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# Regulation of juvenility in Antirrhinum majus

by

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"Vi amo"

## **DECLARATION**

	The material	presented	in this	study	is my	own	work,	unless	otherwise	stated
and h	as not been sub	omitted for	a degi	ee at a	nother	univ	ersity.			

#### **SUMMARY**

Floral initiation is regulated by an elaborate network of signalling pathways, including the photoperiodic pathway. In *Arabidopsis*, flowering is promoted through this pathway by activation of *FLOWERING LOCUS T (FT)* by CONSTANS (CO) in long days. During juvenility plants are incapable of flowering in response to environmental conditions that would normally be favourable.

This project studies the molecular basis of floral incompetence during juvenility in the model annual species, *Antirrhinum majus* and the important commercial tree species, *Olea europaea*, which has an extended juvenile phase.

Photoperiod transfer experiments were used to measure the length of juvenility in plants grown in controlled environment cabinets at different Daily Light Integrals. Analysis of Antirrhinum FT (AmFT) expression during development showed that AmFT expression is minimal during juvenility and increases in all leaves following the end of the juvenile phase. The photoperiodic pathway was shown to be active during juvenility, suggesting that an additional mechanism involving the repression of FT could be involved in the regulation of juvenility.

Full length *Antirrhinum* and Olive cDNAs representing homologues of the *Arabidopsis FT* repressors *TEMPRANILLO 1 (AtTEM1)* and *AtTEM2*, which act antagonistically with CO, were isolated. Molecular and phylogenetic analyses revealed high amino acid identities between *Antirrhinum* (AmTEM) and Olive (OeTEM) TEM-like proteins and AtTEM1 & 2. AmTEM and OeTEM proteins contain AP2 and B3 domains, consistent with AtTEM1 and AtTEM2, and can be classified as Class I members of the RAV sub-family of B3 transcription factors.

AmTEM and OeTEM expression levels were shown to be higher during juvenility suggesting a potential role for TEM in controlling juvenility. A reciprocal relationship between expression levels of AmTEM/AtTEM1 and AmFT/AtFT was revealed in both Antirrhinum and Arabidopsis. Analysis of expression across development showed that AmTEM/AtTEM1 levels decline at around the time juvenility ends corresponding to when AmFT/AtFT levels start to increase.

Arabidopsis tem1 mutants over-expressing AmTEM, OeTEM or AtTEM1 exhibited delayed flowering compared to the tem1 mutant, which demonstrated their role in regulating flowering time. Over-expression of AmTEM was shown to increase the length of the juvenile phase, delay the induction of AtCO and AtFT expression and reduce the overall levels of AtFT expression. Conversely, the juvenile phases of tem1 single and tem1/2 double mutants were shown to be shorter than in wild-type plants, with the induction of AtCO and AtFT expression occurring earlier.

These findings are consistent with a role for TEM in regulating juvenility, which occurs through the down-regulation of FT and CO, and results in the inability to proceed to reproductive growth.

#### **ABBREVIATIONS**

% per cent < less than equals > greater than  $^{\circ}C$ degrees Celsius

ABI3/VPI ABSCISIC ACID INSENSITIVE 3/VP1

AGL42 AGAMOUS-LIKE 42 AGO1 ARGONAUTE1

AmFTAntirrhinum majus FT AmTEMAntirrhinum majus TEM

AP1 APETALA1 AP2APETALA2

ARFAUXIN RESPONSE FACTOR **AtCO** Arabidopsis thaliana CO AtFTArabidopsis thaliana FT Arabidopsis thaliana TEM1 AtTEM1 AtTEM2 Arabidopsis thaliana TEM2 AVPadult vegetative phase

base pairs bp bri1 BR-insensitive BR brassinosteroid

CCA1 CIRCADIAN CLOCK ASSOCIATED 1

CDF1 CYCLING DOF FACTOR 1

CEN **CENTRORADIALIS** 

CENTRORADIALIS, TERMINAL FLOWER, SELF PRUNING **CETS** 

centimetre cm

CNR National Research Council

CO**CONSTANS** Col-0 Columbia

**CRY** 

CONSTITUTIVE PHOTOMORPHOGENIC 1 COP1

**CRA** Agricultural Research Council cryptochrome

DA Dolce Agogia det2 BR-deficient DLI daily light integral DNA deoxyribonucleic acid **DNPs** day-neutral plants

dNTP deoxyribonucleotide triphosphate

dsRNA double-stranded RNA

EARLY BOLTING IN SHORT DAYS EBS **EDTA** ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid

EF1α ELONGATION FACTOR 1 ALPHA

FD FLOWERING LOCUS D

FKF1 FLAVIN-BINDING, KELCH REPEATED

FLC FLOWERING LOCUS FLK FLOWERING LOCUS K

FLO FLORICAULA FRI FRIGIDA

FT FLOWERING LOCUS T

FUL FRUITFUL

g grams

g relative centrifuge force

GA gibberellins
GENT gentamicin
GI GIGANTEA

HD1 HEADING-DATE1 HD3a HEADING-DATE 3a

HSI HIGH-LEVEL EXPRESSION OF SUGAR-INDUCIBLE GENE

HST HASTY

HYL1 HYPONASTIC LEAVES1IGA Institute of Applied GenomicsIPTG isopropyl/-D- thiogalactoside

JAT JUVENILE-TO-ADULT-TRANSITION

JP juvenile phase

LAV LEAFY COTYLEDON2/ABSCISIC ACID INSENSITIVE3 and

LAV HSI/VAL
LB Luria-Bertani
LD long days
LDPs long-day plants

Le Leccino

LEAFY LEAFY

LHY LATE ELONGATE HYPOCOTIL

M Molar

MgSO4 magnesium sulphate

min minutes

miR156 microRNA156 miR159 microRNA159 miR172 microRNA172 miRNAs microRNA mM milimolar

NaClsodium chlorideNaOHsodium hydroxideOeTEMOlea europaea TEMOLEAOlea europaea Advances

PEBP phosphatidylethanolamine binding protein

PHY phytochrome

pri-miRNAs primary transcripts microRNA

PRR PSEUDO RESPONSE REGULATORS
RACE Rapid Amplification of cDNA Ends

RAV RELATED TO ABI3/VP1

REF6 RELATIVE OF EARLY FLOWERING 6

REM REPRODUCTIVE MERISTEM

RH relative humidity

RIF rifampicin
RNA ribonucleic acid
RNAi RNA interference
RP reproductive phase
rpm revolutions per minute

s seconds

SAM shoot apical meristem

SD short days

SDPs short-day plants

SDS sodium dodecyl sulphate

SE SERRATE SEP3 SEPALLATA3

SFT SINGLE FLOWER TRUSS

SMZ SCHLAFMÜTZE SNZ SCHNARCHZAPFEN

SOC1 SUPPRESSOR OF OVEREXPRESSION OF CO1

SP SELF PRUNING
SPEC spectinomycin

SPL SQUAMOSA PROMOTER BINDING PROTEIN LIKE

SQN SQUINT

TEM1 TEMPRANILLO 1
TEM2 TEMPRANILLO 2
TFL1 TERMINAL FLOWER 1
TFL2 TERMINAL FLOWER 2

TOC1 TIMING OF CAB EXPRESSION 1

TOE1 TARGET OF EATTSF TWIN SISTER OF FTv/v volume by volume

VIN VERNALIZATION INSENSITIVE

VP1 VIVIPAROUSw/v weight by volume

WT wild-type

X-Gal 5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl-beta-D-galactopyranoside

ZIP ZIPPY

ZT zeitgeber time ZTL ZEITLUPE

μg	micrograms
μl	microlitres
$\mu M$	micromolar

#### CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

Several developmental processes in plants are coordinated by seasonal changes. One of the most important of these is the transition from vegetative growth to flowering. Many angiosperms flower at about the same time every year, despite the fact that they may have started growing at different times. In seasonal regulation of flowering, the shift to a reproductive phase of growth occurs as a response to changes in day-length and temperature. Plants are not sensitive to inductive conditions throughout the course of their post-embryonic development. This study aims to investigate why, identifying genes involved in the shift between vegetative and reproductive phases, that could be used for developing strategies for modify flowering behaviour. This chapter will introduce the necessary background material and review current literature on plant juvenility and flowering pathways, beginning with the three phases of development that plants go through after germination.

## 1.1 Post-embryonic phases

During post-embryonic development, the shoot meristem passes through three stages: the juvenile phase (JP), in which flowering is absent even when the plant is exposed to inductive conditions, the adult vegetative phase (AVP), in which reproductive competency is established and the plant can respond to inductive conditions, and finally the adult reproductive phase (RP), where the plant is committed to flower even in non-inductive conditions (Poethig, 2003). The transition from one phase to another is called phase change.

The ability to predict crop development and define the length of each phase is important from both economic and agronomic points of view. Decisions related to the timing of pesticide application or synchronizing flowering of cross-pollinated crops for hybrid seed production are highly influenced by a plant's phase of development (Ritchie, 1993). Also, in woody plants, where the juvenile phase can last many years, this has great economic impact (Hackett, 1985; Meilan, 1997; Robinson and Wareing, 1969). Fruit tree breeders have to wait until the end of juvenility to evaluate fruit quality (Hatsuda *et al.*, 2011; Suarez *et al.*, 2011).

## 1.2 Juvenile phase

Juvenility has been mostly studied in herbaceous species where it can last for a relatively short time. However, JP length can vary enormously from plant to plant and it can be dramatically extended in woody species, varying from 1 to 20 or more years (Corbesier and Coupland, 2005; Flachowsky *et al.*, 2009; Hackett, 1985; Meilan, 1997; Moreno-Alias *et al.*, 2010; Robinson and Wareing, 1969). In commercial horticulture, beeing able to determine the length and the timing of the JP is important for meeting market demand. The economic importance of some trees makes it important to have a deeper understanding of the processes involved in the switch from the JP to the AVP (Poethig, 2010; Tan and Swain, 2006). Understanding developmental pathways in woody plants could enable manipulation of the length of juvenility to prevent flowering in trees where wood quality can be

affected by this process; on the other hand being able to shorten juvenility could make the breeding processes and the test of desirable traits easier (Brunner and Nilsson, 2004; Hanke *et al.*, 2007). Studies in *Arabidopsis* have provided information on the main molecular mechanisms involved in vegetative phase change (Poethig, 2010). The JP, measured as difference in trichome distribution on leaves between the JP and the AVP, can be influenced by a wide range of factors like photoperiod, temperature, irradiance and plant hormones (Araki, 2001).

A large number of physiological markers that characterise juvenility have been identified in different species. These features, which include leaf characteristics, leaf arrangement, internode elongation, crown architecture, and rooting ability are not totally reliable, since they are usually species-specific, differ between herbaceous and woody plants and are affected by different factors such as water availability, temperature, photoperiod, light quality and intensity (Brunner and Nilsson, 2004; Kerstetter and Poethig, 1998; Poethig, 2003). In Arabidopsis, the main physiological differences between JP and AVP are in leaf morphology. Adult leaves show serrations on their margins, have a more complex venation and have trichomes on the leaf adaxial and abaxial surfaces which are absent on juvenile leaves (Araki, 2001; Chien and Sussex, 1996; Telfer et al., 1997). In olive plants (Olea europaea L.), leaf shape and size and internode length can be used as markers to distinguish juvenile from mature plants, but these features may vary between cultivars or due to solar exposure (Garcia et al., 2000; Gucci and Cantini, 2000). Floral incompetence is the most robust physiological marker for the end of juvenility (Poethig, 2003).

A number of biochemical changes are associated with the transition between the JP and AVP. The level of various phytohormones such as auxin, gibberellins, cytokinin, ethylene, abscisic acid, and brassinosteroids change throughout plant development but they also respond to external stimuli like light and temperature (Chory and Li, 1997).

The molecular mechanisms behind the change between juvenile-to-adult phases are not very clear at present; epigenetic mechanisms like chromatinmediated control of gene expression could be a key factor involved (Brunner and Nilsson, 2004; Sung, et al., 2003). In Arabidopsis, genes like HASTY (HST), SERRATE (SE), ZIPPY (ZIP) and SQUINT (SQN) are responsible for negatively regulating the transition from vegetative to adult phases (Berardini et al., 2001; Clarke et al., 1999; Hunter et al., 2003; Telfer and Poethig, 1998). The hst, se, zip and sqn mutants exhibit adult traits such as accelerated production of abaxial trichomes, complex venation systems and greater serration earlier than wild-type (WT) plants (Berardini et al., 2001; Clarke et al., 1999; Hunter et al., 2003; Telfer and Poethig, 1998). Studies have revealed a link between vegetative phase change genes and RNA silencing pathways (Baurle and Dean, 2006). SE is required for the production of a microRNA (miRNAs) starting from longer primary transcripts (premiRNAs) and in se mutants the reduction of mature miRNAs is responsible for a wide range of morphological imperfections (Dong et al., 2008; Lobbes et al., 2006; Yang et al., 2006). miRNAs are non-coding 21–23 nucleotide-long RNAs, which take part in post-transcriptional regulation of protein through the RNA interference pathway (Bartel and Bartel, 2003). Studies of sqn mutants showed that SQN is not required for modulating microRNA156 (miR156) levels but it is responsible for miR156 activity, probably by promoting the activity of ARGONAUTE1 (AGO1), a protein responsible for miRNA-directed post-transcriptional silencing in Arabidopsis (Smith et al., 2009). Recently, HYPONASTIC LEAVES1 (HYL1), a

nuclear double-stranded RNA (dsRNA)-binding protein required for normal leaf development in *Arabidopsis*, has been shown to be responsible for the accumulation of miR156 in primary leaves and *hyl1* mutants exhibit adult traits in the leaves and vegetative-to-adult transition earlier compared with the WT plants (Li *et al.*, 2012).

In Arabidopsis, miRNAs have been shown to play a crucial role in the juvenile-to-adult switch and they are considered a molecular marker for the process (Poethig, 2010). In particular, miR156 has been shown to be extremely important in maintaining juvenility (Wu et al., 2009). Loss of miR156 activity eliminates juvenile traits, which are enhanced if miR156 activity is constitutive (Poethig, 2010). miR156 coordinates the different pathways that control the changes in a number of phase-specific traits such as production of adventitious roots and branches, leaf morphology, flowering time and inflorescence architecture (Poethig, 2010; Wu et al., 2009). Recently, it was shown that miR156 expression is regulated by a factor produced in the leaf primordium and that defoliation increases miR156 expression and delays phase change in both maize and Nicotiana benthamiana (Yang et al., 2011). miR156 targets members of the SQUAMOSA PROMOTER BINDING PROTEIN LIKE (SPL) family (Aukerman and Sakai, 2003; Jung et al., 2007; Zhu and Helliwell, 2011). Early in plant development, high levels of miR156 inhibit the production of SPL proteins (Yang et al., 2011). In Arabidopsis, high levels of SPL promote juvenile-to-adult phase change by activating the transcription of SUPPRESSOR OF OVEREXPRESSION OF CO1 (SOC1), LEAFY (LFY), APETALA1 (AP1) and FRUITFUL (FUL) and microRNA172 (miR172) (Jarillo and Pineiro, 2011).

Recently, in olive plants, where the juvenile phase can last for 5-6 years (Moreno-Alias *et al.*, 2010), miR156 has been characterised and shown to play a

role in regulating gene expression in JP targeting SPL genes (Donaire *et al.*, 2011). Investigation of vegetative phase transition in olive plants showed different protein content in juvenile and adult plants (Garcia *et al.*, 2000). However, within the same plant, significant differences between juvenile and adult tissues were not evident (Garcia *et al.*, 2000). In olive the *JUVENILE-TO-ADULT-TRANSITION (JAT)* gene has been isolated and studied (Fernández-Ocaña *et al.*, 2010). *JAT* is expressed at a higher level in juvenile tissue than in adult tissue. *JAT* transcripts accumulate mainly in the roots, with lower expression in the leaves and shoot apical meristem. Differences in *JAT* expression level in adult and juvenile branches of the same tree were shown not to be due to their distance from the roots but, instead, to the different developmental stage. In olive plants with a delayed juvenile-adult transition, *JAT* expression levels are lower. This means that higher levels of *JAT* may be required for the juvenile to adult phase transition (Fernández-Ocaña *et al.*, 2010).

## 1.3 Measuring juvenility

#### 1.3.1 *Photoperiod responsive plants*

Plants can follow the time of the year tracking the day-night length within a 24 hour cycle or photoperiod. On the basis of photoperiod response, plants are considered as obligate short-day plants (SDPs) if they flower only under short days or facultative SDPs if their flowering is accelerated by short days (SD) (Thomas and Vince-Prue, 1997). Obligate long-day plants (LDPs) flower only during long days (LD) whilst facultative LDPs have accelerated flowering during LD (Thomas

and Vince-Prue, 1997). Species that flower irrespective of photoperiod are referred to as day-neutral plants (DNPs) (Thomas and Vince-Prue, 1997). Some plants are not classified in any of the previous categories because they respond to combinations of day lengths (Thomas and Vince-Prue, 1997).

#### 1.3.2 *Measuring juvenility in LDPs*

Plants are not sensitive to photoperiod throughout their entire life time. The photoperiod-sensitive, AVP, is sandwiched between two photoperiod-insensitive phases namely the JP and the RP (Thomas and Vince-Prue, 1997). Expanding the idea of Ellis et al. (1992) and Adams (1999), Adams et al. (2003) devised a model in Antirrhinum, utilising reciprocal transfer experiments to establish the length of these phases. Previous studies used flowering time to estimate the photoperiod sensitive phase, whereas Adams et al. (2003) introduced the use of leaf number data as well. The length of different phases of photoperiod sensitivity can be assessed by transferring plants from inductive (LD) to non-inductive (SD) conditions, and vice versa, at regular intervals following germination and recording and utilising the flowering times of individual plants (Adams, 1999; Adams et al., 2003; Munir et al., 2010). Flowering time can be recorded as the number of days from germination at first open flower and/or the number of leaves below the first open flower, since no more leaves are formed on the main stem once flower initiation starts. These data are used to generate modelled curves (Figure 1.1) (Adams et al., 2003). Flowering times will be similar between plants transferred from LD to SD before the end of the juvenile phase and plants grown under continuous SD. Flowering times will not be delayed in plants transferred after the end of juvenility due to

experiencing inductive LD whilst adult (Adams *et al.*, 2001; Munir *et al.*, 2010). Plants transferred from LD to SD conditions during the photoperiod sensitive phase show an increasing competence to respond to developmental signals according to the time the plants spend in LD conditions after they ended the juvenile phase (Adams *et al.*, 2003).

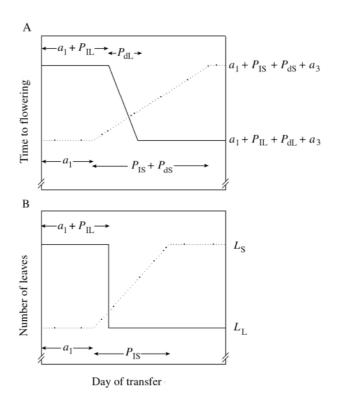


Figure 1.1 Schematic representation of photoperiod sensitivity determined by reciprocal transfer experiments.

Flowering time data expressed as (A) flowering time from seedling emergence and (B) the number of leaves present on the main stem below the inflorescence for LDPs transferred from LD to SD (continuous line) and from SD to LD conditions (broken line) at various times from seedling to emergence. Throughout post embryonic development plants go through a photoperiod-insensitive juvenile phase  $(a_I)$ , followed by photoperiod-sensitive flower induction and development phases in LD  $(P_{IL}$  and  $P_{dL}$ , respectively) or SD  $(P_{IS}$  and  $P_{dS}$ , respectively). The final phase of flower development corresponds to the photoperiod-insensitive flower development phase (a3).  $L_L$  and  $L_S$  represent the number of leaves produced under continuous LD and SD conditions, respectively. Figure adapted from Adams et al. (2003).

## 1.4 Arabidopsis flowering pathways

In plants, once adult and floral competence is attained, transition to the reproductive phase is regulated by an elaborate network of signalling pathways that converge at the floral pathway integrators. Using molecular genetic approaches in the LDP *Arabidopsis* many components of these pathways have been identified (Boss *et al.*, 2004) (Figure 1.2).

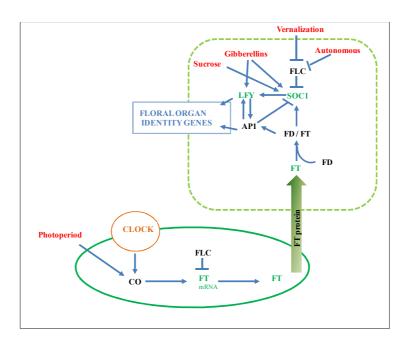


Figure 1.2 Simplified version of the integration of the flowering in Arabidopsis thaliana. Schematic representation of the major pathways (in red) regulating flowering time. Arrows indicate activation and T-bars show inhibition. The green oval represents the leaf; the light green square represents the apex. The large green arrow represents FT protein translocation from leaf to apex. Floral pathway integrators are showed in green. The complete nomenclature of the genes can be found in the main text in sections 1.4.1, 1.4.2, 1.4.3, 1.4.4.

#### 1.4.1 *Vernalization pathway*

To overcome prolonged cold periods, plants adapt their growth habits to ensure reproductive success by flowering after the restrictive weather conditions through vernalization (Kim *et al.*, 2009; Massiah, 2007). In *Arabidopsis* many

isolates require vernalization for early flowering and during vernalization a range of genes show changes in their level of expression (Michaels and Amasino, 2000) (Figure 1.3).

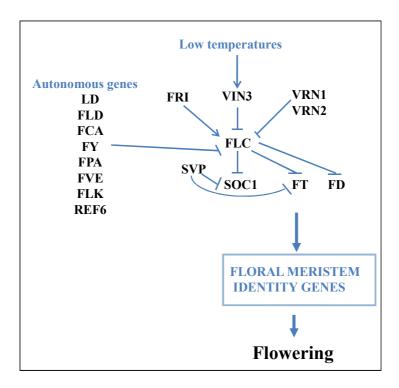


Figure 1.3 Autonomous and vernalization pathways in Arabidopsis thaliana. Arrows indicate direct activation and T-bars show inhibition.

FLOWERING LOCUS (FLC), a MADS-box domain transcription factor, is a potent inhibitor of flowering and acts by repressing FLOWERING LOCUS T (FT), FLOWERING LOCUS D (FD) and SOC1 (Boss et al., 2004; Kim et al., 2009; Searle et al., 2006). Plants that have a vernalization requirement have hastened flowering in response to a prolonged period of cold. Cold treatments overcome the up-regulation of FLC mRNA by FRIGIDA (FRI), enhance the expression of genes such as VERNALIZATION INSENSITIVE 3 (VIN3), which represses FLC, and lead to histone modification of FLC chromatin (Boss et al., 2004; Geraldo et al., 2009; Kim et al., 2009; Sung and Amasino, 2004). FLC repression is then maintained by

an epigenetic mechanism after the cold treatment by other genes including *VRN1* and *VRN2* (Gendall *et al.*, 2001; Massiah, 2007).

#### 1.4.2 *Autonomous pathway*

Genes classified in the autonomous pathway, *LUMINIDEPENDENS* (*LD*), *FLD*, *FCA*, *FY*, *FPA*, *FVE*, *FLOWERING LOCUS K* (*FLK*) and *RELATIVE OF EARLY FLOWERING 6* (*REF6*) suppress *FLC* RNA accumulation independently of environment factors using different mechanisms (Massiah, 2007; Srikanth and Schmid, 2011; Yan *et al.*, 2010) (Figure 1.3).

FCA, FPA and FLK interact with *FLC* mRNA while FLD and FVE regulate FLC epigenetically, regulating chromatin modification (Simpson, 2004). Some of these genes, such as FCA and FY, interact to promote *FLC* down-regulation (Simpson *et al.*, 2003). Mutation in the autonomous pathway genes results in *FLC* accumulation and flowering time delay in both LD and SD conditions (Simpson, 2004). The delay in flowering in the autonomous pathway mutants can be overcome if the plants are exposed to cold treatment (Michaels and Amasino, 2001).

#### 1.4.3 *Gibberellins and sucrose pathways*

In 1957, Langridge demonstrated that the administration of exogenous gibberellins (GA) promotes flowering. More recent studies have confirmed this theory using *Arabidopsis* mutants defective in either GA biosynthesis or signalling (Wilson *et al.*, 1992). GAs promote flowering through the indirect activation of *LFY* and *SOC1* expression (Blazquez *et al.*, 1998; Gocal *et al.*, 2001) (Figure 1.4). In

SD, the *ga1* mutant, which does not produce the enzyme ent-kaurene synthetase A, shows a reduction in the levels of LFY expression and a delay in flowering. The enzyme ent-kaurene synthetase catalyzes the conversion of geranylgeranyl pyrophosphate to copalyl pyrophosphate in the first step of GA biosynthesis (Blazquez *et al.*, 1998; Sun and Kamiya, 1994). In SD, the gibberellin-insensitive *gai-1* mutant shows minimal levels of *SOC1* expression (Moon *et al.*, 2003). It has been proposed that the GA pathway has an additional role in promoting *LFY* expression, also through the up regulation of *SOC1* (Mutasa-Gottgens and Hedden, 2009). In SD, GA indirectly represses microRNA159 (miR159) expression levels through the repression of DELLA proteins. High levels of miRNA159 cause a reduction of *LFY* expression (Achard *et al.*, 2004). Therefore, in SD, the GA pathway promotes flowering through both *LFY* and *SOC1* expressions.

In the carbohydrate or sucrose pathway, flowering is promoted under SD conditions by induction of *LFY* expression through *SOC1* (Blazquez *et al.*, 1998) (Figure 1.4).

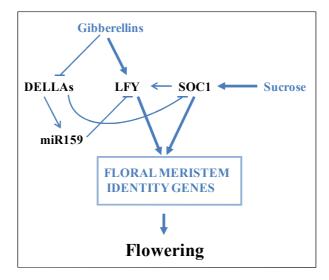


Figure 1.4 Gibberellins and sucrose pathways in Arabidopsis thaliana.

The gibberellins pathway and sucrose pathway and their role in flowering through the activation of LFY and SOC1. Arrows indicate activation and T-bars show inhibition.

#### 1.4.4 *Photoperiodic pathway*

## 1.4.4.1 The circadian clock and the external/internal coincidence models in plants

Physiological processes within plants fluctuate not only during their development but also during the course of each day. In 1959 Franz Halberg coined the word "circadian" to describe biological phenomena with a frequency of about 24 hours. Circadian processes are present in most eukaryotes and some prokaryotes (Edwards *et al.*, 2010). Environmental stimuli, such as the day/night cycle, can lead to these oscillations (Gardner *et al.*, 2006). Plants are able to anticipate or "remember" periodic changes in the environment due to them having an endogenous circadian clock (Staiger, 2002).

The internal clock continues to run even when conditions are constant and no external cues are present, showing the existence of an internal mechanism. Processes following an endogenous rhythm include stomatal movement, photosynthetic activity and the expression of several genes (Edwards *et al.*, 2010; Millar, 1999). Gene expression can be regulated at the level of transcription, translation and degradation of mRNA (McClung and Gutierrez, 2010; Shu and Lin, 2004).

Several models have been proposed to elucidate how the perception of day length drives developmental responses. The prominent models are the internal and the external coincidence models (Thomas and Vince-Prue, 1997). The external coincidence model proposes that an external signal (light) interacts with the circadian clock to drive a circadian rhythm and the second role of light is to

coincide with a particular phase in the rhythm to drive a periodic response, e.g. flowering. In contrast, the internal coincidence model proposes that the flowering is initiated when two internal rhythms are brought into the same phase under daylengths that promote flowering. The photoperiodic flowering response in *Arabidopsis* is driven by the external coincidence model as will be shown later.

## 1.4.4.2 Photoperiodic pathway

The most relevant of the floral pathways for this study is the photoperiodic pathway (Figure 1.5).

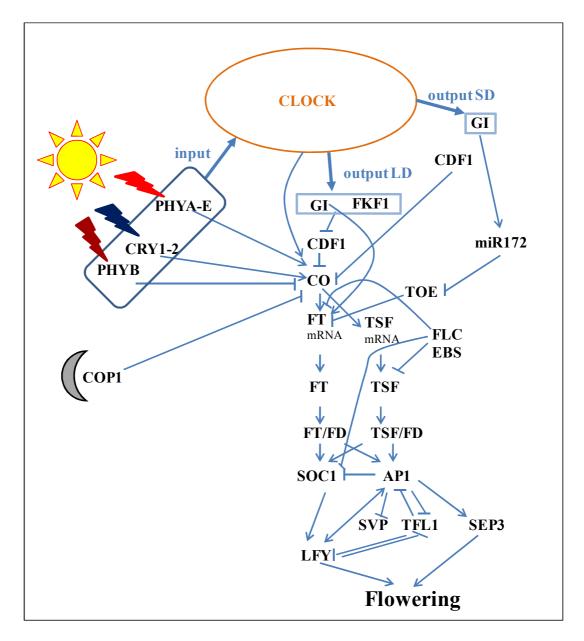


Figure 1.5 Photoperiodic pathway in Arabidopsis thaliana. Arrows indicate activation and T-bars show inhibition.

This pathway commences in the leaves with the perception of light by the red/far-red light-receptors phytochromes (*PHYA-E*) and the blue/UV-A light-receptors cryptochromes (*CRY1* and 2) (Clack *et al.*, 1994; Haiyang and Wang, 2002; Lin and Shalitin, 2003; Quail, 2002). Light input to the circadian clock is mediated through these photoreceptors. In plants, the circadian clock regulates a wide range of biological processes and represents the plant's endogenous time keeper (Halliday *et al.*, 2003). A large number of genes have been classified as components of the circadian clock and they show high levels of similarity and functional redundancy (Nakamichi, 2011).

As shown in figure 1.6, TIMING OF CAB EXPRESSION 1 (TOC1) is part of the central oscillator and is involved in a negative feedback loop which involves up-regulation of LATE ELONGATE HYPOCOTIL (LHY) and CIRCADIAN CLOCK ASSOCIATED 1 (CCA1) mRNA expression. In the morning, LHY and CCA1 proteins negatively regulate TOC1, binding its promoter (Alabadi et al., 2001). LHY and CCA1 expression decreases during the day allowing TOC1 expression levels to increase and reactivate indirectly the expression of LHY and CCA1 (de Montaigu et al., 2010). TOC1 is also negatively regulated at dusk by ZEITLUPE (ZTL) which marks TOC1 protein for proteasome degradation (Mas et al., 2003). In the second loop PSEUDO RESPONSE REGULATORS 7 and 9 (PRR7 and PRR9) repress LHY and CCA1 transcription (de Montaigu et al., 2010). In the third loop GIGANTEA (GI) is involved in a negative feedback loop with TOC1 (Locke et al., 2006). GI and FLAVIN-BINDING, KELCH REPEATED, F-BOX (FKF1) expression and the complex that they form, are also under clock control (Nakamichi, 2011). In LD, GI peaks at 10-12 Zeitgeber (ZT, from German for time giver, in this work the zeitgeber is the light) with FKF1 and together they form a complex to repress

CYCLING DOF FACTOR 1 (CDF1), which is a repressor of CONSTANS (CO), the first dedicated step of the photoperiodic pathway (Fowler et al., 1999; Paltiel et al., 2006; Sawa et al., 2007). This does not happen in SD because GI peaks at 8 ZT, a few hours before FKF1 and the level of the complex is not high enough to down regulate CDF1 expression, therefore CO remains repressed (Salazar et al., 2009; Sawa et al., 2007). GI and FKF1 have also been shown to promote CO expression each by directly binding to its promoter (Mizoguchi et al., 2005; Sawa et al., 2007). In SD, GI also regulates FT independently of CO through regulation of maturation of the non-coding micro miR172 (Jung et al., 2007). miR172 levels increase with the age of the plant and it down-regulates the FT repressor TARGET OF EAT (TOE1) (Jung et al., 2007).

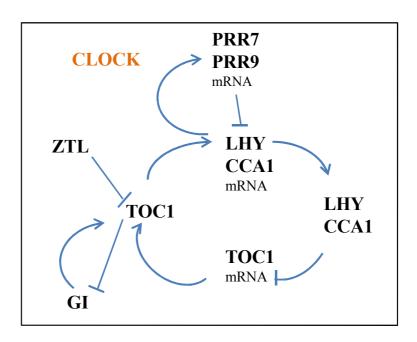


Figure 1.6 Simplified representation of the Arabidopsis clock. Arrows indicate activation and T-bars show inhibition.

In LD, red light, acting through PHYB, reduces CO abundance during the morning (Valverde *et al.*, 2004). *CO* mRNA peaks at dusk which leads to CO protein accumulation. CO is stabilised by blue and far red light through *PHYA* and *CRY1/2*; the accumulation of CO protein activates the transcription of the floral integrator gene *FT* (Cerdan and Chory, 2003; Samach *et al.*, 2000; Suarez-Lopez *et al.*, 2001; Turck *et al.*, 2008; Valverde *et al.*, 2004). The regulation of *FT* by CO probably occurs through an interaction of CO and the CCAAT-box binding protein factor with the 5' UTR region of *FT* (Ben-Naim *et al.*, 2006). This occurs in long days in LDPs, but not in short days. In SD, *CO* mRNA peaks in the dark and CO protein degradation is facilitated by *CONSTITUTIVE PHOTOMORPHOGENIC 1* (*COP1*) (Jang *et al.*, 2008). The accumulation of stable CO protein, in conjunction with light, can be the only limiting factor for flowering which matches the external coincidence model (Turck *et al.*, 2008).

CO is expressed in the phloem companion cells of the leaf where it activates expression of FT (An et al., 2004). Studies have confirmed that it is the movement of FT protein through the phloem from the leaf to the apex that leads to flowering though the formation of a complex with FD (Corbesier et al., 2007; Jackson, 2009; Wigge, 2011; Wigge et al., 2005). Earlier study focused on the movement of FT mRNA from the leaf to the meristem using a fusion of a promoter from a heat shock inducible gene to FT; the publication was later retracted (Bohlenius et al., 2007). Recently, new studies show that FT RNA can move and that this movement does not require FT protein. However, it still needs to be proven whether FT RNA movement in the phloem has a contribution to the flowering pathway (Li et al., 2009).

FT and its paralog TWIN SISTER OF FT (TSF) are 81.3% identical and they share the capability to communicate long-distance florigenic signal activity (Turck *et al.*, 2008). Expression analyses confirm that, like *FT*, *TSF* responds rapidly to varying levels of *CO* and interacts with FD in the shoot apical meristem (SAM) (Jackson, 2009; Turnbull, 2011; Yamaguchi *et al.*, 2005). *TSF* is repressed by *FLC* and *EARLY BOLTING IN SHORT DAYS* (*EBS*). In contrast to *FT*, *TSF* is also expressed in the apical meristem and its contribution to determining flowering time is greater in SD than in LD (Turck *et al.*, 2008; Yamaguchi *et al.*, 2005).

Flowering occurs when the FT/FD or TSF/FD complexes activate *SOC1* and *AP1*, the flower-meristem-identity genes, which activate the floral organ identity genes (Blazquez *et al.*, 1997). *AP1* activates *LFY* expression which in turn is also responsible for binding the *AP1* promoter and controls its expression (Kaufmann *et al.*, 2010). *SEPALLATA3* (*SEP3*) expression is up-regulated directly and indirectly by *AP1* initiating downstream pathways involved in floral organ formation (Kaufmann *et al.*, 2010).

#### 1.4.5 *microRNA pathway*

Recent studies showed miRNAs play important roles in key developmental transitions, which include regulation of flowering (Figure 1.7). miR156 has a role in the juvenile to adult transition and declines over time, as described in section 1.2, but it is also responsible for repressing flowering by down-regulating members of the SPL family in the phloem companion cells (Fornara and Coupland, 2009). SPL3, SPL4 and SPL5 are direct transcriptional activators of the floral promoters *FUL*, *AP1*, and *LFY* (Yamaguchi *et al.*, 2005), whereas SPL9 promotes the

transcription of the floral promoters *FUL* and *SOC1* (Wang *et al.*, 2009). SPL9 and 10 also regulate flowering by promoting the transcription of miR172 (Wu *et al.*, 2009). miR172 is also up-regulated by *GI* in SD (Jung *et al.*, 2007). miR172 is responsible for repressing the expression of several *AP2*-like genes, including *TOE1*, *TOE2*, *SCHLAFMÜTZE* (*SMZ*), *SCHNARCHZAPFEN* (*SNZ*) which repress *FT* (Aukerman and Sakai, 2003; Jarillo and Pineiro, 2011; Jung *et al.*, 2007; Zhu and Helliwell, 2011).

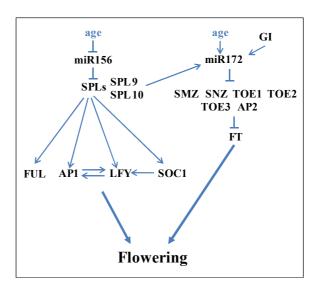


Figure 1.7 microRNA pathway in Arabidopsis thaliana. Arrows indicate activation and T-bars show inhibition.

#### 1.5 FT and its antagonists and repressors

FT protein is a component of the CETS family whose members have a role in timing phase change in different species. This family is called CETS because of the first three closely related members, *CENTRORADIALIS* (*CEN*), *TERMINAL FLOWER* (*TLF1*), and *SELF PRUNING* (*SP*), found respectively in *Antirrhinum*, *Arabidopsis* and *Lycopersicon esculentum* (Giakountis and Coupland, 2008; Pnueli *et al.*, 1998). Any gene having a repression role on *FT* can be considered a repressor of flowering.

TFL1 is homologous (defined in this work as genes which share an arbitrary threshold level of similarity, have a common evolutionary origin but may or may not have common activity) to FT; they both belong to a multigene family called phosphatidylethanolamine binding proteins (PEBPs) and both play a role in controlling flowering, but act in opposing ways (Figure 1.5) (Ohshima et al., 1997). TFL1 represses floral meristem identity genes by postponing the change from the vegetative phase to flowering by repressing LFY and AP1 (Figure 1.5) (Hanzawa et al., 2005; Liljegren et al., 1999). TFL1 shares 59% identity at the amino acid level with FT but the change of a single base can lead to the conversion of TFL1 function to a floral promoter like FT (Hanzawa et al., 2005). TFL1 has been shown to interact with FD and the TFL1/FD heterodimer antagonizes activation of transcription of floral meristem identity genes by the FT/FD heterodimer (Figure 1.5) (Giakountis and Coupland, 2008). TERMINAL FLOWER 2 (TFL2) and EBS, directly or indirectly reduce FT transcription without repressing CO. Both TFL2 and EBS repress FT by altering its chromatin structure, though a mechanism which is still unclear (Figure 1.5) (Kotake et al., 2003; Pineiro et al., 2003).

In *Arabidopsis*, *FLC* represses flowering through action in both leaves and the shoot apical meristem. In the leaves, *FLC* directly represses *FT* by binding to a putative CArG-box in the first intron of the gene (Helliwell *et al.*, 2006; Searle *et al.*, 2006). In the apex it represses FD and SOC1 (Figure 1.3) (Geraldo *et al.*, 2009; Kim *et al.*, 2009; Michaels and Amasino, 1999; Sheldon *et al.*, 1999).

SVP, a MADS-box domain containing protein, has a role in regulation of flowering in addition to its role in modulating meristem identity. It is strongly expressed in young leaves and in the SAM and weakly expressed in the inflorescence (Fekih *et al.*, 2009). It represses *FT* by binding to the CArG III motif in the *FT* promoter (Figure 1.3) (Fekih *et al.*, 2009; Lee *et al.*, 2007). Its role in the shoot apex during the floral transition is still not clear (Li, D. *et al.*, 2008).

AP2 domain-containing transcription factors are another class of proteins that repress FT. These include AP2, and the other AP2-like transcription factors such as TOE1, TOE2 and TOE3, SMZ and SNZ, which themselves are down regulated by AP1 and miR172 (Figure 1.7) (Kaufmann et al., 2010; Yant et al., 2009). Defective mutants in these genes present elevated levels of FT and the over-expressors show a reduction in FT levels. It is still not clear how these proteins repress FT. Nevertheless, CO does not seem to be involved, since CO expression is not influenced by TOE1 over-expression or in the toe1 mutant (Jung et al., 2007). Based on this observation, a direct action of AP2-like transcription factors in regulating FT has been hypothesised (Yant et al., 2009).

Floral repressors  $TEMPRANILLO\ 1\ (TEM1)$  and TEM2 belong to the RAV (RELATED TO ABI3/VP1) family of transcription factors and contain one AP2 and one B3 binding domain (Castillejo and Pelaz, 2008). They act redundantly to repress FT, binding to its 5' untranslated region. Furthermore, the closely

related *RAV* gene, *RAV1*, acts as an inhibitor of growth and development. Hu *et al*. (2004) demonstrated that *Arabidopsis* plants with reduced *RAV1* expression flowered 4.8 days earlier than the WT and 6.6 days earlier than those over-expressing *RAV1*. It is still not clear how this gene regulates plant development.

