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Rose *FT* homologous gene overexpression affects flowering and vegetative development behavior in two different rose genotypes

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- 9 France
- 10 **Key message** The overexpression of *RoFT* gene in two rose varieties induces pleotropic
- 11 effects and up- or down-regulates several target genes.
- 12 Keywords Rosa hybrida, FLOWERING LOCUS T gene, genetic transformation
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15 Abstract

16 To address the major challenge of controlling flowering in roses, we studied the ectopic 17 expression of a *FLOWERING LOCUS T* (FT) homolog, which plays an important role in 18 flowering time regulation in plants. We detected seven rose genes of the phosphatidyl 19 ethanolamine-binding protein (PEBP) family and selected one of them (*RoFT*) based on its 20 co-localization with flowering and architecture QTLs to study its overexpression in two 21 rose genotypes. Embryogenic lines were obtained and genetic transformation was 22 performed on the rose genotypes. Regenerated plantlets were maintained in a greenhouse 23 until flowering and then floral and architectural traits were scored. We observed 24 substantial variation in phenotypic expression between genotypes and between events, 25 especially in the flowering date and number of floral organs. The expression of 14 genes 26 putatively involved in floral initiation (mainly *FT* targets) and floral development (from the 27 class ABC model) was studied to gain insight into these variations. We noted than target 28 genes are up- or down-regulation and can partially explain the observed phenotype. Our 29 results revealed that a gene ectopically overexpressed in different genetic backgrounds 30 could have diverse effects and that the overexpression *RoFT* gene can have pleiotropic 31 effects.

32

33 Introduction

Flowering is a major trait of interest in the ornamental plant sector. In creating new cultivars, rose breeders aim to enhance this trait by i) controlling the flowering date (earliness or lateness), ii) extending the flowering period, and iii) selecting roses able to bloom continuously or under different environmental conditions. It is therefore essential to gain knowledge on the factors that influence the transition from the vegetative phase to the floral phase so as to be able to achieve this goal.

The current floral transition model is well known in the annual monocarpic species *Arabidopsis thaliana*, while reportedly involving a complex genetic network of about 300
genes_(Bouche et al. 2016; Quiroz et al. 2021). Flowering is thus controlled by endogenous
and exogenous cues and the *FLOWERING LOCUS T(FT)* gene is considered to incorporate

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44 inputs from several pathways, ultimately resulting in floral transition (for review Kinoshita 45 and Richter 2020). Florigen-encoding FT genes have been extensively identified and their 46 functions are known to be conserved among short day (SD), long day (LD) and day neutral 47 (DN) plants (Pin and Nilsson 2012). FT belongs to the phosphatidylethanolamine-binding 48 protein (PEBP) family. Members of this family control processes as diverse as seed 49 development, growth cessation and seasonal growth control in trees, bud outgrowth and 50 bolting, bulb formation, tuberization and flowering regulation (Bohlenius et al. 2006; 51 Miskolczi et al. 2019; Navarro et al. 2011; Xi et al. 2010). In A. thaliana, FT and its paralog 52 TWIN SISTER OF FT (TSF) promote flowering whereas other members of the PEBP family, 53 especially TERMINAL FLOWER1 (TFL1), repress flowering in the vegetative and 54 inflorescence meristem. Under inductive (e.g. LD) photoperiod conditions, FT is expressed 55 in leaf phloem companion cells (PCCs) and the FT protein moved via the phloem to the 56 shoot apical meristem (SAM) has been demonstrated to be the florigen molecule (for a 57 review, see Putterill and Varkonyi-Gasic 2016; Srikanth and Schmid 2011). In the shoot 58 apical meristem, the FT protein interacts with the transcription factor, FD and 14-3-3 59 proteins which promote transition of the vegetative meristem into a reproductive 60 inflorescence meristem (Abe et al. 2005; Taoka et al. 2011; Wigge et al. 2005) by 61 increasing expression of the SUPPRESSOR OF OVEREXPRESSION OF CONSTANS 1 62 (SOC1) and the floral meristem identity genes (APETALA 1 (AP1), FRUITFULL (FUL) and 63 LEAFY(LFY)) and induce flowering (Collani et al. 2019; Jaeger and Wigge 2007; Wigge et 64 al. 2005). Several studies in A. thaliana demonstrated that the MADS box transcription 65 factor FLOWERING LOCUS C (FLC) is another major flowering regulator via the 66 vernalization pathway which inhibits the transcription of floral promoters, including FT 67 and SOC1 (Helliwell et al. 2006; Searle et al. 2006).

