutations—especially non-  
580 synonymous ones—remains exceptionally complex due to multiple factors: altered codon  
581 usage and translation efficiency (Buhr et al., 2016), impacts on protein structure and  
582 stability (Budisa et al., 2023; Jumper *et al.*, 2021), and context-dependent epistatic

583 interactions between mutations (Starr and Thornton, 2016). These layers collectively  
584 create significant uncertainty in the prediction of protein-coding region editing to phenotype.

585 Current editing strategies follow two complementary paths: "knowledge-driven"  
586 approaches leverage existing structural, functional, or evolutionary insights—such as  
587 applying validated animal homolog information to plant targets (Li et al., 2018)—while "AI-  
588 driven" methods use machine learning to uncover patterns from genomic and phenotypic  
589 data. The most effective strategy combines both: employing domain knowledge as  
590 constraints to guide AI exploration within biologically plausible spaces, thereby  
591 accelerating the Design-Build-Test-Learn cycle and enabling precise, predictable genome  
592 editing (Figure 1). This represents a paradigm shift from "disruptive" toward "regulatory"  
593 editing.

#### 594 **5.4. Navigating Biological Complexity and the “Black Box” Problem**

595 The intrinsic complexity of genotype-phenotype relationships poses significant challenges  
596 for crop genetics. Traditional linear models underlying GWAS fail to capture epistasis,  
597 polygenic interactions, and  $G \times E$  interactions (Wang et al., 2025c). While nonlinear deep  
598 learning architectures (CNNs, LSTMs) outperform linear models in predicting complex  
599 traits, their "black box" nature limits biological interpretability and practical breeding utility  
600 (Zhou et al., 2024). Integrating explainable AI (XAI) approaches like SHAP with frameworks  
601 such as G2PDiffusion offers a promising path to balance predictive accuracy with  
602 mechanistic insight (Figure 3). Complementary strategies, including dimensionality  
603 reduction (PCA, autoencoders), sparse modeling (LASSO, elastic net), multi-task learning,  
604 meta-learning, and causal inference, further enhance model interpretability and robustness  
605 across environments (Montesinos-López et al., 2018; Montesinos-López et al., 2021;  
606 Ogutu et al., 2011; Vettoruzzo et al., 2024).

607 Optimized data utilization through augmentation, transfer learning from model plants,  
608 active learning, and privacy-preserving federated learning helps mitigate data scarcity (Zhu  
609 et al., 2023). Nevertheless, current AI technologies only partially address high  
610 dimensionality and sparse data challenges, with robust cross-environment prediction for  
611 polygenic traits remaining a critical obstacle. Future advances will require synergistic  
612 progress in algorithmic innovation and high-quality data resource development.

## 613 **5.5. Bridging the Lab-to-Field Divide**

614 Despite computational advances, the translation from *in silico* prediction to field-stable  
615 varieties faces a "last mile" bottleneck defined by data scarcity, biological complexity, and  
616 genetic background effects.

617 A prominent disparity exists in crop improvement between the accelerated  
618 advancement of GE-AI and the protracted timeline of conventional field validation. To  
619 expedite this final validation phase, a suite of technologies is being synergistically  
620 integrated, containing speed breeding (enables 4-6 generations annually under controlled  
621 conditions), compressing generational turnover; high-throughput phenomics  
622 encompassing drone-based remote sensing, fixed sensor arrays, and automated imaging  
623 platforms, to facilitate large-scale, automated monitoring. The optimized experimental  
624 designs coupled with AI-driven models enhance the prediction of field performance from  
625 preliminary data, thereby refining resource allocation. Furthermore, cellular-level screening  
626 techniques, such as single-cell sequencing and high-content imaging, allow for the  
627 prioritization of promising gene-editing candidates prior to plant regeneration or field trials.  
628 This is achieved by developing AI models that correlate cellular phenotypes with complex  
629 agronomic traits, substantially alleviating the burden of subsequent validation. Collectively,  
630 these innovations establish a closed-loop pipeline from "design-edit" to "validate-optimize,"  
631 propelling the comprehensive acceleration of crop improvement.