## 1.6 Conservation of *Arabidopsis* photoperiodic pathway flowering genes in SDP rice and DNP tomato

Arabidopsis is a facultative long day plant but the photoperiodic pathway is conserved in other flowering plant species although with some differences according to their day-length requirement. In the SDP rice (Oryza sativa), the orthologue of GI follows a circadian rhythm and promotes the orthologue of CO HEADING-DATE1 (HD1) expression in LD. When the GI orthologue is overexpressed, this is related with a higher level of HD1 expression (Hayama et al., 2003). HD1 follows a circadian rhythm similar to CO, peaking at dusk in LD, but it acts as an inhibitor of flowering. HD1 represses HEADING-DATE 3a (HD3a), the rice ortholog of the Arabidopsis pathway integrator FT (Greenup et al., 2009). Expression of HD3a is induced in SD and over-expression of HD3a promotes flowering (Kojima et al., 2002). In LD, the peak of HD1expression coincides with light and PHYB stabilises HD1 so that it can repress HD3a. In SD, HD1 expression peaks at night, when there is no PHYB to stabilise the protein, and it cannot inhibit HD3a, which accumulates in phloem companion cells (Kojima et al., 2002). HD3a mRNA then moves to the apical meristem where it promotes flowering (Kojima et al., 2002). Other photoperiodic pathway genes present in Arabidopsis, including CCA1/LHY, TOC1-like genes, ZTL, FKF1 and CDF1 have homologues in rice (Jarillo et al., 2008).

Tomato (*Lycopersicon esculentum*) is a DNP since flowering time is not affected by photoperiod (Lifschitz *et al.*, 2006). Tomato plants show processes that are controlled by the circadian clock, but flowering time is not one of these (Jarillo *et al.*, 2008). Some of the genes responsible for flowering time have been characterized as members of the autonomous pathway (Lozano *et al.*, 2009). *SINGLE FLOWER TRUSS* (*SFT*), the orthologue of *FT* in *Arabidopsis*, plays a similar role in promoting flowering (Lifschitz *et al.*, 2006). *sft* mutants plants show a delay in flowering time and over-expression of this gene in Maryland Mammoth tobacco, which shows a short-day response, in day-neutral tobacco cv. Samsun and in *Arabidopsis* promotes early flowering under non-inductive conditions (Lifschitz *et al.*, 2006). It has been proposed that *SFT* could act as an autonomous pathway gene for flowering regulation (Molinero-Rosales *et al.*, 1999). No evidence of a relationship has been proven to exist with the CO-like genes, which show circadian rhythms but do not promote flowering in tomato (Lozano *et al.*, 2009; Turnbull, 2011).

## 1.7 Conservation of *Arabidopsis* flowering genes in trees

No many studies have been carried out on woody and fruit trees where the mechanisms involved in the flowering pathways are still not well understood. However, a few studies have demonstrated that the autonomous pathway drives floral initiation in temperate trees while environmental cues drive initiation in

tropical trees as reviewed by Wilkie *et al.* (2008). In trees, after the adult reproductive phase starts, flowering occurs annually, at least in some apical meristems. This suggests that, from a molecular point of view, some mechanisms are shared between annual and perennial plants (Tan and Swain, 2006).

Poplar trees (*Populus trichocarpa*) generally produce the first flowers after 5-10 years (Zhang *et al.*, 2010). Bohlenius et al. (2006) isolated *Populus trichocarpa FT* homologue (*PtFT1*), and transgenic *Arabidopsis* plants transformed with *PtFT1* were shown to exhibit early flowering phenotypes (Bohlenius *et al.*, 2006). In poplar, a second *FT* homologue, *PtFT2*, has been isolated. It shares 91% amino acid identity with PtFT1(Zhang *et al.*, 2010). *PtFT2* also causes early flowering in transgenic poplar plants when over-expressed (Bohlenius *et al.*, 2006; Hsu *et al.*, 2006). It has been suggested that these genes play a role in phase transition between the JP and AVP and that LD leads to *PtFT1* and *PtFT2* accumulation (Bohlenius *et al.*, 2006).

In apple (*Malus domestica*), juvenility lasts for about 4-8 years (Traenkner *et al.*, 2010). Two apple *CONSTANS-like* genes *MdCOL1* and *MdCOL2* are expressed in leaves (Hattasch *et al.*, 2008; Kotoda *et al.*, 2010; Traenkner *et al.*, 2010). *MdFT1*, *MdCOL1* and *MdCOL2* exhibit circadian expression patterns, peaking at the end of the day (Traenkner *et al.*, 2010). Quantitative analysis of apple *FT*-like genes, *MdFT1* and *MdFT2* show they are differentially expressed in apical buds and reproductive organs. *MdFT1* expression levels are high in apical buds during the adult phase, whereas *MdFT2* expression levels are high in reproductive organs (Kotoda *et al.*, 2010). Furthermore, *MdFT1* expression is low in juvenile seedlings in contrast to *MdFT2* (Kotoda *et al.*, 2010). *MdFT1* was considered to be the gene playing a key role in flowering time regulation, as its mRNA levels were higher in

apical buds in the adult phase than in all the tissue of juvenile seedlings, *MdFT2* was considered to be involved in the development of floral organs. However, both genes, when over-expressed in *Arabidopsis*, led to an earlier flowering phenotype (Kotoda *et al.*, 2010). *MdFT1* expression increases in vegetative meristems before visible morphological changes in the apical meristem while apple *SOC1*-like gene, *MdSOC1* expression levels increase when flower induction is initiated (Hattasch *et al.*, 2008). These results suggest that *MdFT1* could activate *MdSOC1* expression.

#### 1.8 *Antirrhinum* and resources

Antirrhinum majus L., popularly called snapdragon, is native to the Mediterranean region. Antirrhinum was initially classified in the Scrophulariaceae family, but more recent studies classified it in a larger family, Plantaginaceae, based on DNA sequences (Olmstead et al., 2001).

Antirrhinum has been used as an herbaceous model plant in the last 75 years for research involving floral organ identity and leaf and flower asymmetry (Hudson *et al.*, 2008). Besides being used as model plant it also has economic importance, being a popular ornamental plant with a strong and pleasant fragrance, and large bilaterally symmetrical flowers in a range of beautiful colours (Hudson *et al.*, 2008).

Antirrhinum was chosen as a model species to study juvenility for different reasons. It is a quantitative-facultative long-day and seed-raised plant, so its response to photoperiod enables the juvenile phase to be clearly defined (Cockshull, 1985; Cremer *et al.*, 1998). Antirrhinum has a relatively short life cycle with an approximate generation time of four months (Adams *et al.*, 2003). The length of the

juvenile phase is long enough to enable both environmental and genetic regulation to be investigated. There is a physiological assay developed to measure stages of development from germination to flowering. Different varieties are present with different characteristics in the market (Hudson *et al.*, 2008). One of such variety is cv. Bells Red which has a dwarf habit and is early flowering. Many genomic resources are available for *Antirrhinum*, including cDNA, genomic and various yeast two-hybrid libraries. An expressed sequence tag (EST) database also exists, containing ~12,000 unique sequences. The first ~2,500 EST sequences have been submitted to the European Molecular Biology Laboratory (EMBL) database (http://www.antirrhinum.net/blast/blast.html; http://www.antirrhinum.net/).

#### 1.9 Olea europaea

Olea europaea L., otherwise known as olive, is one of the most economically important evergreen fruit trees in the Mediterranean area (Diaz-Espejo et al., 2006; Therios, 2009). The fruits and the oil extracted from them have well-known nutritive value and health benefits (Bendini et al., 2007). Furthermore, olive plants have ecological value. Olive trees are resistant to wind and drought and they have the ability to re-sprout after fire (Mulas and Deidda, 1998). Olive plants can easily grow on soil with pH varying from 5.5. to 8.5 (Denney et al., 1985). These characteristics make olive a good candidate for saving areas from desertification and corrosion (Donaire et al., 2011). It is, therefore, very important for this plant to be studied in depth.

In Italy, Università degli Studi della Tuscia has started a project for sequencing the *Olea europaea* genome. Olea europaea Advances (OLEA) involves a total of 15 research units, including Agricultural Research Council (CRA), Italian National Agency for New Technologies, Energy and Sustainable Economic Development (ENEA), National Research Council (CNR), Institute of Applied Genomics (IGA), and six universities. The OLEA group aims to sequence the *Olea europaea* genome in order to deepen essential knowledge for the preservation of olive production and for the identification and selection of clones to use for olive breeding. In particular, the collaborators within this study have research interests in flower development and juvenile-adult phase change.

The transition between these two phases is not just fascinating from a biological perspective but it also has an economic impact. One of the characteristics of olive trees is their almost endless life, but as a consequence their growth is extremely slow. In natural conditions, juvenility in olive can vary between 15-20 years and it is genotype-dependent (El Riachy *et al.*, 2011; Leon and Downey, 2006). This period can be shortened with actions such as cutting, artificial irrigation or additional light (Moreno-Alias *et al.*, 2009). After the end of juvenility, olive plants start to increase their productivity reaching their maximum production after 100 years (Bellini *et al.*, 2008; Suarez *et al.*, 2011). Temperature, but not photoperiod, seems to drive growth and reproduction in olive plants (Denney *et al.*, 1985). Flower buds are set in the late winter and temperature has been shown to be a key factor for blooming response (Perez-Lopez *et al.*, 2008). The ideal temperature for chilling is 7.2°C (Rallo and Martin, 1991). A good vernalization day, for good flowering and fruiting, is expected to have a variation in temperature with a maximum temperature between 12.5°C and 21.1°C and a minimum

temperature between 0°C and 12.5°C (Denney et al., 1985). Typically, olive plants bloom in the spring, flowering starts at the end of May and fruit is mature after 6 months (Lavee, 2007). Generally, fruit yield is influenced by two factors: fruit abscission after the flowering period (just 1-5% of flowers will give fruits) and the biennial reproductive habit characteristic of olive trees (Padula et al., 2008; Perez-Lopez et al., 2008; Suarez et al., 2011). When the plant is about 150 years old production becomes irregular but it can be rejuvenated with cutting (Bellini et al., 2008; Suarez et al., 2011). The end of juvenility is usually marked by the first flower but leaf shape and size and internode length have been indicated as a better and earlier marker (Moreno-Alias et al., 2009). These characteristics may not be good indicators of the end of juvenility since they can differ between cultivars and can be influenced by light exposure or the period of the year in which they were produced (Garcia et al., 2000; Gucci and Cantini, 2000).

## 1.10 Project aims

The principal aim of this project was to understand the reason for floral incompetence during juvenility in *Antirrhinum majus* and *Olea europaea* (olive) through investigation of the underlying molecular mechanisms. The specific objectives were:

- ❖ To establish the length of the juvenile phase in *Antirrhinum* plants grown under controlled-environment conditions.
- $\bullet$  To investigate FT expression in Antirrhinum leaves, characterizing FT in single leaves at different stages of development.
- ❖ To identify and characterize *Antirrhinum* and *Olea europaea* homologues of *Arabidopsis* genes that reduce or antagonise *FT* expression.
- ❖ To study the regulation of FT and FT antagonists in juvenile to adult phase transition in Antirrhinum and Olea europaea.

# CHAPTER 2. GENERAL MATERIALS AND METHODS

This chapter describes the general materials and methods that are common to more than one results chapter. Specific protocols and materials will be outlined later in relevant chapters.

#### 2.1 Plant material

#### 2.1.1 Antirrhinum majus

F1 seeds of *Antirrhinum majus* (snapdragon), cv. Bells Red, which is dwarf and early-flowering were obtained from Goldsmith Seeds, Inc. (Syngenta Flowers-Gilroy, CA).

#### 2.1.2 Arabidopsis thaliana

Seeds of the *Arabidopsis thaliana* Columbia (Col-0) ecotype and *tem1* mutant in the Col-0 background (SALK\_097513) were obtained from the Nottingham Arabidopsis Stock Centre (NASC). Seeds of the *Arabidopsis thaliana RNAi-tem1/2* double mutant (line 94.9, T5-T6 generations) in the Col-0 background were kindly donated by Dr Soraya Pelaz Herrero (Centre de Recerca Agrigenòmica, SPAIN).

#### 2.1.3 Olea europaea

Fresh young leaves were collected from juvenile and adult *Olea europaea* (olive) trees grown in the "Orto Botanico della Tuscia", the botanical garden operated by Tuscia University in Italy located at about 300 metres above sea level. The juvenile leaves were sampled from a seedling with juvenile characteristics that had never flowered. The seedling was obtained by crossing two highly heterozygous olive cultivars Leccino (female parent) and Dolce Agogia (male parent) (LexDA). Adult leaves were harvested from an adult plant cultivar Leccino (Le).

#### 2.2 Software tools

Primers were designed using Primer3Plus (<a href="http://www.bioinformatics.nl/cgi-bin/primer3plus/primer3plus.cgi">http://www.bioinformatics.nl/cgi-bin/primer3plus/primer3plus.cgi</a>) and synthesised by Invitrogen Ltd and Sigma-Aldrich® (Nasdaq: SIAL).

Data were analysed by Sigma Plot 12® (Systat Software, Chicago, USA) software. Sequences were viewed using SeqBuilder (DNASTAR Lasergene 9, Madison, WI). Chromatogram sequencing files were examined using Chromas 2.23 (Technelysium, Queensland, Australia) and sequence contings assembled using SeqMan (DNASTAR Lasergene 9, Madison, WI).

National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD) Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (BLAST) was used for investigating nucleotide and amino acid sequence homologies.

Phylogenetic analyses were conducted using the MEGA5.05 software package (Tamura *et al.*, 2007). The evolutionary history was inferred with the Maximum Parsimony method using the Close-Neighbor-Interchange algorithm.

### 2.3 Plant growth conditions

Antirrhinum seeds were sown, one per cell, into Plantpak P40 trays (HSP, Essex, UK) containing Levington F2+Sand (Seed and Modular Compost). Trays were covered with plastic sheets (poly bag 660.4 mm x 1219.2 mm x 50 micron) to keep them moist and put in a SANYO MLR-351H plant growth chamber set at 22°C, 70 ± 2% relative humidity (RH) and short days (SD) (8 h photoperiod). When 50% of seedlings had emerged the plastic was removed and trays placed under the appropriate light conditions as described in section 3.2.1. Plants were fed with Peters excel nutrient 18-10-18 (Scotts International B.V., NL) at a concentration of 0.5 g/l.

*Arabidopsis* seeds were sown into Plantpak P40 trays containing Levington F2 +Sand compost. Trays were covered with plastic sheets and stratified at 4°C in the dark for 3 days to achieve synchronous germination and then moved to a SANYO MLR-351H plant growth chamber set at 22°C,  $70\% \pm 2\%$  relative humidity (RH) and SD (8 h photoperiod). The plastic was removed when 50% of seedlings emerged and the trays were placed under the appropriate light conditions as described in section 3.2.1 and 5.2.2.

Three *Antirrhinum* transfer experiments were carried out in SANYO cabinets.

For *Antirrhinum* Experiment 1, lighting in the cabinets was provided by fluorescent tubes (General Electric 60W, HU). One of the cabinets was set for long days (LD) (16 h photoperiod) (daily light integral (DLI) = 7.17 mol·m<sup>-2</sup>·d<sup>-1</sup>) while the other one was set for SD (DLI = 3.53 mol·m<sup>-2</sup>·d<sup>-1</sup>) with a temperature of 22°C. Spectra are presented in Appendix, Figure A.1-A.5.

During *Antirrhinum* Experiments 2 and 3 lower DLI was used and kept equivalent in SD and LD cabinets. Lighting in SD conditions consisted of 8 h of fluorescent light (DLI = 2.94 mol·m<sup>-2</sup>·d<sup>-1</sup>). LD conditions were achieved using a combination of 8 h of fluorescent light (DLI = 2.79 mol·m<sup>-2</sup>·d<sup>-1</sup>) and an extension of 8 h of tungsten light (Philips 32W, NL) (DLI = 0.29 mol·m<sup>-2</sup>·d<sup>-1</sup>) totalling 3.08 mol·m<sup>-2</sup>·d<sup>-1</sup>. Light quality and quantity were measured with an EPP 2000 Fiber Optic Spectrometer (StellarNet Inc. USA). Spectra are presented in Appendix, Figure A.1-A.5.

For all the *Arabidopsis* transfer experiments, lighting in the cabinets was provided by fluorescent tubes. One of the cabinets was set for LD (DLI = 7.17 mol·m<sup>-2</sup>·d<sup>-1</sup>) while the other one was set for SD (DLI = 3.53 mol·m<sup>-2</sup>·d<sup>-1</sup>) with a temperature of 22°C. Spectra are presented in Appendix, Figure A.1-A.5.

## 2.4 Antirrhinum and Arabidopsis transfer experiments

In *Antirrhinum* transfer Experiments 1 and 3, plants were moved from LD to SD every 7 days. In *Antirrhinum* transfer experiments 2 plants were moved from LD to SD every 4 days. For all the experiments, transfer started when 50% of the seedlings germinated ( $T_0$ ). Plants remained under SD conditions until flowering. In

the *Arabidopsis* transfer experiments plants were moved from LD to SD every day, from 50% of germination ( $T_0$ ). Flowering time in *Antirrhinum* was measured as the number of true leaves present under the inflorescence. Flowering in *Arabidopsis* was measured as the number of rosette leaves present at the moment when the bolt was at 1 cm length.

Analysis of the flowering time data from the transfer experiments to determine the different phases of photoperiod sensitivity was performed with GenStat (thirteenth edition) (Payne *et al.*, 2009). In Figure 2.1 a schematic representation of a graphic obtained with this software is presented and the juvenile phase (JP), the adult vegetative phase (AVP) and the reproductive phase (RP) are shown. The length of the three phases were calculated based on the number of leaves present on the main stem of the plants at flowering fitting a logistic curve (grey curve), finding the maximum slope (green line) and then fitting the lag time lines (top blue line) and the stationary phase (bottom blue line). These two lines have been calculated from the upper and lower asymptote of the logistic curve. The orange dot lines delimit the three different phases. Vertical error bars denote the standard error of the mean of the number of leaves. Horizontal error bars denote the standard error of the mean of the estimated phase length.

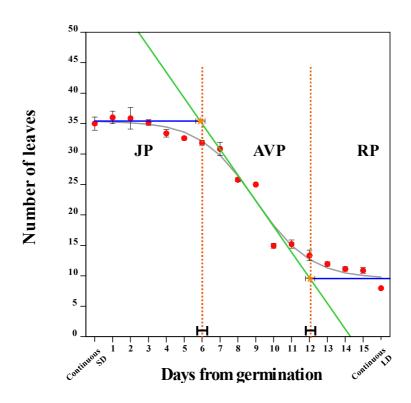


Figure 2.1 Schematic representation of the phases of photoperiod sensitivity determined from data obtained from a LD to SD transfer experiment.

Flowering time, represented by the number of rosette of leaves at 1 cm bolt for Arabidopsis plants transferred from LD to SD conditions at various times from germination. The photoperiod-insensitive juvenile phase JP, photoperiod-sensitive adult vegetative phase AVP and the photoperiod-insensitive reproductive phases RP are indicated. SD: short day, LD: long day. Vertical error bars denote the standard error of the mean of the number of leaves. Horizontal error bars denote the standard error of the mean of the estimated phase length. Logistic curve (grey curve), maximum slope (green line), lag time lines (blue lines). The orange dotted lines delimit the three different phases.

### 2.5 Genomic DNA extraction from Arabidopsis

Genomic DNA was extracted from single *Arabidopsis* leaves previously stored at -80°C after harvesting. Frozen leaves were homogenised for 15 s using a Dremel drill (Racine, WI U.S.A) which has an abrasive attachment designed to fit a 2 ml microfuge tube. The protocol used was a modified version of Edwards *et al.* (1991) rapid method for the preparation of plant genomic DNA for PCR analysis. After grinding, 400 µl of extraction buffer (200 mM tris-HCl pH 7.5, 250 mM

NaCl, 25 mM EDTA, 0.5% SDS w/v) was added to the samples. Subsequent to centrifugation at 13,000 rpm for 2 min, the supernatant was transferred to a fresh tube and 300 μl of chloroform:isoamyl alcohol (24:1) added. Samples were centrifuged again for 5 min and the top aqueous layer transferred to a new tube. For DNA precipitation, 35 μl of 3M NaOAc pH 5.2 and 837.5 μl of isopropanol were added to the samples that were incubated for 2 hours at -20°C and subsequently centrifuged for 10 min. After removing the supernatant, the pellet was air-dried and resuspended in 50 μl TE and then treated with 10 μg/ml RNAse A for 30 min at 37°C. Samples were then diluted 1:4 with SDW.

#### 2.6 RNA isolation and cDNA synthesis

Total RNA was extracted from leaf material harvested from *Antirrhinum* and *Arabidopsis* plants grown in experiments described in chapter 3 and 5. Samples were homogenised using a Dremel drill and Trizol® reagent (Invitrogen Ltd., Cat. No.15596-026, USA) added. For RNA purification the manufacturer's guidelines were followed with the exception that the chloroform extraction was carried out twice.

RNA quantity was measured with the NanoDrop<sup>TM</sup> ND-1000 Spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific) and 1-2  $\mu$ g of total RNA was run on 1% agrose gel to check quality.

The TURBO DNA-free™ DNase treatment kit (Ambion Inc, Cat. No. AM1907, USA) was used to remove genomic DNA contamination following the manufacturer's guidelines and a PCR, as described in section 2.7, was performed to

prove the lack of DNA contamination using Ant elf-alpha F/Ant elf-alpha R primers for *Antirrhinum* samples and AtActin F/AtActin R primers for *Arabidopsis* samples. Primers sequences and specification can be found in Appendix, Table A.1.

cDNA was synthesised using 3 μg total RNA using Superscript<sup>TM</sup> II First-Strand Synthesis System (Invitrogen Ltd., Cat. No. 18064-14, USA) for RT-PCR using oligo(dT) following the manufacturer's guidelines and subsequently treated with RNase H (Invitrogen Ltd., Cat. No. 18021-14, USA).

### 2.7 Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR)

PCR mixes comprised 1 μl from the cDNA synthesis reaction or 1 μl from a touch from a single bacterial colony dispensed in 40 μl SDW, 0.4 U KOD Hot Start DNA Polymerase (Merck Chemicals, Cat. No. 71086), 1X KOD Hot Start DNA Polymerase reaction buffer, 2 mM MgSO<sub>4</sub>, 0.2 mM dNTPs and 0.5 μM of each forward and reverse primer in a total volume of 20 μl made up with SDW. The same reaction, but in a volume of 10 μl was made for gDNA screens using 0.5 μl of template. The amplification consisted of an initial denaturation at 94°C for 2 min, followed by 30 cycles (if not specified otherwise) of denaturation at 94°C for 15 s, annealing (specific primer temperature) for 30 s, and extension at 72°C for 1 min per kb of expected product. A further 10 minutes of extension at 72°C was carried out at the end of the cycles. Primer sequences, annealing temperatures and expected product sizes are presented in the Appendix, Table A.1.

#### 2.8 Real-time PCR analysis

cDNA was synthesised as described in section 2.6. Real-time PCR analysis was conducted using either the ICycler® machine from Bio-Rad using iQ5 software (Bio-Rad Laboratories Ltd., UK) and the LightCycler® 480 Realtime PCR System (Roche Diagnostics Ltd., UK). When using the BioRad machine, each reaction contained 7.5 μl SYBR green (Eurogentec Ltd., Cat. No. RT-SY2X-03+WOUFL), 0.5μl of cDNA, and either 0.2 or 0.04 μM of each primer and 4.6 μl of SDW. When using the Roche machine, each reaction contained 5 μl LightCycler 480 SYBR Green Master (Roche Diagnostics Ltd., Cat. No. 04887352001), 1 μl of cDNA, and 0.5 μM of each primer at the appropriate final concentration and 3 μl of SDW. Details for primers used are presented in the Appendix, Table A.1.

Real-time PCR analysis was performed in three replicates for each sample and data indicated as means and normalized against expression levels of the house keeping genes for each sample.

PCR cycling conditions consisted of an initial cycle (95°C for 5 minutes) followed by 55 cycles of denaturation at 95°C for 15 s and annealing for 1 min (temperature specific for each primer pairs). The melt curve was obtained by performing 80 cycles 55°C for 10 s, increasing the temperature by 0.5°C per cycle after cycle 2.

PCR products were purified as described in section 2.10 and sequenced as described in section 2.14 to confirm that the correct targets were amplified.

#### 2.9 Agarose gel electrophoresis

RNA quality was checked by running 1  $\mu$ l of each sample on a 1% (w/v) Agarose gel (Invitrogen Ltd., Cat. No. 15510, USA) prepared with 1x Tris-acetate-EDTA buffer (TAE buffer) (VWR Interbational, Cat. No. 44125D) and 0.2  $\mu$ g/ml of ethidium bromide (EtBr) (VWR International, UK).

cDNA was visualized on a 2% (w/v) Agarose gel (Invitrogen Ltd., Cat. No. 15510, USA) prepared with 1x TAE buffer and EtBr.

Orange G (Sigma-Aldrich®, Cat. No. O3756, UK) loading buffer (3 µl), was added to each 20 µl sample before loading it on the gel. Electrophoresis was carried out in tanks filled with 1x TAE buffer at 100-120 mA for 40 to 120 min, depending on the sizes of the nucleic acids and the concentration of agarose in the gel. 1Kb Plus DNA ladder (Invitrogen Ltd., Cat. No. 10787, USA) was run alongside the samples in gels. Records of each gel were taken using a G:BOX gel documentation system (Syngene, UK).

## 2.10 Purification of PCR products from gels

After electrophoresis, nucleic acid containing bands were cut from gels and products isolated using a QIAquick Gel Extraction Kit (QIAGEN, Cat. No. 28704) following the manufacturer's guidelines. Purified products were eluted in 30  $\mu$ l of SDW.

#### 2.11 Ligation of PCR products into the pGEM-T Easy vector

An Adenine (A) residue was added to the 3' PCR products by incubating for 30 min at 72°C the PCR fragments with dNTPs and non proofreading TAQ DNA polymerase following initial PCRs. PCR products of the expected lengths were then purified as described in 2.10 section and ligated overnight into the pGEM-T Easy vector (Promega Ltd., Cat. No. A1360, Australia) (Figure 2.2) following the manufacturer's instructions, in 10 µl total volume.

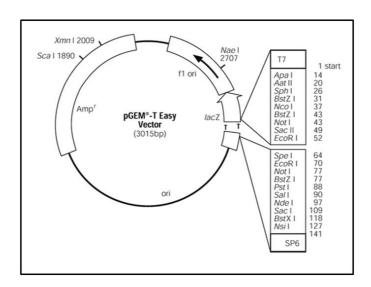


Figure 2.2: Map of pGEM®-t Easy transformation vector

## 2.12 Electroporation of vector DNA into *E.coli* and *Agrobacterium*

Vector products (2 μl) were added to 20 μl of electrocompetent EC100 *E. coli* cells (Cambio Ltd., Cat. No. EC10005) or electrocompetent *Agrobacterium* cells (AgC58pGV3101) in an electroporation cuvette (Geneflow Ltd., Cat. No. E6-

0050) and electroporated using a Bio-Rad Micropulser, using the bacteria setting at 1.8 kV for 5 ms following the manufacturer's guidelines. After electoporation 1 ml of SOC medium (Appendix, Table A.6) was added and the content transferred to a microcentrifuge tube and shaken at 200 rpm for 1 h at 37°C or 28°C, for *E.coli* or *Agrobacterium* respectively. Aliquots of 10, 50 and 100 μl were plated on LB media (VWR International) containing 100 μg/ml ampicillin, 0.1 M isopropyl/-D-thiogalactoside (IPTG), and 20 mg/ml 5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl-beta-D-galactopyranoside (X-Gal) for *E.coli* selection and 100μg/μl Spectinomycin (SPEC), 25μg/μl Gentamicin (GENT) and 50μg/μl Rifampicin (RIF) for *Agrobacterium* selection and left overnight at 37°C or 28°C, respectively. Colonies were screened by PCR for presence of the expected insert using gene specific primers as described in section 2.7.

## 2.13 Plasmid DNA purification

A single bacterial colony was used to inoculate 5 ml liquid LB (Luria-Bertani) medium (VWR International, Cat. No. 1.10285, UK) containing the appropriate antibiotics as described in section 2.12 and cultured overnight at 37°C with shaking (250 rpm). Plasmid DNA was extracted following the QIAprep Spin Mini Kit (QIAGEN, Cat. No. 27106) protocol and eluted in 50 μl in SDW.

## 2.14 DNA sequencing

The Dye® Terminator v.3.1 Cycle Sequencing Kit (Applied Biosystems, Cat No. 4337456) was used to sequence DNA products and the manufacturer's protocol followed. Template was added to 2 μl of Big Dye and 3.2 μM primer concentration in a final volume of 10 μl made up with SDW. Primer details are shown in Appendix, Table A.2. Samples were processed for 25 cycles at 96°C for 10 s, 50°C for 5 s and 60°C for 4 min and sent to Warwick HRI Genomic Resource Centre for sequencing. Results were read with the BioEdit software package and analysed and edited using the EditSeq package of DNAStar Lasergene. Chromatograms where analysed as described in section 2.2.

# CHAPTER 3. PHOTOPERIOD TRANSFER EXPERIMENTS

#### 3.1 Introduction

To help the agricultural industry, scientists need to provide tools to predict the developmental stages of plants. Being able to understand and to calculate the growth and development of a crop is important for management decisions related to, for example, the timing of pesticide application or synchronization of flowering. This is the case when the breeder wants two different genotypes ready at the same time for pollination for hybrid seed production or for predictable supply to market. In the current study, experiments have been carried out to determine developmental phase transition timings in plants in relation to photoperiod, one of the most important environmental factors that plays a role in determining the initiation of flowering (Adams, 1999).

The length of the juvenile phase (JP) can be assessed by transfer of plants between inductive long days (LD) and short days (SD) at regular intervals while measuring flowering time and leaf number at flowering (Adams *et al.*, 2003). Plants that undergo the juvenile to adult phase transition prior to transfer are not delayed in flowering. However, plants transferred to SD before the end of their juvenile phase (JP) flower later since they underwent the juvenile to adult phase transition when

exposed to non-inductive SD conditions (Adams *et al.*, 2001). In *Antirrhinum*, the number of leaves present on the main stem can be used as a measure of flowering time. *Antirrhinum* produces a terminal inflorescence and no more leaves are produced on the main stem under the inflorescence once floral initiation has occurred (Adams *et al.*, 2001). The number of days from germination to the first open flower can be used to assess flowering time, as well (Adams *et al.*, 2003).

Developmental stages can be followed by monitoring differentiation of the main stem shoot apex. The arrangement of organs around the axis of growth is termed phyllotaxy. During post-embryonic development, Antirrhinum shows three modifications of phyllotaxy (Bradley et al., 1996). On the main stem, during the juvenile phase, a spiral of two leaves is produced at each node (opposite decussate phyllotaxy). During the reproductive phase a single smaller leaf like organ (bract) is produced at each node (spiral phyllotaxy) with shorter internodes. Finally, a flower occurs in the axil of each bract generating four types of organ (sepals, petals, stamens and carpels) in a whorled phyllotaxy (Carpenter et al., 1995). The morphology of the floral meristem can be recognised from the spiral phyllotaxy in the vegetative meristem. The shoot apical meristem (SAM) produces leaves and shoots during the juvenile phase, but after the floral transition, the SAM produces flower primordia. By observing developmental changes in the SAM it is possible to follow flower initiation (Benlloch et al., 2007). At the molecular level, this switch is driven by the activation of the floral meristem identity genes, as described in section 1.4. One of the key genes involved in floral development that is required for determination of floral meristem identity in Antirrhinum is FLORICAULA (FLO), the homologue of LEAFY (LFY) in Arabidopsis. In flo mutants, floral meristems turn into shoot meristems, and plants over-expressing FLO have shoots that turn

into flowers (Amaya et al., 1999; Coen et al., 1991). FLO expression is repressed by CENTRORADIALIS (CEN), the homologue of TERMINAL FLOWER1 (TFL1) in Arabidopsis. CEN is required for maintaining an indeterminate shoot identity. In cen mutants, the indeterminate inflorescence changes into a terminal flower (Bradley et al., 1996). Amaya et al. (1999) suggest that CEN expression may be linked to the duration of the vegetative phase.

In previous experiments, *Antirrhinum* plants were germinated in growth rooms and photoperiod transfer experiments were carried out in glasshouses and plants moved into photoperiodic chambers using automated trolleys (Adams *et al.*, 2003; Massiah *et al.*, 2007; Munir *et al.*, 2010; Munir *et al.*, 2004). *Antirrhinum* plants of a recombinant inbred line in the F9 generation called RIL57 were transferred for 10 weeks from SD to LD at weekly intervals from germination and flowering times recorded to assess the length of the juvenile phase. As part of the same experiment, plants were transferred at weekly intervals from SD to LD and were sampled for molecular analysis at the end of the second subjective LD; material was harvested from the youngest expanded pair of leaves only. Expression of the *Antirrhinum* homologue of *FLOWERING LOCUS T (AmFT)* was examined throughout development. Expression data showed that *AmFT* expression is significantly lower in juvenile plants than in adult plants (Thomas, 2009).

The study described in this chapter had four aims. The first was to develop an assay for measuring juvenility using controlled environment cabinets that was cheaper and more repeatable than the glasshouse assay used in previous studies. The second was to follow changes at the SAM and gene expression level, using *CEN* and *FLO* as markers. The third aim was to follow the expression of *FT* in all the leaves during *Antirrhinum* development. Additionally, the study aimed to

determine whether	the photoperiodic	pathway	is active	during j	juvenility,	using
Arabidopsis as a mo	del plant.					

#### 3.2 Materials and Methods

This section describes the materials and methods specific for this results chapter. Protocols and materials common to more than one chapter are described in chapter 2. All primer details are listed in the Appendix, Table A.1, A.2 and A.3.

#### 3.2.1 Antirrhinum Transfer experiments

Antirrhinum majus, cv. Bells Red F1 were grown in two MLR-351 Environmental Test Chamber SANYO cabinets as described in section 2.3. Three transfer experiments were carried out.

Experiment 1 was carried out to determine the length of the JP in *Antirrhinum*. Fifteen plants were moved from the LD (DLI = 7.17 mol·m<sup>-2</sup>·d<sup>-1</sup>) cabinet to the SD (DLI = 3.53 mol·m<sup>-2</sup>·d<sup>-1</sup>) cabinet weekly for 7 weeks (T<sub>1</sub>-T<sub>7</sub>) where they remained until flowering. Five typical plants were selected every week at the time of transfer from the LD cabinet to record leaf number. The number of leaves below the first opened flower was counted in all plants to measure flowering time. Leaf number was assigned starting at the base of the plant. Bracts, but not cotyledons, were considered as leaves in all the analyses. A further 20 plants were grown under constant SD conditions and constant LD condition as controls. The leaf number data were analysed to determine the phases of photoperiod sensitivity at the end of the juvenile phase, as described in section 2.4.

Experiment 2 was carried out using a LD condition at lower light integral, as described in section 2.3, to extend the JP and to provide leaf material for molecular analysis. Apex development was observed as well. Three plants were moved from

the LD (DLI =  $3.08 \text{ mol·m}^{-2} \cdot \text{d}^{-1}$ ) cabinet to the SD (DLI =  $2.79 \text{ mol·m}^{-2} \cdot \text{d}^{-1}$ ) cabinet every 4 days for 40 days ( $T_1$ - $T_{10}$ ) where they remained until flowering. A further 10 plants were grown in constant SD and LD conditions as controls. Leaf number at flowering for each plant transferred from LD to SD was used to determine the length of phases, as described in section 2.4. Five typical plants were selected every 4 days at the time of transfer from the LD cabinet for observation of apex development as explained in section 3.2.2. Leaf material was sampled as explained in section 3.2.4.

Experiment 3 was carried out using the same LD and SD conditions used in Experiment 2. Three plants were moved from the LD cabinet to the SD cabinet every 7 days for 8 weeks (T<sub>1</sub>-T<sub>8</sub>) where they remained until flowering. A further 10 plants were grown in constant SD and LD conditions as controls. The number of leaves below the first opened flower for each plant transferred from LD to SD was used to determine the length of phases, as described in section 2.4. Ten typical plants were selected every 7 days at the time of transfer from the LD cabinet for collecting apex material as described in section 3.2.2. Leaf material was harvested for molecular analysis as described in section 3.2.4.

#### 3.2.2 Antirrhinum apex observation and sampling

Throughout Experiment 2, every 4 days, five plants were dissected under a binocular microscope (magnification 200X) to expose the apical region and the morphology of the meristem studied.

Additionally, throughout Experiment 3, every 7 days, the apices of at least ten plants were harvested for molecular analysis into 5 volumes of RNAlater solution (Ambion Inc, Cat. No.AM7024, USA) and incubated for 24 hours at room temperature. Plant tissue was then collected by centrifugation at 12,000 xg for 10 min and the RNAlater solution removed before storing at -80°C.

Samples were used for RNA extraction as described in section 2.6 with the final RNA pellet being rehydrated with 100 µl DEPC SDW and the RNA further purified using RNeasy Plant Mini Kit (QIAGEN, Cat. No.74904) following the manufacturer's guidelines. cDNA was synthesised as described in section 2.6.

#### 3.2.3 Real-time PCR analysis of CEN and FLO expression

Real-time PCR analysis was conducted using the LightCycler® 480 Realtime PCR System as described in section 2.8 using Ant CEN F/Ant CEN R and Ant FLO F/Ant FLO R primers to detect *CEN* and *FLO* respectively. Ant elf-alpha F/Ant elf-alpha R primers were used to detect the elongation factor housekeeping gene. Primer details, concentrations used at in PCRs and anneal/extension temperatures are provided in the Appendix, Table A.1.

#### 3.2.4 Leaf harvests for AmFT expression analysis

Throughout the Experiment 2 and Experiment 3, leaf material was harvested at ZT 15 (zeitgeber time, 15 subjective hours after lights on) every 4 days ( $T_1$ - $T_{10}$ ) and every 7 days ( $T_1$ - $T_8$ ), respectively, from plants grown continuously under LD conditions. Additionally, throughout Experiment 3, leaf material was harvested at ZT 7 every 7 days ( $T_1$ - $T_8$ ) from plants grown continuously under SD conditions.

For each harvest, leaf material was taken from 7 plants. From each plant, the pair of leaves (> 0.5 cm) produced at each node, was harvested separately and then combined with the corresponding pair of leaves from the other 6 plants.

During Experiment 2, a total of 47 samples were collected. Table 3.1 details the leaf collection method and sample nomenclature. For each sample the name was assigned starting from the oldest pair of leaves at the base of the plant. Cotyledons were harvested as well but not included in the leaf number counts and bracts were not included for sampling. For example, at the fifth transfer (T5), there were 2 cotyledons, and 3 pairs of leaves and they were named: T5 cot, T5.1 (oldest leaves), T5.2, T5.3 (youngest leaves). During Experiment 3, the same technique was used to name the samples.

Tissue from both the experiments was frozen directly into liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C for molecular analysis. Samples were used for RNA extraction and cDNA synthesis as described in section 2.6.

Table 3.1 Harvest time and sample nomenclature for samples collected during transfer Experiment 2

Days from	Leaves present and collected									
germination										
	Cotyledons	Leaves 1&2	Leaves 3&4	Leaves 5&6	Leaves 7&8	Leaves 9&10	Leaves 11&12	Leaves 13&14	Leaves 15&16	Leaves 17&18
4 days	T1 cot									
8 days	T2 cot									
12 days	T3 cot	T3.1								
16 days	T4 cot	T4.1	T4.2							
20 days	T5 cot	T5.1	T5.2	T5.3						
24 days	T6 cot	T6.1	т6.2	T6.3	T6.4					
28 days	T7 cot	<b>17.1</b>	Т7.2	T7.3	17.4	T7.5				
32 days	T8 cot	T8.1	T8.2	T8.3	T8.4	T8.5	Т8.6			
36 days	T9 cot	Т9.1	Т9.2	Т9.3	Т9.4	Т9.5	Т9.6	Т9.7		
40 days	T10 cot	T10.1	T10.2	T10.3	T10.4	T10.5	T10.6	T10.7	T10.8	T10.9

#### 3.2.5 Real-time PCR analysis of AmFT expression

Real-time PCR analysis was conducted using the BioRad ICycler® machine as described in section 2.8 using Ant put FT F/Ant put FT R primers to detect *AmFT* and Ant elf-alpha F/Ant elf-alpha R primers to detect the elongation factor housekeeping gene. Primer details, concentrations used at in PCRs and anneal/extension temperatures are provided in the Appendix, Table A.1.