In the ornamental plant sector, roses are classified amongst perennial shrubs. The *Rosa g*enus includes more than 200 species and 30,000 cultivars which are distributed worldwide (Wissemann and Ritz 2007). The floral transition model is hard to transpose in rose because: i) rose is a perennial polycarpic species, contrary to *A. thaliana*, and ii) a major gene involved in floral transition (*FLOWERING LOCUS C, FLC*) has not been identified in rose (Raymond et al. 2018; Remay et al. 2009). Furthermore, modern rose

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genotypes are mainly continuously flowering. These continuous-flowering roses featuredeterminate flowering and are considered as being day-neutral (DN).

76 Many publications have highlighted the impact of the overexpression or extinction 77 suppression of homologous FT genes in planta. In perennial plants, FT gene 78 overexpression induces early flowering in Eucalyptus (Klocko et al. 2016), poplar 79 (Bohlenius et al. 2006) and apple (Tanaka et al. 2014). Other modifications may also be 80 observed such as suppression of the short-day-induced growth cessation trait and bud set 81 in Populus (Hsu et al. 2006; Wenzel et al. 2013) and variation in the number of floral 82 organs in apple (Tanaka et al. 2014). In ornamental plants, constitutive expression of the 83 FT gene from blueberry induces earlier flowering in petunia (Lin et al. 2019). Ectopic 84 expression of the FT homologue from Prunus mume reduces the juvenile phase and early 85 flowering in the non-recurrent rose cultivar Rosa rugosa 'Bao White'. Note that the early 86 flowering observed in Rosa rugosa alters the multiplication and rooting capacity of some 87 transformation events (Xing et al. 2014). Nakatsuka et al. (2009) used the FT gene from 88 Arabidospsis to transform an ornamental gentian, which gave rise to an early flowering 89 phenotype with normal flower development. In Artemisia, FT RNAi causes a delay in 90 flowering time and an increase in artemisine content (Lv et al. 2018) while, in *Populus*, 91 FT interference generates a setting that is more sensitive day length shortening and leads 92 to earlier bud set (Bohlenius et al. 2006).

93 In rose, two FT and TFL1 homologues, i.e. respectively RoFT and RoKSN, were 94 previously characterized. *RoFT* is induced during floral transition, and has been proposed 95 to lead to transcript accumulation of the LFY and AP1 homologues (Randoux et al. 2014; 96 Remay et al. 2009). *RoFT* co-localises with a QTL for the flowering date on linkage group 97 3 (previously denominated 4), thereby showing that variability at the *RoFT* locus could be 98 responsible for early or late flowering, associated with transcriptional regulation of *RoFT* 99 (Iwata et al. 2011; Otagaki et al. 2015; Roman et al. 2015). Moreover, RoFT gene 100 overexpression in Arabidopsis led to early flowering (Otagaki et al. 2015; Randoux et al. 101 2014). The TFL1 homologue, i.e. RoKSN is controlling the mode of flowering. Once-102 flowering roses have a functional allele leading to inhibition of blooming after to first 103 flowering in spring until next spring (Iwata et al. 2011; Randoux et al. 2012). Different

104 alleles were detected leading to different modes of flowering. Two knock-out mutants are 105 responsible of continuous-flowering: one is due to the insertion a large *copia* transposable 106 element (RoKSN^{copia} allele (Iwata et al. 2011)) and the second is a complete deletion of 107 the gene (RoKSN^{null} allele, Hibrand Saint-Oyant et al. 2018). These two alleles are 108 responsible of the complete absence of RoKSN transcript leading to roses that flower 109 continuously. Intermediate phenotype (recurrent blooming roses that can rebloom late in 110 the season, but without a continuous flowering behaviour) were characterized with other 111 *RoKSN* alleles: the *copia* in the *RoKSN*^{copia} allele can recombinate and generate a new allele with only a LTR, Long Terminal Repeat (*RoKSN^{LTR}*, Iwata et al. 2011). A conversion 112 113 of G into a A at position 181 of the CDS is also responsible of recurrent blooming 114 (RoKSN^{A181} (Soufflet-Freslon et al. 2021)). RoKSN overexpression in rose totally blocked 115 flowering in a continuous flowering genotype. This non-flowering phenotype might have 116 been due to complete repression of the transcript accumulation of *RoFT* and/or to 117 competition between RoFT and RoKSN for interaction with RoFD (Randoux et al. 2014).