### 632 **5.5.1. The Data-Complexity Conundrum**

633 For many orphan crops and complex agronomic traits, data scarcity remains a  
634 significant barrier. Breeding programs generate small, high-dimensional datasets that fail  
635 to capture the full spectrum of G × E × M (Genotype × Environment × Management)  
636 interactions, greatly increasing susceptibility to model overfitting (Han et al., 2025). While  
637 strategies such as biologically informed data augmentation, transfer learning from model  
638 plants, and federated learning (see Table 1) across institutions (Zhu *et al.*, 2023) offer  
639 partial remedies, they may also introduce new biases due to distributional shifts between  
640 species and artifacts from synthetic data. Current AI architectures remain fundamentally  
641 data-scarce, and for polygenic traits governed by epistatic networks that defy linear  
642 assumptions (Wang *et al.*, 2025c), robust cross-environment predictions remain elusive.

643 Explainable AI (XAI) (see Table 1) approaches, such as SHAP analyses, may improve  
644 interpretability (Zhou *et al.*, 2024), but they do not resolve the underlying paucity of ground-  
645 truth biological data.

### 646 **5.5.2. From Genotype to Phenotype: The Background Effect**

647 A more formidable challenge lies in variety-specific genetic backgrounds. The same  
648 edit can yield opposite phenotypes in different varieties due to epistatic interactions and  
649 chromatin context, rendering current "one-size-fits-all" prediction models brittle (Borevitz *et*  
650 *al.*, 2014; Canver *et al.*, 2018). Addressing this requires a shift toward context-aware  
651 precision editing through constructing integrated pan-genome, epigenome, and  
652 transcriptome atlases covering core germplasms (Hufford *et al.*, 2021) to decipher variety-  
653 specific regulatory networks. Building upon this, developing "context-aware" predictive  
654 models is paramount. This encompasses employing transfer learning to integrate data from  
655 disparate varieties to enhance model generalizability, and constructing deep learning  
656 models that amalgamate gene networks with whole-genome variation profiles of varieties,  
657 enabling *in silico* simulation of potential outcomes from editing perturbations across  
658 different backgrounds. Concurrently, experimental strategies require synergistic  
659 optimization, such as conducting early-stage parallel validation in multiple representative  
660 varieties, and designing gRNAs based on variety-specific sequences or employing broad-  
661 spectrum Cas variants. The envisioned "digital twin", where a variety of multi-omics profile  
662 predicts optimal editor-target combinations before experimental deployment (Varshney *et*  
663 *al.*, 2020), remains aspirational, contingent on global data-sharing frameworks.

### 664 **5.5.3. Regulatory Fragmentation Hurdle**

665 Regulatory fragmentation further complicates this situation, bridging the lab-to-field  
666 divide on this planet (Figure 3). Policies governing New Genomic Techniques (NGTs) vary  
667 widely across jurisdictions: the European Union generally classifies gene-edited crops as  
668 GMOs, the U.S. USDA exempts edits lacking foreign DNA, and countries such as  
669 Argentina and Japan follow product-based, case-by-case frameworks (Entine *et al.*, 2021;  
670 Jones *et al.*, 2022). This patchwork of regulatory positions creates significant market  
671 uncertainty, discouraging the investment required for extensive field trials and reinforcing

672 a negative feedback loop: the less regulatory clarity, the fewer field validations occur, and  
673 the sparser the data available to inform policy.

674 Collectively, these hurdles underscore that GE-AI synergy is not merely a  
675 computational problem but a systems integration challenge. Overcoming the lab-to-field  
676 gap will require not just algorithmic innovation, but coordinated advances in robotic  
677 automation, multi-omics data infrastructure, and harmonized governance frameworks.

## 678 **6. Future Priorities: Toward Equitable and Scalable Solutions**

679 Realizing the full potential of GE-AI integration will require advances that simultaneously  
680 expand computational capability and enable biological scalability (Figure 3). Key priorities  
681 are listed below.

### 682 **6.1. Next-Generation AI Architectures and Design Paradigms**

683 First, federated learning and explainable AI (XAI) must become a priority to enable  
684 collaborative modeling across proprietary germplasm collections while rendering AI  
685 decisions interpretable for regulatory trust (Table 1). Second, the shift from single-gene  
686 editing to systems-level design requires pan-genomic atlases that map epistatic  
687 interactions across diverse genetic backgrounds (Benoit et al., 2025), addressing the  
688 "variety-specific variability" challenge (Section 5.5.2). Large language models and  
689 generative AI (e.g., CRISPR-GPT) will automate experimental design, lowering technical  
690 barriers for non-specialists (Qu *et al.*, 2025). Third, chromosome-scale engineering  
691 leveraging emerging Cas-derived "molecular clamps" for megabase-level rearrangements  
692 represents the next frontier, demanding AI architectures capable of modeling three-  
693 dimensional genome architecture and predicting the phenotypic outcomes of large-scale  
694 structural variations.