## 3.2.6 Arabidopsis transfer experiment to establish JP length and AtFT and AtCO expression analyses

Arabidopsis Col-0 transfer experiments were carried out using SANYO cabinets set up as described in section 2.3. Each day, for 10 consecutive days, 10 seedlings were moved from LD to SD conditions. At each transfer day, at least 10 plantlets were harvested from both LD and SD cabinets at ZT15 and ZT7, respectively. A further 10 plants were grown in constant SD and LD conditions as controls.

Flowering times were assessed by counting rosettes leaves present at 1 cm bolt height for each plant transferred from LD to SD, as described in section 2.4.

Samples were used for RNA extraction and cDNA synthesis as described in section 2.6. Real-time PCR analysis was conducted using the LightCycler® 480 Realtime PCR System as described in section 2.8 using Real-time AtCO F/Real-time AtCO R and Real-time AtFT F/Real-time AtFT R primers to detect *Arabidopsis CO (AtCO)* and *Arabidopsis FT (AtFT)*, respectively. AtActin F/AtActin R primers were used to detect the actin 2 housekeeping gene. Primer

details,	conce	ntrations	used	at in	PCRs	and	anneal/extension	temperatures	are
provided in the Appendix, Table A.1.									

#### 3.3 Results

#### 3.3.1 Floral initiation

Experiment 1 was conducted as explained in section 3.2.1 to determine the feasibility of growing *Antirrhinum* plants in SANYO cabinets to assess the length of the juvenile phase. Subsequently, plants were transferred at weekly intervals from LD to SD. The number of leaves present on the main stem at each transfer day is shown in Figure 3.1.

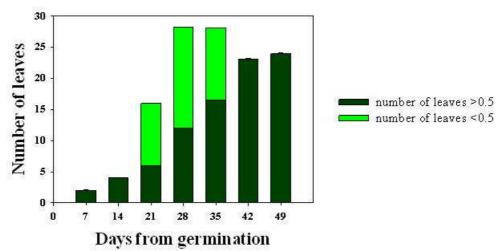


Figure 3.1 Leaf number during development in Experiment 1.

Number of leaves at time of transfer in Antirrhinum grown under LD conditions. Data were analysed by general linear model analysis of variance (ANOVA, p<0.05), with subsequent comparison between means using Fisher's least significant difference test. Error bars denote LSD (5% levels) of means of the total number of leaves (LSD=0.16; d.f.=36).

The first true leaves were present after 7 days from germination. The number of true leaves, bigger than 0.5 cm, present on the main stem increased gradually reaching a maximum of 24 leaves at 49 days. The total number of leaves reached the maximum at 28 days. After this point no more leaves were produced. Leaves smaller than 0.5 cm were recorded close to the apex between 21 and 35 days.

Flower initiation started between 21-28 days after germination and juvenility must have ended before this time.

The presence of a significant difference in the final number of leaves at 28 and 35 days, compared to the final number of leaves present at 42 and 49 days after germination, was due to the presence of bracts and floral organ primordia that were indistinguishable by visual observation from small leaves at that time.

# 3.3.2 Determination of juvenile phase length

In order to determine the length of juvenility in *Antirrhinum* plants grown in Experiment 1, as described in section 3.2.1, the number of leaves present at flowering time were counted in plants transferred from LD to SD conditions at weekly intervals (Figure 3.2).

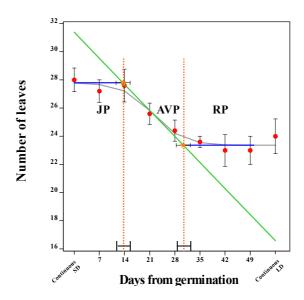


Figure 3.2 Different phases of photoperiod sensitivity in Antirrhinum (Bells F1) in Experiment 1. The effect of transferring Antirrhinum at weekly intervals (expressed as days from 50% germination) from LD to SD on flowering time. JP: juvenile phase, AVP: adult vegetative phase, RP: reproductive phase, SD: short day, LD: long day. Vertical error bars denote the standard error of the mean of the number of leaves. Horizontal error bars denote the standard error of the mean of the estimated phase length. Logistic curve (grey curve), maximum slope (green line), lag time lines (blue lines). The orange dotted lines delimit the three different phases.

The data indicate that plants were juvenile for  $13.6~d~\pm~1.9~d$  after germination. In plants transferred during the reproductive phase, flowering occurred at about the same time as the LD control plants. This is because they had already committed to flower. The AVP lasted for  $16.8~d~\pm~1.9~d$ .

# 3.3.3 Examination of apex morphology throughout development

Changes in apex morphology were clearly observed throughout development during Experiment 2 (Figure 3.3). Experiment 2 differed from Experiment 1 in that light integrals under LD were lower, as described in section 3.2.1.

From observing apex morphology was revealed that the apex was a dome of undifferentiated cells up to 24 days post emergence (Figure 3.3 A-D). Differentiation into floral meristem occurred from around 28 days (Figure 3.3 E) through to the development of the floral organ primordia (Figure 3.3 E-H). At this point, primordia bracts were also visible and at the end of this stage (Figure 3.3 H), 40 days after germination, sepal primordia were evident.

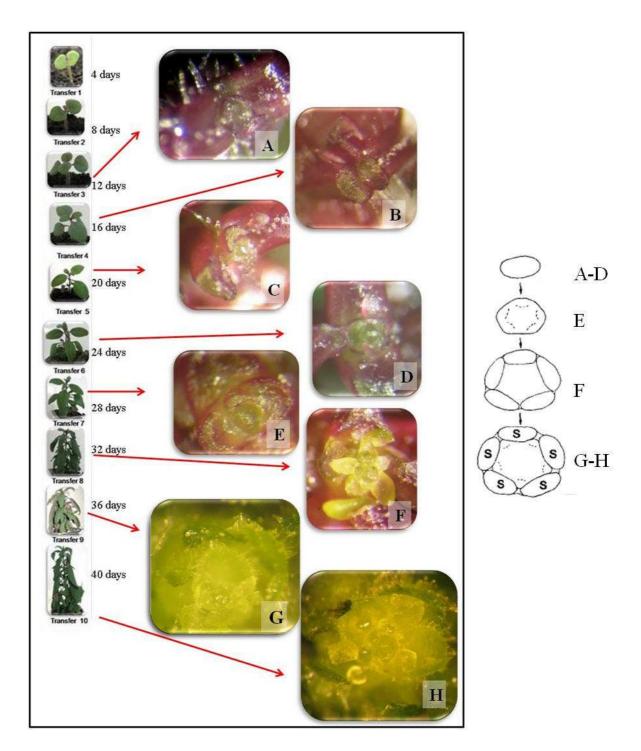


Figure 3.3 Morphological changes at the SAM during development in Experiment 2. Apex was observed by binocular microscope (magnification 200X). On the left side pictured are the different apex developmental stages at different times from germination. On the right side a diagram of shoot meristem stages modified from (Carpenter et al., 1995) used as guideline for the observation. Dotted lines indicate initiated primordia, S, indicates the sepals.

# 3.3.4 Determination of juvenile phase length

In Experiment 2, plants were transferred from LD to SD every 4 days as described in section 3.2.1. Juvenility was estimated to end 14.4 d  $\pm$  2.7 d after germination (Figure 3.4), one day longer than in the Experiment 1. Also the AVP was longer, lasting for 20.9 d  $\pm$  2.7 d. The data reinforced that it is possible to determine the length of juvenility in plants grown in SANYO cabinets.

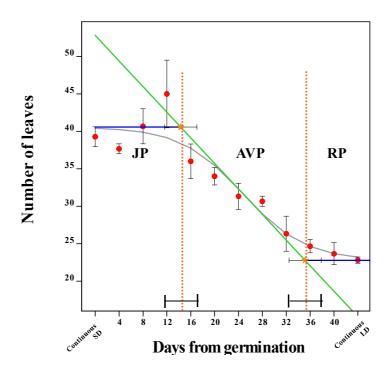


Figure 3.4 Different phases of photoperiod sensitivity in Antirrhinum (Bells F1) in Experiment 2. The effect of transferring Antirrhinum at weekly intervals (expressed as days from 50% germination) from LD to SD on flowering time. JP: juvenile phase, AVP: adult vegetative phase, RP: reproductive phase, SD: short day, LD: long day. Vertical error bars denote the standard error of the mean of the number of leaves. Horizontal error bars denote the standard error of the mean of the estimated phase length. Logistic curve (grey curve), maximum slope (green line), lag time lines (blue lines). The orange dotted lines delimit the three different phases.

3.3.5 *Investigation of AmFT expression throughout development in Antirrhinum* 

Expression levels of the *AmFT* were analysed in biological samples harvested from transfer Experiment 2, as described in section 3.2.4.

AmFT expression was analysed across development in each pair of leaves collected from plants grown under constant LD (Figure 3.5).

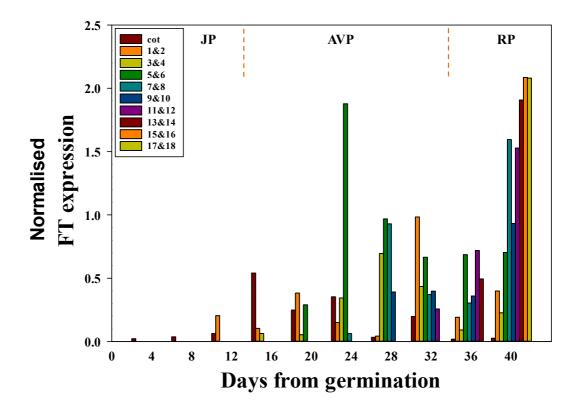


Figure 3.5 Developmental expression of AmFT in leaf material from Antirrhinum plants grown under LD in Experiment 2.

Real-time PCR analysis of the relative expression of AmFT normalised to ELF-alpha. Expression analysed at ZT 15. JP: juvenile phase, AVP: adult vegetative phase, RP: reproductive phase. The orange dotted lines delimit the three different phases.

Expression of AmFT is very low during the first 12 days from germination. This period corresponded to the juvenile phase which ended about 14.5 days after germination. In cotyledons, AmFT expression rises and peaks around 16 days from germination, but remains very low thereafter in adult plants, which probably correlates with cotyledon senescence. Following the end of juvenility AmFT

progressively increases in all the leaves when plants started to respond to photoperiod.

## 3.3.6 *Determination of juvenile phase length*

Juvenility length was estimated in Experiment 3 carried out using the same condition of Experiment 2 but plants were transferred every 7 days instead of every 4 days. This experiment was conducted to confirm the reproducibility of growing *Antirrhinum* plant in the SANYO cabinet to assess the JP.

In this experiment juvenility was estimated to end  $14.4 \text{ d} \pm 1.6 \text{ d}$  after germination (Figure 3.6). The data confirmed the reproducibility of using the SANYO cabinet for transfer experiments. The AVP lasted for 26.3 d  $\pm$  1.6 d. Although Experiment 2 (Figure 3.4) and Experiment 3 (Figure 3.6) showed a similar JP length, the AVP presented more variability, being longer in the Experiment 3.

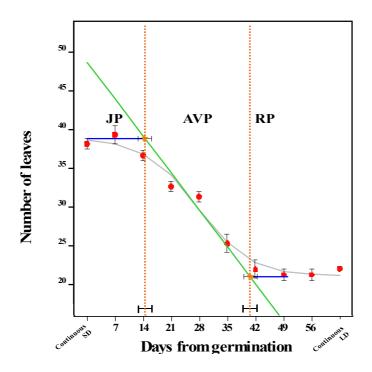


Figure 3.6 Different phases of photoperiod sensitivity in Antirrhinum (Bells F1) in Experiment 3. The effect of transferring Antirrhinum at weekly intervals (expressed as days from 50% germination) from LD to SD on flowering time. JP: juvenile phase, AVP: adult vegetative phase, RP: reproductive phase, SD: short day, LD: long day. Vertical error bars denote the standard error of the mean of the number of leaves. Horizontal error bars denote the standard error of the mean of the estimated phase length. Logistic curve (grey curve), maximum slope (green line), lag time lines (blue lines). The orange dotted lines delimit the three different phases.

#### 3.3.7 Analysis of FLO and CEN expression during development

FLO and CEN expression was determined by Real-time PCR analyses in apices dissected from plants at various developmental stages grown under constant LD and SD conditions during Experiment 3, as described in sections 3.2.2 and 3.2.3. The same standard curve and cDNA samples were used to analyse expression of all genes, thus relative expression levels can be compared.

The result of *FLO* expression demonstrated that under LD conditions *FLO* expression rises after flower initiation at 28 days (Figure 3.7 A). Apex observations conducted during Experiment 2 revealed that between 32 and 36 days floral organ

primordia started to form. Under SD, *FLO* expression is very weak in comparison to expression observed under LD, approximately five orders of magnitude lower. The rise in expression is delayed and does not appear until 63 days from germination (Figure 3.7 B).

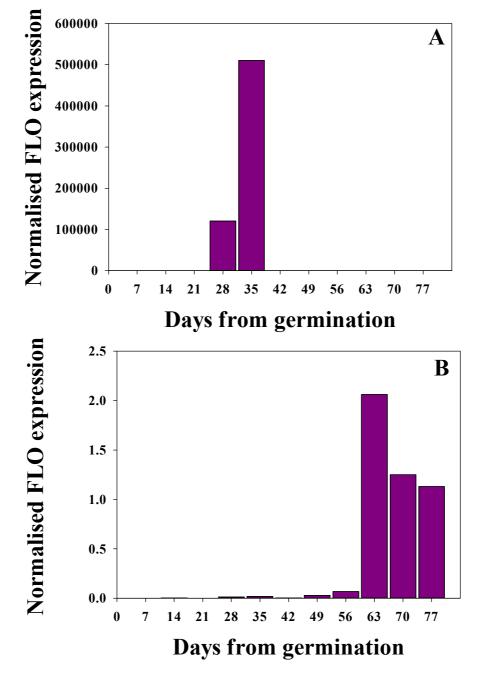


Figure 3.7 Expression of FLO in apex material from plants grown in Experiment 3 under constant LD harvested at ZT15 (A) and constant SD harvested at ZT 7(B).

Real-time PCR analysis of the relative expression of FLO normalised against ELF-alpha at each time-point.

Under LD conditions *CEN* is expressed before floral initiation and peaks at 28 days when flower initiation is observed (Figure 3.8 A). *CEN* expression is delayed under SD (Figure 3.8 A). The rise in *CEN* expression levels observed in LD is not evident under SD.

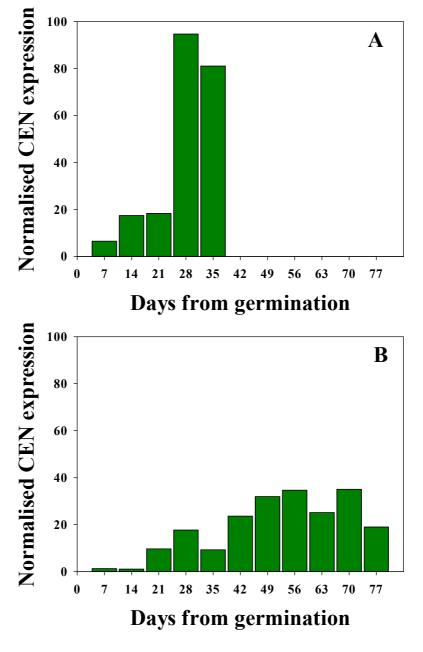


Figure 3.8 Expression of CEN in apex material from plants grown in Experiment 3 under constant LD harvested at ZT15 (A) and constant SD harvested at ZT 7(B).

Real-time PCR analysis of the relative expression of CEN normalised against ELF-alpha at each time-point.

When the trends of *CEN* and *FLO* expression under LD are examined together, it is clear that that the rise of *CEN* expression precedes that of *FLO* (Figure 3.9).

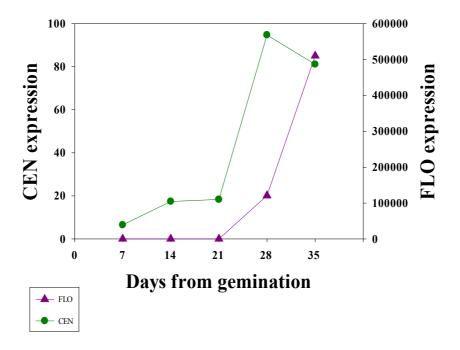


Figure 3.9 Relative expression of CEN and FLO throughout development in plants grown under constant LD in Experiment 3.

CEN and FLO expression normalised against ELF-alpha at each time-point.

## 3.3.8 *AmFT expression during different photoperiods*

During transfer Experiment 3 new biological samples were collected to study *AmFT* expression in LD grown material as for Experiment 2. In addition, samples were collected from plants grown under constant SD and analysed as described in section 3.2.4 and 3.2.5.

A similar pattern of *AmFT* expression was observed in this experiment (Figure 3.10 A) compared to Experiment 2 (Figure 3.5). *AmFT* expression increases after 14 days and juvenility was estimated to end about 14.5 days after germination.

In cotyledons, *AmFT* expression is very low during the whole development phase. *AmFT* is high in all the true leaves when plants are fully competent after the end of the AVP.

In plants grown under continuous SD conditions, *AmFT* expression is very low during the whole development phase increasing after 56 days (Figure 3.10 B).

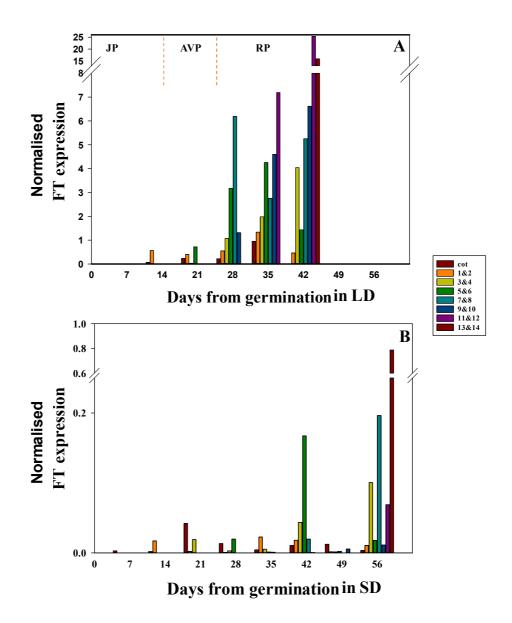


Figure 3.10 Developmental expression of AmFT in leaf material from Antirrhinum plants grown under LD at ZT 15 (A) and SD at ZT 7(B) in Experiment 3.

Real-time PCR analysis of the relative expression of AmFT normalised to ELF-alpha. Expression analysed at ZT 15. JP: juvenile phase, AVP: adult vegetative phase, RP: reproductive phase. The orange dotted lines delimit the three different phases.

# 3.3.9 Analysis of AtCO expression in Arabidopsis

The low level of AmFT during juvenility could be due to inactivity of the photoperiodic pathway or to repression of FT. Activity of the photoperiodic pathway would ideally be tracked by following expression of CO. Since an  $Antirrhinum\ CO$  homologue was not available, Arabidopsis was used as the experimental system. In order to compare the previous results with AtFT expression, the length of juvenility in Arabidopsis was investigated. The number of leaves present at flowering time, in plants transferred from LD (DLI =  $3.08\ mol\cdot m^{-2} \cdot d^{-1}$ ) to SD (DLI =  $2.79\ mol\cdot m^{-2} \cdot d^{-1}$ ) daily for 15 days are shown in Figure 3.11. Plants were estimated to have been juvenile for  $6.8\ d\pm0.2\ d$  after germination. The AVP phase lasted for  $4.70\ d\pm0.2\ d$ .

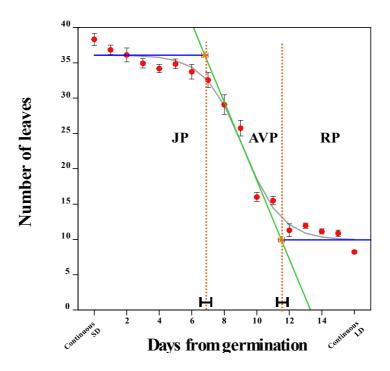


Figure 3.11 Different phases of photoperiod sensitivity in Arabidopsis Col-0.

The effect of transferring Arabidopsis at weekly intervals (expressed as days from 50% germination) from LD to SD on flowering time. JP: juvenile phase, AVP: adult vegetative phase, RP: reproductive phase, SD: short day, LD: long day. Vertical error bars denote the standard error of the mean of the number of leaves. Horizontal error bars denote the standard error of the mean of the estimated phase length. Logistic curve (grey curve), maximum slope (green line), lag time lines (blue lines). The orange dotted lines delimit the three different phases.

The expression of *AtFT* in was followed in all the rosette leaves present in the plant using Real-time PCR analysis and expression levels increased in plants grown under continuous LD at around 6 days when juvenility was shown to end (Figure 3.12 A).

Figure 3.11 B shows that in plants grown under SD, *AtFT* expression is very low during the assessment period. Although *AtFT* expression increases after the second day from germination the relative amount is too low to be considered, especially if compared to the *AtFT* expression level in plants grown under LD (Figure 3.11 A-B).

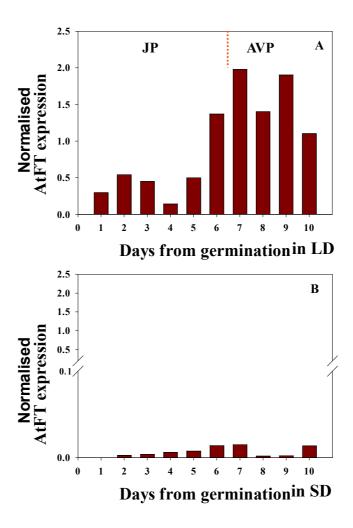


Figure 3.12 Developmental expression of AtFT in leaf material from plants grown under LD at ZT 15 (A) and SD at ZT 7(B).

Real-time PCR analysis of the relative expression of AtFT normalised to actin at each time point. JP= juvenile phase, AVP= adult vegetative phase. The orange dotted line delimits the phases.

Using Real-time PCR analysis AtCO expression was shown to rise from 4 days post germination in plants grown under LD (Figure 3.13 A). This occurs during the JP which ended around 6.8 days post germination. Generally the levels of AtCO are 1-2 orders of magnitude higher than AtFT levels.

In contrast under SD, *AtCO* expression is lower during the assessment period with an increase occurring at 10 days from germination (Figure 3.13 B).

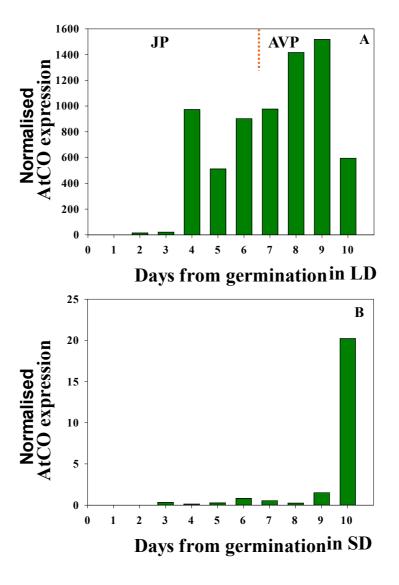


Figure 3.13 Developmental expression of AtCO in leaf material from plants grown under LD at ZT 15 (A) and SD at ZT 7(B).

Real-time PCR analysis of the relative expression of AtCO normalised to actin at each time point. JP= juvenile phase, AVP= adult vegetative phase. The orange dotted line delimits the phases.

Under LD conditions where the photoperiodic pathway is active, whilst the rise in *AtFT* expression coincides with the end of juvenility, *AtCO* levels are high during juvenility and rise prior to the end of juvenility (Figure 3.14). From day 6, changes in *AtCO* were broadly mirrored by changes in *AtFT*. The same standard curve and cDNA samples were used to analyse expression of all genes, thus relative expression levels can be compared.

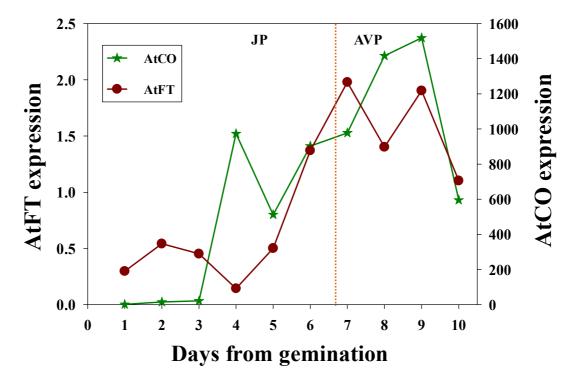


Figure 3.14 Developmental expression of AtCO and AtFT at ZT 15 in leaf material from plants grown under LD.

Real-time PCR analysis of the relative expression of AtCO and AtFT normalised to actin at each time point. JP= juvenile phase, AVP= adult vegetative phase. The orange dotted line delimits the phases.

#### 3.4 Discussion

In the current study it has been shown that SANYO MLR-351H cabinets can be used successfully to grow *Antirrhinum* and *Arabidopsis* plants for assessment of juvenility. This represents an advantage over the use of glasshouses from logistic and economic perspectives and most importantly, in achieving reproducibility as shown by the similarity in the estimation of JP length in Experiments 2 and 3.

Under the growth conditions used the juvenile phase length of *Antirrhinum* in Experiment 1 was shown to be around 14 days post emergence, with floral initiation occurring by 28 days post emergence, based on data from the transfer experiment and observation of leaf production.

From apex observation in Experiment 2 and Real-time PCR analyses conducted in Experiment 3, expression of *CEN* and *FLO* was shown to be linked to commitment to floral initiation and not to the end of juvenility. *FLO* was not detectable early in development both in inductive LD and non inductive SD conditions. Under LD, *FLO* expression is induced earlier compared to plants grown under SD where floral induction was delayed. Furthermore, *FLO* expression in plants exposed to SD conditions was very low if compared with the relative amount of *FLO* in LD. This finding was also observed by Bradley *et al.* (1996) in *Antirrhinum*, linking *FLO* expression to floral induction. However, *LEAFY* (*LFY*) in *Arabidopsis* has been shown to be expressed during the vegetative phase rising quickly prior to the initiation of flowering in LD conditions and more slowly in SD (Blazquez *et al.*, 1997). Different roles could be played by *FLO/LFY* in *Antirrhinum* and *Arabidopsis*, respectively.

In LD, *CEN* levels increased after 21 days, which coincides with the time of floral commitment. In SD the expression was lower. *CEN* expression increased earlier compared to *FLO*, but both of them increased after floral initiation takes place. This finding matches with the hypothesis that in *Arabidopsis* TFL1 represses *LFY* in the shoots during the vegetative phase (Bradley *et al.*, 1996; Coen *et al.*, 1990). It is clear that changes in expression of neither gene are associated with the JP to AVP transition.

In Experiment 1 the JP in *Antirrhinum* was estimated to have ended 13.7 days after germination and the AVP lasted for approximately 16.5 days. The experiment was repeated at a reduced light integral in an attempt to extend the JP. In Experiment 2, when light integral was reduced, juvenility was extended by approximately one day and the AVP was prolonged by about 5 days. When Experiment 3 was performed to assess the reproducibility of the assay, similar results were generated for the JP length, while more variability was observed in the AVP length. The results obtained fit with the finding observed in other studies. In a previous study it was demonstrated that the length of juvenility is longer when the plant is exposed to a lower light integral (Adams, 1999). Cremer *et al.* (1998) showed that, for *Antirrhinum*, a higher light integral decreases flowering time and using different shading levels with *Antirrhinum* Munir, *et al.* (2004) concluded that lower levels of light intensity extend flowering time.

FT is one of the key genes in the photoperiodic pathway (Araki et al., 1998; Turck et al., 2008). FT is induced in leaves during LD in Arabidopsis (Kotake et al., 2003) then it moves through the phloem to the apex to induce flowering (Corbesier et al., 2007). Expression of this gene was analysed throughout plant development.

The current study provides the first description of spatial and temporal AmFT gene expression in all the leaves and throughout development. It is shown that AmFT expression is lower but not absent during juvenility and increases in all leaves during adulthood in plants grown under LD showing an increase of sensitivity to LD throughout phases. This result complements a previous study in which expression of FT was tested in the youngest expanded leaves during Antirrhinum development (Thomas, 2009). Other researches demonstrate changes in the expression of FT at specific stages of development of several plants. In Poplar two FT homologues, PtFT1 and PtFT2 have been isolated and it has been suggested that both PtFT1 and PtFT2 follow a circadian rhythm and regulate the transition from the JP to the AVP (Bohlenius et al., 2006; Hsu et al., 2006). In apple FT-like genes exhibit circadian expression patterns (Traenkner et al., 2010). MdFT1 expression levels are high in apical buds during the adult phase while MdFT2 was expressed in reproductive organs, but they both act as floral promoters (Kotoda et al., 2010). FT-like genes are also involved in the regulation of the juvenile-to-adult phase transition but they may also play different roles in the same plant.

As described in the introduction, in *Arabidopsis* one of the key genes involved in *FT* regulation is *CO*. *CO* is activated by the circadian clock and *CO* expression peaks at about 16 h ZT (Wigge, 2011). CO protein, which activates *FT* expression, is degraded in the dark and stabilised in the light. In the current study *CO* expression was used as a marker for the photoperiodic pathway being active during juvenility. In *Antirrhinum*, the *CO* homologue has not yet been isolated. Using *Arabidopsis* as a model, it was shown that *CO* levels rise before the end of juvenility and *FT* levels rise around the end of juvenility. In the literature, *CO* expression level has been shown to be present throughout development, increasing

during floral transition (Castillejo and Pelaz, 2008). No studies have been published about *CO* expression in the early stages of development or in relation to the JP.

The data presented in the current study showed that in *Arabidopsis* the photoperiodic pathway is active before the end of juvenility. It can be concluded, therefore, that other factors or repressors may repress *FT* transcription during juvenility to avoid premature flowering.

# CHAPTER 4. ISOLATION AND CHARACTERIZATION OF *ANTIRRHINUM* AND OLIVE TEMPRANILLO ORTHOLOGS

#### 4.1 Introduction

The switch between vegetative and reproductive growth phases is one of the main transitions plants undergo during post embryonic development. This process is regulated by a complex pathway synchronized by both endogenous and exogenous factors. In *Arabidopsis*, one of the key genes involved in this process is *FLOWERING LOCUS T (FT)*. *FT* expression is rapidly induced by CONSTANS (CO) as described in chapter 1. In chapter 3 it was shown that *FT* expression levels rise after the end of juvenility in both *Arabidopsis* and *Antirrhinum*; *CO* expression was shown to be high prior to the end of juvenility. This indicated that mechanisms may be involved to repress *FT* during juvenility hence to avoid premature flowering.

The B3 super-family of transcription factors contains 6 different groups of genes: HSI (HIGH-LEVEL EXPRESSION OF SUGAR-INDUCIBLE GENE), LAV (LEAFY COTYLEDON2/ABSCISIC ACID INSENSITIVE3 and HSI/VAL), ABI3/VPI (ABSCISIC ACID INSENSITIVE 3/VPI), ARF (AUXIN RESPONSE FACTOR), REM (REPRODUCTIVE MERISTEM) and RAV (RELATED TO ABI3/VPI) (Romanel *et al.*, 2009). The B3 domain, a basic domain, was first identified in the maize gene *VIVIPAROUS* (*VPI*). VP1 also contains B1 and B2 domains. B3 is a DNA binding domain that can bind to different target sites

according to which sub-family of genes it resides in. Each sub-family of B3 genes contains a defining set of conserved amino acids (Swaminathan *et al.*, 2008).

The RAV sub-family is classified by the conserved WN/RSSQS motif found at amino acid position 245-250 (Swaminathan *et al.*, 2008). In *Arabidopsis*, 13 RAV genes have been classified and these are divided into 2 classes. Class I comprises six members that contain the APETALA2 (AP2) DNA binding domain in addition to the B3 domain (Romanel *et al.*, 2009) (Figure 4.1) and Class II contains 7 other less characterised genes (Table 4.1).

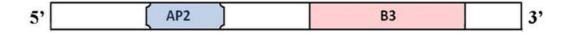


Figure 4.1 Structure of genes belonging to the RAV class I sub-family of the B3 superfamily

**Table 4.1 RAV gene family table.** Adapted by Romanel et al. (2009)

Gene Family	Gene name	Genomic locus	Protein locus
RAV Class I	RAV1	At1g13260	NP_172784
RAV Class I	RAV1-like	At3g25730	NP_189201
RAV Class I	RAV2/TEM2	At1g68840	NP_564947
RAV Class I	TEM1	At1g25560	NP_173927
RAV Class I	RAV-like 4	At1g50680	NP_175483
RAV Class I	RAV-like 5	At1g51120	NP_175524
RAV Class II	RAV-like 3	At5g06250	NP_001119177
RAV Class II	RAV-like 1	At2g36080	NP_850260
RAV Class II	RAV-like 2	At3g11580	NP_850559
RAV Class II	NGA1	At2g46870	NP_566089
RAV Class II	NGA2	At3g61970	NP_191756
RAV Class II	NGA3	At1g01030	NP_171611
RAV Class II	NGA4	At4g01500	NP_192059

The N-terminal AP2 domain recognises the CAACA motif within genes whilst the C-terminal B3 domain recognises the CACCTG sequence, irrespective of their relative orientation on the DNA strands (Kagaya *et al.*, 1999).

RAV1 and RAV2 (or TEMPRANILLO2) were cloned from Arabidopsis thaliana by Kagaya et al. (1999). Recent work has demonstrated that RAV1 and RAV2 expression can change according to various stimuli such us temperature, pathogen attack and steroids (Hu et al., 2004). Brassinosteroids (BRs) are a group of plant steroidal hormones which play an important role in many aspects of plant growth. When the BR-deficient (det2) mutants were treated with 24-epibrassinolide, RAV1 mRNA levels decreased in a dose-dependent manner, which indicated that RAV1 may be down-regulated by BRs (Hu et al., 2004). Also miRNA172 has been reported to down regulate genes with AP2 domains (Aukerman and Sakai, 2003). Plants can activate RNA silencing if attacked by pathogens and many plant viruses can suppress this process. RAV2 has been reported to be required for blocking RNA silencing by 2 distinct viral proteins (Endres et al., 2010). Despite the similarity between RAV1 and TEMPRANILLO1 (TEM1) genes with RAV2 (TEM2), RAV1 and TEM1 could not functionally complement the rav2 mutant (SALK\_070847) with respect to suppression of RNA silencing (Endres et al., 2010).

RAV-like genes have been cloned and characterised in other species. Capsicuum annuum, chilli pepper CaRAVI is involved in plant defence responses and shares 69% amino acid identity with RAV1 and 73% with RAV2 with an even higher sequence identity in the AP2 and B3 domain (Kim, et al., 2005). In Galegae orientalis, GoRAV is induced by exogenous ABA, low temperature and high-salinity and its expression level decreases if treated with BRs. The overall amino acid sequence identities between GoRAV and Arabidopsis RAV1 and 2 and Glycine

max RAV-like are 55.13%, 57.61% and 72.24%, respectively (Chen, et al., 2009). In the SDP soybean, *GmRAV* shares 54.8% identity with *Arabidopsis* RAV1, 55.5% identity with *Arabidopsis* RAV2 and 55.1% with *Oryza sativa* RAV2. *GmRAV* expression levels are higher in SD with peaks of expression one and six days after germination. In LD, over-expression of *GmRAV* in tobacco leads to a delay in flowering (Zhao et al., 2008). Hu et al. (2004) also transformed *Arabidopsis* with both sense- and anti-sense *RAV1* constructs. Plants with reduced *RAV1* expression flowered 4.8 days earlier than the WT and 6.6 days earlier than those over-expressing *RAV1*, suggesting that RAV1 may act as a repressor of growth and development.

TEM1 and TEM2, have been shown to repress flowering in *Arabidopsis* (Castillejo and Pelaz, 2008). They are proposed to act redundantly to repress *FT*, binding to its 5' untranslated region. Ectopic over-expression of both genes causes late flowering and *TEM1* over-expression almost completely suppresses *FT* expression (Castillejo and Pelaz, 2008). In *Arabidopsis TEM1* follows a circadian rhythm, peaking at dusk whilst in *Castanea sativa RAV1* (*CsRAV1*), a *TEM1* homologue, peaks at noon (Castillejo and Pelaz, 2008; Moreno-Cortés *et al.*, 2012). In *Arabidopsis* it has been shown that *TEM1* mRNA is abundant in seedlings and declines before the floral transition when *FT* levels peak. Furthermore, *TEM1* and *TEM2* have been proposed to antagonise CO activity by competing for the *FT* binding site (Castillejo and Pelaz, 2008). Additionally, chestnut *CsRAV1* has been shown to induce early formation of sylleptic branches in poplar with no difference in wood anatomy; flowering time was not investigated in the study (Moreno-Cortés *et al.*, 2012).

#### 4.1.1 *Olive*

Juvenility in olive can last for up to 15-20 years with the length being genotype-dependent (El Riachy et al., 2011; Leon and Downey, 2006). Juvenility can additionally be influenced by the vigor of the seedlings. JP can be shortened by all the factors that increase seedling development like soil solarisation, fertilisation and irrigation management (El Riachy et al., 2011; Gucci and Cantini, 2000). Generally, if an olive plant is vegetatively-produced it may take 2-3 years before the first flowers are produced, with production starting after 7-8 years and full production being reached after 30 years. Morphological traits like leaf shape and size and internode length can be used to distinguish juvenile and mature olive plants, but these characteristics may change between cultivars and, due to solar exposure, they can be visible at the base of the trunk of adult plants (Garcia et al., 2000; Gucci and Cantini, 2000). Achieving predictable flowering in olive is important for planning actions such as pest control treatments (Perez-Lopez et al., 2008). It is also important for breeding projects, where high yields, desiderable fruits characteristics and adaptability to different environments are necessary (Bellini et al., 2008).

Since it was hypothesised that FT levels are low during juvenility due to repression, having shown that the photoperiodic pathway is active, and armed with the knowledge that TEM binds to the 5' UTR of the FT gene and also represses flowering, TEM was chosen as a candidate to study in relation to juvenility. The first step in the process was to isolate homologues from other species to enable the study.

The aim of the work in this chapter was to isolate and characterise a *TEM* homologue from *Antirrhinum*. No other *Antirrhinum RAV-like* class I genes in *Antirrhinum* have been identified to date. A further part of this study involved the isolation and characterisation of a *TEM* homologue from *Olea europaea* (Olive). This part of the project involved collaboration with Università degli Studi della Tuscia-Dipartimento di scienze e tecnologie per l'Agricoltura, le Foreste, la Natura e l'Energia (DAFNE) (Italy) who provided plant samples.

#### 4.2 Materials and Methods

This section describes the materials and methods specific for this results chapter. Protocols and materials common to more than one chapter are described in chapter 2. All primer details are listed in the Appendix, Table A.1, A.2, A.3, A.4 and A.5.

## 4.2.1 Antirrhinum leaf samples

Leaf material harvested in *Antirrhinum* during Experiment 2 when plants were 12 days old, hence still juvenile and from 24 day old plants, hence adult, was pooled, total RNA extracted and cDNA synthesised as described in section 2.6.

#### 4.2.2 *Olive leaf samples*

Leaf samples were collected on the 25<sup>th</sup> of June 2010 at 20:00 (sun rise was at 5:34, sun set was at 20:52), frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C until their utilization. Total RNA isolated using RNeasy Plant Mini Kit (Qiagen Inc, Cat. No. 74903, UK) was provided by Prof Rosario Muleo (Universita' degli studi della Tuscia, DAFNE; ITALY). The cDNA was synthesised as described in section 2.6.

#### 4.2.3 *Arabidopsis leaf samples*

Leaf material harvested from *Arabidopsis* at different stages of development (1, 2, 3, 7, 8 and 9 days old plants) was pooled together, total RNA extracted and cDNA synthesised as described in section 2.6.

## 4.2.4.1 Isolation of an internal partial sequence of putative *AmTEM*

A partial sequence of Antirrhinum majus TEM (AmTEM) was isolated by PCR of cDNA using degenerate primers. To aid in the design of degenerate primers the sequences of Arabidopsis TEM1, TEM2 and RAVs were obtained from the TAIR database (<a href="http://www.arabidopsis.org/">http://www.arabidopsis.org/</a>) and the Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (BLAST) from the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) GenBank database (<a href="http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/">http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/</a>) was used to identify other sequences with high sequence homologies. Amino acid sequences used for the alignment were RAVs and RAV-like from different species selected for high homology to the Arabidopsis RAV family genes (Table 4.1). A total of 41 amino acid sequences were collected (Appendix, Figure A.6). After initial screening based on phylogenetic analyses (Appendix, Figure A.7) and presence of conserved amino acids in the B3 domain and the presence of the AP2 domain, 23 sequences were Multalin aligned the web-based software using (http://multalin.toulouse.inra.fr/multalin/multalin.html) (CORPET) and degenerate primers were designed (Appendix, Figure A.8). To design degenerate primers amino acid sequences were aligned to identify regions of sequences conserved, primers were based on amino acid sequences found in AtTEM1 and AtTEM2 in conserved regions and Codon Usage Database (http://www.kazusa.or.jp/codon/) for Antirrhinum to determine nucleotides to incorporate into degenerate primers was consulted.