We used the rose genome sequence to study the PEBP family in rose and to functionally validate a *RoFT* homologue by overexpressing it in two rose genotypes. In transgenic plants, we studied the following traits: flowering time, architecture and floral organs. We also studied the effect of this overexpression on transcript accumulation of genes involved in floral initiation and development.

123

124 Materials and Methods

125 Plant material

126 Two continuous-flowering genotypes were used in the present study, i.e. Rosa DELdog 127 'Pimprenelle®' [PIMP], and Rosa DELtrimen Guy Savoy®' [GS], which were obtained 128 from the Société Nouvelle des pépinières Georges Delbard (Malicorne, France). These 129 genotypes are tetraploid cultivated garden roses (2X=4N=28). The *in vitro* conditions for 130 introduction, multiplication and maintenance are as described in Hamama et al. (2019). 131 The plants were introduced in *in vitro* culture from meristems. Explants were cultured 132 and sub-cultured on Murashige et Skoog (MS) (Murashige and Skoog 1962) basal medium 133 complemented with 0.05 g.L⁻¹ Fe-EDDHA, 0.1 mg.L⁻¹ GA₃ and 0.5 mg.L⁻¹ BAP (6-

benzylaminopurine), sucrose 30 g.L⁻¹ and solidified with 3 g.L⁻¹ PhytagelTM (Sigma, Ref:
P8169) (shoot elongation medium, SEM). The pH medium pH was adjusted to 5.7 before
sterilization (113°C, 20 min). The cultures were conducted under a 16 h photoperiod with
a photosynthetic flux (PAR) of 56.4 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ (generated by a combination of two
Sylvania Luxline F58W/840 fluorescent lamps and one Osram Biolux L 58W/72-965
fluorescent lamp). The temperature regime was 23 ± 0.5 °C during the 16 h light period
and 19 ± 0.5 °C during the 8 h dark period.

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143 **RoFT isolation and cloning**

144 *Phylogenetic tree construction, gene structure and protein motif analysis*

145 PEBP homologues were isolated from the reference genome (Hibrand Saint-Oyant 146 et al. 2018) by BLAST (Altschul et al. 1990; Camacho et al. 2009) using previous a 147 characterized rose *FT* gene (Remay et al. 2009). A phylogenetic tree was constructed 148 from **PEBP** predicted **PEBP** protein sequences using the Geneious Prime (2022.2.1) 149 software platform. Multi-alignment was done using the MUSCLE 3.8.425 app (Edgar 150 2004). After manual multi-alignment correction, the tree was built using the Geneious 151 Tree Builder by the Neighbor-joining (NJ) method with 1,000 bootstrap replicates. The 152 predicted protein sequences were obtained from published genome available on the GDR 153 website (Jung et al. 2019), i.e. the haploid Rosa genome sequence (Hibrand Saint-Oyant 154 et al. 2018), the haploid Malus GDDH13 reference genome sequence (Daccord et al. 2017) 155 and the Peach reference genome sequence (Verde et al. 2017). The micro-synteny analysis 156 the was done using synteny viewer tools developed on GDR website 157 (https://www.rosaceae.org/synview/search (Jung et al. 2019)). The analysis is done using 158 MCScanX (Wang et al. 2012).

159

160 *Cloning into the pK7GWS vector and Agrobacterium transformation*

161 The *RoFT* gene was amplified from leaf cDNA from a *Rosa wichurana* hybrid, as described
162 in Randoux et al. (2014) and cloned using the Gateway® system (Invitrogen) with the
163 TOPO isomerase mix into the pENTR[™] / D-TOPO[™] entry vector. For plant transformation,

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RoFT cDNA (534 bp) was introduced by LR Clonase recombination into the pK7WG2D
 vector provided by the University of Gent (http://gateway.psb.ugent.be/).

166 ____The pK7WG2D/*RoFT* binary vector was introduced by electroporation into the
 167 Agrobacterium tumefaciens EHA105 strain (Hood et al. 1993) containing the pBBR
 168 plasmid.