### 695 **6.2. Regulatory Harmonization and Global Convergence**

696 Current regulatory fragmentation creates market uncertainty that stifles field validation.  
697 While the United States and Canada employ product-based frameworks (focusing on novel  
698 characteristics and foreign DNA absence rather than the editing process), the European  
699 Union maintains process-based GMO classification, though recent reforms signal  
700 movement toward proportionate oversight. Bridging this divide requires international

701 alignment through bodies such as FAO and OECD on risk classification standards and  
702 mutual recognition of safety data. Crucially, regulatory frameworks must evolve to evaluate  
703 AI-designed organisms, where the "black box" nature of generative models challenges  
704 traditional risk assessment protocols.

### 705 **6.3. Equitable Access and Public Trust**

706 The GE-AI pipeline's data intensity risks exacerbating the "digital divide" between well-  
707 resourced institutions and smallholder farmers, particularly in the Global South.  
708 Governance must safeguard farmer data sovereignty while ensuring open-source toolkits  
709 remain accessible. Public acceptance hinges on transparent communication and rigorous  
710 impact assessment—not merely technical safety, but socio-economic and environmental  
711 equity (Ali et al., 2024). Only through interdisciplinary collaboration spanning plant  
712 biologists, computational scientists, ethicists, and policymakers can these technologies  
713 deliver resilient, sustainable, and just agricultural innovation.

## 714 **7. Concluding Remarks**

715 The convergence of GE and AI is beginning to shift crop improvement from a largely  
716 experience-driven craft into a predictive, programmable discipline. Rather than  
717 representing a fully mature paradigm, this convergence is most convincingly emerging in  
718 predictive design, model-guided optimization, and iterative experimental validation.  
719 Together, these technologies function as a reciprocal innovation cycle: AI identifies optimal  
720 genomic targets and editing strategies at scale, while GE executes these designs with  
721 molecular precision. In favorable cases, this partnership may accelerate design–build–test  
722 cycles and facilitate the more efficient combination of complex traits such as yield, disease  
723 resistance, and nutritional quality.

724 Throughout this perspective, we have highlighted how AI can serve as a computational  
725 engine that accelerates every stage of genome editing, from *de novo* protein and editor  
726 design to guide RNA optimization, editing-outcome prediction, and off-target risk reduction.  
727 Conversely, GE provides the biological validation framework essential for grounding AI  
728 models in empirical reality. The high-resolution, multi-omics datasets generated through  
729 GE feed directly back into AI pipelines, refining predictive accuracy and enabling

730 continuous model improvement (Figure 1). This iterative synergy is becoming increasingly  
731 visible in applications related to climate and biotic stress resilience, nutritional  
732 enhancement, and *de novo* domestication, even though its broader implementation in  
733 routine crop breeding remains at an early stage (Figure 2).

734 A major next step for the field is to move from promising but fragmented tools toward  
735 benchmarked and context-aware predictive frameworks. Without harmonized reference  
736 datasets, comparable evaluation metrics, and systematic cross-species validation, it will  
737 remain difficult to distinguish robust and transferable AI-enabled editing models from study-  
738 specific performance claims. Community-endorsed standards for benchmarking and  
739 validation will therefore be essential for translating methodological advances into reliable  
740 crop genome-engineering platforms.

741 Looking ahead, the incorporation of real-time environmental sensing, autonomous  
742 editing systems, and generative biological design may further expand the development of  
743 climate-adaptive, resource-efficient crops. Yet the success of these scientific innovations  
744 will depend equally on their societal integration. Transparent and harmonized regulatory  
745 frameworks, equitable access to enabling technologies, and proactive public engagement  
746 are not optional add-ons but foundational components of responsible deployment.

747 Fully realizing the promise of GE-AI convergence will require sustained collaboration  
748 across disciplines, bringing together plant biologists, computational scientists, ethicists,  
749 social scientists, and policymakers. By aligning technological innovation with governance  
750 structures that prioritize safety, equity, and sustainability, we can harness this powerful  
751 synergy to address urgent global agricultural challenges and help secure a more resilient  
752 and food-secure future (Figure 3).

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## 757 **Author contributions**

758 C. X. conceived the overall structure, narrative of the perspective, and revised the full text  
759 and figures; Z. G. and J. Z. drafted major portions of the manuscript, designed and modified  
760 the figures, and participated in the revision of the manuscript. All authors approved the final  
761 version.