Primers were designed to anneal to different regions of the gene covering almost all the entire *TEM1/2* sequence (Figure 4.2).

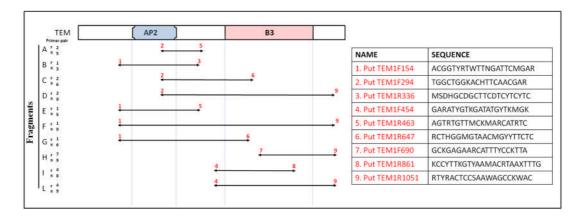


Figure 4.2 Representation of the annealing position of the 10 combinations of degenerate primers used to isolate AmTEM and list of the primers sequences.

Antirrhinum cDNA, obtained as described in section 4.2.1, was used as template in the PCR mix, as described in section 2.7 and primers were used at 0.5 μM. PCR amplification consisted of an initial denaturation at 95°C for 2 min, followed by 35 cycles of denaturation at 94°C for 20 s, gradient annealing temperature from 48°C to 65°C for 10 s, and extension at 70°C for 15 s. A further 10 min of extension at 70°C was carried out at the end of the cycles.

PCR products were visualized on agarose gels as described in section 2.9. Products of the expected lengths were purified as described in section 2.10, using QIAquick® gel Purification Kit (Qiagen, Australia) and ligated into the pGEM-T Easy vector as described in section 2.11.

Ligated vector products (2 µl) were added to 20 µl of electrocompetent EC100 *E. coli* cells and electroporated as described in 2.11.

Cells were then plated out on LB/Agar plates containing ampicillin, isopropyl/-D- thiogalactoside (IPTG) and 5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl-beta-D-galactopyranoside (X-Gal) as described in section 2.12. Colony PCR was performed as described in section 2.7 and plasmid DNA isolated from a 5 ml overnight culture in LB medium as described in section 2.12. Plasmid DNA was sequenced as described in section 2.14 using M13 primers.

Contigs were obtained from sequenced fragments, using the Seqman package of DNAStar (DNAStar Inc.). New primers, CI-AmF and CI-AmR specific for the 5'- and 3'- of the contig representing the middle portion of the gene were designed and used in PCR at 0.5 µM with an annealing temperature of 55°C as described in section 2.7 to isolate the entire contig as a single fragment. Gel isolation, cloning and sequencing using CI-AmF and CI-AmR, were carried out described in sections 2.9-2.14, to confirm the sequence of the contig, called Contig CI (Appendix, Figure A.9).

#### 4.2.4.2 Internal portion of *OeTEM*

A partial putative sequence (isotig13527) of an *Olea europaea TEM* (*OeTEM*) was obtained by Prof. Rosario Muleo from the Università degli Studi della Tuscia (Appendix, Figure A.10). The sequence was found by performing a BLAST search comparing the *Arabidopsis TEM1* and *TEM2* AP2 domains with 448,892 assembled sequenced ESTs of a total of 95578 unigenes, 75388 Singleton and 20170 Tentative Consesus in an Olive floral library (sequenced obtained with 454-Read, Roche) (Prof Rosario Muleo personal communication).

To obtain partial cDNAs representing 5'- and 3'- ends of *AmTEM* and *OeTEM*, Rapid Amplification of cDNA Ends (RACE)-PCR was performed on 7 μg of DNase-I treated total RNA from *Antirrhinum* and olive leaf material described in section 4.2.1 and 4.2.2 using the GeneRacer (GeneRacer kit, Invitrogen Ltd. Cat. No. L1500-01, USA) kit 5'- and 3'-RACE protocols following the manufacturer's guidelines.

To obtain the 3'- end, RNA was reverse transcribed, as described in section 2.6, using a GeneRacer Oligo(dT) primer. For the first round of PCR, PCR reactions were set up as described in section 2.7, using either *Antirrhinum* TEM gene specific primer (GSP) Forward or Olive TEM GSP Forward with the GeneRacer reverse primer, GeneRacer<sup>TM</sup> 3', to amplify *AmTEM* and *OeTEM* 3'-ends respectively. Amplification consisted of an initial denaturation at 94°C for 2 min, followed by 5 cycles of 94°C for 30 s, 72° for 1 min, followed by 30 cycles of 94°C for 30 s, 70° for 1 min. A further 10 min of extension at 72°C was carried out at the end of the cycles.

Nested PCRs were set up as described in section 2.7 using either *Antirrhinum* TEM GSPN Forward or Olive TEM GSPN Forward with the GeneRacer nested reverse primer, GeneRacer<sup>TM</sup> 3' Nested, to amplify *AmTEM* and *OeTEM* 3'- ends, respectively. Amplification consisted of an initial denaturation at 94°C for 2 min, followed by 30 cycles of 94°C for 30 s, 70° for 1 min. A further 10 min of extension at 72°C was carried out at the end of the cycles.

Products of the expected size were gel-purified and cloned into the pGEM-T Easy vector as described in section 2.10. Plasmid DNA was extracted as described

in section 2.13 and inserts sequenced with M13 primers as described in section 2.14.

The same mRNA templates used to obtain the 3'- end sequence were used for cDNA synthesis to obtain the 5'- end of the cDNA from *AtTEM* and *OeTEM* following the manufacturer's instructions.

For the first round of PCR, PCR reactions were set up as described in section 2.7, using GeneRacer forward primer, GeneRacer<sup>TM</sup> 5' Primer, with either *Antirrhinum* TEM GSP Reverse or Olive TEM GSP Reverse, to amplify *AmTEM* and *OeTEM* 5'- ends, respectively. Amplification consisted of an initial denaturation at 94°C for 2 min, followed by 5 cycles of 94°C for 30 s, 72° for 1 min, followed by 30 cycles of 94°C for 30 s, 70° for 1 min. A further 10 min of extension at 72°C was carried out at the end of the cycles.

Nested PCRs were set up as described in section 2.7 using GeneRacer nested reverse primer, GeneRacer<sup>TM</sup> 5' Nested, with either *Antirrhinum* TEM GSPN Reverse or Olive TEM GSPN Reverse with the to amplify *AmTEM* and *OeTEM* 5'-ends, respectively. Amplification consisted of an initial denaturation at 94°C for 2 min, followed by 30 cycles of 94°C for 30 s, 70° for 1 min. A further 10 min of extension at 72°C was carried out at the end of the cycles.

Products of the expected size were gel-purified and ligated into the pGEM-T Easy vector, plasmid DNA extracted as described in section 2.12 and 2.13 and inserts by sequenced with M13 primers as described in section 2.14.

# 4.2.5 Acquisition of full length cDNAs representing AmTEM, OeTEM and AtTEM1

Full length cDNA representing *AmTEM* and *OeTEM* and *AtTEM1* were obtained using PCR conditions and AmTEM1F/AmTEM1072R, OeTEM1F/OeTEM1074R and AtTEM1-F/AtTEM1091-R specific primers, respectively, as specified in section 2.7.

# 4.2.6 Amino acid sequence comparisons and phylogenetic analysis

The nucleotide and deduced amino acid sequences of the *AmTEM* and *OeTEM* cDNA were used for BLAST searches on the NCBI GenBank database. The deduced amino acid sequences were aligned using the Clustal W MegAlign package of DNAStar (DNAStar Inc.). Evolutionary relationships of RAV subfamily members were inferred using the Maximum Parsimony method. Bootstrap values were derived from 500 replicate runs.

# 4.2.7 Cloning of full length cDNAs into the Gateway binary vector for Agrobacterium-mediated transformation of Arabidopsis

Products were sequenced as described in section 2.14 and ligated into the pGEM-T Easy vector as described in section 2.11 and 2.12. Plasmid DNA was isolated, as in section 2.13 and used as template in PCR to attach att-sites at the ends of each cDNA fragment for Gateway cloning.

PCR conditions used were: 1 cycle for 2 min at 95°C; 4 cycles for 20 s at 95°C, 10 s at 55°C, 1 min at 70°C; 20 cycles for 20 s at 95°C, 10 s 63°C (for

AmTEM1F/AmTEM1072R) or 65°C (for OeTEM1F/OeTEM1074R) or 61°C (for AtTEM1-F/AtTEM1091-R), 1 min at 70°C and 1 cycle for 5 min at 70°C. PCR reagents were used at concentration described in section 2.7. Products were gelpurified as in section 2.10 and cloned into Gateway® pDONR<sup>TM</sup>207 vector (Invitrogen Ltd., USA) (Figure 4.3) using a Gateway® BP Clonase® II enzyme mix (Invitrogen, Cat No. 11789-020) following the manufacturer's instructions. The genes were then cloned, using a Gateway® LR Clonase® II (Invitrogen, Cat. No. 11791-043 USA), into a pB2GW7 binary vector (Figure 4.4) (Invitrogen Ltd., USA) to produce the pBAmTEM, pBOeTEM and pBAtTEM1 vectors. The pB2GW7 vector contains a CaMV 35S promoter and the *bar* gene which confers resistance to the herbicide Glufosinate-ammonium.

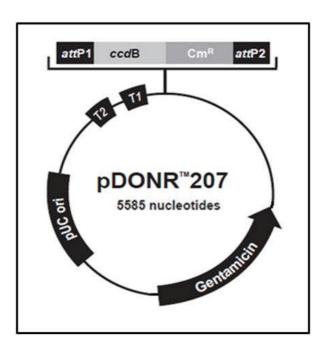


Figure 4.3 Map of pDONR 207 vector

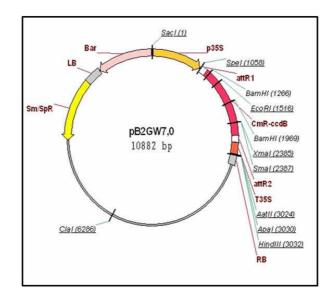


Figure 4.4 Map of the pB2GW7 vector

Plasmid DNA was then isolated as in section 2.12 and the presence of the appropriate gene in the vectors was confirmed by sequencing with gene specific primers seq Amtem F/seq Amtem R (for *Antirrhinum*), seq Oetem F/seq Oetem R (for Olive) and seq Attem1 F/ seq Attem1 R (for *Arabidopsis*), as explained in section 2.14.

#### 4.2.8 Preparation and Transformation of competent Agrobacterium cells

Agrobacterium cells, strain c58pGV3101, were cultured to an O.D. of 0.2-0.4 at 28°C in 200 ml LB media containing Gentamycin (50 μg/ml). The cells were then collected by centrifugation at 3000 rpm at 4°C for 10 min and resuspended in 20 ml ice-cold 1 mM Hepes (pH 7.0). After a further centrifugation the cells were resuspended in 2 ml of ice-cold 10% (v/v) glycerol. This step was repeated again and then the cells were split into 50 μl aliquots and frozen in liquid nitrogen and then stored at -80°C.

The *Agrobacterium* strain c58pGV3101 was then transformed by electroporation as described in 2.12 with pBAmTEM, pBOeTEM and pBAtTEM1 vectors. *Agrobacterium* plasmid DNA was isolated as described in section 2.13 and the presence of the appropriate genes confirmed using PCR. PCR conditions used were: 1 cycle for 2 min at 95°C; 4 cycles for 20 s at 95°C, 10 s at 55°C, 1 min at 70°C; 20 cycles for 20 s at 95°C, 10 s 63°C (for AmTEM1F/AmTEM1072R) or 65°C (for OeTEM1F/OeTEM1074R) or 61°C (for AtTEM1-F/AtTEM1091-R), 1 min at 70°C and 1 cycle for 5 min at 70°C. PCR reagents were used at concentration described in section 2.7.

# 4.2.9 Agrobacterium mediated plant transformation of Arabidopsis with AmTEM, AtTEM1 and OeTEM

Agrobacterium harbouring pBAmTEM, pBOeTEM or pBAtTEM1 vectors was used to transform 10 Col-0, and 10 tem1 Arabidopsis plants using the floral dip method (Clough and Bent, 1998). To plants were grown in Sanyo MLR plant growth chambers and To seeds collected. Arabidopsis plants transformed with AmTEM gene were grown under SD conditions while Arabidopsis plants transformed with OeTEM and AtTEM1 genes were grown under LD conditions. To generation seeds were sown, stratified and grown as described in section 2.3 under LD conditions. Plants were sprayed 3 times, every 2 weeks from emergence of the first true leaves, with the BASTA herbicide (Bayer CropScience, Cat. No. 05936136), containing Glufosinate-ammonium at a concentration of 150 mg/l. The resistant plants were allowed to flower. Flowering times were recorded as time to

flowering from germination and number of rosette leaves at 1 cm bolt.  $T_2$  seeds were collected.

## 4.2.10 PCR screening of transformed plants

Genomic DNA from T<sub>1</sub> plants was extracted as in section 2.5 and PCRs performed as described in section 2.7 to confirm the presence of the transgenes using the gene specific primers seq Amtem F/seq Amtem R, seq Oetem F/seq Oetem R and seq Attem1 F/ seq Attem1 R to amplify *AmTEM*, *OeTEM* and *AtTEM1*, respectively. PCR conditions used were: 1 cycle for 2 min at 95°C; 30 cycles for 20 s at 95°C, 10 s 57°C (for seq Amtem F/seq Amtem R) or 63°C (for seq Oetem F/seq Oetem R) or 61°C (for seq Attem1 F/ seq Attem1 R), 1 min at 70°C and 1 cycle for 5 min at 70°C. PCR reagents were used at concentration described in section 2.7.

### 4.2.11 *Semi-quantitative PCR*

Semi-quantitative PCR to determine differential expression of *AmTEM* and *OeTEM* was performed as described in section 2.7. cDNA templates for *Antirrhinum* were the samples T<sub>3</sub>.1 and T<sub>6</sub>.1, as explained in Table 3.1 chapter 3, representing a juvenile and an adult sample, respectively. cDNA samples used for the olive analysis represent a juvenile and an adult sample as explained in section 4.2.2. The amplification consisted of an initial denaturation at 94°C for 2 min, denaturation at 94°C for 15 s, annealing for 30 s, and extension at 72°C for 30 s for

a range of cycles, comprising between 15 and 40. Primers, cycle ranges and annealing temperatures used to detect each gene are shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2 Primers used for semi-quantitative analysis of AmELFa, AmFT, AmTEM, OeActin and OeTEM expression.

Organism and gene (GenBank Acc. No.)	Primer name	Tm	Final concentration	Range of cycles tested	Optimum cycle for semi- quantitative analysis
Antirrhinum Elongation	Ant elf-alpha F		0.5μΜ	15.20	25
factor α (AJ805055)	Ant elf-alpha R	61°C	0.5μΜ	15-29	25
Antirrhinum	Ant put FT F		0.5μΜ	27.40	26
FT (AJ803471)	Ant put FT R	63°C	0.5μΜ	27-40	36
Antirrhinum	Ant fragment TEM F	61°C	0.5μΜ	27-40	35
TEM	Ant fragment TEM R	01 C	0.5μΜ	27-40	33
Olive	Oe-Actin F	65°C	0.5μΜ	20-29	22
actin1 (AY788899)	Oe-Actin R	65°C	0.5μΜ	20-29	22
Olive	Oe fragment TEM F	61°C	0.5μΜ	25-32	27
TEM	Oe fragment TEM R	01 C	0.5μΜ	23-32	21

### 4.3 Results

# 4.3.1 Screening of RAV sequences

Fifty-two RAV and RAV-like protein sequences were aligned (Figure 4.5). Although 11 of them had been classified in the RAV sub-family, they lack the conserved amino acids WN/RSSQS in the B3 domain (Swaminathan *et al.*, 2008) and were hence excluded from the sequence comparisons.

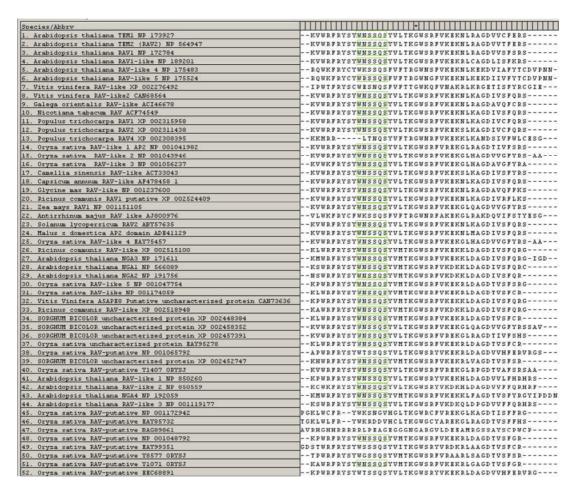


Figure 4.5 Amino acid alignment of 52 RAV and RAV-like protein sequences showing the conserved amino acids WN/RSSQS in the B3 domain (green boxes).

Accession numbers are given next to the species name.

Further analysis of the aligned sequences showed that 18 sequences could not be classified in class I of the RAV sub-family because of the absence of the APETALA2 (AP2) domain (Figure 4.6) (Romanel *et al.*, 2009). These were also excluded from further study.

Species/Abbry	
1. Arabidopsis thaliana TEM1 NP 173927	KLPSSKYKGVVPOPNGRUGAOIYEKHORVULGIFNEERRAASSYDIAVRRFRGRDAVINFKSQVDGNDAESAFLD
2. Arabidopsis thaliana TEM2 (PAV2) NP 564947	-KLPSSKYKGVVPQPNGRUGAQIYEKHQRVULGTFNEQEEAARSYDIAACRFRGRDAVVNFKNVLEDGDLAFLE
3. Arabidopsis thaliana RAVI NP 172784	KLPSSKYKGUUPQPMGRUGAQIYEKHQRUULGTFNEEDEAARAYDUAUHRFRRRDAUTNFKDUKHDEDEUDFLN
4. Arabidopsis thaliana PAVI-like NP 189201	KLPSSRPKGVVPQPNGRUGAQIYEKHQRVULGTFNEEDEAARAYDVAAHRFRGRDAVTNFKDTFF-EEEVEFLN
5. Arabidopsis thaliana RAV-like 5 NP 175524	NTTKFKCVVQQQNCHVCAQIYADHRRIVLCTFKSAHEAAAAYDSASIKLRSFDANSHRNFPWSDFTLHEPDFQE
6. Vitis vinifera RAV-like2 CAN68564	-KLPSSRFKGVVPQPNGRUGAQIYEKHQRVULGTFNEEEEAAKAYDIAAQRFRGRDAVINFKPLSET-EEDDIEAAFLN
7. Galega orientalis RAV-like ACI46678	KLPSSKYKGVVPOPNGRUGAOLYEKHORVULGTENEEDEAARAYDIAALRERGKDAVTNSKTLAGAGNDNDBABTEFLN
8. Nicotiana tabacum PAV ACF74549	KLPSSRYEGVVPQPNGRVGAQIYEKHQRVVLGTFNEENEAARAYDVAAQRFRGRDAVTNFKPLLENEENDDHEIAFLN
9. Populus trichocarpa PAVI XP 002315958	RLPSSKYKGVVPQPNGRUGAQIYEKHQRVULGTFNEENEAARAYDIAAQRFRGRDAVTNFKQVNETEDDEIBAAFLN
10. Populus trichocarpa RAVZ XP 002311438	Klpsskykgvvpqpngrugaqivekhqrvulgtfneedeaaraydtaaqrfrgrdavtnfkqvneteddeieaafli
11. Oryza sativa RAV-1ike 1 AP2 NP 001041982	OSSRYKGUUDODUGRUGAQIYERHARUULGTFPDEEAAARAYDUAALRYRGRDAATH-FPGAAASAAELAFLA
12. Oryza sativa PAV-like 2 NP 001043946	GGKLPSSKFKGVVPQPWGRWGAQIYERHQRVWLGTFAGEDDAARAYDVAAQRFRGRDAVTMFRPLAEADPDAAAELRFLA
13. Oryza sativa PAV-like 3 NP 001056237	LPSSKYKCVVPQPNGRUGAQIYERHQRVULGTFTGEAEAARAYDVAAQRFRGRDAVTNFRPLAESDPEAAVELRFLA
14. Camellia sinensis PAV-like ACT33043	RLPSSRFRGVVPQPNGRWGAQIYEKHQRVWLGTFNEEDEAARAYDIAAQRFRGRDAVTNFKPLSENEEQDELETLFLN
15. Capsicum annuum RAV-like AF478458 1	KLPSSKYKGUVPQPNGRUGAQIYEKHQRVULGTFNEENEAARAYDVAAQRFRGRDAVTNFKFLLENQESDDD-VEIAFLN
16. Glycine max RAV-like NF 001237600	KLPSSKYKGVVPQPWGRWGAQIYEKHQRVWLGTFNEEDEAARAYDIAALRFRGPDAVTWFKPPAASDDAESEFLN
17. Ricinus communis PAV1 putative XP 002524409	Klpsskykgvvpqpmgrugaqiyekhqrvulgtfneedeaakaydiaaqrfreedaltnfkfqatdhqseedeietafln
18. Zea mays RAV1 NP 001151105	RLPSSRYKGVVPQPNGRUGAQIYERHQRVULGTFAGRADAARAYDVAAQRFRGRDAVTNFRPLADADPDAAAELRFLA
19. Solanum lycopersicum PAV2 ABY57635	KLPSSRYKGVVPOPNGRUGAQIYEKHORUVLGTPNEENEAARAYDIAAORPRGRDAVTNFKPLLENOESDDMEIAFLN
20. Malus x domestica AP2 domain ADE41129	KLPSSRYKGVVPQPNGRVGAQIYEKHQRVVLGTFNEEDEAARAYDVAAQRFRGPDAVTNFKPSSAEPISSDDEENDD-AEAAFLS
21. Oryza sativa PAV-like 4 EAY75457	HISSKSELRHIYERHQRVWLGTFAGEDDAARAYDVAAQRFRGRDAVTNFRPLAEADPDAAAELRFLA
22. Ricinus communis PAV-like XP 002515100	
23. Arabidopsis thaliana NGA3 NP 171611	DQELTSWIGAS
24. Arabidopsis thaliana NCA1 NP 566089	DEEEAKPLAE
25. Arabidopsis thaliana NGA2 NP 191756	DKEKPIEE
26. Oryza sativa RAV-like 5 NP 001047754	EAGRREIPFHTATAEAAPAPTS-SSSSPAHHAASASASASASGSSTPFR
27. Oryza sativa PAV-like MP 001174059	BEBEABASPREIPPHTSAAAAATASSSSPTSVSPSATASAAASTSASGSPFR
28. Vitis Vinifera ASAPES Putative uncharacterized protein CAN73636	CKQLPFSYSSSPSPSSSSSQYRNLVPLPNCCDRWDAQIQRGWLG
29. Ricinus communis PAV-like XP 002518948	GKHLPFSYSSSSPSSSSSQHKPHHLLALSQIYDKNHHPQVCSWLGSKYDPEQEDA
30. SORGHUM BICOLOR uncharacterized protein XP 002448384	- EED EEASPREIPFHTAAKATAD TGPAAASSSSPSAAG-ASASASGSAAALR
31. SORGHUM BICOLOR uncharacterized protein XP 002458352	KLPSSRYKGVVPQPBGRWGAQIYERHQRVWLGTFAGEADAARAYDVAAQRFRGRDAVTMFRPLADADPDAAAELRFLA
3Z. SORGHUM BICOLOR uncharacterized protein XP 002457391	GSSRFKGVVPQPNGRWGAQIYERHARVWLGTFADEEAAARAYDVAALRYRGREAATN-FPGAGASAPELTFLA
33. Oryza sativa uncharacterized protein EAY95278	EABASPREIPFHTSAAAAATASSSSPTSVSPSATASAAASTSASGSPFR
34. SORGHUM BICOLOR uncharacterized protein XP 002452747	DASNSMRRISFMPAAAAAGTAPSSSAAASAASTSASASASGSSSATAPFRS
3S. Oryza sativa RAV-putative Y1407 ORYSJ	pssrykguupqpmgrugaqiyerharuulgtfpdeeaaarayduaalrfrgrdautmrapaaegasagelafla
36. Arabidopsis thaliana RAV-like 1 MP 850260	000000H0NDVVEE
37. Arabidopsis thaliana RAV-like 2 NP 850559	LHHHHQNDVAIAQR
38. Arabidopsis thaliana NGA4 NP 192059	DQELA-BIRAS
39. Arabidopsis thaliana RAV-like 3 NP 001119177	QQHRHTTDTSETTTTATUQHRHTTDTSETTTTATU
40. Oryza sativa RAV-putative MP 001048792	
41. Oryza sativa RAV-putative Y1071 ORYSJ	nefftpispptrvag

Figure 4.6 Amino acid alignment of 41 RAV and RAV-like protein sequences showing the conserved APETALA2 (AP2) domain (green boxes).

Accession numbers are given to the species name

Phylogenetic analysis showed the similarity between the remaining sequences (Figure 4.7). The sequences share identity ranging from 27.9% between *Arabidopsis thaliana* RAV-like 5 NP\_175524 and *Ozyza sativa* RAV-putative Y1407\_ORYSJ to 100% between *Populus trichocarpa* RAV2 XP\_002311438 and *Populus trichocarpa* RAV1 XP 002315958.

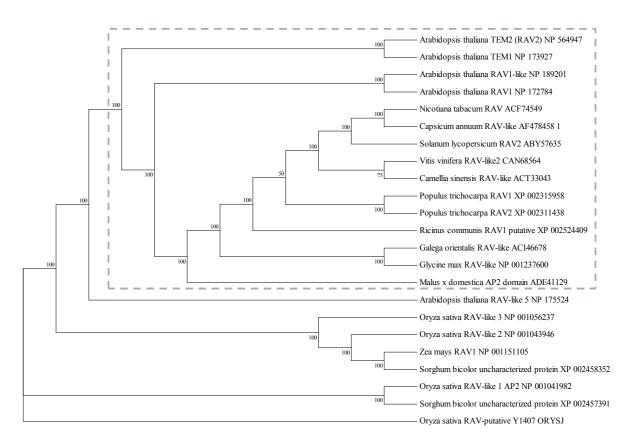


Figure 4.7 Phylogenetic analysis of 23 RAV sub-family class I members.

The evolutionary relationship was inferred using the Maximum Parsimony method. The percentage of parsimonious trees in which the associated taxa clustered together are shown next to the branches. Violet dashed line box shows the sequences with higher similarity to TEM1 and TEM2. Accession numbers are given next to the species name

### 4.3.2 Acquisition of a full length cDNA representing AmTEM

The 8 sequences with highest identity to AtTEM1 and AtTEM2, along with AtTEM1 and AtTEM2, were selected and aligned to design degenerate primers for the isolation of the putative *AmTEM* (Appendix, Figure A.8). An AmRAV-like sequence was also included to show amino acid conservation in the species.

Degenerate primers used in a total of 10 combinations (section 4.2.4.1) generated a number of products using gradient PCR. Whilst many were non-specific, four combinations generated fragments of the expected length inferred from *AtTEM1* and *AtTEM2* gene sequences (Figure 4.8).

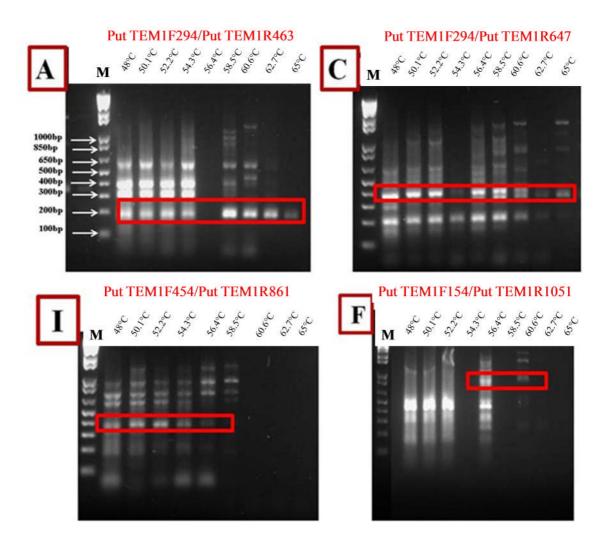


Figure 4.8 Gradient PCR products generated using TEM degenerate primers. Annealing temperature used in PCRs shown above lanes. A, C, I, F = products generated using the primer pairs as shown. Fragments of the expected sizes (for A = 160 bp; for C = 350 bp; for I = 400 bp; for F = 900 bp) are enclosed within red rectangles. M = 1 kb Plus DNA ladder,

Sequencing of all the products revealed A and F to be Glucose-methanol-choline oxidoreductase, magnesium/proton exchanger, phosphatase, or hypothetical proteins. However the C (350 bp) and I (400 bp) products were shown to be RAV-like DNA-binding proteins. The contig of 523 bp called CI was generated by PCR as described in section 4.2.4.1. Sequencing of 15 clones of fragment C, 15 clones of fragment I and 15 clones of contig CI always revealed one unique sequence

although degenerate primers were used in the PCR. Using RACE PCR, as explained in section 4.2.5, to provide the 5' and 3' sequence information, a single cDNA product representing the full length cDNA sequence of *Antirrhinum majus TEM-like* gene (*AmTEM*) was amplified by PCR using primers AmTEM1F/AmTEM1072R (Figure 4.9).

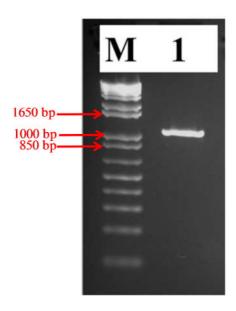


Figure 4.9 Amplification of full length AmTEM cDNA.

M=1 kb Plus DNA ladder 1= AmTEM 1065bp product representing the full coding sequence

# 4.3.2.1 *AmTEM* sequence analysis

The *AmTEM* homologue coding sequence contains 1,065 bp and is predicted to encode 354 amino acids (Appendix, Figure A.11). Figure 4.10 illustrates a schematic reconstruction of the possible AmTEM protein. AmTEM contains an AP2 domain from amino acid 60 to 115 and a B3 domain from amino acid 187 to 297. AmTEM shares 68.7% and 68.2% amino acid identity with AtTEM1 and AtTEM2 respectively.

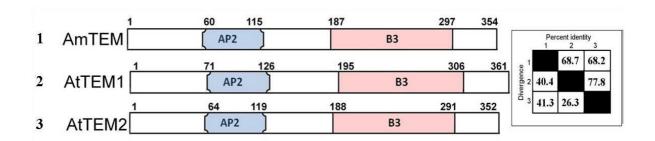


Figure 4.10 Comparison of protein domain structure in AmTEM, AtTEM1 and AmTEM2

Phylogenetic analysis of AmTEM and other RAV homologues showed that AmTEM is closely related to other RAV homologues (Figure 4.11). AmTEM is not closely related to AmRAV-like due to the lack of AP2 domain in the latter.

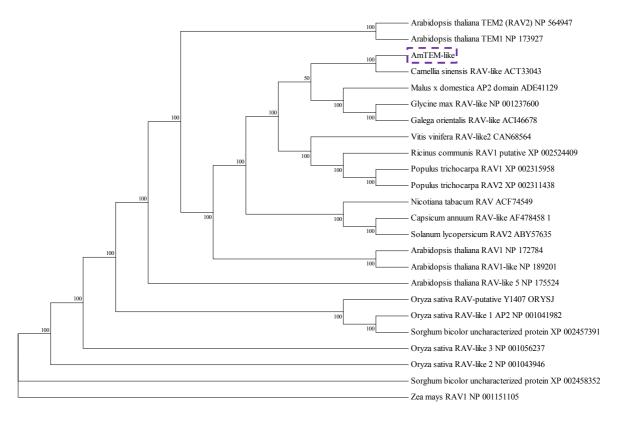


Figure 4.11 Phylogenetic relationship of RAV sub-family class I members.

The evolutionary relationship was inferred using the Maximum Parsimony method. The percentage of parsimonious trees in which the associated taxa clustered together are shown next to the branches. Accession numbers are given next to the species name

The amino acid length of *AmTEM* is similar to those of the other proteins in the RAV sub-family class I. The B3 domain motif of the RAV family is also present in AmTEM, as shown in Figure 4.12, confirming that it belongs to this sub-family.

Species/Abbrv -	
1. Zea mays RAV1 NP 001151105	LEDAAGKVWRFRYSY <mark>WNSSQS</mark> VLTKGWSRFVKEKGLQAGDVVGFYRSAA
2. Vitis vinifera RAV-like2 CAN68564	FEDMGGKVWRFRYSY <mark>WNSSQS</mark> VLTKGWSRFVKEKNLKAGDIVSFQRSI
3. SORGHUM BICOLOR uncharacterized protein XP 002458352	LEDAAGKVWRFRYSY <mark>WNSSQS</mark> VLTKGWSRFVKEKGLQAGDVVGFYRSSAVGA
4. SORGHUM BICOLOR uncharacterized protein XP 002457391	FEDGEGKVWRFRYSY <mark>WNSSQS</mark> VLTKGWSRFVREKGLRAGDTIVFSHSTY
5. Solanum lycopersicum RAV2 ABY57635	FEDLNGKVWRFRYSYWNSSQS TVLTKGWSRFVKEKNLKAGDIVSFQRSI
6. Ricinus communis RAV1 putative XP 002524409	FEDITGKVWRFRYSYWNSSQS VLTKGWSRFVKEKNLKAGDIVRFLKST
7. Populus trichocarpa RAV2 XP 002311438	LEDMSGKVWRFRYSY <mark>WNSSQS</mark> VLTKGWSRFVKEKSLKAGDIVCFQRST
8. Populus trichocarpa RAV1 XP 002315958	LEDVSGKVWRFRYSY <mark>WNSSQS</mark> VLTKGWSRFVKEKNLKAGDIVCFQRSI
9. Oryza sativa RAV-putative Y1407 ORYSJ	FEDGDGKVWRFRYSY <mark>WNSSQSFVLTKGWSRFVREKGLRPGDTVAF</mark> SRSAA-AW
10. Oryza sativa RAV-like 1 AP2 NP 001041982	FEDGEGKVWRFRYSYWNSSQSFVLTKGWSRFVREKGLRAGDTIVFSRSAY
11. Oryza sativa RAV-like 3 NP 001056237	FEDAAGKVWKFRYSY <mark>WNSSQS</mark> VLTKGWSRFVKEKGLHAGDAVGFYRAA
12. Oryza sativa RAV-like 2 NP 001043946	FEDAAGKVWRFRYSY <mark>WNSSQS</mark> VLTKGWSRFVKEKGLHAGDVVGFYRS-AASA
13. Nicotiana tabacum RAV ACF74549	FEDLNGKVWRFRYSYWNSSQSKVLTKGWSRFVKEKNLKAGDIVSFQRST
14. Malus x domestica AP2 domain ADE41129	FEDVGGKVWRFRYSYWNSSQSYVLTKGWSRFVKEKNLMAGDIVSFQRST
15. Glycine max RAV-like NP 001237600	FEDVGGKVWRFRYSYWNSSQS VLTKGWSRFVKEKNLRAGDAVQFFKST
16. Galega orientalis RAV-like ACI46678	FEDIGGKVWRFRYSYWNSSQSFVLTKGWSRFVKEKNLRAGDAVQFCRST
17. Capsicum annuum RAV-like AF478458 1	FEDLNGKVWRFRYSYWNSSQSFVLTKGWSRFVKEKNLKAGDIVSFQRSI
18. Camellia sinensis RAV-like ACT33043	FKDVAGKVWRFRYSY <mark>WNSSQS</mark> VLTKGWSRFVKEKSLKAGDIVSFYRST
19. Arabidopsis thaliana TEM2 (RAV2) NP 564947	FEDVNGKVWRFRYSY <mark>WNSSQSFVLTKGWSRFVKEKNLRAGDVVTFERST</mark>
20. Arabidopsis thaliana TEM1 NP 173927	LEDRIGKVWRFRYSY <mark>W</mark> NSSQS <mark>YVLIKGWSRFVKEKNLRAGDVVCFERSI</mark>
21. Arabidopsis thaliana RAV-like 5 NP 175524	FYDRAMRQWKFRYCYWRSSQSFVFTRGWNGFVKEKNLKEKDIIVFYTCD
22. Arabidopsis thaliana RAVI-like NP 189201	FEDVNGKVWRFRYSY <mark>WNSSQS</mark> VLTKGWSRFVKEKRLCAGDLISFKRSN
23. Arabidopsis thaliana RAV1 NP 172784	FEDVNGKVWRFRYSY <mark>WNSSOS</mark> FVLTKGWSRFVKEKNLRAGDVVSFSRSN
24. AmTEM-like	FEDVGGKVWRFRYSY <mark>WNSSQS</mark> VVLTKGWSRFVKEKNLKAGDVVTFQRSI

Figure 4.12 Amino acid alignment of RAV and RAV-like protein sequences, including AmTEM, showing the conserved amino acids WN/RSSQS in the B3 domain (green and purple boxes).

# 4.3.3 Preliminary analysis of AmTEM expression in juvenile and adult material

Semi-quantitative PCR analysis, carried out as described in section 4.2.9, revealed *AmTEM* is expressed preferentially in juvenile tissue (12 days after germination) with respect to adult tissue (24 days after germination) (Figure 4.13 A). The opposite is seen for *AmFT* expression (Figure 4.13 B). Figure 4.13 C,

shows that the signal from the housekeeping  $ELF\alpha$  was similar in both samples indicating that similar amounts of cDNA were present in the juvenile and adult samples.

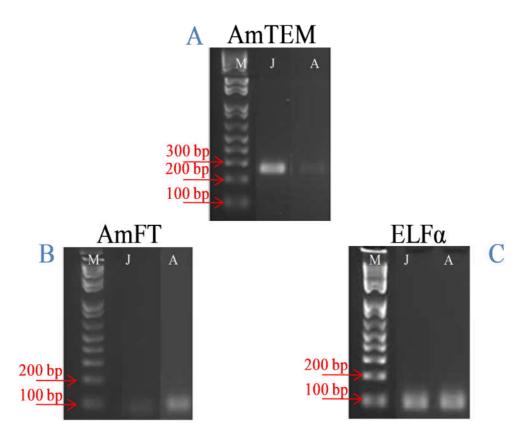


Figure 4.13 Semiquantitative analysis of AmTEM and AmFT expression.

AmTEM (263 bp), AmFT (78 bp) and AmELFa (78 bp) fragments generated using 35, 36 and 24 cycles respectively. J and A refer to Juvenile (12 days from germination) and Adult (24 days after germination) plant material. M=1 kb Plus DNA ladder

# 4.3.4 Acquisition of a full length cDNA representing OeTEM

A fragment representing the partial olive isotig13527 EST sequence was PCR amplified from a pool of juvenile and adult cDNA (section 4.2.2), as described

in section 2.7, using Oe fragment TEM F/Oe fragment TEM R primers (Figure 4.14).

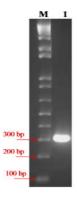


Figure 4.14 Amplification of partial cDNA representing putative OeTEM. M=1 kb Plus DNA ladder 1= OeTEM isotig13527 312bp product

Sequencing confirmed the identity of the fragment which showed high homology to DNA-binding RAV-like genes.

The 5'- and 3'- end sequences of the putative *Olea europaea TEM-like* gene (*OeTEM*) were obtained by RACE PCR (section 4.2.5) and a fragment representing the full length cDNA generated by PCR using primers OeTEM1F/OeTEM1074R (Figure 4.15).

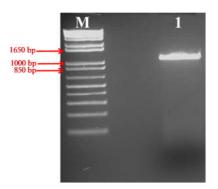


Figure 4.15 Amplification of full length OeTEM. M=1 kb Plus DNA ladder 1= OeTEM 1074bp product

### 4.3.4.1 *OeTEM* sequence analysis

Sequence of the full-length *OeTEM* cDNA showed the CDS comprised 1,074 bp that are predicted to encode 357 amino acids (Appendix, Figure A.12). A schematic reconstruction of the possible OeTEM protein is presented in Figure 4.16. The OeTEM is predicted to contain an AP2 domain from amino acid 63 to 113 and a B3 domain from amino acid 195 to 297. OeTEM shares 64.6% and 66.1% amino acid identity with AtTEM1 and AtTEM2 respectively.

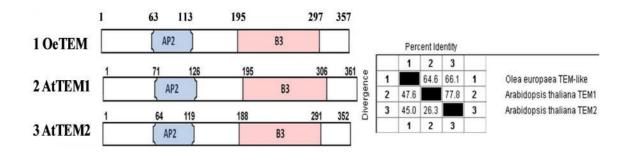


Figure 4.16 Gene structure of OeTEM compared to AtTEM1 and AMTEM2. Amino acid homology comparison.

Amino acid alignment of OeTEM with other RAV and RAV-like proteins shows that OeTEM contains the characteristic WN/RSSQS motif which distinguished the class I RAV sub-family (Figure 4.17).