169

170 Rose genetic transformation

171 *Somatic embryo formation, multiplication, germination and plantlet formation*

172 Somatic embryo lines of the two genotypes were established using leaflets from 6 173 week old vitroplants maintained on MS elongation medium as described in Hamama et al. 174 (2019). Young fully developed leaves were cut into 0.5 to 0.75 cm disc diameters. For 175 callus induction, leaf disks were wounded and incubated abaxial side down in Petri dishes 176 containing callus induction medium (CIM), i.e. MS basal medium containing 2 mg/L 2,4D 177 (Duchefa Biochemie, Ref: D0911.0256), 30 g/L sucrose (Duchefa Biochemie, ref: 178 <u>S0809.5000</u> and 3 g/L PhytagelTM. All ingredients were added to the medium before 179 autoclaving (at 113°C for 20 min). The pH was adjusted to 5.8. Cultures were incubated 180 in the dark at 22°C for two 1-month subcultures. The obtained calli were isolated and 181 maintained on MS medium containing 1 mg /L 2,4D for two subcultures in the same 182 conditions as above.

183 Compact yellow embryogenic calli were then transferred and maintained on embryo 184 induction medium (EIM) (Vergne et al. 2010). EIM consisted of MS medium containing 185 zeatin (Duchefa Biochemie, ref: 015494.04) 4 mg/L. Embryogenic lines were maintained 186 by secondary somatic embryogenesis formation. Embryogenic callus lines were 187 subcultured for 6 weeks under low light intensity 20 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹.

Secondary somatic embryos at cotyledonary stage were used as targeted tissues for
 Agrobacterium-mediated transformation.

Secondary somatic embryos were used as targeted tissues for *Agrobacterium*-mediated
 transformation.

Shoot regeneration was induced by subculturing well-developed secondary somatic
 embryos on shoot multiplication medium (SMM) consisting of Murashige and Skoog basal

194 medium containing 30 g/L of sucrose and 3 mg/L BAP. The explants were then subcultured 195 every 3 weeks under 70 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ light intensity at 23°C and for 16 h and in the dark 196 at 19°C for 8 h. Young regenerated shoots were transferred onto shoot elongation medium 197 (SEM) consisting of MS medium supplemented with BAP 0.5 mg/L and GA3 0.1 mg/L) 198 (Hamama et al. 2019). For rooting, plantlets were transferred on half dilution MS medium 199 free of growth regulator. All ingredients were added to the medium before autoclaving (at 200 113°C for 20 min). The pH was adjusted to 5.8.

201 After rooting, the plantlets were transferred on motte fertiss® then maintained for one 202 month in an acclimation chamber (16h/8h light at 22°C) before subculturing into substrate 203 adapted to rose (Formule Potees Sub Big-Bag, ref 391796) in a S2 greenhouse in the 204 general following conditions: minimum air temperature maintained at 18 °C, with an 205 aeration at 20 °C; relative humidity maintained at 70% and no complementary lighting. 206 To homogenise them, the plants are kept in the greenhouse for between 2 and 6 months, 207 then pruned and placed in a cold room (6°C±2°C) for 6 weeks before being returned to 208 the greenhouse until they flower at which stage, the samples are taken.

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Agrobacterium transformation

211 For rose, the transformation process was adapted from Dohm et al. (2001) and Vergne et 212 al. (2010) for the GS genotype. The transformation process for the PIMP genotype is 213 described below.

214 One 2-day-old colony of the EHA105 Agrobacterium tumefaciens strain containing the 215 plasmid of interest was spread on LB solid medium supplemented with spectinomycin 216 (Duchefa, ref: S0188.0005) (50 mg/L), gentamycin

217 (100 mg/L) and rifampicin (Duchefa, ref: R0146-0005) (50 mg/L) for 2 days. A suspension

218 of Agrobacterium in MinA medium (Svab and Hajdukiewicz 1975), pH 5.6, containing

219 acetosyringone (Aldrich, ref: D134406-1G)

220 (100 μ M) (OD₆₀₀ = 1) was cultivated for 2 h at 28°C with 150 rpm agitation to induce *Vir* 221 genes. Somatic embryo clusters at the cotyledonary stage were infected by the 222 Agrobacterium suspension ($OD_{600}=0.1-0.5$) and transferred onto EIM for a 1 day co-223 cultivation step in the dark $(21\pm 2^{\circ}C)$. Cultures were then transferred on EIM selection