## 762 Declaration of Interests

763 The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

## 764 Declaration of Generative AI and AI-assisted technologies in 765 the writing process

766 During the preparation of this work, the authors used AI-assisted technologies for language  
767 polishing and/or schematic figure refinement. The authors carefully reviewed and edited all  
768 outputs and take full responsibility for the content of the publication.

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1102 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

1103 **Figure 1. The Closed-Loop Engine: Synergizing AI and GE for Precision Crop**  
 1104 **Breeding.**

1105 This schematic illustrates the bidirectional integration of Artificial Intelligence (AI) and  
 1106 Genome Editing (GE) through the Design-Build-Test-Learn (DBTL) framework. **The AI**  
 1107 **module** (left) comprises computational layers **AI Predict** (Generative Design and AI  
 1108 Models) and **Data Feedback** (Data integration & modeling). The **Generative Design**  
 1109 contains CRISPR evolution, sgRNA optimization for diverse editing modalities, *de novo*  
 1110 enzyme, multi-omics target prioritization (network & hub genes), regulatory element  
 1111 engineering (promoter & CRE engineering), and chromosome-scale rearrangements. The  
 1112 **AI Models** contains CNNs (applicable to sgRNA efficiency, motif detection), Transformers  
 1113 (applicable to promoter design, chromatin context), and Hybrid (applicable to enzyme  
 1114 design). The **Data integration & modeling** contain protein model refinement, multi-omics  
 1115 fusion, and G×E×M modeling. **The GE module (right)** constitutes the experimental  
 1116 execution layer: **GE Edit** (deployment of CRISPR/Cas systems and precision editing  
 1117 machinery) and **Phenotype Validate** (high-throughput phenotyping, field trials, and multi-  
 1118 omics data generation). The central DBTL engine depicts the iterative flow wherein AI-  
 1119 guided designs inform GE implementation, and empirical outcomes feedback to refine  
 1120 predictive models, creating a self-improving cycle for crop improvement.

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1124 **Figure 2. From *In Silico* Prediction to *In Planta* Validation: Case Studies of Emerging**  
 1125 **GE-AI Synergy.**

1126 This figure illustrates the representative case studies depicting the pipeline from  
 1127 computational prediction to GE experimental validation. Each column traces a distinct  
 1128 challenge domain—**Climate Resilience, Biotic Stress Resistance, Nutritional Security,**  
 1129 **and Trait Stacking & De Novo Domestication**—through three sequential stages:  
 1130 **Computational prioritization** (top), **GE verification** (middle), and **phenotypic outcome**