Species/Abbrv	
1. Zea mays RAV1 NP 001151105	GVLLNLEDAAGKVWRFRYSYWNSSQSYVLTKGWSRFVKEKGLQAGDVVGFYRSAAG
2. Vitis vinifera RAV-like2 CAN68564	GVLLNFEDMGGKVWRFRYSYWNSSQSYVLTKGWSRFVKEKNLKAGDIVSFQRSTO
3. SORGHUM BICOLOR uncharacterized protein XP 002458352	GVLLNLEDAAGKVWRFRYSY <mark>WNSSQS</mark> YVLTKGWSRFVKEKGLQAGDVVGFYRSSAVGA
4. SORGHUM BICOLOR uncharacterized protein XP 002457391	GVLLNFEDGEGKVWRFRYSYWNSSQSYVLTKGWSRFVREKGLRAGDTIVFSHSTYS
5. Solanum lycopersicum RAV2 ABY57635	GVLLNFEDLNGKVWRFRYSY <mark>W</mark> NSSQS <mark>YVLTKGWSRFVKEKNLKAGDIVSFQRSTS</mark>
6. Ricinus communis RAV1 putative XP 002524409	GVLLNFEDITGKVWRFRYSYWNSSQSYVLTKGWSRFVKEKNLKAGDIVRFLKSTO
7. Populus trichocarpa RAV2 XP 002311438	GVLLNLEDMSGKVWRFRYSY <mark>WNSSQS</mark> YVLTKGWSRFVKEKSLKAGDIVCFQRSTO
8. Populus trichocarpa RAV1 XP 002315958	_GVLLNLEDVSGKVWRFRYSY <mark>WN</mark> SSQS <mark>YVLTKGWSRFVKEKNLKAGDIVCFQRST</mark>
9. Oryza sativa RAV-putative Y1407 ORYSJ	_GVLLNFEDGDGKVWRFRYSY <mark>WNSSQS</mark> YVLTKGWSRFVREKGLRPGDTVAFSRSAA-AW(
10. Oryza sativa RAV-like 1 AP2 NP 001041982	CVLLNFEDGEGKVWRFRYSY <mark>W</mark> NSSQS <mark>YVLTKGWSRFVREKGLRAGDTIVFSRSAY</mark>
11. Oryza sativa RAV-like 3 NP 001056237	_GVLLNFEDAAGKVWKFRYSY <mark>WNSSQS</mark> YVLTKGWSRFVKEKGLHAGDAVGFYRAA
12. Oryza sativa RAV-like 2 NP 001043946	_GVLLNFEDAAGKVWRFRYSY <mark>WN</mark> SSQS <mark>YVLTKGWSRFVKEKGLHAGDVVGFYRS-AASA</mark> (
13. Nicotiana tabacum RAV ACF74549	_GVLLNFEDLNGKVWRFRYSY <mark>WN</mark> SSQS <mark>YVLTKGWSRFVKEKNLKAGDIVSFQRST</mark> (
14. Malus x domestica AP2 domain ADE41129	_GVLLNFEDVGGKVWRFRYSY <mark>WN</mark> SSQS <mark>YVLTKGWSRFVKEKNLMAGDIVSFQRST</mark> (
15. Glycine max RAV-like NP 001237600	_GHLLNFEDVGGKVWRFRYSY <mark>WN</mark> SSQS <mark>YVLTKGWSRFVKEKNLRAGDAVQFFKST</mark> (
16. Galega orientalis RAV-like ACI46678	_GLLLNFEDIGGKVWRFRYSY <mark>WN</mark> SSQS <mark>YVLTKGWSRFVKEKNLRAGDAVQFCRST</mark> (
17. Capsicum annuum RAV-like AF478458 1	_GVLLNFEDLNGKVWRFRYSY <mark>WNSSQS</mark> YVLTKGWSRFVKEKNLKAGDIVSFQRSTS
18. Camellia sinensis RAV-like ACT33043	_CVLLNFKDVAGKVWRFRYSY <mark>WN</mark> SSQS <mark>YVLTKGWSRFVKEKSLKAGDIVSFYRST</mark> (
19. Arabidopsis thaliana TEM2 (RAV2) NP 564947	_GVLINFEDVNGKVWRFRYSY <mark>WNSSQS</mark> YVLTKGWSRFVKEKNLRAGDVVTFERST(
20. Arabidopsis thaliana TEM1 NP 173927	_GVLINLEDRTGKVWRFRYSY <mark>WNSSQS</mark> YVLTKGWSRFVKEKNLRAGDVVCFERST
21. Arabidopsis thaliana RAV-like 5 NP 175524	DVEVVFYDRAMRQWKFRYCY <mark>WRSSQS</mark> FVFTRGWNGFVKEKNLKEKDIIVFYTCDV
22. Arabidopsis thaliana RAVI-like NP 189201	_GHLLNFEDVNGKVWRFRYSY <mark>WNSSQS</mark> YVLTKGWSRFVKEKRLCAGDLISFKRSNI
23. Arabidopsis thaliana RAV1 NP 172784	GVLLNFEDVNGKVWRFRYSY <mark>WNSSOS</mark> YVLTKGWSRFVKEKNLRAGDVVSFSRSNO
24. OeTEM	GVLLNFEDMGGKVWRFRYSYWNSSQSYVLTKGWSRFVKEKNLKAGDIVSFQRSTO

Figure 4.17 Amino acid alignment of RAV and RAV-like protein sequences, including OeTEM showing the conserved amino acids WN/RSSQS in the B3 domain (green and purple boxes).

# 4.3.5 Preliminary analysis of OeTEM expression in juvenile and adult material

Semi-quantitative PCR analysis, carried out as described in section 4.2.9, was run on juvenile and adult olive leaf samples (Figure 4.18 A-B). Expression of *OeTEM* was shown to be higher in juvenile material compared to adult. The level of the actin housekeeping gene was shown to be slightly greater in the adult material than the juvenile. This suggests that the differential expression observed for *OeTEM* should be greater than shown.

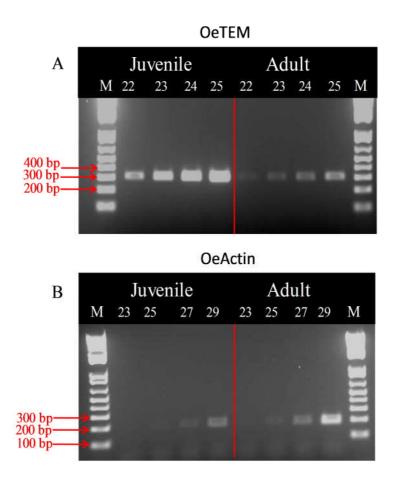


Figure 4.18 Semi-quantitative analysis of OeTEM expression.

Number of cycles used to amplify OeTEM (A) and OeActin (B) fragments are indicated. M=1 kb

Plus DNA ladder, Juvenile= juvenile olive leaf, Adult= adult olive leaf

# 4.3.6 AmTEM and OeTEM phylogenetic analysis

Phylogenetic analysis, using full length deduced amino acid sequences, shows that AmTEM and OeTEM proteins are homologous to RAV-like DNA-binding proteins from other organisms (Figure 4.19). Both OeTEM and AmTEM cluster with AtTEM1, AtTEM2 and AtRAV1, AtTEM1, AtTEM2 and AtRAV1 being more like each other than AmTEM and OeTEM.

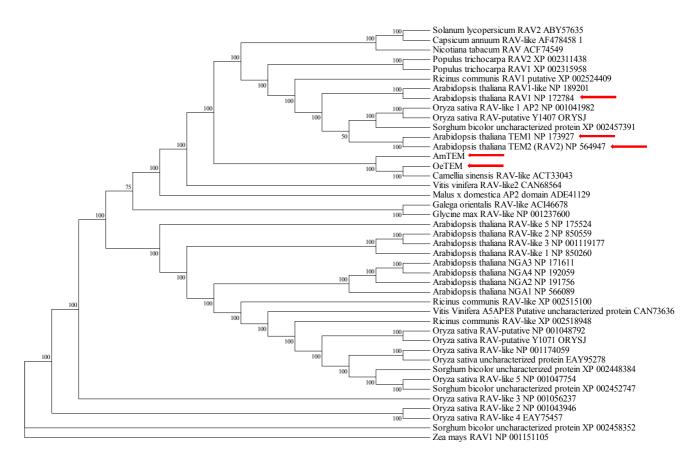


Figure 4.19 Phylogenetic relationship of RAV members.

The evolutionary history was inferred using the Maximum Parsimony method. The percentage of parsimonious trees in which the associated taxa clustered together are shown next to the branches. Accession number is given next to the species name

### 4.3.7 Acquisition of a full length cDNA representing AtTEM1

To study if *OeTEM* and *AmTEM* can perform the same function as *AtTEM1*, complementation experiments were carried out. Arabidopsis plants were also transformed with *AtTEM1* as a positive control, as explained in section 4.3.9. To enable this, the full length *AtTEM1* was isolated using primers AtTEM1-F/AtTEM1091-R performing a PCR as described in section 2.7. Leaf material from juvenile *Arabidopsis* plants (3 days from germination) was used to generate cDNA

(section 2.6) template. The product obtained as shown in Figure 4.20 was cloned and sequenced as explained in sections 2.11- 2.14.

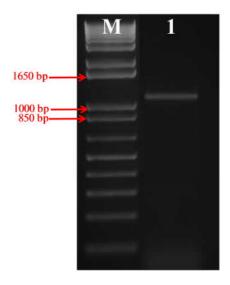


Figure 4.20 Amplification of full length AtTEM.

M=1 kb Plus DNA ladder 1=AtTEM 1091bp product

# 4.3.8 Functional complementation of the Arabidopsis tem1 mutant with AmTEM and OeTEM

To investigate a role in flowering time regulation, *Arabidopsis* Col-0, *tem1* and *RNAi-tem1/2* early flowering mutants were transformed with binary vectors engineered to over-express *AmTEM*, *OeTEM* and *AtTEM1* as positive control, as described in sections 4.2.5, 4.2.6 and 4.2.7. Plants were selected with BASTA. None of the transformed double mutant  $T_1$  plants survived BASTA selection.

A total of five Col-0 and two tem1 mutant  $T_1$  plants transformed with AtTEM1 survived BASTA selection. Whilst none of the latter proved transgenic by

PCR screen (section 4.2.7), three of the engineered Col-0 plants were confirmed transgenic. Assessment of flowering times of these  $T_1$  transgenics under LD showed that flowering was delayed in relation to Col-0 WT and the *tem1* mutant (Figure 4.21). Non-transformed WT Col-0 plants flowered in LD with an average of 8.2 ( $\pm$  0.11) leaves, compared to non-transformed *tem1* plants which flowered with an average of 7.2 ( $\pm$  0.12) leaves. Plants ectopically over-expressing *AtTEM1* flowered even later than Col-0 WT showing that the natural level of *AtTEM1* in *Arabidopsis* was not saturating.

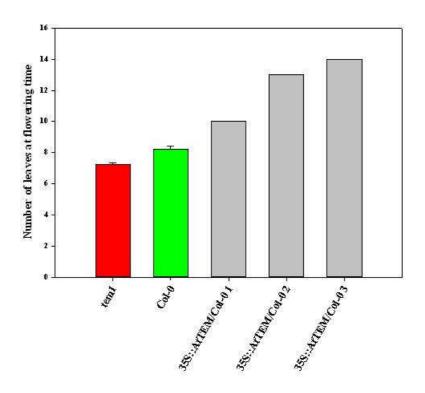


Figure 4.21 Flowering time of Col-0  $T_1$  transgenic lines transformed with AtTEM1 grown under LD.

Flowering assessed by number of rosette leaves when the bolt was 1 cm in length.  $T_1$  transformants (grey bars), WT (green bar) and tem1 mutant (red bar)

A total of 35 tem1 mutant T<sub>1</sub> plants transformed with AmTEM survived BASTA selection and all proved transgenic by PCR screen (section 4.2.7). Assessment of flowering times of these T<sub>1</sub> transgenic lines under SD showed that flowering was delayed in relation to Col-0 WT and the *tem1* mutant (Figure 4.22). Non-transformed WT Col-0 plants flowered with an average of 37.9 ( $\pm$  1.2) leaves, compared to non-transformed tem1 plants which flowered with an average of 32.4  $(\pm 0.9)$  leaves. tem1 plants ectopically expressing AmTEM flowered generally later than tem1 and even later than Col-0 WT showing a large degree of variation in the number of leaves at flowering in each line, with an average of 54.6 (±1.8). Among the T<sub>1</sub> plants, 15 of them appeared normal in phenotype, but had altered flowering independent transgenic times. Three lines (35S::AmTEM/tem1)2. 35S::*AmTEM/tem1* 75 and 35S::*AmTEM/tem1* 77) were selected for further analysis (Figure 4.23 c-e). These lines however flowered late and were analysed to determine whether AmTEM plays a role in determining juvenile phase length as discussed in chapter 5. Among the T<sub>1</sub> generation, some transgenic lines presented severe and moderate alterations in phenotype. Some of the plants presented multiple stems from the base and a high number of small basal leaves (Figure 4.23 f), others, although they bolted, did not flower.

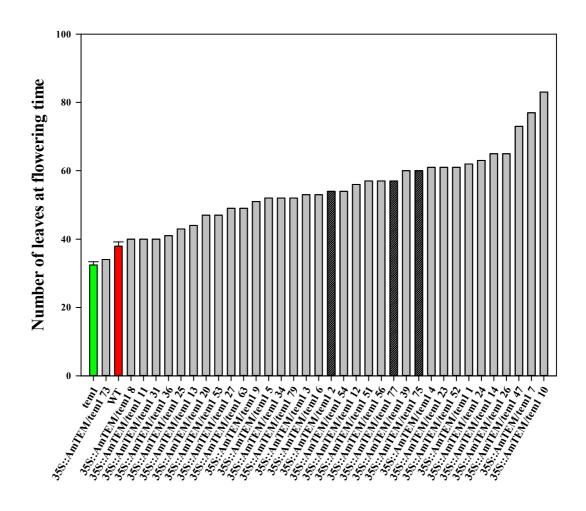


Figure 4.22 Flowering time of tem1  $T_1$  transgenic lines transformed with AmTEM grown under SD.

Flowering assessed by number of rosette leaves when the bolt was 1 cm in length.  $T_1$  transformants (grey bars), WT (green bar) and tem1 mutant (red bar). The dark grey bars show the lines selected for further studies. Error bars denote the standard error of number of leaves present at flowering time.

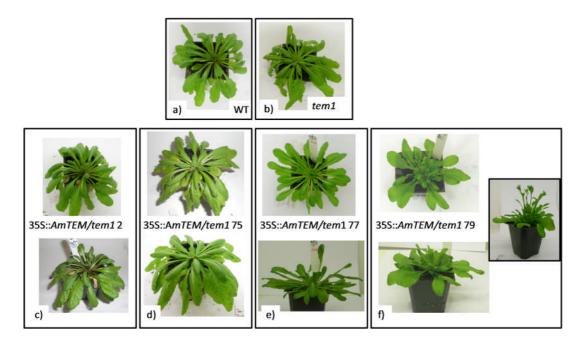


Figure 4.23 Phenotype in  $T_1$  generation.

a-b) Phenotype observed in Arabidopsis WT and tem1 mutant at 40 days from germination c-d-e-f) Phenotype observed in 60 day old plants from  $T_1$  generation of 35S::AmTEM/tem1 2, 35S::AmTEM/tem1 75 and 35S::AmTEM/tem1 77 and 35S::AmTEM/tem1 79 lines engineered to over-express AmTEM in the tem1 mutant grown in SD conditions. On the right side of picture 4.23 f) the 35S::AmTEM/tem1 79 after further 10 days is shown.

A total of six Col-0 and one *tem1* mutant T<sub>1</sub> plants transformed with *OeTEM* were obtained that survived BASTA selection and proved transgenic by PCR screen (section 4.2.7). Assessment of flowering times of these T<sub>1</sub> transgenics under LD showed that flowering was delayed in relation to Col-0 WT and the *tem1* mutant (Figure 4.24). *tem1* plants ectopically expressing *OeTEM* flowered later than *tem1* and even later than Col-0 WT.

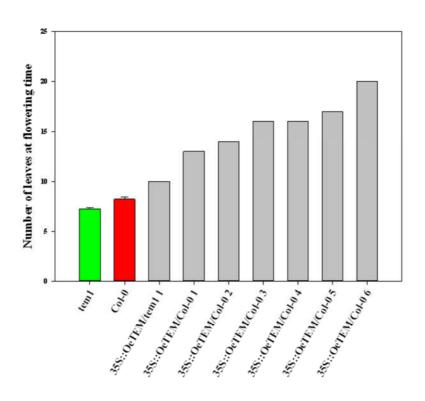


Figure 4.24 Flowering time of Col-0 and tem1  $T_1$  transgenic lines transformed with OeTEM grown under LD.

Flowering assessed by number of rosette leaves when the bolt was 1 cm in length.  $T_1$  transformants (grey bars), WT (green bar) and tem1 mutant (red bar).

### 4.4 Discussion

The objective of this chapter was to isolate and characterise orthologues of *AtTEM* from *Antirrhinum* and olive. Evidence from molecular and phylogenetic analyses shows that *Antirrhinum TEM* (*AmTEM*) and Olive *TEM* homologues (*OeTEM*) have been successfully isolated. Since all *AmTEM* PCR fragments cloned and sequenced always represented the same sequence it can be hypothesised that only one *TEM-like* gene is present in *Antirrhinum*. Both *AmTEM* and *OeTEM* can be considered members of the B3 super-family since they contain the B3 domain harbouring the B3 WN/RSSQS motif. Additionally, they can be considered part of the RAV family, Class I as they have the AP2 domain (Romanel *et al.*, 2009).

*OeTEM* and *AmTEM* were both shown to be expressed more highly in juvenile material compared to adult. In *Arabidopsis TEM1* and *TEM2* expression levels change throughout development and it has been suggested that *FT* is activated when the right equilibrium exists between the activator CO and the repressor TEM1 (Castillejo and Pelaz, 2008).

Experiments in comparative studies have proved that homologues of a gene from one species can play a role in the same pathway in another species, but their function may change (Higgins *et al.*, 2010). An example is the *Arabidopsis CO* equivalent in rice (*Hd1*) which represses the *FT* equivalent (*Hd3a*); this is the opposite to the promotive effect it has on *FT* expression in *Arabidopsis* (Kojima *et al.*, 2002; Turck *et al.*, 2008). The net effect is that in rice Hd1 represses flowering in LD conditions, whilst in *Arabidopsis CO* promotes flowering in LD. The study of *AmTEM* and *OeTEM* showed that they play a role in flowering time regulation and that their function is conserved. All plants engineered to over-express *AmTEM* and

*OeTEM* were late flowering. Over expression of both genes led to the rescue of the early flowering phenotype of the *tem1* mutant. These results suggest that *OeTEM* and *AmTEM* can perform the same function as *AtTEM1*, which is validated by the high sequence conservation observed between *AmTEM*, *OeTEM* and *AtTEM1*.

Although in *Arabidopsis*, *TEM1* and *TEM2* have been shown to repress flowering (Castillejo and Pelaz, 2008), RAV1 may act as a repressor of growth and flowering (Hu *et al.*, 2004). It is possible to assert that the *OeTEM* and *AmTEM* genes isolated are *TEM* genes and not RAV1 since *RAV1* also plays a role in leaf maturation and senescence (Woo *et al.*, 2010). No signs of premature senescence were visible in any of the transformed plants that were engineered to ever-express *OeTEM* and *AmTEM*. Plants engineered to over-express *RAV1* show signs of early senescence (Woo *et al.*, 2010).

Having isolated *AmTEM* and *OeTEM* and proven their role in regulating flowering time, the next task was to determine whether the two genes are involved in regulating juvenility.

# CHAPTER 5. *AmTEM*: ROLE IN JUVENILITY

# 5.1 Introduction

Four members of the RAV (RELATED TO ABI3/VP1) family, RAV1, TEMPRANILLO 1 (TEM1), TEM2 and At3g25730, which all contain the C-terminal RLFGV motif, have been proposed to act as transcription factors (Ikeda and Ohme-Takagi, 2009). TEM1 and TEM2 have been shown to repress flowering acting redundantly to repress *FLOWERING LOCUS T (FT)* early in development through binding to two regions in the *FT* gene 5' untranslated region (Castillejo and Pelaz, 2008). Mutant plants with reduced *TEM1* and *TEM2* activity flower earlier than the single *tem1* mutant, which flower earlier than WT plants. Single mutants lacking *TEM2* do not exhibit early flowering. *TEM1* and *TEM2* over-expressing plants show a late flowering phenotype (Castillejo and Pelaz, 2008). In these plants the late flowering is associated with a decrease in *FT* expression. In WT plants, *TEM1* mRNA is abundant in seedlings and declines before the floral transition. *TEM1* and *TEM2* are down-regulated by APETALA1 (AP1) and GIGANTEA (GI) (Kaufmann *et al.*, 2010; Sawa and Kay, 2011).

Isolation of *TEM* homologues from *Antirrhinum* (*AmTEM*) and olive (*OeTEM*) was reported in the previous chapter. Both were shown to act as floral repressors.

The purpose of the study described in this chapter was to determine whether a relationship exists between patterns of *TEM* and *FT* expression and the juvenile phase (JP) and ultimately whether *TEM* functions in regulating the length of juvenility. To answer these questions both *Antirrhinum* and *Arabidopsis* were used.

### 5.2 Materials and Methods

This section describes the materials and methods specific for this results chapter. Protocols and materials common to more than one chapter are described in chapter 2. All primer details are listed in the Appendix, Table A.1, A.2, A.3.

### 5.2.1 Real-time PCR analysis of AmTEM expression

The cDNA used for Real-time PCR analysis was generated from leaf material from *Antirrhinum* transfer Experiment 3 (section 3.2.1) which was the same used for previous *Antirrhinum* homologue of *FLOWERING LOCUS T* (*AmFT*) expression analysis (section 3.3.1.3.3). Real-time PCR analysis was conducted using the LightCycler® 480 Realtime PCR System as described in section 2.8 using Real-time AmTEM F/Real-time AmTEM R primers to detect *AmTEM*. Ant elf-alpha F/Ant elf-alpha R primers were used to detect the elongation factor housekeeping gene. Primer details, concentrations used in PCRs and anneal/extension temperatures are provided in the Appendix, Table A.1. The same standard curve and cDNA samples were used to analyse expression of all genes, thus relative expression levels can be compared.

### 5.2.2 Arabidopsis transfer experiment

Arabidopsis Col-0, tem1 and RNAi-tem1/2 seeds were sown and grown as described in section 2.3. Transfer experiments were carried out using SANYO cabinets set up as described in section 2.3 and plants transferred as described in

section 3.2.4. Flowering times were assessed by counting rosette leaves present at 1 cm bolt height for each plant transferred from LD to SD, as described in section 2.4.

# 5.2.3 Real-time PCR analysis of TEM expression

At each transfer day (section 5.2.2), at least 10 *Arabidopsis* plantlets were harvested from LD cabinets at ZT15. Samples were used for RNA extraction and cDNA synthesis as described in section 2.6. Real-time PCR analysis was conducted using the LightCycler® 480 Realtime PCR System as described in section 2.8 using Real-time AtCO F/Real-time AtCO R, Real-time AtFT F/Real-time AtFT R, Real-time Tem1 F/ Real-time Tem1 R and Real-time Tem2 F/ Real-time Tem2 R primers to detect *Arabidopsis CONSTANS* (*AtCO*), *Arabidopsis FT* (*AtFT*), *Arabidopsis TEM1* (*AtTEM1*) and *Arabidopsis TEM2* (*AtTEM2*), respectively. AtActin F/AtActin R primers were used to detect the actin 2 housekeeping gene. Primer details, concentrations used at in PCRs and anneal/extension temperatures are provided in the Appendix, Table A.1. The same standard curve and cDNA samples were used to analyse expression of all genes, thus relative expression levels can be compared.

# 5.3 Results

# 5.3.1 Developmental AmTEM expression during different photoperiods

AmTEM mRNA was detected at high levels in all the true leaves during the first 21 days of growth in Antirrhinum plants grown under constant LD (Figure 5.1 A). AmTEM expression then decreased in all the leaves after this point. Generally, the expression of AmTEM in SD conditions was lower than the expression in LD during the assessed period (Figure 5.1 B). In SD conditions AmTEM was expressed for longer compared to LD. After 42 days from germination, when AmTEM expression is almost completely absent in LD conditions, AmTEM is still detectable in SD, but at very low levels.

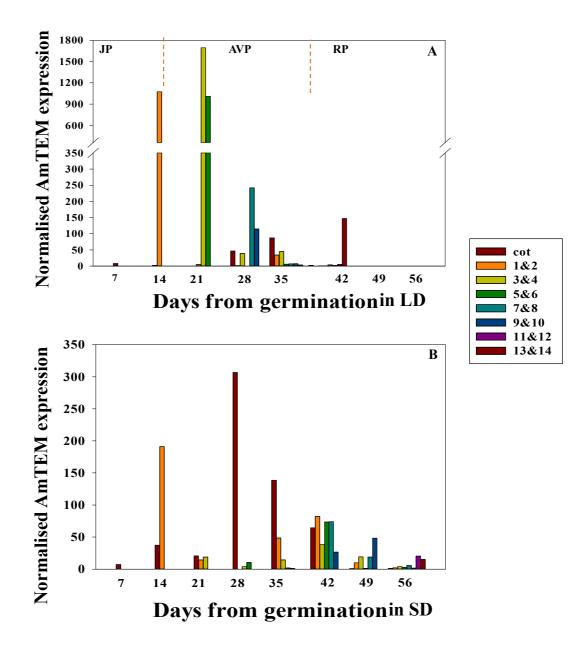


Figure 5.1 Developmental expression of AmTEM in leaf material from Antirrhinum plants grown under LD at ZT 15 (A) and SD at ZT 7(B) in Experiment 3.

Real-time PCR analysis of the relative expression of AmTEM normalised to ELF-alpha. Expression analysed at ZT 15. JP: juvenile phase, AVP: adult vegetative phase, RP: reproductive phase. The orange dotted lines delimit the three different phases.

Figure 5.2 shows the expression of AmTEM and AmFT in the most recent pair of expanded leaves during development. Plants are juvenile for about 14.5 days, as shown in section 3.3.1.3.2 and following the end of juvenility AmFT progressively increases while the opposite trend is shown by AmTEM expression levels that decrease at the end of juvenility. The pattern is consistent with AmTEM repressing AmFT expression.

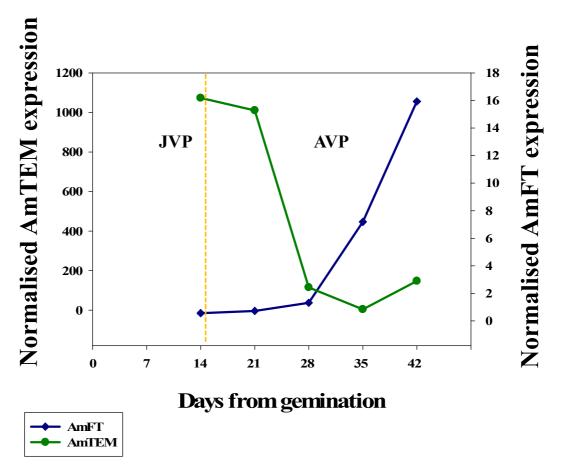


Figure 5.2 Real-time PCR analysis of developmental expression of AmTEM and AmFT in the youngest pair of fully expanded leaves in Antirrhinum plants grown under LD harvested at ZT 15. AmTEM and AmFT have been normalised to ELF-alpha at each timepoint. The JVP and AVP phases are delimited by the orange broken line.

Expression of *CO* was used as a measure of activity of the photoperiodic pathway. Since an *Antirrhinum CO* homologue was not available, to further investigate the activity of the photoperiodic pathway during juvenility and the relationship between *TEM* and *CO* expression, the study was conducted using *Arabidopsis*.

To measure gene expression across development Real-time PCR analysis was carried out in which the same standard curve and cDNA samples were used to analyse expression of all genes. Therefore, the results obtained could be directly compared.

In section 3.3.9, it was shown that the AtCO level rises before the end of juvenility (6.8 d  $\pm 0.2$  d after germination) and also before the rise in FT level, indicating that the photoperiodic pathway is not completely inactive during the juvenile phase (JP). The level of AtFT expression level increases starting from 5 days from germination and reaches the peak at 7 days when plants start to respond to photoperiod (Figure 5.3). AtTEM1 expression is high until day 4, after this point there is a reduction of the level of expression reaching the lowest level at 7 days from germination. In the previous section it was shown that in Antirrhinum, following the end of juvenility, AmFT level rises progressively when AmTEM level decreases. These observations show that AtTEM1 and AtFT follow the same trend observed for AmTEM and AmFT. TEM may be involved in repressing FT transcription during juvenility even though CO is present to induce it, to avoid premature flowering.

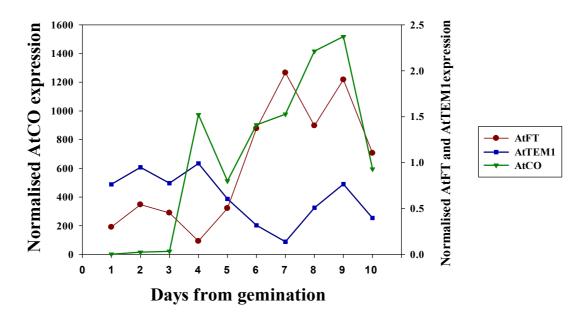


Figure 5.3 Real-time PCR analysis of developmental expression of AtFT, AtCO and AtTEM1 in aerial parts in Col-0 plants grown under LD harvested at ZT 15.

AtFT, AtCO and AtTEM1 have been normalised to Actin at each timepoint.

### 5.3.3 AtFT and AtCO expression in TEM mutants

To further explore whether TEM has a role in determining the length of juvenility through repression of FT, AtFT and AtCO expression was studied in Arabidopsis tem1 and RNAi-tem1/2 mutants.

Figure 5.4 shows average levels of *AtTEM1* and *AtTEM2* in the aerial part of plants collected at ZT 15 between day 1 and day 5 from germination. Both *tem1* and RNAi-*tem1/2* showed a significant lower *AtTEM1* expression level compared to WT. *AtTEM2* expression was not significantly lower in the RNAi-*tem1/2* line compared to both WT and the *tem1* single mutant. However, the overall amount of *AtTEM1* and *AtTEM2* in both the mutants was significantly lower than in the WT plants.

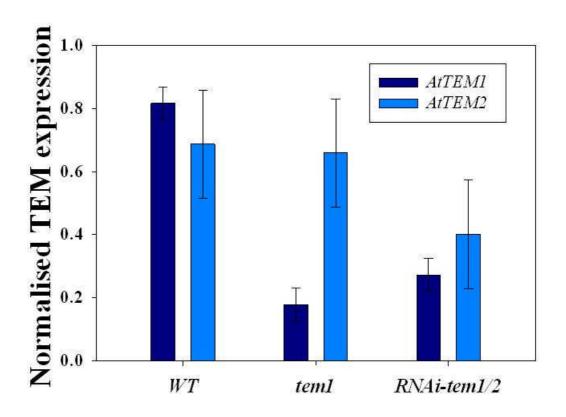


Figure 5.4 Expression of AtTEM1 and AtTEM2 in the plant aerial parts under LD at ZT 15 in WT, in tem1 and in RNAi-tem1/2 between day 1 and day 5 after germination.

Real-time PCR analysis of the relative expression of AtTEM1 AtTEM2 normalised to Actin. Material

from 5 plants at each sampling day has been collected, Real-time PCR analysis conducted separately for each sampling day and then mean calculated between the 5 days. Data were analysed by general linear model analysis of variance (ANOVA, p < 0.05), with subsequent comparison between means using Fisher's least significant difference test. Error bars denote LSD (5% levels) of AtTEM1expression levels in WT, tem1 and RNAi-tem1/2 (LSD= 0.10; d.f. =8) and of AtTEM2expression levels in WT, tem1 and RNAi-tem1/2 (LSD= 0.34 d.f. =8).

Differences were observed between developmental patterns of expression of *AtTEM1*, *AtTEM2* and *AtFT* in WT, *tem1* and RNAi-*tem1/2* mutants (Figure 5.5). In *tem1 AtFT* levels increased at an earlier stage than in the WT (Figure 5.5 A) and a higher level was evident after 4 days (Figure 5.5 B). Furthermore, in *tem1*, *AtTEM2* level increased after 5 days but it did not seem to influence *AtFT* expression. In the *RNAi-tem1/2* plants, where the expression of both *AtTEM1* and *AtTEM2* is low, *AtFT* expression increased after just 2 days (Figure 5.5 C). Moreover, in the first 2 days the relative amount of *AtFT* was higher compared to the same days in WT and

in the single mutant. Therefore, lower *TEM* expression levels correlate with earlier induction and higher *AtFT* expression levels.

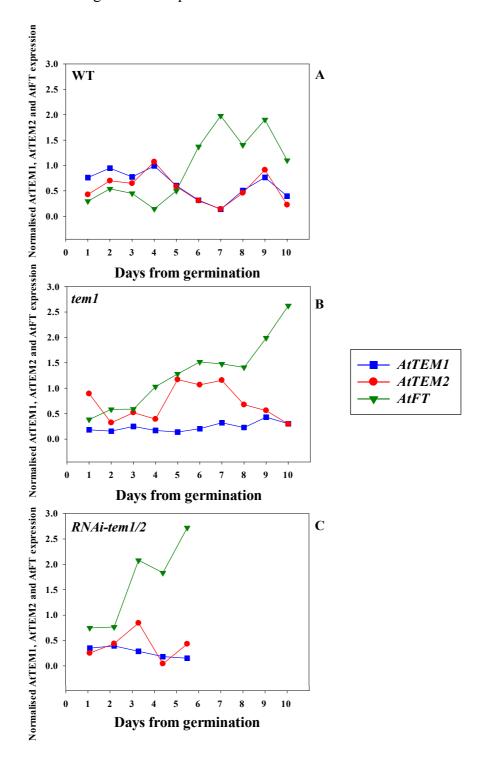


Figure 5.5 Real-time PCR analysis of developmental expression of AtFT, AtTEM1 and AtTEM2 in aerial parts in WT (A), in tem1 (B) and RNAi-tem1/2 (C) plants grown under LD harvested at ZT 15.

AtFT, AtTEM1 and AtTEM2 have been normalised to Actin at each timepoint.

To further investigate *TEM* effects on the photoperiodic pathway developmental expression of *AtCO* was studied in *Arabidopsis tem1* and *RNAi-tem1/2* mutants (Figure 5.6). *AtCO* transcript levels increased in the RNAi-tem1/2 line after just 1 day and after 2 days in the *tem1* line. In WT plants *AtCO* level increases after 3 days. The difference in timing of increase of *AtCO* expression in the mutant lines suggests down-regulation of *AtCO* by *TEM*.

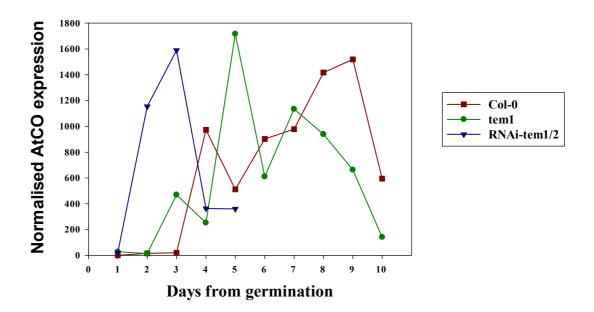


Figure 5.6 Real-time PCR analysis of developmental expression of AtCO in aerial parts in Col-0, tem1 and RNAi-tem1/2 plants grown under LD harvested at ZT 15.

AtCO has been normalised to Actin at each timepoint.

Transfer experiments were conducted using *tem1* and RNAi-*tem1/2* mutant lines in comparison with Col-0 WT, to determine a role of TEM in regulating juvenility.

In section 3.3.9 the length of the juvenile phase in Col-0 WT plants was calculated to have lasted 6.8 d  $\pm 0.2$ d from germination and the AVP to have lasted for 4.70 d  $\pm$  0.2 d. The JP was similarly determined using *tem1* and *RNAi-tem1/2* 

mutant plants (Figure 5.7 and 5.8). Under the same growth conditions used for the WT plants, tem1 plants were shown to be juvenile for 4.06 d  $\pm 0.35$  d following germination, which is approximately 2.5 days shorter than that observed in the WT plants. The AVP was 6.45 d  $\pm 0.35$  d, therefore 1.75 days longer than in the WT.

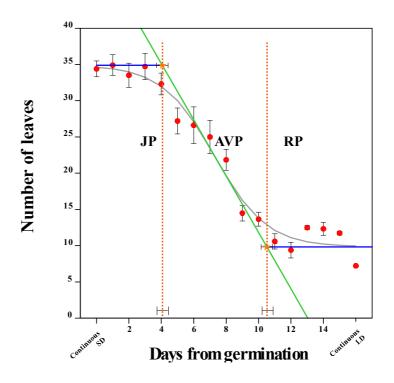


Figure 5.7 Different phases of photoperiod sensitivity in Arabidopsis tem1. The effect of transferring Arabidopsis at daily intervals (expressed as days from 50% germination) from LD to SD on flowering time. JP: juvenile phase, AVP: adult vegetative phase, RP: reproductive phase, SD: short day, LD: long day. Vertical error bars denote the standard error of the mean of the number of leaves. Horizontal error bars denote the standard error of the mean of the estimated phase length. Logistic curve (grey curve), maximum slope (green line), lag time (blue lines). The orange dotted lines delimit the three different phases.

RNAi-tem1/2 plants were juvenile for only 0.009 d  $\pm 0.31$  d after germination indicating that the juvenile phase was extensively abolished in the double mutant. The AVP for the RNAi-tem1/2 line lasted for 9.71 d  $\pm 0.31$  d (Figure 5.8).

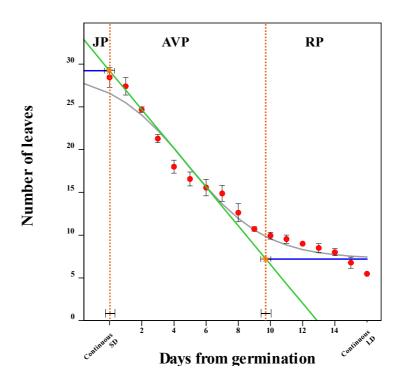


Figure 5.8 Different phases of photoperiod sensitivity in Arabidopsis RNAi- tem1/2. The effect of transferring Arabidopsis at daily intervals (expressed as days from 50% germination) from LD to SD on flowering time. JP: juvenile phase, AVP: adult vegetative phase, RP: reproductive phase, SD: short day, LD: long day. Vertical error bars denote the standard error of the mean of the number of leaves. Horizontal error bars denote the standard error of the mean of the estimated phase length. Logistic curve (grey curve), maximum slope (green line), lag time (blue lines). The orange dotted lines delimit the three different phases.

## 5.3.4 Effect of ectopic expression of AmTEM on flowering in the Arabidopsis tem1 mutant

In the absence of *Antirrhinum TEM* knockout lines, to explore the function of *AmTEM* a strategy of over-expression in *Arabidopsis* was used. The CaMV 35S promoter was used to over-express *AmTEM* in the *Arabidopsis tem1* mutant as explained in chapter 4. This was carried out to determine whether *AmTEM* could functionally complement the *tem1* mutant. In addition, the lines were used further to investigate whether *AmTEM* plays a role in regulating juvenility. In chapter 4, 35 independent over-expression lines (35S::*AmTEM/tem1*) that were resistant to BASTA treatment and were PCR positive were described. Among these 3

transgenic lines (35S::*AmTEM/tem1* 2, 35S::*AmTEM/tem1* 75 and 35S::*AmTEM/tem1* 77) were selected for further studies, which are described here after.

T<sub>2</sub> seeds harvested from each T<sub>1</sub> plant were sown and grown under constant LD conditions until flowering and T<sub>3</sub> seed harvested. Late flowering, with respect to tem1, was observed in T<sub>2</sub> plants of all three lines (Figure 5.9). A large degree of variation in the number of leaves at flowering in each T2 plant of each line was observed. There are different reasons why the phenotype would differ between the different lines. All plants shown in Figure 5.9 were PCR positive; therefore, differences in degree of lateness could be due to transgene insertion copy number, WT-like flowering plants could be due to transgene insertion site where the expression is silenced, or due to false positive PCR, and the plant is actually a null segregant. For each transgenic line, T<sub>2</sub> plants were screened by PCR to detect presence of the AmTEM transgene (section 4.2.10). Twenty-four, 16 and 40 PCR positive T2 were generated for lines 2, 75 and 77, respectively. For each line, one T<sub>2</sub> plant was selected to generate T<sub>3</sub> plants for further analysis. These were 35S::AmTEM/tem1 2.23 (Line 2), 35S::AmTEM/tem1 75.14 (Line 75) and 35S::AmTEM/tem1 77.36 (Line 77) which flowered later than WT to varying degrees with 6.77, 8.77 and 9.77 more leaves, respectively.