224 medium containing kanamycine (Duchefa, ref: K0126.0025) (100 mg/L) and cefotaxime 225 (Duchefa, ref: C0111.0025) (500 mg/L) to eliminate bacteria. The embryogenic calli were 226 subcultured on fresh EIM selection medium every 3 weeks until the formation of vigorous 227 kanamycine-resistant secondary somatic embryos. Germination and shoot regeneration 228 were achieved on MS medium containing 40 g/L maltose as carbohydrate source with a 229 modified MS nitrogen composition (NH₄NO₃ 9.4 mM; KNO₃ 20.6 mM). Each well-formed 230 plantlet was identified and transferred on selection elongation medium before rooting, as 231 described in Hamama et al. (Hamama et al. 2019). Shoot regeneration was induced by 232 subculturing well-developed secondary somatic embryos on shoot multiplication medium 233 (SMM) consisting of MS basal medium containing 30 g/L of sucrose and 3 mg/L BAP (6-234 benzylaminopurine, Duchefa Biochemie, ref: B0904.0001). The explants were then 235 subcultured every 3 weeks under 70 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ light intensity at 23°C and for 16 h and 236 in the dark at 19°C for 8 h. Young regenerated shoots were transferred onto shoot 237 elongation medium (SEM) consisting of MS medium supplemented with BAP 0.5 mg/L 238 and GA3 (SIGMA, ref: 201-001-0) 0.1 mg/L (Hamama et al. 2019). For rooting, plantlets 239 were transferred on half dilution MS medium free of growth regulator. All ingredients 240 were added to the medium before autoclaving (at 113°C for 20 min). The pH was adjusted 241 to 5.8.

242 After rooting, the plantlets were transferred on motte fertiss® then maintained for one 243 month in an acclimation chamber (16h/8h light at 22°C) before subculturing into substrate 244 adapted to rose (Formule Potees Sub Big-Bag, ref 391796) in a S2 greenhouse in the 245 general following conditions: minimum air temperature maintained at 18 °C, with an 246 aeration at 20 °C; relative humidity maintained at 70% and no complementary lighting. 247 To homogenise them, the plants are kept in the greenhouse for between 2 and 6 months, 248 then pruned and placed in a cold room (6°C±2°C) for 6 weeks before being returned to 249 the greenhouse until they flower at which stage, the samples are taken. 250 Greenhouse acclimatisation was performed.

Hundred embryogenic clusters for the GS genotype and four replicates (11, 13, 18, 16 embryogenic clusters) for PIMP were inoculated with *Agrobacterium* harbouring the pK7WG2D/RoFT vector.

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| 255 | Confirmation of genetic transformation of plantlets |
| 256 | Approximately 100 mg of young leaves obtained from putative transgenic plants were |
| 257 | used to detect the integration of <i>neomycin phosphotransferase II (nptII), GFP</i> and <i>RoFT</i> |
| 258 | (DH primers) transgenes. DNA extraction was performed using Macherey-Nagel |
| 259 | Nucleopsin® Plant II. |
| 260 | PCR amplification was performed in a 10 μL volume containing 1X Taq buffer, 0.15 mM |
| 261 | of each deoxyribonucleotide triphosphate (Promega), 2 mM MgCl_2, 0.15 μM of each |
| 262 | primer, 0.5 unit of Taq DNA polymerase (Promega) under standard PCR conditions [94°C |
| 263 | 2 min, (94°C 30 s, annealing temperature 15 s, 72°C 30 s) for 35 cycles, 72°C 7 min]. <u>The</u> |
| 264 | primers chosen in different exons enabled amplification of the endogenous gene and the |
| 265 | transgene with different PCR fragment sizes (1100 bp for endogenous gene and 536 bp |
| 266 | for cDNA transgene; Fig. S1) and for the presence of GFP and nptII (data not shown). The |
| 267 | primers are described in Table S1. |

269 RNA extraction and qRT-PCR

For RNA analysis, cutting of 3 independent transgenic events were grown for GS (8.1_1.1, 8.1_1.2 and 8.2_4.1) and PIMP (A2.1, C3.1 and C5.1). The leaves and dormant axillary buds were put under floral meristem on the plants after cold homogenization (see § Somatic embryo formation, multiplication, germination and plantlet formation) omitting the buds at the base of the stem.

275 Total RNAs were extracted from leaves and axillary buds using the NucleoSpin RNA Plus 276 and RNA Plus XS kits, respectively (Macherey-Nagel, Düren, Germany). The absence of 277 genomic DNA contamination was checked by PCR on total RNA. cDNAs were obtained by 278 reverse transcription performed on 500 ng of total RNA using iScript Ready-to-use (Bio-279 Rad, Inc., Hercules, CA, USA). Real-time amplification (q-PCR) was performed with 280 SsoADV Univer SYBR Green Supermix (Bio-Rad, Inc., Hercules, CA, USA) using cDNA as 281 template, with the following program: 98°C for 30 s and 40 cycles (98°C for 10 s, 60°C for 282 10 s). Fluorescence detection was performed using a CFX ConnectTM Real-Time System 283 (Bio-Rad, Inc., Hercules, CA, USA). The amount of cDNA per sample was normalized using