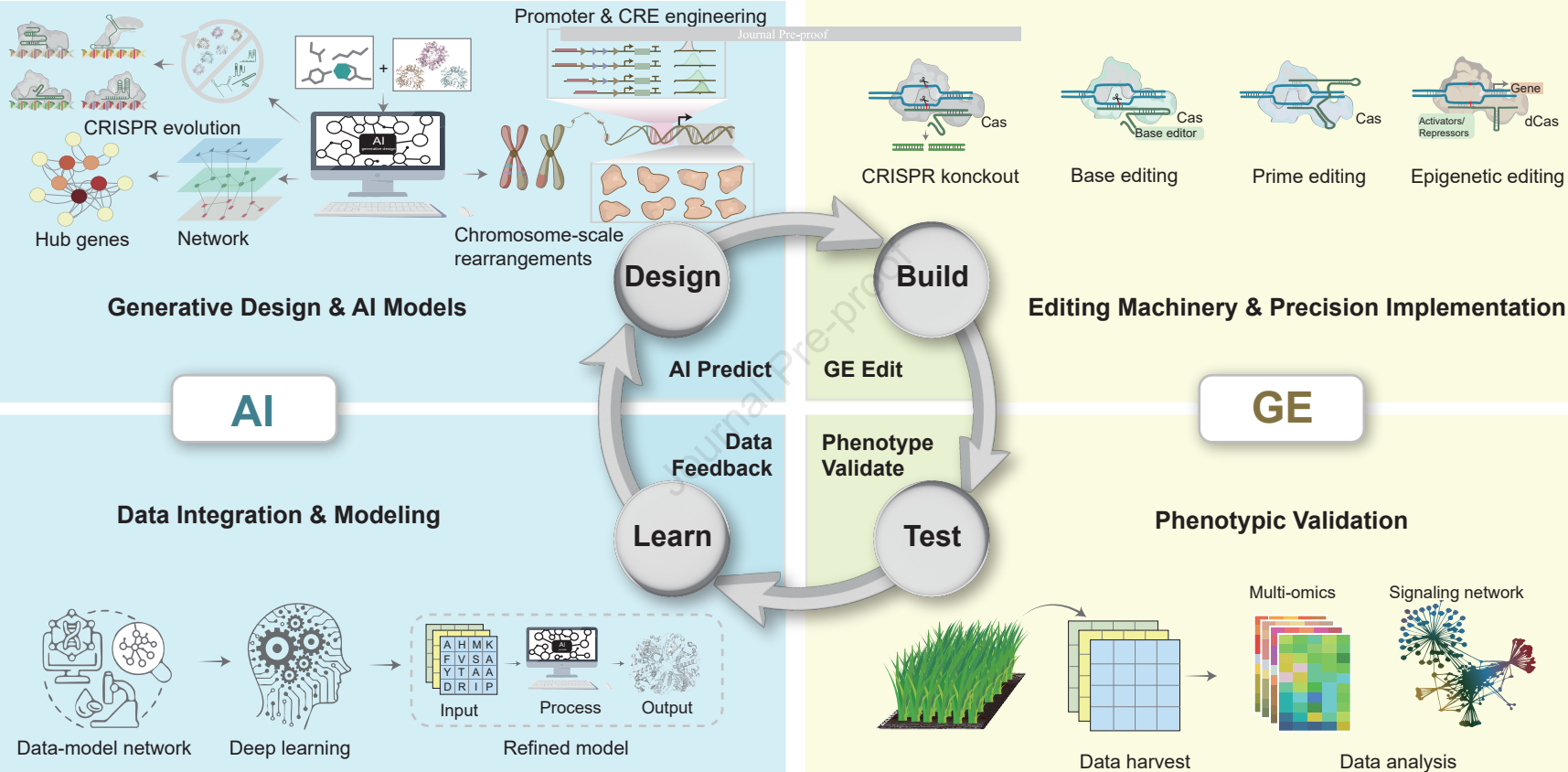
1131 (bottom). **Computational prioritization** strategies include machine learning analysis of  
1132 transcriptomic data to identify stress-tolerant transcription factors, chromatin accessibility  
1133 profiling to discover cis-regulatory elements (e.g., in *RBL1*), the *Basenji2* model to predict  
1134 non-coding enhancers (e.g., *ZmVTE4* 5'UTR), and reinforcement learning to design  
1135 multiplex editing strategies for domestication genes. **GE verification** demonstrates precise  
1136 implementation through prime editing, base editing, or multiplex CRISPR, validated under  
1137 controlled conditions or field trials. **Results (phenotypic outcome)** quantify agronomic  
1138 improvements, including enhanced survival rates under heat stress, 80% reduction in blast  
1139 severity, 150% increase in vitamin E content, and a simultaneous improvement of fruit size  
1140 and yield in domesticated lines. Vertical arrows indicate the directional flow from  
1141 computational design to biological realization.

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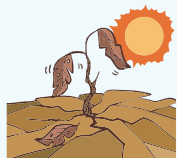
1143 **Figure 3. Navigating the Future: Opportunities, Hurdles, and Pathways for GE-AI**  
1144 **Integration.**

1145 This framework depicts the forward-looking landscape for GE-AI technologies in agriculture,  
1146 organized into four interconnected themes. **Frontiers Opportunities** (Column  
1147 1): Showcases transformative opportunities such as autonomous editing platforms,  
1148 generative biological design, and SMART crops. **Core Challenges** (Column 2): Details  
1149 major technical and translational obstacles, including data scarcity, biological complexity,  
1150 fragmented regulatory environments, and the 'Last-Mile' problem. **Pathways Forward**  
1151 (Column 3): Outlines key technological, societal integration, and methodological solutions,  
1152 ranging from advanced AI architectures to *de novo* biological system design. **Future**  
1153 **Vision** (Column 4): Converges on the overarching goal of achieving resilient, equitable,  
1154 and sustainable agriculture, exemplified by the development of SMART crops: plants  
1155 equipped with sensing, monitoring, and responding technologies. The left-to-right flow  
1156 represents the progression from identifying opportunities and constraints to developing  
1157 integrative solutions to realizing a future-ready agricultural system.