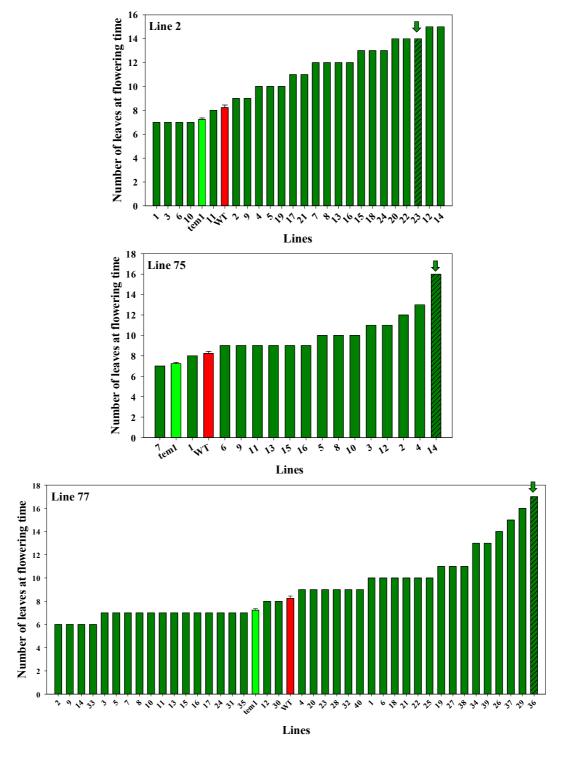
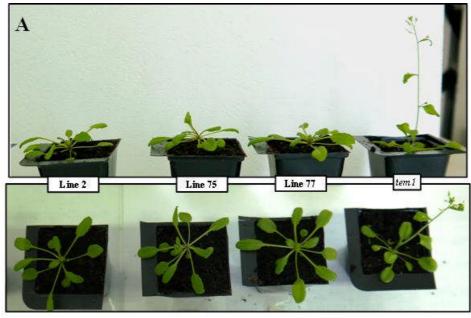


Figure 5.9 Leaves present at flowering time of  $T_2$  generation plants of three lines (2, 75 and 77) engineered to over-express AmTEM in the tem1 mutant.

Leaves present at flowering time of WT and tem1 mutant are shown as comparison. Error bars denote the standard error of number of leaves present at flowering time. Arrows and shaded bars show the plants selected for further analysis.

 $T_3$  plants representing each line were grown and 10 were analysed for the presence of the *AmTEM* transgene by PCR (section 4.2.10). All  $T_3$  plants screened resulted positive and therefore were considered homozygous for the transgene.

Whilst the *tem1* mutant flowered at 26 d following germination,  $T_3$  plants representing the three lines had not flowered at this time (Figure 5.10 A).  $T_3$  plants representing Lines 2, 75 and 77 flowered later than the *tem1* mutant (7.23 leaves) at averages of 9.8 ( $\pm$  0.3), 10.6 ( $\pm$  0.6) and 10.0 ( $\pm$  0.4) leaves respectively (Figure 5.10 B).



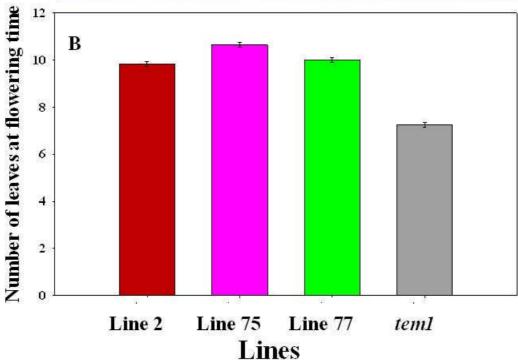


Figure 5.10 Phenotype of  $T_3$  transgenic Arabidopsis tem1 plants over-expressing AmTEM and the non-transformed tem1 mutant.

A) Transgenic lines at 26 days from germination compared with the tem1 mutant. B) Number of leaves at flowering time of the transgenic lines and tem1 mutant under LD conditions. For line 2, n=11; for line 75, n=11; for line 75, n=14; for tem1 mutant, n=68.

Data were analysed by general linear model analysis of variance (ANOVA, p < 0.05), with subsequent comparison between means using Fisher's least significant difference test. Error bars denote LSD (5% levels) between the lines (LSD = 0.19).

## 5.3.4.1 *Correlation between AmTEM* expression and flowering in *Arabidopsis* tem1

Real-time PCR analysis was performed to determine a correlation between the delay in flowering and expression level of *AmTEM*. Expression was analysed in samples at daily intervals from germination over the first 10 days. The averaged expression of this time period is shown in Figure 5.11. Expression in WT and the *tem1* mutant was studied as well to verify the specificity of the primers used. Highest *AmTEM* expression was observed in Line 75 with decreasing levels observed in Line 2 and Line 77. Even in Line 77 *AmTEM* expression was sufficient to significantly delay flowering (Figure 5.10 B). No *AmTEM* expression was detected in the *tem1* mutant or in WT.

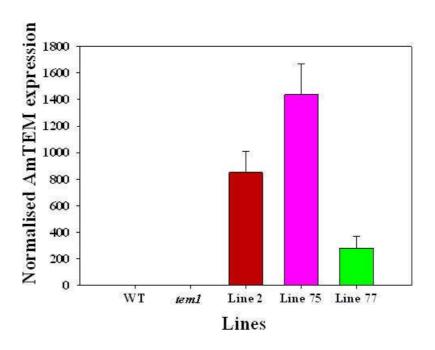


Figure 5.11 Real-time PCR analysis of AmTEM expression in aerial parts of WT, tem1 mutant and  $T_3$  transgenic plants from lines 2, 75 and 77 grown under LD harvested at ZT 15. The average of the first 10 days from germination is presented for each line. AtTEM1 has been normalised to Actin at each timepoint. Error bars denote the standard error of number of leaves present at flowering time.

# 5.3.5 Effect of ectopic expression of AmTEM in the tem1 mutant on AtFT and AtCO expression

Comparison of *AtFT* developmental expression in the *tem1* mutant with the over-expressing lines showed a clear difference (Figure 5.12). Real-time PCR analyses were carried out using the same cDNA samples and standard curve; therefore, the results obtained could be directly compared. All three transgenic lines showed a reduction in *AtFT* expression during all the developmental stages studied compared to *tem1*. In particular there was a delay in the moment at which a rise takes place. In *tem1 AtFT* expression rose after 3 days from germination, whilst in line 2 and line 77 an increase occurred after 4 days from germination and in line 75 the increase was appreciable after 6 days from germination.

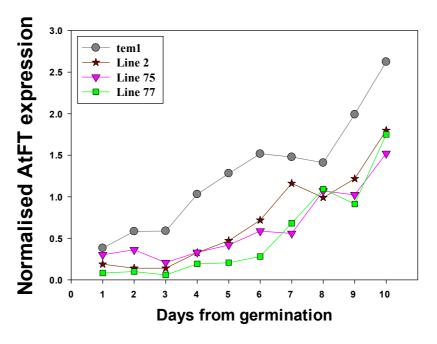


Figure 5.12 Real-time PCR analysis of AtFT developmental expression in the tem1 mutant and  $T_3$  generation AmTEM over-expressing tem1 plants representing lines 2, 75 and 77.

Analysis of aerial parts in plants grown under LD harvested at ZT 15. AtFT has been normalised to Actin at each timepoint.

Ectopic expression of *AmTEM* in the *tem1* mutant also had an effect on *AtCO* expression during development (Figure 5.13). The onset of the induction of

AtCO expression was delayed in the transgenic lines compared with tem1 to varying degrees. In the tem1 mutant, AtCO expression levels rose after 2 days from germination, peaking 5 days after germination. Line 2 showed a delay of 1 day in AtCO expression, rising after 4 days from germination and reaching the maximum level after 6 days from germination. Lines 75 and 77 showed a lower expression of AtCO throughout all the development and a delay of 5 and 4 days, reaching AtCO maximum levels after 10 and 9 days after germination, respectively.

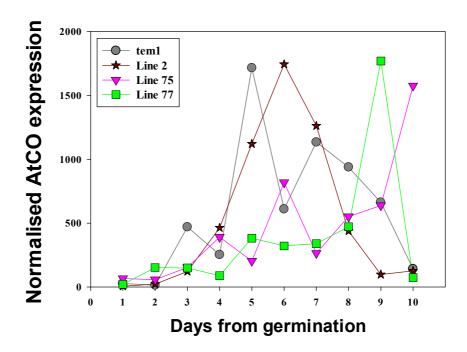


Figure 5.13 Real-time PCR analysis of AtCO developmental expression in the tem1 mutant and  $T_3$  generation AmTEM over-expressing tem1 plants representing lines 2, 75 and 77.

Analysis of aerial parts in plants grown under LD harvested at ZT 15. AtCO has been normalised to Actin at each timepoint.

#### 5.3.6 Effect of ectopic expression of AmTEM on juvenile phase length

To determine whether over-expression of AmTEM affects the length of the juvenile phase, tem1 and T<sub>3</sub> homozygous plants representing transgenic lines 2, 75 and 77, over-expressing AmTEM, were used in transfer experiments from LD (DLI

= 3.08 mol·m<sup>-2</sup>· d<sup>-1</sup>) to SD (DLI =2.79 mol·m<sup>-2</sup>· d<sup>-1</sup>) and the different phases of photoperiod sensitivity determined as described in section 2.4 (Figure 5.14 A-D).

The length of the juvenile phase in tem1 was calculated as  $4.06 \text{ d} \pm 0.35 \text{ d}$  following germination and the AVP as  $6.45 \text{ d} \pm 0.35 \text{ d}$  long (Figure 5.14 A). Line 77 exhibited the lowest AmTEM mRNA levels (Figure 5.11) and had the shortest juvenile phase amongst the three transgenics, lasting for  $7.4 \text{ d} \pm 0.33 \text{ d}$  (Figure 5.14 D). Line 2 had intermediate AmTEM mRNA levels (Figure 5.11) and was shown to have a longer juvenile phase, lasting for  $8.6 \text{ d} \pm 0.26 \text{ d}$  than the Line 77 (Figure 5.14 B). The highest AmTEM mRNA levels were observed in Line 75 (Figure 5.11) and this had a juvenile phase which lasted for  $8.9 \text{ d} \pm 0.26 \text{ d}$  (Figure 5.14 C). All the transgenic lines had extended JPs when compared with the tem1 mutant. The length of JP in the three transgenic lines shows a positive correlation with the different degree of AmTEM over-expression.

Also influenced by ectopic expression of *AmTEM* in *Arabidopsis tem1* is the length of the adult vegetative phase and onset of the reproductive phase. In the *tem1* mutant the AVP lasted for about 6.5 d and the RP started at about 10.5 d from germination. In the transgenic lines, although the start of the AVP was delayed, it was shorter. The higher the level of *AmTEM* expression the shorter the AVP, lasting for about 2.5, 2.8 and 4.51 d in lines 75, 2 and 77, respectively. Because of the longer JP, the RP is delayed in all the transgenic lines, even if the AVP is shorter.

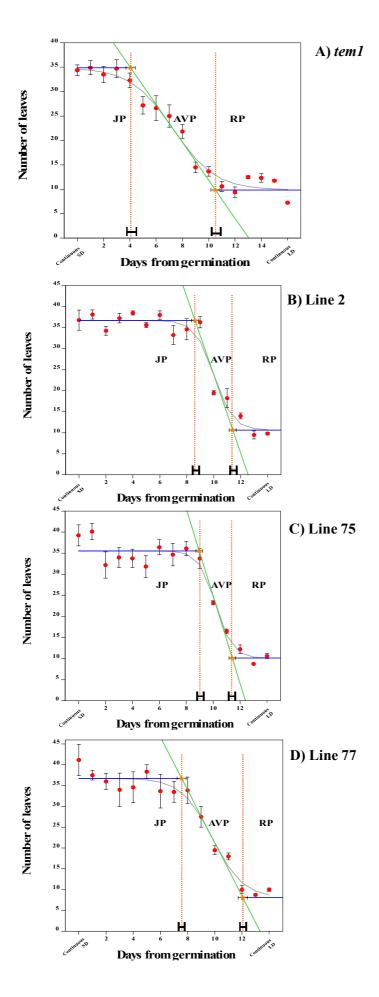


Figure 5.14 Different phases of photoperiod sensitivity in tem1 (A), Line 2(B), Line 75(C) and Line 77(D).

The effect of transferring Arabidopsis at daily intervals (expressed as days from 50% germination) from LD to SD on flowering time. JP: juvenile phase, AVP: adult vegetative phase, RP: reproductive phase, SD: short day, LD: long day. Vertical error bars denote the standard error of the mean of the number of leaves. Horizontal error bars denote the standard error of the mean of the estimated phase length. Logistic curve (grey curve), maximum slope (green line), lag time (blue lines). The orange dotted lines delimit the three different phases.

# 5.3.7 Relationship between juvenility and the photoperiodic pathway in tem1 plants over-expressing AmTEM

In section 5.3.5, it was shown that the presence of *AmTEM* in *tem1* plants alters *AtFT* and *AtCO* expression. In this section, the expression level of these genes is shown in relation to the length of juvenility (Figure 5.15).

In all the transgenic lines over-expressing *AmTEM* and also in the *tem1* mutant, the increase in *AtFT* expression levels matched with the end of juvenility. In the *tem1* mutant and in lines 75 and 77 over-expressing *AmTEM*, *AtCO* was more highly expressed during AVP, after juvenility ended. In Line 2, *AtCO* peaked and was more highly expressed during juvenility. Because of the differences in *AtCO* expression levels in the over-expressing *AmTEM* lines, these data must be interpreted with caution.

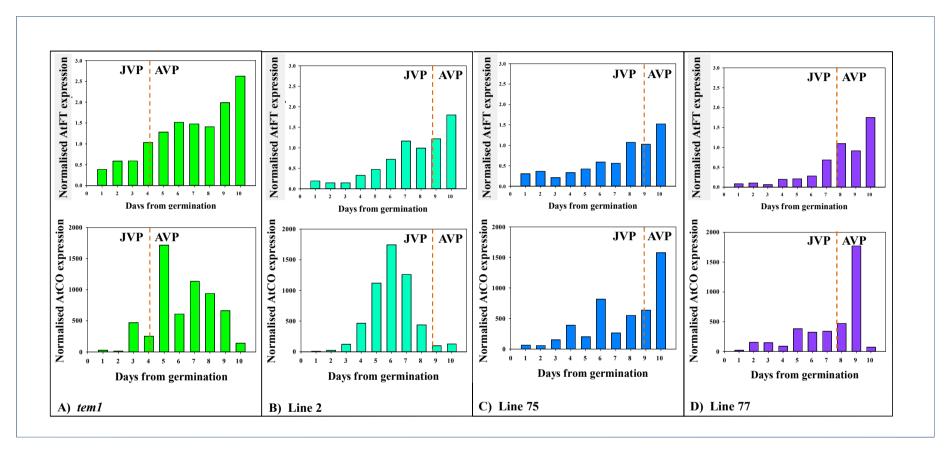


Figure 5.15 Real-time PCR analysis of developmental expression of AtFT and AtCO in aerial parts in tem1 mutant (A), and  $T_3$  transgenic plants representing Line 2 (B), Line 75 (C) and Line 77(D) grown under LD harvested at ZT 15.

AtFT and AtCO have been normalised to Actin at each timepoint. The JVP and AVP phases are delimited by the orange broken line.

#### 5.4 Discussion

In this study the expression pattern of *AmTEM* in *Antirrhinum* throughout development in each pair of leaves present on the plant is reported. *AmTEM* is expressed more highly during the first 21 days from germination and a progressive decrease is notable when juvenility ends. When these data are compared with *AmFT* expression in the youngest, fully expanded leaves the opposite trend is observed. These results are similar to what is reported in *Arabidopsis* where a decrease in *AtTEM1* expression has been hypothesised to be a key factor for induction of *FT* (Castillejo and Pelaz, 2008).

In *Arabidopsis* it has been proposed that the AP2 and B3 domains present in *TEM1* gene, can interact with the 5' UTR region of *FT* by binding to CAACA and CACCTG sequences and thus repress its expression (Castillejo and Pelaz, 2008; Kagaya *et al.*, 1999). These binding sites are close the CAAT sequence, which has been proposed to be the binding site of CO and the CCAAT-box binding protein, which suggests that there could be competition for binding in the *FT* gene 5' UTR (Castillejo and Pelaz, 2008).

Analysis of the *AmFT* 5' UTR reveals that the gene has the binding regions which could be used by *AmTEM* (see Appendix, Figure A.13 for sequence and binding sites). The two binding sites present on *AmFT* are CAACA and GTCCTT which can be considered a variation of the RAV family binding domains as described by Kagaya *et al.*(1999) (Appendix, Figure A.14). The other relevant characteristic is that the motif TAAC, which is bound by CO and the CCAAT-box binding protein (Wenkel *et al.*, 2006), is located between these two sequences in

AmFT. This suggests that this binding mechanism could be conserved in Antirrhinum to allow AmFT regulation by AmTEM.

This chapter also studied the expression of *AtFT*, *AtCO* and *AtTEM* genes in relation to the juvenile phase. In previously published work the length of juvenility was not determined (Castillejo and Pelaz, 2008). The activity of the photoperiodic pathway during juvenility in *Arabidopsis* Col-0 WT plants was established in chapter 3. The photoperiodic pathway activity during juvenility was also studied in the *tem1* and RNAi-*tem1/2* mutants. The overall amount of *AtTEM* present was shown to influence *AtFT* expression and juvenile phase length. The absence of the *AtTEM1* and *AtTEM2* in the mutant plants not only shortened JP length but also prolonged the AVP. In the *tem1* mutant a generally higher level of *AtFT* expression and earlier induction was detected, which corresponded to shorter juvenile phase length. The same trend but with even shorter juvenility and a higher and faster increase in *AtFT* level was observed in the RNAi-*tem1/2* line. These results also demonstrated that *AtTEM2* does not fully compensate *AtTEM1* activity and that they are not entirely functionally redundant in maintaining juvenility.

Although more transgenic lines that over-express *AmTEM* could be used to study the role of *AmTEM* in relation to juvenility, many factors such as the random insertion of the transgene and the number of copies inserted can produce significant differences in transgene expression that can influence phenotype. Nevertheless, it is possible to conclude that *AmTEM* was able to functionally complement the *Arabidopsis tem1* mutant and delay flowering. Plants over-expressing *AmTEM* had an extended juvenile phase compared with the *tem1* plants, with the length of juvenility being proportional to levels of *AmTEM* expression. Also, the delay in flowering time was not determined by an extension of the AVP which, in fact was

shorter than in the *tem1* mutant. At the molecular level the longer JP coincided with delayed and lower *AtFT* expression and a delay in rise of *AtCO* in the over-expressing lines. An opposite trend was observed in the RNAi-*tem1/2* and *tem1* lines where the shorter juvenile phase coincided with higher *AtFT* expression and an earlier increase in *AtCO*. The *AtCO* gene sequence contains two binding regions which could, theoretically, be bound by *AtTEM*. See Appendix, Figure A.15 for the sequence and binding sites. The two binding sites present on *AtCO* are CAACA and ACCCTG. These are variations of the RAV family binding domains, as described by Kagaya *et al.* (1999). For this reason a possible role of *AtTEM1* in the regulation the juvenile phase length through repression of *AtFT* but also in the down regulation of *AtCO* expression can be hypothesised.

Interestingly, in the plants ectopically expressing *AmTEM*, *AtFT* and *AtCO* expression was lower and delayed but not completely absent. As a consequence, flowering was delayed but not repressed. These results lead to the hypothesis of the presence and the action of *TEM* repressors. Therefore, *TEM* may be regulated at both transcriptional and post transcriptional levels.

From data in Figure 5.15 (with the exception of Line 2, which is anomalous), it can be speculated that during juvenility *TEM* is not repressed, therefore *CO* and *FT* levels are low. After juvenility, once adult, *TEM* is repressed, therefore *CO* and *FT* levels are higher. This is consistent with observations of developmental expression of *TEM*.

In LD conditions, GIGANTEA (GI) and FLAVIN-BINDING, KELCH REPEATED, F-BOX (FKF1) repress CYCLING DOF FACTOR 1 (CDF1) which represses *CO* (Fowler *et al.*, 1999; Paltiel *et al.*, 2006; Sawa, *et al.*, 2007). Previous work showed that *TEM1* and *TEM2* are also down-regulated by GI (Sawa and Kay,

2011). So it is possible that *TEM1* could have a similar function to *CDF1* in repressing *CO* expression. In addition, GI also physically binds *FT* at the same binding site of the *FT* repressors TEM1, TEM2, affecting their activity (Castillejo and Pelaz, 2008; Lee *et al.*, 2007; Sawa and Kay, 2011). Previous studies showed that *TEM1* and *TEM2* are also down-regulated by APETALA1 (AP1) (Kaufmann *et al.*, 2010). Other *AP2-like* genes, such as *TARGET OF EAT1* (TOE1) and TOE2, have been shown to play a role in repressing flowering (Aukerman and Sakai, 2003). These genes, and other *AP2-like* genes, are targeted by microRNA172 (miR172), which increases as plants develop (Aukerman and Sakai, 2003; Jung *et al.*, 2007). High miR172 levels could also be also responsible for down-regulation of *TEM* during development.

### CHAPTER 6. GENERAL DISCUSSION

### 6.1 Discussion

6.1.1 Juvenile phase length can be determined in Antirrhinum plants grown in SANYO growth chambers

Previous studies to determine the juvenile phase (JP) in *Antirrhinum* were carried out in glasshouses, which are expensive and do not give reproducible conditions. In the current study, to obtain more reproducible, uniform and cost-effective conditions, plants were grown in SANYO MLR-351H cabinets. The results obtained here showed that the SANYO MLR-351H cabinets can be used to grow both *Antirrhinum* and *Arabidopsis* plants from seedling to flowering in order to investigate juvenility using a cheaper to run and more controllable environment.

The quantity of light received and used by a plant has a strong impact on its growth, development, yield and quality. Daily light integral (DLI) is a function of light intensity and photoperiod duration and represents the amount of photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) received each day by plants (Faust *et al.*, 2005). The DLI inside a glasshouse can vary with the seasons and it can be crucial for plant development (Faust *et al.*, 2005). A higher DLI increases plant biomass and can also shorten the time to flower, which can be desirable features for crop production (Oh *et al.*, 2009). In *Antirrhinum*, a longer photoperiod leads to earlier

flowering and a reduction in the leaf number (Cremer *et al.*, 1998). Furthermore, a higher DLI has the same effect in reducing time to flower (Cremer *et al.*, 1998).

In the current study, the effect of DLI on JP length was investigated by transferring plants between LD to SD conditions. DLI delivered to the *Antirrhinum* plants in transfer Experiment 1 was 7.17 and 3.53 mol·m<sup>-2</sup>·d<sup>-1</sup> in LD and SD, respectively. In the Experiment 2 and Experiment 3 DLI was reduced to 3.08 and 2.94 mol·m<sup>-2</sup>·d<sup>-1</sup> in LD and SD, respectively. Although DLI in SD cabinets was similar in the three experiments, the different DLI experienced by plants in LD when they are still juvenile, resulted in a difference in the JP length. Plants grown under LD conditions with the higher DLI had shorter JP than ones grown under lower DLI. Such findings are in accordance with previous experiments conducted in glasshouses using *Antirrhinum* and other plant species such as cyclamen, petunia, marigold and vinca (Adams, 1999; Cremer *et al.*, 1998; Faust *et al.*, 2005; Munir *et al.*, 2004; Oh *et al.*, 2009). Under lower DLI, JP in *Antirrhinum* was the same in both Experiment 2 and Experiment 3, showing that the environmental conditions set in the SANYO cabinet give reproducible results.

Previous studies on *Antirrhinum* in glasshouse experiments have investigated the effects on the JP of different DLI obtained by shading plants during winter and summer experiments. These showed that low DLI (≤ 5 mol·m<sup>-2</sup>·d<sup>-1</sup>) has a great impact on JP length (Thomas, 2009). In the present study, a reduction of one day on the JP length was observed between *Antirrhinum* experiments of different DLI. The short reduction of the JP length does not fit with the observation of Thomas (2009), where a larger reduction of the JP would be expected through such changes in DLI. One difference between these and previous experiments in glasshouses is that plants received a main light period of 8 h which in the current experiments was extended

to 16 h by a low light extension. Changes in DLI therefore were confined to the main light period, whereas in the glasshouse experiments it was spread evenly over 16 h. This may suggest that the light in the main light period is a critical component of the DLI response. Other studies in progress in the same group of the current study, where plants are grown in SANYO cabinets and then transferred from SD with different DLIs to LD conditions with a high DLI, showed a larger difference in JP length (Piyatida Amnuaykan personal communication). Reducing DLI also prolonged the adult vegetative phase (AVP), suggesting that, although they are competent to respond to the inductive photoperiod, the actual response is delayed. Therefore, the time plants spend in inductive conditions, and the DLI received after the JP, contribute to flowering time in an additive way and during AVP plants are sensitive to DLI. Similar findings were shown in previous Antirrhinum studies conducted in glasshouses where plants exposed to a lower light integral had extended AVPs (Adams, 1999). Importantly, differences in JP length in plants grown under different DLIs has been shown not to be caused by differences in growth rate since leaf production rates measured in plants grown under high and low DLI were shown to be the same (Piyatida Amnuaykan personal communication).

Another way of monitoring developmental stages in *Antirrhinum* is by observing phyllotaxy changes at the main stem shoot apical meristem (SAM) (Benlloch *et al.*, 2007; Bradley *et al.*, 1996). Changes here are driven by the activity of a set of key genes. In *Antirrhinum FLORICAULA* (*FLO*), the homologue of *Arabidopsis LEAFY* (*LFY*), is involved in floral development and its expression is repressed by *CENTRORADIALIS* (*CEN*), the homologue of *Arabidopsis TERMINAL FLOWER1* (*TFL1*) (Amaya *et al.*, 1999; Bradley *et al.*, 1996; Bradley

et al., 1996; Coen et al., 1991). It was shown in this study that it is possible to follow plant development through observation of SAM changes. Analysis of FLO and CEN expression across development linked these genes to commitment to floral initiation. In Arabidopsis LFY has been shown to be expressed during the vegetative phase and increases before flowering (Blazquez et al., 1997). In Antirrhinum FLO was shown not to be expressed in SD or LD early in development. This is contrary to the finding in Arabidopsis but consistent with the finding of Coen et al. (1990) which linked FLO expression to the reproductive phase. CEN expression increases earlier than FLO but still not before flower commitment. In Arabidopsis TFL1 represses LFY in the shoots during the vegetative phase (Bradley et al., 1996; Coen et al., 1990). From the results presented in the current study, in Antirrhinum this process may be delayed until after the end of the vegetative phase. Neither FLO nor CEN expression appear linked to the end of juvenility in Antirrhinum and thus could not be used as markers for the phase transition.

#### 6.1.2 *Induction of FT expression linked to end of juvenility*

In *Arabidopsis*, *FT* represents one of the key genes involved in the initiation of flowering where most of the floral photoperiodic pathways converge (Araki *et al.*, 1998; Turck *et al.*, 2008). In the current study, expression of the *Antirrhinum FT* (*AmFT*) was tested throughout plant development. The study described in this thesis builds on previous work where *AmFT* expression was tested in the youngest expanded leaves during *Antirrhinum* development and shown to be absent during juvenility (Thomas, 2009).

It was shown that *AmFT* expression increases in all leaves across development following the end of juvenility. Notably, during juvenility *AmFT* expression levels were very low under LD condition. These findings led to an investigation to find out whether *AmFT* levels were low during juvenility due to inactivity of the photoperiod pathway or due to repression of *AmFT*. In *Arabidopsis*, as seen in *Antirrhinum*, *Arabidopsis FT* (*AtFT*) expression was shown to increase around the end of juvenility. However, *Arabidopsis CO* (*AtCO*) expression was found to be high during juvenility indicating activity of the photoperiodic pathway during this phase. In the light of this finding, repression of *FT* to prevent its accumulation was investigated.

#### 6.1.3 TEMPRANILLO, an FT repressor, isolated from Antirrhinum and Olive

Although the flowering behaviour of woody perennials may be dissimilar to that of herbaceous species, it has been suggested by several previous studies on different plants that some common genetic networks control flowering in annual and perennial plants (Tan and Swain, 2006). One of the aims of the current study was to identify and characterize *Antirrhinum* homologues of *Arabidopsis* genes that reduce or antagonise *FT* expression and to translate the study to the woody plant *Olea europaea*. The targets of this study were the transcription factors, TEMPRANILLO 1 (TEM1) and TEM2, which in *Arabidopsis* have been shown to repress flowering through repression of *FT* (Castillejo and Pelaz, 2008).

Full length cDNA representing *TEM* homologues from *Antirrhinum* (*AmTEM*) and olive (*OeTEM*) were isolated and characterised. Since all PCR fragments cloned for *AmTEM*, obtained using degenerate primers, corresponded to

one individual sequence, it suggests that only one *TEM-like* gene is present in *Antirrhinum*. Similarly, in *Brachypodium* and rice, only one *TEM-like* gene was identified (Higgins *et al.*, 2010).

Both *AmTEM* and *OeTEM* were classified as members of the B3 superfamily, family RAV, class I. Each possess the B3 domain, which harbours the motif WN/RSSQS that is characteristic of the RAV family and the AP2 domain, that defines Class I genes as defined by Romanel *et al.* (2009). It has been proposed that in *Arabidopsis* the B3 and the AP2 domains are both necessary for inhibition of *FT*, binding to its 5' UTR region, competing with CO for its binding site (Castillejo and Pelaz, 2008; Kagaya *et al.*, 1999). Investigation of the 5' UTR region of *AmFT* showed that it harbours CAACA and GTCCTT regions that could be bound by *AmTEM*. Furthermore, a putative CO binding site is also present in the 5' UTR region of *AmFT*, which lies between the B3 and AP2 putative binding sequences. Thus in *Antirrhinum* a similar competing mechanism could exist for regulation of *AmFT* by *AmCO* and *AmTEM*.

Phylogenetic analysis showed that AmTEM and OeTEM are closely related to other RAV-like DNA-binding proteins clustering with AtTEM1 and AtTEM2 and sharing close homology to the related AtRAV1.

#### 6.1.4 AmTEM and OeTEM regulate flowering time

In *Arabidopsis*, *AtTEM1* expression levels were shown to be high during juvenility and decline after the end of this phase. It was found that the absence of *AtTEM1* and *AtTEM2* in the *tem1* and RNAi-*tem1/2* line mutants shortened JP length. *OeTEM* and *AmTEM* were shown to be expressed more highly in juvenile

material compared to adult. The high levels of *OeTEM* and *AmTEM* expression during juvenility suggest that *OeTEM* and *AmTEM* play a role during early developmental stages. Plants engineered to over-express *AmTEM* and *OeTEM* were late flowering compared to both the *Arabidopsis tem1* single mutant and WT, which demonstrate their role in flowering time regulation. *OeTEM* and *AmTEM* genes isolated in the current study are more likely to be *TEM* genes and not *RAV1* comes from the observation that *AtRAV1* plays a role in leaf senescence (Woo *et al.*, 2010) and no signs of premature senescence were visible in any of the transformed plants that were engineered to over-express *OeTEM* and *AmTEM*, or indeed *AtTEM1*.

#### 6.1.5 TEM regulates JP length through repression of FT

A reciprocal relationship between *AmTEM* and *AmFT* was revealed with levels of *AmTEM* being high during early development and decreasing prior to the end of juvenility, after which *AmFT* levels increase. In *Arabidopsis*, following the end of juvenility, *AtFT* level increases as *AtTEM1* level decreases, showing the same trend observed for *AmTEM* and *AmFT*. These observations are in line with findings of Castillejo and Pelaz (2008) in *Arabidopsis* where developmental expression of *AtTEM* and *AtFT* were investigated. Thus a relationship between *TEM* and *FT* expression patterns and juvenility that cuts across plants species was established in the current study.

To investigate the role of *TEM* in determining the length of the JP, the effect of reduced levels or increased levels of *TEM* were investigated in *Arabidopsis*. In both *tem1* and RNAi-*tem1/2* mutants the JP length was shorter compared to the WT, with the RNAi-*tem1/2* line being the shortest. When *AmTEM* was ectopically

expressed in the *tem1* mutants, plants showed a longer JP than in *tem1* plants. Flowering time was also delayed. However, it was found that the delay in flowering time was not caused by a longer AVP. Transgenic lines over-expressing *AmTEM* had shorter AVPs than *tem1*. On the contrary, *tem1* and RNAi-*tem1/2* mutant had longer AVPs than Col-0 WT. Castillejo and Pelaz (2008) proposed functionally redundancy between *TEM* genes in regulating *FT* expression. However, the current study showed an additive effect of *AtTEM1* and *AtTEM2* in regulating juvenility and showed that *AtTEM2* cannot fully compensate for the role of *AtTEM1* in maintaining juvenility. The possibility that *AtTEM1* and *AtTEM2* can have independent functions has been shown in a previous study. *TEM2* was proposed as a requirement for blocking RNA silencing by two distinct viral proteins and it was shown that the *tem2* mutant could not be functionally complemented by *AtTEM1* (Endres *et al.*, 2010).

AtFT expression levels were shown to be influenced by overall TEM amount. In tem1, AtFT was more highly expressed than in the RNAi-tem1/2 line, but still lower than in the WT. AtFT expression increased earlier in RNAi-tem1/2 than in tem1, but both of them showed an earlier increase in AtFT expression levels compared to the WT. Both mutants showed a higher overall AtCO expression and a faster increase than in WT. The three AmTEM over-expressing lines showed lower AtFT expression, and two of them showed a delay in the rise of AtCO. A possible role for TEM in repressing AtCO expression can now be proposed since analysis of the AtCO sequence revealed putative AP2 and B3 binding sites.

#### 6.1.6 How TEM fits into floral initiation pathways

The research presented shows that *TEM* acts as a floral repressor and controls juvenility through repression of *FT*. It is possible to devise hypothetical models placing *TEM* in the flowering pathways, as reviewed in chapter 1. These are proposed based on findings from this study on *Antirrhinum* and *Arabidopsis*, in which photoperiod is the main inducer of flowering and, in olive, in which prolonged periods of cold are the main floral trigger.

The first flowering pathway in which TEM can be placed is the photoperiodic pathway (Figure 6.1). In both herbaceous and woody plants, TEM follows a circadian rhythm, peaking at dusk in Arabidopsis and at noon in chestnut (Castillejo and Pelaz, 2008; Moreno-Cortés et al., 2012). In Arabidopsis, TEM peak of expression is correlated with the diurnal rises in CO and FT expression levels (Castillejo and Pelaz, 2008; Suarez-Lopez et al., 2001). The correlation in timing is consistent for TEM acting as a regulator of both CO and FT. During juvenility, TEM activity inhibits flowering at two different levels, directly down-regulating both FT and CO expression. After the end of the JP, GI represses TEM. GI is circadian regulated, peaking at 10-12 ZT, a few hours before TEM (Fowler et al., 1999). GI expression increases throughout development (Fowler et al., 1999). Furthermore, GI has been shown to directly down-regulate *TEM* expression and its activity by competing for the same binding site to FT 5' UTR region (Kaufmann et al., 2010; Sawa and Kay, 2011). GI could have the same role as CO in regulating TEMI and TEM2 access to the FT promoter. Therefore, whilst plants are juvenile, under inductive photoperiods, FT expression cannot be induced because TEM expression

is high. Once plants are adult, *TEM* expression decreases and *FT* can be induced by CO.

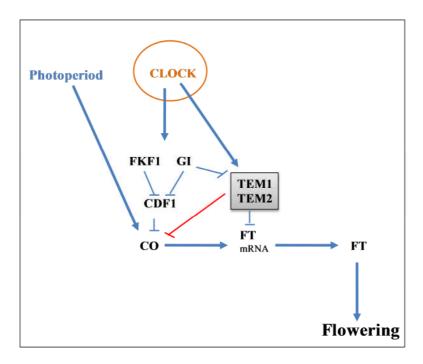


Figure 6.1 Simplified representation of the photoperiodic pathway.

Schematic representation of the major pathways (in blue) regulating flowering time. Arrows indicate activation and T-bars show inhibition. The red T-bar represents speculative TEM regulation. The complete nomenclature of the genes can be found in section 6.1.6 and in chapter 1 where the pathway is shown in detail.

A second pathway, in which *TEM* is probably involved, is the vernalization pathway (Figure 6.2). In biennial and winter-annual plants, vernalization lifts repression of *FT* by *FLC*. In some perennial plants, like olive, although vernalization is required for flowering, low temperature does not lead to flowering after the first winter. In chestnut trees low temperature has been shown to knock down circadian rhythm of the *TEM* but its overall expression is enhanced (Moreno-Cortés *et al.*, 2012). In Brassica, with a vernalization requirement, it was shown that *FT* is not induced following vernalization in juvenile plants, whereas it is in adult

plants (Thomas, 2009). While adult, *TEM* is not present and, during vernalization, the reduction of *FLC* levels lead to an increase of *FT* expression. However, while juvenile, although the vernalization reduces *FLC* expression, high *TEM* expression levels inhibit *FT* expression and thus flowering.

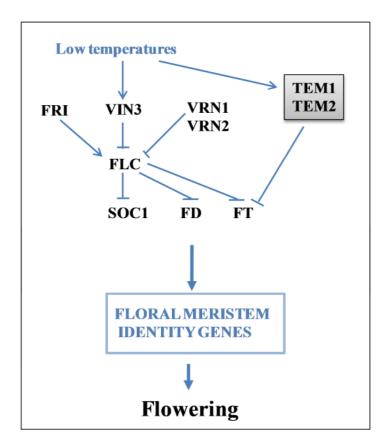


Figure 6.2 Simplified representation of the vernalization pathway

Schematic representation of the major pathways regulating flowering time. Arrows indicate activation and T-bars show inhibition. The complete nomenclature of the genes can be found in

section 6.1.6 and in chapter 1 where the pathway is shown in detail.

A role for *TEM* in the gibberellin (GA) pathway can be proposed (Figure 6.3). *DWARF AND DELAYED-FLOWERING 1* (*DDF1*), another AP2-like gene, has been proposed to play a role in repressing the GA pathway and the JP (Magome *et al.*, 2004). In the SAM, *TEM* activity has been proposed to have a role during

apex development in repressing the floral meristem identity gene *LFY* and the floral integrator *SOC1* (Soraya Pelaz Herrero personal communication).

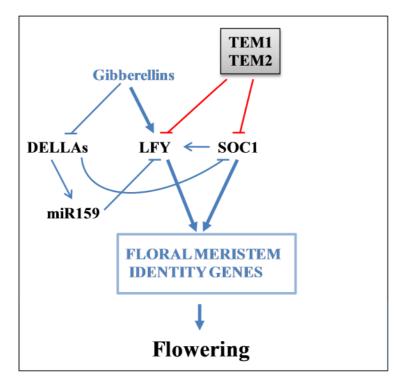


Figure 6.3 Simplified representation of the Gibberellins pathway
Schematic representation of the major pathways (in blue) regulating flowering time. Arrows indicate activation and T-bars show inhibition. The red T-bar represents speculative TEM regulation. The complete nomenclature of the genes can be found in section 6.1.6 and in chapter 1 where the pathway is shown in detail.

Another flowering pathway, in which *TEM* is probably involved, is the miRNA pathway (Figure 6.4). *AP2* has been shown to be involved in the promotion of miR156 in the first stages of plant development and in the repression of miR172 (Yant *et al.*, 2010). Both miRNAs are member of multi-member families and only one member of each, miR156e and miR172b are actually targeted by *AP2* (Yant *et al.*, 2010). *TEM* harbours an AP2 domain and its expression levels are high during the JP in leaves. *TEM* could be responsible for delaying the shift from the JP to

AVP through enhancement of miR156 expression. After the end of juvenility, *TEM* expression in the leaves decreases. miR172 could be responsible for *TEM* repression, as it is for other *AP2-like* genes (Aukerman and Sakai, 2003; Jung *et al.*, 2007; Martin *et al.*, 2010).

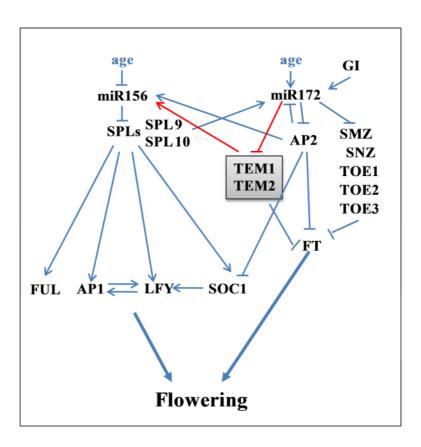


Figure 6.4 Simplified representation of the miRNAs pathway

Schematic representation of the major pathways (in blue) regulating flowering time. Arrows indicate activation and T-bars show inhibition. The red lines represent speculative TEM regulation. The complete nomenclature of the genes can be found in section 6.1.6 and in chapter 1 where the pathway is shown in detail.

#### 6.2 Future research

The study of juvenility in plants is of great interest from both academic and economic perspectives. In this study juvenility has been studied in *Arabidopsis* and *Antirrhinum* plants and, in less detail, in olive plants. In olive, prolonged juvenile periods pose particular limitations for breeding and fruit production (Donaire *et al.*, 2011).

In Arabidopsis, AP2 expression promotes the expression of miR156e early in plant development which in turn, down-regulates miR172b (Martin et al., 2010; Yant et al., 2010). Furthermore, AP2-like floral repressors are also targeted by miR172 which increases in level during development (Aukerman and Sakai, 2003; Jung et al., 2007). In a recent study in olive small RNAs have been characterised using high-throughput sequencing (Donaire et al., 2011). Among them, miR172 and miR156 were shown to be conserved and to have the same activity as in Arabidopsis in targeting AP2-like transcription factors and SPL, respectively (Aukerman and Sakai, 2003; Donaire et al., 2011; Jung et al., 2009). It would be interesting to test whether miR172 had the potential to target and down-regulate olive OeTEM. This could be done following the Donaire et al. (2011) approach using a computational method where target genes of miRNA can be predicted using online tools. The same approach could also be used to study possible downregulation of AmTEM and Arabidopsis AtTEM1 and AtTEM2. Predictions from computation methods would need to be tested experimentally. The modified RNA ligase-mediated 5' rapid amplification of cDNA ends (RLM-RACE) technique could be used to study directed mRNA cleavage on predicted cDNA targets identifying miRNA binding activity (Donaire et al., 2011; Thomson et al., 2011).

Many other techniques that are able to reveal miRNA binding activity, as recently critically reviewed by Thomson *et al.* (2011) and Chen *et al.* (2010), could be combined together to obtain a picture of miRNA-mediated target binding.

It has been reported that expression of *AtTEM1*, *AtTEM2* and *AtRAV1* are influenced by many factors including temperature, pathogen attack and steroids (Castillejo and Pelaz, 2008; Endres *et al.*, 2010; Hu *et al.*, 2004). In this study it was shown that *AtTEM2* does not fully compensate for *AtTEM1* activity and that they are not fully functionally redundant in maintaining juvenility. This raises the possibility of new and different roles played by TEMs, which could be investigated by studying *TEM* expression in both *Arabidopsis* and *Antirrhinum* plants in different tissues at different developmental stages. For instance, the possibility of TEM genes playing a role in the SAM could be investigated considering that the floral meristem identity gene *LFY* has been shown to be induced earlier in *tem1tem2* (Soraya Pelaz Herrero, personal communication). A similar study could be performed in *Antirrhinum* where the possibility that *AmTEM* could down-regulate *FLORICAULA* (*FLO*), the homologue of *Arabidopsis LFY*, could be studied by testing for a relationship between the expression of these genes in the SAM during apex development.

The GA-deficient mutant *dwarf and delayed-flowering 1 (ddf1)* flower later than the WT with shortened hypocotyls and petioles, because of over-expression of a putative *AP2* transcription factor gene named *DDF1* (Magome *et al.*, 2004). The fact that *tem* single and double mutants flower later and have longer hypocotyls, a phenotype observed with elevated levels of GA (Soraya Pelaz Herrero personal communication), justifies an investigation into links between *TEM*, the GA pathway and the JP. This could be investigated by transfer experiments to determine the JP,

and by growing and sampling *tem* single and double mutants and *ddf1* in SD to study expression of key genes such as *LFY* and *SOC1*. If a higher level of *LFY* and *SOC1* expression was detected, a double role of TEM in down-regulating flowering time both in LD and SD conditions through the photoperiodic and the GA pathway respectively, could be assumed.

AtTEM1 has been shown to follow a circadian rhythm, peaking at dusk (Castillejo and Pelaz, 2008). Chestnut CsRAV1, an AtTEM homologue, has similarly been shown to be circadian regulated, however, it peaks at noon (Moreno-Cortés et al., 2012). It would be interesting to determine whether AmTEM and OeTEM are circadian clock regulated. The possibility of a different role of this gene in herbaceous and woody plants could result from differences in diurnal regulation.

In chestnut, the circadian rhythm of *CsRAV1* was disrupted when plants were exposed to low temperature, but the overall expression was higher in colder months than in warmer (Moreno-Cortés *et al.*, 2012). In chestnut, other genes involved in the circadian clock like, *CsTOC1* and *CsLHY* presented a disrupted rhythm with an overall higher expression level when exposed to low temperature suggesting a role during dormancy that is typical of woody plants (Ramos *et al.*, 2005). The possibility of a different expression level of *TEM* in response to low temperature could be investigated in olive plants where vernalization plays an important role (Wilkie *et al.*, 2008). In *Arabidopsis*, vernalization overcomes the repression role of *FT* by *FLC* leading to induction of flowering (Kim *et al.*, 2009; Sung and Amasino, 2004). In olive, whilst juvenile, vernalization treatments do not lead to floral induction (El Riachy *et al.*, 2011). By collecting juvenile and adult olive plant material during cold and warm seasons at hourly intervals, it would be possible to investigate whether vernalization during juvenility enhances *OeTEM* 

expression in olive with the result of repressing FT expression and therefore flowering.

More immediate following up of the present study could be performing a new transfer experiment using a further DLI reduction for further enhancement of the JP length in Arabidopsis and Antirrhinum. This will enable a more detailed study of the gene expression levels during the switch between JP and AVP. A recent study showed that the over-expression of CsRAVI gene induces the formation of sylleptic branches when ectopically expressed in poplar (Moreno-Cortés et al., 2012). For this reason, T<sub>1</sub> lines, like the 35S::AmTEM/tem1 79, ectopically expressing AmTEM in the Arabidopsis tem1 mutant (excluded from this current research because they presented multiple stems from the base) could be used for the same study performed and described in chapter 5. It would be also interesting to investigate the relationship and function of *OeTEM* with the JP and AtFT in Arabidopsis plants ectopically expressing OeTEM, as was done for AmTEM in chapter 5. Using an olive cDNA library, it could be possible to isolate and characterised other genes such as, FT, FLC and CO involved in the juvenile to adult transition as was done for *OeTEM* (chapter 4). Of course, using the same method described in chapter 4 for characterising new genes can be time consuming. For this reason, high-throughput sequencing technologies could be used to speed up the process and keep the cost of sequencing relatively low. The first olive DNA sequence was published in the NCBI database in 1994 and up to date genomic research on olive has been very limited (Bracci et al., 2011). Although the olive genome is still not fully sequenced, projects like OLAGEN in Spain and OLEA in Italy, are aiming to use new sequencing technologies to fill the gap and identify sequences related to important commercial traits like JP, flower development and

fruit composition (Bracci *et al.*, 2011). 454 pyrosequencing technology has been used to identify genes involved in fruit development (Alagna *et al.*, 2009). This and other low-cost sequencing technologies could be used to characterise genes involved in the JP until the olive genome sequencing process is concluded. This would provide a new insight into juvenility in this tree species and useful information for breeding programs.

The identification of genetic or physiological markers of juvenility would make it easier to make decisions influenced by plant development phases. For this reason further studies are necessary to establish an easy and reproducible developmental stage identification method.

#### 6.3 Overall conclusions

The project aims were set out in section 1.10. The overall aim of this project was to investigate the cause of floral incompetence during juvenility in LDPs plants *Antirrhinum majus* and *Arabidopsis thaliana* and in the tree *Olea europaea* through investigation of the underlying molecular mechanisms.

A brief summary of the conclusions of the project in relation to the original research objectives are presented below:

❖ To establish the length of the juvenile phase in Antirrhinum plants grown under controlled-environment conditions.

A reproducible, uniform and cost-effective assay was refined for investigating juvenility in plants grown in SANYO MLR-351H cabinets. The length of the JP in *Antirrhinum* under controlled-environment conditions was established using photoperiod transfer experiments. The effect of DLI on this photoperiod insensitive phase was examined and a reciprocal relationship between DLI and juvenility revealed that reducing the DLI resulted in a longer JP.

❖ To investigate FT expression in Antirrhinum leaves, characterizing FT in single leaves at different stages of development.

A first description of spatial and temporal *AmFT* gene expression throughout the whole plant throughout development was presented. It was shown that in *Antirrhinum AmFT* expression increases across development in all leaves following the end of the JP. Using *Arabidopsis*, it was shown that the same

is true for AtFT and that FT levels are not low during juvenility due to inactivity of the photoperiodic pathway since AtCO levels are high.

❖ To identify and characterize Antirrhinum homologues of Arabidopsis genes that reduce or antagonise FT expression and to study their regulation in juvenile to adult phase transition.

Full length cDNA representing a *TEM* homologue was isolated and characterised from *Antirrhinum*. *AmTEM* was shown to contain AP2 and B3-like domains characteristic of the RAV family. The CAACA and CACCTG motifs, where AP2 and B3 domains bind to the *AtFT* 5' UTR region were shown also to be present in the *AmFT* 5' UTR region. *AmTEM* expression levels were shown to be higher during juvenility suggesting a potential role for *TEM* in controlling juvenility. Investigation of *AmTEM* over-expressing *Arabidopsis* plants and *tem* single and double mutants, with analysis of JP length and of *AtFT* and *AtCO* expression revealed a role for *TEM* in JP length determination.

❖ To identify and characterize Olea europaea homologues of Arabidopsis genes that reduce or antagonise FT expression and to study their regulation in juvenile to adult phase transition.

Full length cDNA representing a *TEM* homologue was isolated and characterised from olive. *OeTEM* were shown to contain AP2 and B3-like domains characteristic of the RAV family. In olive, *OeTEM* expression levels were shown to be higher during juvenility than when adult and

OeTEM over-expressing Arabidopsis plants showed a delay in flowering revealing a potential role for OeTEM in determining JP length in olive.

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### **APPENDIX**

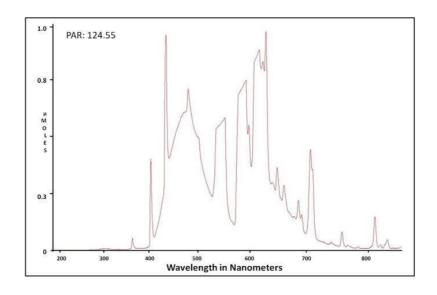


Figure A. 1 Light spectrum in the LD cabinet used in Antirrhinum experiment 1. Spectrum obtained from fluorescent tubes. Spectrum is shown as the relative spectral irradiance in the wavelength range of 300-800 nm.

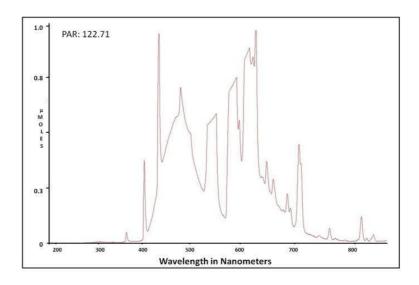


Figure A. 2 Light spectrum in the SD cabinet used in Antirrhinum experiment 1.

Spectrum obtained from fluorescent tubes. Spectrum is shown as the relative spectral irradiance in the wavelength range of 300-800 nm.

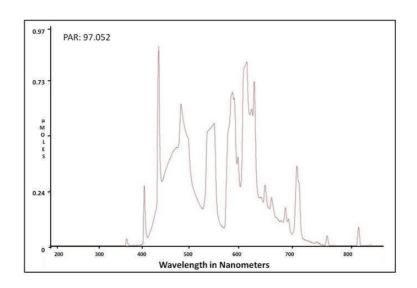


Figure A. 3 Light spectrum in the LD cabinet used in Antirrhinum experiment 2 and 3 and Arabidopsis experiments during the first 8 hours of the photoperiod.

Spectrum obtained from fluorescent tubes. Spectrum is shown as the relative spectral irradiance in the wavelength range of 300-800 nm.

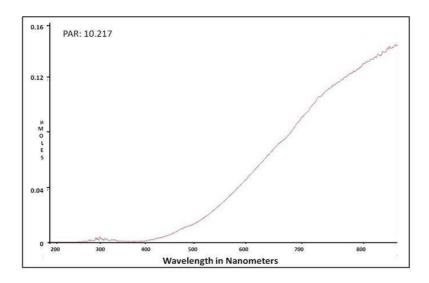


Figure A. 4 Light spectrum in the LD cabinet used in Antirrhinum experiment 2 and 3 and Arabidopsis experiments during the last 8 hours of the photoperiod.

Spectrum obtained from tungsten tubes. Spectrum is shown as the relative spectral irradiance in the wavelength range of 300-800 nm.

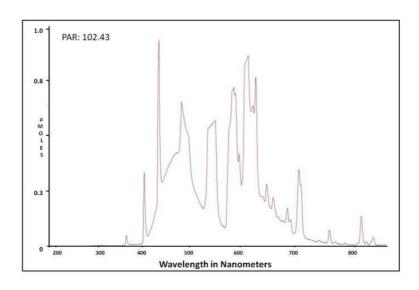


Figure A. 5 Light spectrum in the SD cabinet used in Antirrhinum experiment 2 and 3 and Arabidopsis experiments.

Spectrum obtained from fluorescent tubes. Spectrum is shown as the relative spectral irradiance in the wavelength range of 300-800 nm.

Table A. 1 Primers used in the study.

In Real-time PCR analysis, 2-step cycling was performed and annealing and extension were carried out at the annealing temperatures shown

Organism and gene (GenBank Acc. No.)	Primer name	Sequence (5'-3')	Annealing temperature	Product	Final concentration for standard PCR	Final concentration for Real-time PCR
Antirrhinum	Ant elf-alpha F	GAGTACCCACCTCTTGGACGTT			0.5 μΜ	0.2 μΜ
Elongation factor α (AJ805055)	Ant elf-alpha R	CTGGGGTCTTTCTCTCAACAC	61°C	92	0.5 μΜ	0.2 μΜ
Antirrhinum	Ant put FT F	GCCAGAATTTCAACACGAGAGAC	(22.2	70	0.5 μΜ	0.2 μΜ
FT (AJ803471)	Ant put FT R	GGCAATTGAAGTAGACAGCAGCA	63°C	78	0.5 μΜ	0.2 μΜ
Antirrhinum	AmTEM1F	ATGGACGGAAGCTGCATAGAC	63 °C	1072	0.5 μΜ	
TEM-like	AmTEM1072R	CTAAATGTTACAAAGCATCAATCACC	03 C	1072	0.5 μΜ	
Antirrhinum	Real-time AmTEM F	AATCTGAAAGCGGGCGATGTTGTA	65°C	100		0.2 μΜ
TEM-like	Real-time AmTEM R	CCGACCCATTACCATTACTCCTCA	03 C	100		0.2 μΜ
Antirrhinum	Ant CEN F	GAGTCCCTACGTCTGCTACCA	61°C	103		0.04 μΜ
CEN (AJ251993)	Ant CEN R	TTCCCATTTCTCCATCTTTTCCTT	01 C	103		0.04 μΜ
Antirrhinum	Ant FLO F	GCATTCAAGGAGCGTGGTGAGA	65°C	141		0.04 μM
FLO (AJ801751)	Ant FLO R	GGGACATACCAGATCGAGAGACG	03 C			0.04 μΜ
Arabidopsis	AtActin F	TGTCGCCATCCAAGCTGTTCTCT	63°C	cDNA 85	0.5 μΜ	0.2 μΜ
Actin 2 (BE038458)	AtActin R	GTGAGACACACCATCACCAGAAT	03 C	gDNA 163	0.5 μΜ	0.2 μΜ
Arabidopsis	Real-time AtFT F	GGCCTTCTCAGGTTCAAAACA	55°C	119	0.5 μΜ	0.2 μΜ
FT (NM_105222)	Real-time AtFT R	TCGGAGGTGAGGGTTGCTA	33 C		0.5 μΜ	0.2 μΜ
Arabidopsis	Real-time Tem1 F	CTGGAACAGCAGTCAAAGTTACGTGT	67°C	100		0.2 μΜ
TEM1 (NM_102367)	Real-time Tem1 R	TGATCTCTCGAAACAAACCACATCAC	07 C	100		0.2 μΜ
Arabidopsis	AtTEM1-F	ATGGAATACAGCTGTGTAGACGA	61°C	1091	0.5 μΜ	
TEM1 (NM_102367)	AtTEM1091-R	ATTTGTCACAAGATGTTGATAATCG	01 C	1071	0.5 μΜ	
Arabidopsis	Real-time Tem2 F	GCCGTTTGCGGTGGAAAGAGAT	61°C	104		0.2 μΜ
TEM2 (NM_105558)			<u> </u>	10.		0.2 μΜ
Arabidopsis	Real-time AtCO F	GAGAAATCGAAGCCGAGGAGCA	61°C	80		0.2 μΜ
CO (NM_001036810)	Real-time AtCO R	TCAGAATGAAGGAACAATCCCATA		00		0.2 μΜ
Olive actin1(AY788899)	Oe-Actin F	TCCTGAGGTTCTTTACCAGCCTTC	65°C	191	0.5 μΜ	
` ′	Oe-Actin R	CTAGCGCTGTAATTTCCTTGCTCA			0.5 μΜ	
Olive	OeTEM1F	ATGGATACTAGTTCAATAGGTGAAAGC	65 °C	1074	0.5 μΜ	
TEM-like	OeTEM1074R	TTACAAAGCATCAATAACCCTCTGTT		10/7	0.5 μΜ	
Olive	Oe fragment TEM F	CAAAGCTACGTGTTAACAAAAGGAT	61°C	312	0.5 μΜ	
TEM-like	Oe fragment TEM R	TACAAAGCATCAATAACCCTCTG	01.0	J12	0.5 μΜ	

Table A. 2 Gene specific Primers used for sequencing.

Organism and gene	Primer name	Sequence (5'-3')	Final concentration
Antirrhinum	Seq Amtem F or CI-Am F	CGGAAACGGAACACGATGACG	3.2 μΜ
TEM-like	Seq Amtem R or CI-Am R	CGACAAAACGAACGGACACGAT	3.2 μΜ
Arabidopsis	Seq Attem1 F	ATGGAATACAGCTGTGTAGACGA	3.2 μΜ
TEM1 (NM_102367)	Seq Attem1 R	ATTTGTCACAAGATGTTGATAATCG	3.2 μΜ
Arabidopsis	Seq Attem2 F	ATGGATTCTAGTTGCATAGACGAG	3.2 μΜ
TEM2 (NM_105558)	Seq Attem1 R	GAAAAGGAAATATGTCACAAAGCAT	3.2 μΜ
Olive	Seq Oetem F	CAAAGCTACGTGTTAACAAAAGGAT	3.2 μΜ
TEM-like	Seq Oetem R	TACAAAGCATCAATAACCCTCTG	3.2 μΜ
E.Coli	M13F	TGTAAAACGACGGCCAGT	3.2 μΜ
M13	M13R	GGAAACAGCTATGACCATG	3.2 μΜ

Table A. 3 Primers used for semi-quantitative analysis of AmELFa, AmFT, AmTEM, Oe-Actin and OeTEM.

Organism and gene (GenBank Acc. No.)	Primer name	Sequence (5'-3')	Tm	Final concentration	Product size	
Antirrhinum Elongation	Ant elf-α F	GAGTACCCACCTCTTGGACGTT		0.5μΜ		
factor α (AJ805055)	Ant elf-α R	CTGGGGTCTTTCTTCTCAACAC	61°C	0.5μΜ	92bp	
Antirrhinum	Ant put FT F	GCCAGAATTTCAACACGAGAGAC		0.5μΜ	701	
FT (AJ803471)	Ant put FT R	GGCAATTGAAGTAGACAGCAGCA	63°C	0.5μΜ	78bp	
Antirrhinum	Ant fragment TEM F	ACGCGGTCSCGAACTTCA	(100	0.5μΜ	263bp	
TEM-like	Ant fragment TEM R	CACATCGCTCGGAGTAACC	61°C	0.5μΜ		
Olive	Oe-Actin F	TCCTGAGGTTCTTTACCAGCCTTC	6500	0.5μΜ	1011	
actin1 (AY788899)	Oe-Actin R	CTAGCGCTGTAATTTCCTTGCTCA	65°C	0.5μΜ	191bp	
Olive	Oe fragment TEM F	CAAAGCTACGTGTTAACAAAAGGAT		0.5μΜ		
TEM-like	Oe fragment TEM R	TTACAAAGCATCAATAACCCTCTG	61°C	0.5μΜ	312bp	

Table A. 4 Att-primers used for acquisition of full length AmTEM, OeTEM, AtTEM1 cDNA.

Organism	Primer name	Sequence (5'-3')	Final concentration used
Antirrhinum	Am tem att-site F	GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTATGGACGGAAGCTGCATAGACG	0.5μΜ
Amurrunum	Am tem att-site R	GGGGACCACTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTCTAAATGTTACAAAGCATCAATCA	0.5μΜ
	Oe tem att-site F	GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTATGGATACTAGTTCAATAGGTGAAAGC	0.5μΜ
Olive	Oe tem att-site R	GGGGACCACTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTTTACAAAGCATCAATAACCCTCTGTT	0.5μΜ
Arabidopsis	At tem att-site F	GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAAGCAGGCTATGGAATACAGCTGTGTAGACGA	0.5μΜ
	At tem att-site R	GGGGACCACTTTGTACAAGAAGCTGGGTATTTGTCACAAGATGTTGATAATCG	0.5μΜ

Table A. 5 Primers used for RACE.

NAME	Sequence (5'-3')		
Antirrhinum TEM GSP Forward	GAAGCCGCCAGAGCCTACGACAC		
Olive TEM GSP Forward	CAACACGCCGAGAAACACTTCCCTTT		
Antirrhinum TEM GSPN Forward	ACTCCCCGACAAAACGAACGGACAC		
Olive TEM GSPN Forward	GACTGGAAACCGAGGAACGGATCAA		
Antirrhinum TEM GPS Reverse	AACCTCCACACTTTACCCCCAACAC		
Olive TEM GPS Reverse	GCCAAAAGCTCCATTTCCCTCCCTCATCC		
Antirrhinum TEM GPSN Reverse	CACACTTTACCCCCAACATCCTCAAAA		
Olive TEM GPSN Reverse	GCACCCCTTTGGAATTGTTCCCACT		
GeneRacer Oligo(dT) primer	$GCTGTCAACGATACGCTACGTAACGGCATGACAGTG(T)_{24} \\$		
GeneRacer™ 3′	GCTGTCAACGATACGCTACGTAACG		
GeneRacer™ 3' Nested	CGCTACGTAACGGCATGACAGTG		
GeneRacer™ 5' Primer	CGACTGGAGCACGAGGACACTGA		
GeneRacer™ 5' Nested	GGACACTGACATGGACTGAAGGAGTA		

Table A. 6 SOC medium recipe.

SOC medium recipe:		
0.5 % (w/v)	Yeast Extract	
2 % (w/v)	Tryptone	
10 mM	NaCl	
2.5 mM	KCl	
10 mM	MgCL2	
10 mM	MgSO4	
20 mM	Glucose	

## Figure A. 6 List of 41 amino acid sequences of RAV and RAV-likes used for sequence homology comparisons.

>Arabidopsis thaliana TEM1 NP\_173927
MEYSCVDDSSTTSESLSISTTPKPTTTTEKKLSSPPATSMRLYRMGSGGS
SVVLDSENGVETESRKLPSSKYKGVVPQPNGRWGAQIYEKHQRVWLGTFN
EEEEAASSYDIAVRRFRGRDAVTNFKSQVDGNDAESAFLDAHSKAEIVDM
LRKHTYADEFEQSRRKFVNGDGKRSGLETATYGNDAVLRAREVLFEKTVT
PSDVGKLNRLVIPKQHAEKHFPLPAMTTAMGMNPSPTKGVLINLEDRTGK
VWRFRYSYWNSSQSYVLTKGWSRFVKEKNLRAGDVVCFERSTGPDRQLYI
HWKVRSSPVQTVVRLFGVNIFNVSNEKPNDVAVECVGKKRSREDDLFSLG
CSKKQAIINIL

>Arabidopsis thaliana TEM2 (RAV2) NP\_564947
MDSSCIDEISSSTSESFSATTAKKLSPPPAAALRLYRMGSGGSSVVLDPE
NGLETESRKLPSSKYKGVVPQPNGRWGAQIYEKHQRVWLGTFNEQEEAAR
SYDIAACRFRGRDAVVNFKNVLEDGDLAFLEAHSKAEIVDMLRKHTYADE
LEQNNKRQLFLSVDANGKRNGSSTTQNDKVLKTREVLFEKAVTPSDVGKL
NRLVIPKQHAEKHFPLPSPSPAVTKGVLINFEDVNGKVWRFRYSYWNSSQ
SYVLTKGWSRFVKEKNLRAGDVVTFERSTGLERQLYIDWKVRSGPRENPV
QVVVRLFGVDIFNVTTVKPNDVVAVCGGKRSRDVDDMFALRCSKKQAIIN
AL

>Arabidopsis thaliana RAV1 NP\_172784
MESSSVDESTTSTGSICETPAITPAKKSSVGNLYRMGSGSSVVLDSENGV
EAESRKLPSSKYKGVVPQPNGRWGAQIYEKHQRVWLGTFNEEDEAARAYD
VAVHRFRRDAVTNFKDVKMDEDEVDFLNSHSKSEIVDMLRKHTYNEELE
QSKRRRNGNGNMTRTLLTSGLSNDGVSTTGFRSAEALFEKAVTPSDVGKL
NRLVIPKHHAEKHFPLPSSNVSVKGVLLNFEDVNGKVWRFRYSYWNSSQS
YVLTKGWSRFVKEKNLRAGDVVSFSRSNGQDQQLYIGWKSRSGSDLDAGR
VLRLFGVNISPESSRNDVVGNKRVNDTEMLSLVCSKKQRIFHAS

>Arabidopsis thaliana RAV1-like NP\_189201 MDAMSSVDESSTTTDSIPARKSSSPASLLYRMGSGTSVVLDSENGVEVEV EAESRKLPSSRFKGVVPQPNGRWGAQIYEKHQRVWLGTFNEEDEAARAYD VAAHRFRGRDAVTNFKDTTFEEEVEFLNAHSKSEIVDMLRKHTYKEELDQ RKRNRDGNGKETTAFALASMVVMTGFKTAELLFEKTVTPSDVGKLNRLVI PKHQAEKHFPLPLGNNNVSVKGMLLNFEDVNGKVWRFRYSYWNSSQSYVL TKGWSRFVKEKRLCAGDLISFKRSNDQDQKFFIGWKSKSGLDLETGRVMR

LFGVDISLNAVVVVKETTEVLMSSLRCKKQRVL

>Arabidopsis thaliana RAV-like 4 NP\_175483
MRLDDEPENALVVSSSPKTVVASGNVKYKGVVQQQNGHWGAQIYADHKRI
WLGTFKSADEAATAYDSASIKLRSFDANSHRNFPWSTITLNEPDFQNCYT
TETVLNMIRDGSYQHKFRDFLRIRSQIVASINIGGPKQARGEVNQESDKC
FSCTQLFQKELTPSDVGKLNRLVIPKKYAVKYMPFISADQSEKEEGEIVG
SVEDVEVVFYDRAMRQWKFRYCYWKSSQSFVFTRGWNSFVKEKNLKEKDV
IAFYTCDVPNNVKTLEGQRKNFLMIDVHCFSDNGSVVAEEVSMTVHDSSV
QVKKTENLVSSMLEDKETKSEENKGGFMLFGVRIECP

>Arabidopsis thaliana RAV-like 5 NP\_175524
MDEMSNVAKTTTETSGLTDSVLSLTKRMKPTEVTTTTKPALSNTTKFKGV
VQQQNGHWGAQIYADHRRIWLGTFKSAHEAAAAYDSASIKLRSFDANSHR
NFPWSDFTLHEPDFQECYTTEAVLNMIRDGSYQHKFRDFLRIRSQIVANI
NIVGSKQVLGGGEGGQESNKCFSCTQLFQKELTPSDVGKLNRLVIPKKYA
VKYMPFISDDQSEKETSEGVEDVEVVFYDRAMRQWKFRYCYWRSSQSFVF
TRGWNGFVKEKNLKEKDIIVFYTCDVPNNVKTLEGQSKTFLMIDVHHFSG
NGFVVPEEVNKTVHEISDEEMKTETLFTSKVEEETKSEEKKGGFMLFGVR

>Vitis vinifera RAV-like XP\_002276492
MELEMDSTISYSRAGMVAERSFSSNSFSLSQPNDHRSSRFRGVVLLHSGN
WGARISIQYQLVWLGTFPTAEEAAAYDTAALKLHKGDSFLNFPWSDHSPQ
EIMFQSYYSIGEIFKMIKDKSYSSNLATFIADQSLIMNYASDPMCEQGIY
QLLFKKALTPRDVAKHPRLLIPKEYALMYFPPITGDVESVQLMFYDKDGI
PWTFRYSCWESNQSFVFTTGWKQFVNAKRLKRGETISFYRCGIEEEFEDS

AFFMIDVDRGDWESDAIGEHMGEEISVGGNSNNGMDADDKEKEAADKGFV LFGVKLG

>Vitis vinifera RAV-like2 CAN68564

MDGSCIDESTTSDSISTSLPALSALPATKSPESLCRVGSGTSVILDSESS IEAESRKLPSSRFKGVVPQPNGRWGAQIYEKHQRVWLGTFNEEEEAAKAY DIAAQRFRGRDAVTNFKPLSETEEDDIEAAFLNSHSKAEIVDMLRKHTYN DELEQSKRNYGLDANGKRSRAEGLMTPFGSDRVTKSREQLFEKTVTPSDV GKLNRLVIPKQHAEKHFPLQTGTTSKGVLLNFEDMGGKVWRFRYSYWNSS QSYVLTKGWSRFVKEKNLKAGDIVSFQRSTGGDKQLYIDWKARNGPTNQI NPVEPVEMVRLFGVNIFKVPVNSSVVVANNGSWTGKRMIEMELLSFECSK KQRMYVKGKYDKKI

>Galega orientalis RAV-like ACI46678

MEGGSCIDETTTTSNDSLSVSIFPAKLSPPPTNTLSRVGSGASAIFDPEI CAGSGEAESRKLPSSKYKGVVPQPNGRWGAQIYEKHQRVWLGTFNEEDEA ARAYDIAALRFRGKDAVTNSKTLAGAGNDNDEAETEFLNSHSKSEIVDML RKHTYDDELRQSMRDTCGGRQRRNGESSAAASRGACDSNAREQLFEKTVT PSDVGKLNRLVIPKQHAEKHFPLGAVAAAVSVAVDGISPAVSAAKGLLLN FEDIGGKVWRFRYSYWNSSQSYVLTKGWSRFVKEKNLRAGDAVQFCRSTG PDRQLYIDCKARSVSVVGVGIGNTYTDNLFIPVRPVVEPVQMVRLFGVNL LKLPGSDGVGGSCNGKRKEMDLFTLECTKKPKIIGAL

>Nicotiana tabacum RAV ACF74549

MEGSSSIDESTTSDSLSIAPAISTSTLPVMKSPESLCRMGSGTSVIIDAE NGVEAESRKLPSSRYEGVVPQPNGRWGAQIYEKHQRVWLGTFNEENEAAR AYDVAAQRFRGRDAVTNFKPLLENEENDDMEIAFLNSHSKAEIVDMLRKH TYIDELEQSKKNYGFSKDGKRTYCTKDGLMSSFFSSVDKVNKAREQLFEK AVTPSDVGKLNRLVIPKQHAEKHFPLQNGNTSKGVLLNFEDLNGKVWRFR YSYWNSSQSYVLTKGWSRFVKEKNLKAGDIVSFQRSTGEDKQLYIDFKAR NATPTISPTVASQVQVQVPQVQMVRLFGVNICKVPAVNNVVINNNNNNN DNNMTSCSGGKRRIEMELLTFESCRKKQRVIINAL

>Populus trichocarpa RAV1 XP 002315958

MDGSCIDESTTSSADNSISITPTSLPPFPPTATTTKSPPESLCRVRSGNS SVILDSESGVEAESRKLPSSKYKGVVPQPNGRWGAQIYEKHQRVWLGTFN EENEAARAYDIAAQRFRGRDAVTNFKQVNETEDDEIEAAFLNAHSKAEIV DMLRKHTYSDELEQSKRNHRSNNGGNGKQYKNTANYENNSYDHGCGRVLK AREQLFEKAVTPSDVGKLNRLVIPKQHAEKHFPLQSTSSNSTKGVLLNLE DVSGKVWRFRYSYWNSSQSYVLTKGWSRFVKEKNLKAGDIVCFQRSTGPD NQLYIDWKARCGSNQVQPVQMVRLFGVNIFNVPGMENGCDGKRSIRDMEL LSIDRQYSKKQRIVGAL

>Populus trichocarpa RAV2 XP 002311438

MDGSCVDESTTSSTDNSISITPTSLTPSPPPATTTKSPPESLCRVGSGNS VILDLELGVEAESRKLPSSKYKGVVPQPNGRWGAQIYEKHQRVWLGTFNE EDEAARAYDTAAQRFRGRDAVTNFKQVNETEDDEIEAAFLITHSKAEIVD MLRKHTYSDELEQSKRNQRSNNGVNGKQYKNTANYESNSYDHGCGRVLKA REQLFEKAVTPSDVGKLNRLVIPKQHAEKHFPLQSTSSCSTKGVLLNLED MSGKVWRFRYSYWNSSQSYVLTKGWSRFVKEKSLKAGDIVCFQRSTGPDK QLYIDWKARSGSNQVQPVQPIQMVRLFGVNIFNVPGMENGCNGKRSVREM ELLSLDHQYSKKQRIIGAL

>Populus trichocarpa RAV4 XP 002308395

MEEETVSLILNAETSVIEELSDSNSSTHFFPPNKRARSGSNVSASRFKGV VPQPNGHWGCQIYANHQRIWLGTFKSEREAAMAYDSAAIKLRSGDSRRNF PPTDITVQEPKFQSYYSIEVVLAMIKDGTYQSKFADFIRTCSQSVETALS LKLMMPQSSEGLTCKQLFRKELTPSDVGKLNRLVIPKKYAIKYFPNTKAL KKMRRLTNQSYVFTRGWNRFVKEKKLKANDSIVFWLCESGETVDSAAQTF QMIDVSNCENISNIAESSNQSIASKVELQLLQGPGIARDSTVKKNVEEDR MVRADKPTHDAVKTGFKLFGIQIM

>Oryza sativa RAV-like 1 AP2 NP 001041982

MGVVSFSSTSSGASTATTESGGAVRMSPEPVVAVAAAAQQLPVVKGVDSA DEVVTSRPAAAAAQQSSRYKGVVPQPNGRWGAQIYERHARVWLGTFPDEE AAARAYDVAALRYRGRDAATNFPGAAASAAELAFLAAHSKAEIVDMLRKH TYADELRQGLRRGRGMGARAQPTPSWAREPLFEKAVTPSDVGKLNRLVVP KQHAEKHFPLRRAASSDSASAAATGKGVLLNFEDGEGKVWRFRYSYWNSS QSYVLTKGWSRFVREKGLRAGDTIVFSRSAYGPDKLLFIDCKKNNAAAAT TTCAGDERPTTSGAEPRVVRLFGVDIAGGDCRKRERAVEMGQEVFLLKRQ CVVHQRTPALGALLL

>Oryza sativa RAV-like 2 NP 001043946

MDSSSCLVDDTNSGGSSTDKLRALAAAAAETAPLERMGSGASAVVDAAEP GAEADSGSGGRVCGGGGGGAGGAGGKLPSSKFKGVVPQPNGRWGAQIYER HQRVWLGTFAGEDDAARAYDVAAQRFRGRDAVTNFRPLAEADPDAAAELR FLATRSKAEVVDMLRKHTYFDELAQSKRTFAASTPSAATTTASLSNGHLS SPRSPFAPAAARDHLFDKTVTPSDVGKLNRLVIPKQHAEKHFPLQLPSAG GESKGVLLNFEDAAGKVWRFRYSYWNSSQSYVLTKGWSRFVKEKGLHAGD VVGFYRSAASAGDDGKLFIDCKLVRSTGAALASPADQPAPSPVKAVRLFG VDLLTAPAPVEQMAGCKRARDLAATTPPQAAAFKKQCIELALV

>Oryza sativa RAV-like 3 NP 001056237

MDSTSCLLDDASSGASTGKKAAAAAASKALQRVGSGASAVMDAAEPGAEA DSGGERRGGGGKLPSSKYKGVVPQPNGRWGAQIYERHQRVWLGTFTGEA EAARAYDVAAQRFRGRDAVTNFRPLAESDPEAAVELRFLASRSKAEVVDM LRKHTYLEELTQNKRAFAAISPPPPKHPASSPTSSSAAREHLFDKTVTPS DVGKLNRLVIPKQHAEKHFPLQLPPPTTTSSVAAAADAAAGGGDCKGVLL NFEDAAGKVWKFRYSYWNSSQSYVLTKGWSRFVKEKGLHAGDAVGFYRAA GKNAQLFIDCKVRAKPTTAAAAAAFLSAVAAAAAAPPPAVKAIRLFGVDLL TAAAPELQDAGGAAMTKSKRAMDAMAESQAHVVFKKQCIELALT

>Camellia sinensis RAV-like ACT33043

MDGSCIDESTTSDSLSIALASASTSILLATKTKASSPKSLCRVGSGTSAI LDSLEGGAEAESRKLPSSRFKGVVPQPNGRWGAQIYEKHQRVWLGTFNEE DEAARAYDIAAQRFRGRDAVTNFKPLSENEEQDELETLFLNSHSKSEIVD MLRKHTYNDEPEQSRKNYIGGFINNNGNKKACCNEKSTTNYKNNVKATEQ LFEKAVTPSDVGKLNRLVIPKQHAEKHFPLQSETTSKGVLLNFKDVAGKV WRFRYSYWNSSQSYVLTKGWSRFVKEKSLKAGDIVSFYRSTGSDNQLFID WKPRNGSNPVVQPVQMVRLFGVNIFKVPISGGLDSNCGGKRMREMELLAL ECSKKVRVIGAL

>Capsicum annuum RAV-like AF478458 1

MEGTSSIDQESTTSDSLSIAPMTTTKPPESLCRMGSGTSSVIIDGENGVE AESRKLPSSKYKGVVPQPNGRWGAQIYEKHQRVWLGTFNEENEAARAYDV AAQRFRGRDAVTNFKPLLENQESDDDVEIAFLNSHSKAEIVDMLRKHTYI DELEQSKKLFGYTKDGTMAKNKDGLIDISSFFGGGGTIDKVNNKVREQLF EKAVTPSDVGKLNRLVIPKQHAEKHFPLQNGNNSKGVLLNFEDLNGKVWR FRYSYWNSSQSYVLTKGWSRFVKEKNLKAGDIVSFQRSTSGDKQLYIDFK ARNMAPTNPVVTNQVQAQVQVPRVQMMRLFGVNICKIPATINNVVDNNNN NNNNMANCSGGKRMMEMELLTFESCRKKQRVIIDAL

>Glycine max RAV-like NP 001237600

MDGGCVTDETTTSSDSLSVPPPSRVGSVASAVVDPDGCCVSGEAESRKLP SSKYKGVVPQPNGRWGAQIYEKHQRVWLGTFNEEDEAARAYDIAALRFRG PDAVTNFKPPAASDDAESEFLNSHSKFEIVDMLRKHTYDDELQQSTRGGR RRLDADTASSGVFDAKAREQLFEKTVTPSDVGKLNRLVIPKQHAEKHFPL SGSGDESSPCVAGASAAKGMLLNFEDVGGKVWRFRYSYWNSSQSYVLTKG WSRFVKEKNLRAGDAVQFFKSTGPDRQLYIDCKARSGEVNNNAGGLFVPI GPVVEPVQMVRLFGVNLLKLPVPGSDGVGKRKEMELFAFECCKKLKVIGA L

>Ricinus communis RAV1 putative XP\_002524409
MDGSCIDESTTSDSISITPTSNISPSSNPLPSKSPESPLCRVGSGTSVVL
DSESGIEAESRKLPSSKYKGVVPQPNGRWGAQIYEKHQRVWLGTFNEEDE
AAKAYDIAAQRFRGRDAITNFKPQATDHQSEEDEIETAFLNSHSKAEIVD
MLRKHTYNDELEQSKRNYTSNNGRGDKFQNRTNMNNVGLSGSERIIMKAR
EQLFEKAVTPSDVGKLNRLVIPKQHAEKHFPLQSGSNSTKGVLLNFEDIT
GKVWRFRYSYWNSSQSYVLTKGWSRFVKEKNLKAGDIVRFLKSTGPDKQL
YIDWKVRTLTPTVSNPVVCSVQPVQMVRLFGVNIFKVPGNSHIEGCNGKR
IREMELLSLDCIKKQRVIGAL

>Zea mays RAV1 NP\_001151105

MDSASSLVDDTSSGGGGGGGASTDKLRALAVFAAASGTPLERMGSGASAV VDAAEPGAEADSGSGAAAVSVGGKLPSSRYKGVVPQPNGRWGAQIYERHQ RVWLGTFAGEADAARAYDVAAQRFRGRDAVTNFRPLADADPDAAAELRFL ASRSKAEVVDMLRKHTYFDELAQNKRAFAAASAATASSLANNPSSYASLS PATATAAAAAAREHLFDKTVTPSDVGKLNRLVIPKQHAEKHFPLQLPSAG GESKGVLLNLEDAAGKVWRFRYSYWNSSQSYVLTKGWSRFVKEKGLQAGD VVGFYRSAAGADTKLFIDCKLRPNSVVAASTAGPSPRAPVAKAVRLFGVD LLTAPATAAAAPAEAVAVAGCKRARDLGSPPQAAFKKQLVELALV

>Antirrhinum majus RAV like AJ800976

MVSTSEAKAGQSVQLQLFQSRFSLVEILNMIKTGSYPMKFNNYLISEVQG ISRSPYLQCALGTGLRLLFQKELTPSDVSKLNRLVIPKKYAVEYFPVISE MEGENGSGTCDAELEFFDRSMVLWKFRYCFWKSSQSFVFTRGWNRFAKEK GLRAKDQVIFSTYESGDRGTEARRIIDVAYTGEAMVAPVARAIVNNGLES ESEEMDEDVNEKYYGETSENVGNFSVGAEMRKSVRLFGVEIFG

>Solanum lycopersicum RAV2 ABY57635

MEGSISSIDQESTTSDSLSIAPAASSSTMIKSSTTIKLPPESGLCRMGSG TSVIIDAENGVEAESKKLPSSRYKGVVPQPNGRWGAQIYEKHQRVWLGTF NEENEAARAYDIAAQRFRGRDAVTNFKPLLENQESDDMEIAFLNSHSKAE IVDVLRKHTYIDELEQSKRLFGFTKDGMIKRKDGLVISSFFGSTNDKVNC KAREQLFEKVVTPSDVGKLNRLVIPKQHAEKHFPLQNGNNSKGVLLNFED LNGKVWRFRYSYWNSSQSYVLTKGWSRFVKEKNLKAGDIVSFQRSTSGDK QLYIDFKAKNVGNTSMVVTNQVQAQVQVPLVQMVRLFGVNICKVPANVSN VVIDNNNNNNNNNTSWGGGKRRMEMELLTFESCRKKQRVIIDAL

>Malus x domestica AP2 domain ADE41129

MDGISSTEESTSSDSISIYPLQHIVARVDPFAKSAPQVASLCRIGSGASS VILDPELSSSGTGGVEAESRKLPSSRYKGVVPQPNGRWGAQIYEKHQRV WLGTFNEEDEAARAYDVAAQRFRGRDAVTNFKPSSAEPISSDDEENDDAE AAFLSCHSKSEIVDMLRKHTYNDELEQSKRNNSAYGKRSRSNGSLGLFGT DNSGVPKAREQLFEKAVTPSDVGKLNRLVIPKQHAEKHFPLQSGSAATLT VSASTACKGVLLNFEDVGGKVWRFRYSYWNSSQSYVLTKGWSRFVKEKNL MAGDIVSFQRSTGPDKQLYIDWKARMSVNNTNNNGSSPVQVGPVPMVRLF GVNIFKIPGSSGPGSADAAAAAAIGGGCNNNIGKRMREMELLELEFGKKP RIIGAI.