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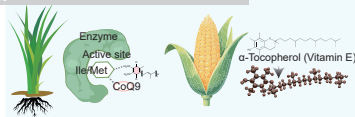
Challenge



Climate Resilience



Biotic Stress Resistance



Nutritional Security

Dicotyledons Monocotyledon



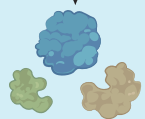
Trait Stacking &amp; De Novo Domestication

Computational Prioritization

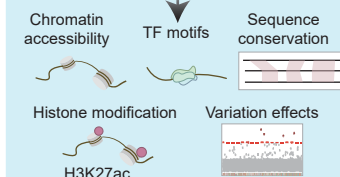


ML analyzes transcriptomic data

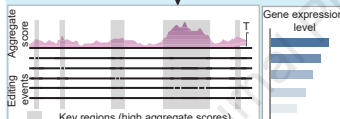
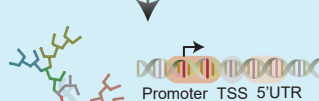
Output



Identifies key stress-tolerant TFs



Output

Identifies key CREs in *RBL1*

Basenji2-3K-NAM model

Output

Basenji2 model predicts non-coding enhancer in *ZmVTE4* 5'UTR

Reinforcement learning designs multiplex editing strategy

Output



Target multiple key domestication genes

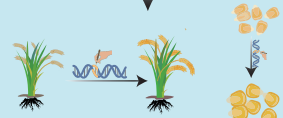
GE Verification



"Wild type" vs. "Edited line" under heat stress



"Wild type" vs. "Edited lines"

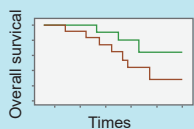


"Wild type" vs. "Edited kernels"

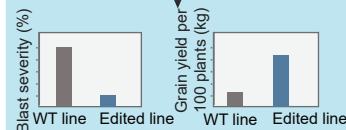


"Wild ancestor" vs. "Edited line"

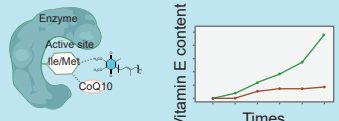
Result



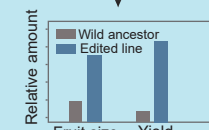
Survival rate &gt;50% ↑



Blast severity 80% ↓ Crop yield 400% ↑



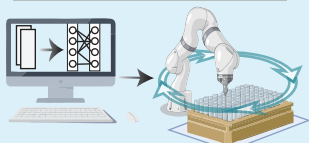
Vitamin E content 150% ↑



Fruit size 300% ↑, Yield 1000% ↑

# Frontier Opportunities

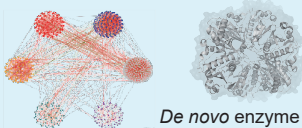
## Autonomous Editing Systems



High-throughput  
'Design-Build-Test-Learn' cycles

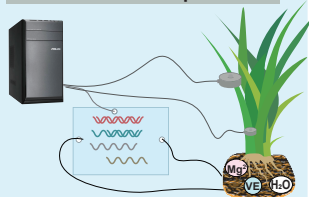
## Generative Biology

Network



*De novo* design &  
functional protein creation

## SMART Crops



Sensing, monitoring &  
responding technologies

# Core Challenges

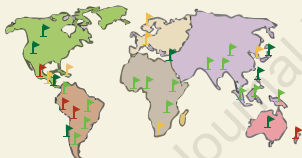
Journal Pre-proof

## Data Scarcity & Biological Complexity



Sparse data · Black-Box  
models ·  $G \times E \times M$  complexity

## Regulatory Fragmentation



Global regulatory mosaic  
& market uncertainty

## Translation Bottlenecks

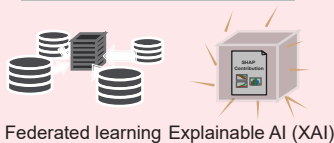


Greenhouse Field environment

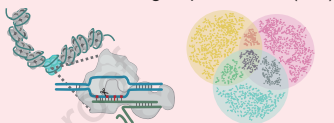
The 'Last-Mile' problem:  
lab-to-field gap

# Pathways Forward

## Technical Pathways

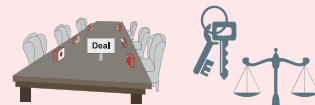


Federated learning Explainable AI (XAI)



Chromosome engineering Pangenome

## Societal Integration



Regulatory coordination Data equity



Communication Foster consensus

## De Novo Biological Design



# Future Vision

## Resilient, Equitable and Sustainable Agriculture