>Oryza sativa RAV-like 4 EAY75457

MAGRSDNGDGALTKCVNQEELHHDEHFSFIYKWKNKISSAGNARLYYHYG
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STPSAATTTASLSNGHLSSPRSPFAPAAARDHLFDKTVTPSDVGKLNRLV
IPKQHAEKHFPLQLPSAGGESKGVLLNFEDAAGKVWRFRYSYWNSSQSYV
LTKGWSRFVKEKGLHAGDVVGFYRSAASAGDDGKLFIDCKLVRSTGAALA
SPADQPAPSPVKAVRLFGVDLLTAPAPVEQMAGCKRARDLAATTPPQAAA
FKKQCIELALV

>Ricinus communis RAV-like XP 002515100

MNFVEQEREYCDKGEEQEEEEEEEEEEEETIMTTTSMLPFPSPSSPSSS
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DNRTLNTSTSTAGASSGSIEREHMFDKVVTPSDVGKLNRLVIPKQHAEKY
FPLDSSSNEKGLLLNFEDRNGKLWRFRYSYWNSSQSYVMTKGWSRFVKEK
KLDAGDIVSFQRGVGESGKHRLYIDWRRRPNAPDPTSFTHLELQNQLHFP
QSVRWGRLYSLPQPLSVPRVPFEQSQFHHLNYTIQPYIHNHHDHHYHHHQ
QQQVTSYGNAAAPQYYLRPSPPPPLPSPGTVRIGAVHHHHHPQQQQEEG
GDKGSMVIDSIPIVNGRSAGKRLRLFGVNMECPTQDDQYSSSSDNLPHGS
TVLSSFFPHLASHSRPPSSSGASMPTSRQADAHHEFPKKGKTSLSFDLDI
>Arabidopsis thaliana NGA3 NP 171611

MDLSLAPTTTTSSDQEQDRDQELTSNIGASSSSGPSGNNNNLPMMMIPPP EKEHMFDKVVTPSDVGKLNRLVIPKQHAERYFPLDSSNNQNGTLLNFQDR NGKMWRFRYSYWNSSQSYVMTKGWSRFVKEKKLDAGDIVSFQRGIGDESE RSKLYIDWRHRPDMSLVQAHQFGNFGFNFNFPTTSQYSNRFHPLPEYNSV PIHRGLNIGNHQRSYYNTQRQEFVGYGYGNLAGRCYYTGSPLDHRNIVGS EPLVIDSVPVVPGRLTPVMLPPLPPPPSTAGKRLRLFGVNMECGNDYNQQ EESWLVPRGEIGASSSSSSALRLNLSTDHDDDNDDGDDDDDDQFAKKGKS SLSLNFNP

>Arabidopsis thaliana NGA1 NP 566089

MMTDLSLTRDEDEEEAKPLAEEEGAREVADREHMFDKVVTPSDVGKLNRL VIPKQHAERFFPLDSSSNEKGLLLNFEDLTGKSWRFRYSYWNSSQSYVMT KGWSRFVKDKKLDAGDIVSFQRCVGDSGRDSRLFIDWRRRPKVPDHPHFA AGAMFPRFYSFPSTNYSLYNHQQQRHHHSGGGYNYHQIPREFGYGYFVRS VDQRNNPAAAVADPLVIESVPVMMHGRANQELVGTAGKRLRLFGVDMECG ESGMTNSTEEESSSSGGSLPRGGGGGASSSSFFQLRLGSSSEDDHFTKKG KSSLSFDLDQ

>Arabidopsis thaliana NGA2 NP 191756

MNQEDKEKPIEEASSSMEREHMFDKVVTPSDVGKLNRLVIPKQHAERYFP LDNSTTNDSNKGLLLNFEDRSGNSWRFRYSYWNSSQSYVMTKGWSRFVKD KKLDAGDIVSFQRDSCNKDKLYIDWRRRPKIPDHHHQQFAGAMFPRFYTF PHPQMPTNYETHNLYHRFHQRDLGIGYYVRSMERSHPTAVIESVPVMMQR RAQVASMASRGEKRLRLFGVDMECGGGGGSVNSTEEESSSSGGSIPRGRV SMVGAGSLLQLRLVSSDDESLVAMEAASLEDHHFFTKKGKPSLSFDLDR >Oryza sativa RAV-like 5 NP 001047754

MEFTTSSRFSKEEEDEEQDEAGRREIPFMTATAEAAPAPTSSSSSPAHHA
ASASASASGSSTPFRSDDGAGASGSGGGGGGGEAEVVEKEHMFDKVV
TPSDVGKLNRLVIPKQYAEKYFPLDAAANEKGLLLNFEDRAGKPWRFRYS
YWNSSQSYVMTKGWSRFVKEKRLDAGDTVSFSRGIGDEAARHRLFIDWKR
RADTRDPLRLPRGLPLPMPLTSHYAPWGIGGGGGFFVQPSPPATLYEHRL
RQGLDFRAFNPAAAMGRQVLLFGSARIPPQAPLLARAPSPLHHHYTLQPS
GDGVRAAGSPVVLDSVPVIESPTTAAKRVRLFGVNLDNPHAGGGGGAAAG
ESSNHGNALSLQTPAWMRRDPTLRLLELPPHHHHGAESSAASSPSSSSS
KRDAHSALDLDL

>Oryza sativa RAV-like NP 001174059

MEFATTSSRFSKEEEEEEEGQEMEQEQDEEEEEAEASPREIPFMTSAAA AATASSSSPTSVSPSATASAAASTSASGSPFRSSDGAGASGSGGGGGED VEVIEKEHMFDKVVTPSDVGKLNRLVIPKQHAEKYFPLDSAANEKGLLLS FEDRTGKLWRFRYSYWNSSQSYVMTKGWSRFVKEKRLDAGDTVSFCRGAA EATRDRLFIDWKRRADVRDPHRFQRLPLPMTSPYGPWGGGAGASSCRPRR PPRSTSITAFARASTSATSTPLCRRGSSSSSAPQGRGFISTRPCHRRRH LRLLTNSTLRCTTRAP

>Vitis Vinifera A5APE8 Putative uncharacterized protein CAN73636
MDLLPDRDVVCEQEQVIRGKQLPFSYSSSPSPSSSSQYRNLVPLPNGGD
RWDAQIQRGWLGHQEDGMRCFEGGAASKLELMDTSPTNDEDDVVDDDVRR
RDSQALEREHMFDKVVTPSDVGKLNRLVIPKQHAEKYFPLDSSANEKGLL
LNFEDRSGKPWRFRYSYWNSSQSYVMTKGWSRFVKEKKLDAGDIVSFQRG
VGESGKDRLYIDWRRRPDAPEPSSLAHHFFHRSVPWSPLFLQAPVAGGAV
SMGRQQVQLAQPNYMSHLGGRNPYGSGAYSYNNAVNPCSGSVFYLRPTAP
QQVGMVQVQQGGVEPMVFNSVPVVHGKAAAKRLRLFGVNMECPISESDEC
DILSSTSIPHAAVASQPPHLSSPSSHHHPLQLRLYNAEIEGMQRLEKKKE
KVVRSLGQLIGYGCHHEGLRKGTMCQVQWLNKEDGDYEIPVLGVVVLVAA
SLGTPAGIAEKVAELYMDAYLIIIFVSSKEELYMLENFPNMGDSNEADLT
NHDMN

> Ricinus communis RAV-like XP\_002518948
MEIGSAAGIISTEEEQMSKGKHLPFSYSSSSSPSSSSSQHKPHHLLALSQ
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HMFDKVVTPSDVGKLNRLVIPKQHAEKYFPLDSSTNDKGLLLNFEDKTGK
AWRFRYSYWNSSQSYVMTKGWSRFVKDKKLDAGDIVSFQRGVGEAAKDRL
YIDWRRRPDGPHHQPTHRHQQHHLSSIPWSPLLMRPPPVPRDHFHLSNPN
YYNSSGGGGGASAYGFGYGYNSSNNYNYNSNVGSSNSGTIIYMRSPQQAG
MVQWQQAAASSGGFMEPMVFESVPVVQGKAAAKRLRLFGVNMDCPISDSD
HECDKLSTSTPIPAMAAALQQPSHHPLQLRLYNGTPLPSPQFLHKGKSSM
SLDLDI

>SORGHUM BICOLOR uncharacterized protein XP 002448384

MEFASSSRFSKEEDEEEEGEEEDEEASPREIPFMTAAAATADTGPAAAS SSSPSAAGASASGSAAALRSGDGAGASGSGGGGGGSDDVEVIEKEHMF DKVVTPSDVGKLNRLVIPKQHAEKYFPLDAAANEKGLLLSFEDRAGKLWR FRYSYWNSSQSYVMTKGWSRFVKEKRLDAGDTVSFCRGAGEAARDRLFID WKRRADSRDPHRMPRLPLPMAPVASPYGLGPWGGGAGGFFMPPAPPATLY EHHRFRQALDFRNINAAAAPARQLLFFGSQGMPPRASMPLQQQQPQPQFS LPPPPPPLHSIMMVQPGSPAVTHGLPMVLDSVPLVNSPTAAAKRVRLFGV NLDNPQQGSSAESSQDANALSLRMPGWQRPGPLRFFESPQRGAAESSAAS SPSSSSSSKREAHSSLDLDL

>SORGHUM BICOLOR uncharacterized protein XP 002458352

MDSASSLVDDTSSGSGGGGASTDKLRALAVAAAASGPPLERMGSGASAV LDAAEPGAEADSAAAAAPGAVGVGGKLPSSRYKGVVPQPNGRWGAQIYER HQRVWLGTFAGEADAARAYDVAAQRFRGRDAVTNFRPLADADPDAAAELR FLASRSKAEVVDMLRKHTYFDELAQNKRAFAAAAAAAASSAATTTASSLA NNNNNHSSLASPSPATAREHLFDKTVTPSDVGKLNRLVIPKQHAEKHFPL QLPSAGGESKGVLLNLEDAAGKVWRFRYSYWNSSQSYVLTKGWSRFVKEK GLQAGDVVGFYRSSAVGAGADTKLFIDCKLRPNSVATASTTTGPAVGSSP PAPAPAPVATKAVRLFGVDLLTAPAATAAAPAEAMAAGCKRARDLASPPQ AAFKKQLVELALV

>SORGHUM BICOLOR uncharacterized protein XP 002457391

MGIESMSPTAAPAEDSSSSSSRFSAASTATTESGAAQPRAASAAPGGGAV VVGRDASLADEQAVTSQPLAASTAAAVAQGSSRFKGVVPQPNGRWGAQIY ERHARVWLGTFADEEAAARAYDVAALRYRGREAATNFPGAGASAPELTFL AAHSKAEIVDMLRKHTYADELRQGLRRGRGMGARAQPTPAWARSLLFEKA VTPSDVGKLNRLVVPKQHAEKHFPLKRAPEASAAAATTGKGVLLNFEDGE GKVWRFRYSYWNSSQSYVLTKGWSRFVREKGLRAGDTIVFSHSTYSSEKQ LFIDCKKTKTTTVATTDGAPVPAPAEKKPSEARVVRLFGVDIAGDGCQKR ARPVEIAFEHGPQQELLKKKQCVGVAHHRSPALGAFLL

>Oryza sativa uncharacterized protein EAY95278
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TSASGSPFRSSDGAGASGSGGGGGEDVEVIEKEHMFDKVVTPSDVGKLN
RLVIPKQHAEKYFPLDSAANEKGLLLSFEDRTGKLWRFRYSYWNSSQSYV
MTKGWSRFVKEKRLDAGDTVSFCRGAAQATRDRLFIDWKRRADVRDPHRF
QRLPLPMTSPYGPWGGGAGAFFMPPAPPATLYEHHRFRQGFDFRNINPAV
PARQLVFFGSPGTGIHQHPPLPPPPPPPPPPPPLQLHITVHHPSPVVTAGLP
MVVDSVPHVNNPAAASKRVRLFGVNLDNPHPDGGQSSSGHDANALSLRMP
GWQRPAPLRSLELPPHMPAGAAGAESSAASSPSSSSSKREAHSSLDLDL
>Oryza sativa RAV-putative NP 001065792

MAMNHPLFSQEQPQSWPWGVAMYANFHYHHYEKEHMFEKPLTPSDVGKL NRLVIPKQHAERYFPLGAGDAADKGLILSFEDEAGAPWRFRYSYWTSSQS YVLTKGWSRYVKEKRLDAGDVVHFERVRGSFGVGDRLFIGCRRRGDAAAA QTPAPPPAVRVAPAAQNAGEQQPWSPMCYSTSGGGSYPTSPANSYAYRRA ADHDHGDMHHADESPRDTDSPSFSAGSAPSRRLRLFGVNLDCGPEPEADT TAAATMYGYMHQQSSYAAMSAVPSYWGNS

>SORGHUM BICOLOR uncharacterized protein XP\_002452747
MDQFAASGRFSREEEADEEHEDASNSMREISFMPAAAAAGTAPSSSAAAS
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HMFDKVVTPSDVGKLNRLVIPKQYAEKYFPLDAAANEKGLLLSFEDSAGK
HWRFRYSYWNSSQSYVMTKGWSRFVKEKRLVAGDTVSFSRAAAEDARHRL
FIDWKRRVDTRGPLRFSGLALPMPLASHYGPHHYSPWGFGIGGVGGGGG
GGFFMPPSPPATLYEHRLRQGLDFRSMTNYPAPTVGRQQLLFFGSARMPP
HHAPAPQPRPLSLPLHHFTVQPSAAAGVTAASRPVVLDSVPVIESPTTAA
KRVRLFGVNLDNNPLSEPDGGVGEASHQGNALSLQMPGWQQRTTPTLRLL
ELPRHGAAESSAASSPSSSSSSKREARSALDLDL

>Oryza sativa RAV-putative Y1407 ORYSJ

MEQEAAMVVFSCNSGSGGSSSTTDSKQEEEEEEELAAMEEDELIHVVQAA ELRLPSSTTATRPSSRYKGVVPQPNGRWGAQIYERHARVWLGTFPDEEAA ARAYDVAALRFRGRDAVTNRAPAAEGASAGELAFLAAHSKAEVVDMLRKH TYDDELQQGLRRGSRAQPTPRWAREPLFEKAVTPSDVGKLNRLVVPKQQA ERHFPFPLRRHSSDAAGKGVLLNFEDGDGKVWRFRYSYWNSSQSYVLTKG WSRFVREKGLRPGDTVAFSRSAAAWGTEKHLLIDCKKMERNNLATVDDDA RVVVKLFGVDTAGDKTR

>Arabidopsis thaliana RAV-like 1 NP 850260

MSINQYSSDFHYHSLMWQQQQQQQQHQNDVVEEKEALFEKPLTPSDVGKL NRLVIPKQHAERYFPLAAAAADAVEKGLLLCFEDEEGKPWRFRYSYWNSS QSYVLTKGWSRYVKEKHLDAGDVVLFHRHRSDGGRFFIGWRRRGDSSSSS DSYRHVQSNASLQYYPHAGAQAVESQRGNSKTLRLFGVNMECQLDSDWSE PSTPDGSNTYTTNHDQFHFYPQQQHYPPPYYMDISFTGDMNRTS

>Arabidopsis thaliana RAV-like 2 NP 850559

MSVNHYHNTLSLHHHHQNDVAIAQRESLFEKSLTPSDVGKLNRLVIPKQH AEKYFPLNNNNNNGGSGDDVATTEKGMLLSFEDESGKCWKFRYSYWNSSQ SYVLTKGWSRYVKDKHLDAGDVVFFQRHRFDLHRLFIGWRRRGEASSSPA VSVVSQEALVNTTAYWSGLTTPYRQVHASTTYPNIHQEYSHYGKFKPFIS SFVFSFSLIYMSDLYSSLFSFKICLFHKNR

>Arabidopsis thaliana NGA4 NP 192059

MNLDQELAEIRASSSDHTNYFYSSERREHMFDKVLTPSDVGKLNRLVIPK QHAENFFPLEDNQNGTVLDFQDKNGKMWRFRYSYWNSSQSYVMTKGWSRF VKEKKLFAGDTVSFYRGYIPDDNAQPERRKIMFIDWRPRAEINFVHNIN NHNFVFGSPTYPTARFYPVTPEYSMPYRSFPPFYQNQFQEREYLGYGYGR VVNGNGVRYYAGSPLDQHHQWNLGRSEPLVYDSVPVFPAGRVPPSAPPQP STTKKLRLFGVDVEESSSSGDTRGEMGVAGYSSSSPVVIRDDDQSFWRSP RGEMASSSSAMQLSDDEEYKRKGKSLEL

>Arabidopsis thaliana RAV-like 3 NP\_001119177
MSVNHYSTDHHHTLLWQQQQHRHTTDTSETTTTATWLHDDLKESLFEKSL
TPSDVGKLNRLVIPKQHAEKYFPLNAVLVSSAAADTSSSEKGMLLSFEDE
SGKSWRFRYSYWNSSQSYVLTKGWSRFVKDKQLDPGDVVFFQRHRSDSRR
LFIGWRRRGQGSSSSVAATNSAVNTSSMGALSYHQIHATSNYSNPPSHSE
YSHYGAAVATAAETHSTPSSSVVGSSRTVRLFGVNLECQMDENDGDDSVA
VATTVESPDGYYGQNMYYYYSHPHNMVILTLL

>Oryza sativa RAV-putative NP 001172942

MAASLPLSAAIVGAEESVDKEVLEMEYLFEKFLMPSDLCSNTEWLGIPEE HVRKFGMMLEDRDGYSVIFFQDGVVPGKLWCFRYWKSNGVHGLTKGWRCF VREKGLKAGDTISFFRGSACGRLFICCRLGTHATFASSSTLHHGFSMPPP PARPLVGLQSGMLARDVPSLGQARLHDGNQDGGGAPSRHVPSSGRRVEAQ LSRVSSRRQRRTMKHSIPEPTIETPPILESMFLIAAPPAVKCLRLFGVNI YVLPVSSSGQPKQESSP

>Oryza sativa RAV-putative EAY85732

MAASPPLPTSIDGGQVLDDMEVVEMKYLFGKVLMPSDVSWDTEQLVIPDE HVGKLLDMVVMNRPEGGFFVVVVEDGEVTGKLWLFRYWKRDDVHCLTKGW GCYAREKGLRAGDTVSFFHSTACGRFFICCRCTCMSFLSLPTTSHRIHGS SVLPQPRAAQEAHHPFSGHATLCLGNKASDHSAPARHATASLGCAAAQPP QVPPTPTPRRRRRSMMVHPEPPEHTTDGMPVILESMALVSTPPVAKRVRL FGVYIDVPPLRPGGEATQDFNP

>Oryza sativa RAV-putative BAG89861

MEPIREGEGPPRRHHSLLRLGVWPRQAALHRLQEEQHGGGHRRREANYK RRSNTRREAVRHGHHRRRRRLPEAGEGGGNGARGVLDEEAMRGSSAYSCP WCPAVITSNQFIYTS

>Oryza sativa RAV-putative NP 001048792

MEFITPIVRPASAAAGGGEVQESGGRSLAAVEKEHMFDKVVTPSDVGKLN RLVIPKQHAEKYFPLDAASNEKGLLLSFEDRTGKPWRFRYSYWNSSQSYV MTKGWSRFVKEKRLDAGDTVSFGRGVGEAARGRLFIDWRRRPDVVAALQP PTHRFAHHLPSSIPFAPWAHHHGHGAAAAAAAAGARFLLPPSSTPIYDH HRRHAHAVGYDAYAAATSRQVLFYRPLPPQQQHHPAVVLESVPVRMTAGH AEPPSAPSKRVRLFGVNLDCANSEQDHAGVVGKTAPPPLPSPPSSSSSS GKARCSLNLDL

>Oryza sativa RAV-putative EAY99351

MATIVAWESRNLQLQGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGRREYMFEKVVTPSDVGKLN RLVVPKHYAEKYFPLGPAARTSPAGTVLCFEDARGGDSTWRFRYSYWSSS

QSYVITKGWSRYVRDKRLAAGDTVSFCRAGARLFIDCRKRAASVSSSSLV PPALIKVQLPPSRPVVDEEEAACGRRCLRLFGVDLQLRADASPALDLQL >Oryza sativa RAV-putative Y8577 ORYSJ

MYMDLTLGGALLQVEEATEEEEEEEEQALGQEPAPAAAAAALVLGRRH GVVVGGGGGGVVVAAEREHMFDKVVTPSDVGKLNRLVVPKQHAERFFPAA AAGTQLCFEDRAGTPWRFRYSYWGSSQSYVMTKGWSRFVRAARLSAGDTV SFSRAADGRYFIDYRHCHRHGGRDISFASAATAMPAAAWPLFGRVQTAAP VSYGGGHGSAAAATMFLDTVAPVAAAGGHRGEVGPSGQRSFRLFGVNVEC

GGDVDAAAEEEDADDDVDDGDHRRGEEMELVMWTNHR

AGKKMCSLDLGL

>Oryza sativa RAV-putative Y1071\_ORYSJ
MEFTPISPPTRVAGGEEDSERGAAAWAVVEKEHMFEKVVTPSDVGKLNRL
VIPKQHAERYFPLDAAAGAGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGKGLVLSFEDRTGKAWRFR
YSYWNSSQSYVMTKGWSRFVKEKRLGAGDTVSFGRGLGDAARGRLFIDFR
RRRQDAGSFMFPPTAAPPSHSHHHHQRHHPPLPSVPLCPWRDYTTAYGGG
YGYGYGGGSTPASSRHVLFLRPQVPAAVVLKSVPVHVAATSAVQEAATTT
RPKRVRLFGVNLDCPAAMDDDDDIAGAASRTAASSLLQLPSPSSSTSSST

>Oryza sativa RAV-putative EEC68891

MAMHPLAQGHPQAWPWGVAMYTNLHYHHHYEREHLFEKPLTPSDVGKLNR
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LTKGWSRYVKEKRLDAGDVVHFERVRGLGAADRLFIGCRRRGESAPAPPP
AVRVTPQPPALNGGEQQPWSPMCYSTSGSSYDPTSPANSYAYHRSVDQDH
SDILHAGESQREADAKSSSAASAPPPSRRLRLFGVNLDCGPEPEADQATA
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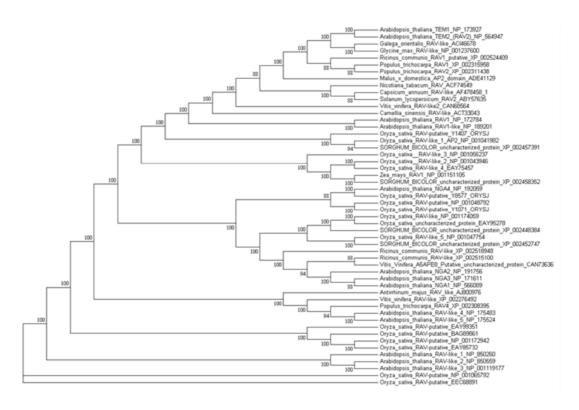


Figure A. 7 Phylogenetic analysis of 41 RAV sub-family members.

The evolutionary relationship was inferred using the Maximum Parsimony method. The percentage of parsimonious trees in which the associated taxa clustered together are shown next to the branches. Accession number can be found close to the species name in the figure.

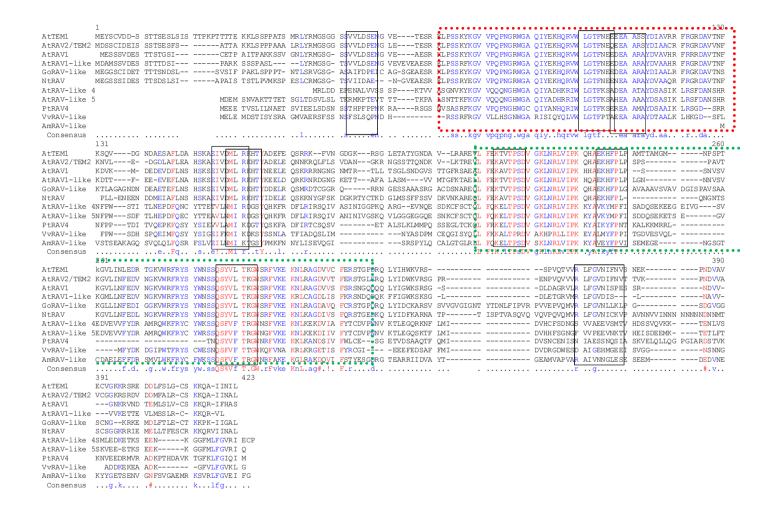


Figure A. 8 Position of the 9 degenerate primers used to isolate AmTEM.

AtTEMI=Arabidopsis thaliana TEMI (NP\_173927); AtRAV2/TEM2=Arabidopsis thaliana RAV2/TEM2 (NP\_564947); AtRAV1=Arabidopsis thaliana RAV1 (NP\_172784); AtRAV1-like=Arabidopsis thaliana RAV1-like (NP\_189201); AtRAV-like 4=Arabidopsis thaliana RAV-like4 (NP\_175483); AtRAV-like 5=Arabidopsis thaliana RAV-like5 (NP\_175524); GoRAV-like=Galega orientalis RAV-like (ACI46678); NtRAV=Nicotiana tabacum RAV (ACF74549); PtRAV4=Populus trichocarpa RAV4 (XP\_002308395); VvRAV-like=Vitis vinifera RAV-like (XP\_002276492); AmRAV-like=Antirrhinum majus RAV-like (AJ800976). Black boxes denote where degenerate primers were designed. Red dotted box delimits the AP2 domain, the green dotted box delimits the B3 domain

#### Figure A. 9 Sequence of Antirrhinum TEMPRANILLO Contig CI.

>Antirrhinum majus contig CI

#### Figure A. 10 Sequence of Olive TEMPRANILLO isotig13527.

>Olea europaea isotig13527 gene=isogroup06587 length=600 numContigs=1

# Figure A. 11 Full nucleotide and amino acid sequences of Antirrhinum TEMPRANILLO (AmTEM).

>AmTEM-like

ATGGACGGAAGCTGCATAGACGAGAGCACCAGCTCCGACACCGTCACGACAGCGACTCCAGCAC CACAACCTCCCCCTCCCGACAAGCTCTGCCGTGTCGGGAGCGGCACCAGCGTGATCCTCGACGCCGC AGAATGCGGCGTCGAGGCCGAGTCCCGCAAACTCCCCTCTCTCGATTCAAAGGCGTGGTCCCACAG  $\tt CCCAACGGCCGCTGGGGCGCACAGATTTACGAGAAGCACCAGCGCGTGTGGCTCGGAACGTTCAACG$ AGGAGTCGGAAGCCGCAGAGCCTACGACACTGCCGCACAACGGTTCCGCGGTCGGGACGCGGTCAC AAGTCCGAGATCGTGGACATGCTGAGGAAGCACGTACAATGACGAACTCGAGCAGAGCAGGAAGA GGCGCGAGCGCGAGAACAGCTTTTTGAGAAAGCGGTTACTCCGAGCGATGTGGGGAAATTGAACAGG CTTGTTATACCGAAGCAACATGCTGAAAAGCATTTTCCGTTACAAAATAATGGGAATAATGGGAATA GTAGTAGTACGTCGAAGGGTGTTTTGTTGAATTTTGAGGATGTTGGGGGGTAAAGTGTGGAGGTTTAG GTACTCGTATTGGAATAGTAGTCAAAGCTATGTGTTGACTAAAGGGTGGAGCAGATTCGTTAAGGAG AAGAATCTGAAAGCGGGCGATGTTGTAACTTTTCAAAGGTCGACTGGGGTCGATAAGCAGCTATACA TTGATTGGAAAGTGAGGAGTAATGGTAATGGGTCGGATCAGGTGACCGGGTTAACGGGTCGGGTTCA GATGGTGAGGTTGTTTGGTGTGAACATATTTGAGGTGCCAATGAATAATGATGGGAAGAGGGATTAGG >AmTEM-like

MDGSCIDESTTSSDTVTTATPAPQPPPPDKLCRVGSGTSVILDAAECGVEAESRKLPSSRF KGVVPQPNGRWGAQIYEKHQRVWLGTFNEESEAARAYDTAAQRFRGRDAVTNFKLLSETEH DDVEASFLNSHSKSEIVDMLRKHTYNDELEQSRKNFSNNSGVNKSCPFVLSGSADAKARAR EQLFEKAVTPSDVGKLNRLVIPKQHAEKHFPLQNNGNNGNSSSTSKGVLLNFEDVGGKVWR FRYSYWNSSQSYVLTKGWSRFVKEKNLKAGDVVTFQRSTGVDKQLYIDWKVRSNGNGSDQV TGLTGRVQMVRLFGVNIFEVPMNNDGKRIREIEMLELECSKKQRVIDAL

Figure A. 12 Full nucleotide and amino acid sequences of olive TEMPRANILLO (OeTEM).

>OeTEM-like

ATGGATACTAGTTCAATAGGTGAAAGCACCAGTGATTCTATATCTATGGCACCAATYT CCGCCGCCTCGRCTTTGCCGGTGACAAAGTCGCCGGAGAGTCTTTGCCGTGTCGGAAGTGG CAGCAGTGCGATTATAGATGCGGAGGTCGGTGTTGAAGCTGAGTCTAGGAAGCTCCCTTCT TCAAGATTCAAAGGTGTAGTCCCCCAACCTAATGGCAGGTGGGGTGCACAAATCTATGAAA AGCACCAAAGGGTTTGGTTAGGCACTTTCAATGAAGAAGATGAGGCAGCCAAGGCGTACGA TATCGCGGCCCAAAGATTTCGAGGCCGAGATGCAGTCACAAACTTTAAACCATTGTCGGAA ACTGAAGAAGATGACGTTGAAACAGCCTTCTTGAATTCTCATTCCAAGGCTGAGATTGTCG ACATGTTAAGGAAACATACATACAGTGATGAACTCGAACAAAGCAGGAAGAACTACGGCTT GTTCGACGCCAGTGGCCAAAGGATCATGAATAAAGACGGCCTTTTCAGCTCATTTGGTGGC GGCGATAGGGCAGTGAAATCCCGAGAACAGCTCTTCGAGAAGGCGGTAACTCCTAGCGACG TGGGGAAGCTCAACCGCCTGGTTATTCCAAAACAACACGCCGAGAAACACTTCCCTTTAAA AAGTGGGAACAATTCCAAAGGGGTGCTTTTAAATTTCGAAGATATGGGTGGAAAAGTATGG AGATTTCGATATTCATACTGGAACAGTAGCCAAAGCTACGTGTTAACAAAAGGATGGAGTA GATTTGTGAAGGAAAAGAACTTGAAGGCCGGTGACATTGTGAGCTTTCAACGATCGACTGG GCCGGACAATCAACTCTACATCGACTGGAAACCGAGGAACGGATCAAATGTTGTGGGGCTA CCAGTCCCGGCCCAGCCTATTCCGATGGTAAGACTATTCGGAGTGAACATATTCGAGGTAC ATGTACCAAAAAACAGAGGGTTATTGATGCTTTGTAA >OeTEM

MDTSSIGESTTSDSISMAPXSAASXLPVTKSPESLCRVGSGSSAIIDAEVGVEAESRKLPSS RFKGVVPQPNGRWGAQIYEKHQRVWLGTFNEEDEAAKAYDIAAQRFRGRDAVTNFKPLSETE EDDVETAFLNSHSKAEIVDMLRKHTYSDELEQSRKNYGLFDGSGQRIMNKDGLFSSFGGGDR AVKSREQLFEKAVTPSDVGKLNRLVIPKQHAEKHFPLKSGNNSKGVLLNFEDMGGKVWRFRY SYWNSSQSYVLTKGWSRFVKEKNLKAGDIVSFQRSTGPDNQLYIDWKPRNGSNVVGLPVPAQ

PIPMVRLFGVNIFEVPSNESCSTGKKKKKKKLLALECTKKQRVIDAL

#### Figure A. 13 AmFT nucleotide sequence and TEM putative binding sites.

ATG is marked in red. The TEM putative binding sites, present in 5' UTR region, are highlighted in yellow. In green is highlighted the binding site of CO and the CCAAT-box binding protein.

> Antirrhinum majus AmFT (EM:AJ803471) GAAA<mark>CAACATAAC</mark>TT<mark>GTCCTT</mark>CTATATAGTATTTTCATATAAAATTATAC **ATG**CCTAGAGATAGGGATCCACTGGTGGTGGGAAGAGTGATAGGAGAAGT ATTGGAGCCTTTCACGAGATCAATAGGGCTGAGAGTGATCTATAACAACA GAGAAGTAAGCAATGGTTGTGATTTAAGGCCCTCTCAAGTTGTCAACCAA CCTAGGGTTGAGATTGGAGGGGATGATCTCCGCACCTTCTACACTTTGGT TATGGTGGACCCTGATGCTCCAAGTCCTAGTGACCCGAGTCTTAGGGAAT ACTTACACTGGTTGGTGACTGATATCCCAGCAACCACCGGAACAACTTC GGTCAAGAGATTGTGTTTATGAGAATCCACGGCCGTCGATGGGGATTCA CCGCTTTGTTTTCACACTATTCCGCCAGTTGGGGCGGCAAACGGTGTACC CTCCGGGTTGGCGCCAGAATTTCAACACGAGAGACTTTGCTGAGCTATAC AACCTTGGCGCCCCAGTTGCTGCTGTCTACTTCAATTGCCAGAGGGAGAG TGGTACCGGCGGAGACGACGATAACGTCGAATTCGATCTCAATAATAGA TCGATAAATAAAATCATTTGATGGAATGTCAGTTTCGATTTTATCAATA GTTGATCAAGTAGGAATCTTCATGCTTTG

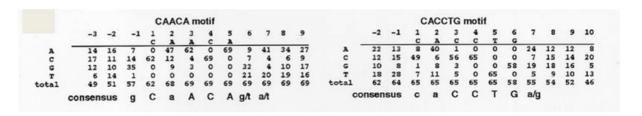


Figure A. 14. Consensus sequences of CAACA and CACCTG motifs deduced from the frequencies of base occurrence at each position.

The numbers of sequences with the indicated bases at each position are shown. (Kagaya et al., 1999).

Figure A. 15 AtCO nucleotide sequence and putative TEM putative binding sites.

ATG is marked in red. The TEM putative binding sites, present in 5' UTR region, are highlighted in yellow.

thaliana

zinc

>qi|79327898|ref|NM 001036810.1| Arabidopsis finger protein CONSTANS (CO) mRNA, complete cds AGCTCCCACACCATCAAACTTACTACATCTGAGTTATT<mark>ATG</mark>TTGAAACAA GAGAGTAACGACATAGGTAGTGGAGAGAA<mark>CAACA</mark>GGGCACG<mark>ACCCTG</mark>TGA CACATGCCGGTCAAA<mark>CGCCTG</mark>CACCGTGTATTGCCATGCAGATTCTGCCT ACTTGTGCATGAGCTGTGATGCTCAAGTTCACTCTGCCAATCGCGTTGCT TCCCGCCATAAACGTGTCCGGGTCTGCGAGTCATGTGAGCGTGCTCCGGC TGCTTTTTTGTGTGAGGCAGATGATGCCTCTCTATGCACAGCCTGTGATT CAGAGGTTCATTCTGCAAACCCACTTGCTAGACGCCATCAGCGAGTTCCA ATTCTACCAATTTCTGGAAACTCTTTCAGCTCCATGACCACTACTCACCA CCAAAGCGAGAAAACAATGACCGATCCAGAGAAGAGACTGGTGGTGGATC AAGAGGAAGGTGAAGAAGGTGATAAGGATGCCAAGGAGGTTGCTTCGTGG CTGTTCCCTAATTCAGACAAAAATAACAATAACCAAAACAATGGGTTATT GTTTAGTGATGAGTATCTAAACCTTGTGGATTACAACTCGAGTATGGACT ACAAATTCACAGGTGAATACAGTCAACACAACAAAACTGCAGCGTACCA CAGACGAGCTACGGGGGAGATAGAGTTGTTCCGCTTAAACTTGAAGAATC AAGGGGCCACCAGTGCCATAACCAACAGAATTTTCAGTTCAATATCAAAT ATGGCTCCTCAGGGACTCACTACAACGACAATGGTTCCATTAACCATAAC GTAAGGCTTTTGTATATTTGTTACCCCTTCAATTTAGCATCTTCCCATAA CGCAGCAGGGTGAATTCTTTCATCATACACACAAATCCACTGATCCACTG CCAACAGTTGATCTATAGCACATAGAAATTTCACCAGAAGTCTATAATAA AAACAATATATGCTTCCTTTTGCATCGACTCTCTTTAGTCCTCTTACCAG GGGGATTGAGAATGTCTTTGTTTCTGTCATTAGGCATACATTTCATCCAT GGAAACTGGTGTTGTGCCGGAGTCAACAGCATGTGTCACAACAGCTTCAC ACCCAAGAACGCCCAAAGGGACAGTAGAGCAACAACCTGACCCTGCAAGC CAGATGATAACAGTAACACAACTCAGTCCAATGGACAGAGAAGCCAGGGT CCTGAGATACAGAGAGAGAGAGAGACAAGGAAATTTGAGAAGACAATAA GGTATGCTTCGAGGAAGGCATATGCAGAGATAAGACCGCGGGTCAATGGC CGGTTCGCAAAGAGAGAAATCGAAGCCGAGGAGCAAGGGTTCAACACGAT GCTAATGTACAACACAGGATATGGGATTGTTCCTTCATTCTGATACTCCT GTGGCAAAAAGAAAACTAGATTGCAAGCTGTAAATTACTTTTAGTTTGA GATTATGTTAGGTTTGGTGAAATTCTTAGCTTCAAGAAGTATTACTACTG TTGTGCAAATGGGTTTGTAGTTTTGGCTAATTAAAACTATAGTATTCTTC ттт