the *TCTP* (Randoux et al. 2012) and *UBC* (Klie and Debener 2011) genes, and the relative
expression level was calculated according to Pfaffl (Pfaffl 2001) from three technical
replicates per event. For RC2G0490100 (*Agamous D1*) and RC4G0415400 (*EuApetala 1 - CAULIFLOWER*) genes, primers were newly designed in the last exon and in the beginning
(first 100 bp) of the 3'UTR using Primer3Plus (Untergasser et al. 2007). All primers are
listed in Table S1. Data collection was performed using Bio-Rad CFX Maestro 1.1
software.

291

292 Phenotypic analysis

293 Several measurements were obtained to monitor the effects of the transgene on the 294 plant phenotype. The plants were grown in a confined greenhouse (type 2 according to 295 French regulations) after in vitro multiplication and rooting. To homogenize the 296 transgenic and non-transgenic plants, we cultivated them until the first flowering stage 297 and then pruned all the plants and left them for 6 weeks at 4°C. The plants were then 298 maintained in the greenhouse and gradually scored. The architectural data corresponded 299 to the length and diameter of three to five floral stems, the length and number of 300 internodes. For the floral organs, we counted all floral organs, i.e. sepals, petals, carpels 301 and stamens for at least three different flowers per plant. The flowering date-time 302 corresponds to the number of days between the exit from the cold room and the first 303 flower on the plantflowering date. The first flower flowering date corresponds to the onset 304 of flower development stage 4 described by Bergougnoux et al. (2007).

305

306 Statistical analyses

All data were statistically analyzed with the R software package, version 4.0.3 (202010-10) (http://www.r-project.org/), including ANOVA, HSD tests for multiple comparisons
and T test.

The results are presented as a histogram (for qRT-PCR) and box-wisker plot for which the box covers 50% of the data, the vertical line that split the box is the median and the whiskers are the two lines outside the box, that go from the minimum to the lower quartile (the start of the box) and then from the upper quartile (the end of the box) to the maximum.

315 Results

316 **RoFT gene family and phylogenetic analysis**

317 PEBP is a small eucaryot gene family. Using the Rosa chinensis reference genome 318 (Hibrand Saint-Oyant et al. 2018)-, we were able to detect six genes encoding PEBP 319 (RC4G04226500, RC3G0419200, RC6G0343500, RC1G0537200, RC7G0018600, 320 RC5G0373700). Note that one member of the family, i.e. RoKSN (HQ174211), the gene 321 controlling recurrent blooming (Iwata et al. 2011), is not present in the reference genome 322 as it has a *null* allele for this locus in the reference genome (Hibrand Saint-Oyant et al. 323 2018). This gene was included in the analysis. For the phylogenetic analysis, we added 324 *Arabidopsis <u>A.</u> thaliana* proteins from the PEBP family and annotated proteins from *Malus* 325 domestica, Prunus persica and Fragaria vesca. According to the phylogenetic tree (Fig. 326 1A), the seven rose PEBP genes were grouped into four clades. T-(TFL1-like, FT-like, BFT-327 like and MFT-like). Within the TFL1-clade contains s, two sub-clades (ATC and TFL1) were 328 present, with RC5G0373700 and RoKSN as rose representatives respectively. 329 RC5G0373700 was previously denominated *RoTFL1* (Remay et al. 2009), based on our 330 new analysis we suggest renaming this gene *RoATCTFL1*. RC7G0018600 was a member 331 of the MFT clade which contained a single gene of each species. Two rose proteins 332 (RC6G0343500 and RC2G0537200) belonged to the BFT clade. Concerning the The FT 333 clade contains, two rose proteins were present (RC3G0419200 and RC4G0426500, 334 previously denominated RoFT (Remay et al. 2009)) whereas only one protein was present 335 in apple and peach and 3 in woodland strawberry. To go further in the FT analysis, we 336 have performed a micro-synteny analysis (Fig. 1B and C). A clear micro-synteny can be 337 demonstrated for the four genes (RC3G0419200, FvH4 6g00090.1, Prupe.6G364900.1 338 and M12G1262000, Fig. 1B) that can be grouped into a subclade (Fig. 1A).

Another micro-synteny was found between a rose (RC4G0426500) and a strawberry (FvH4-4g30710.1) gene, with no corresponding genes in *Prunus* and *Malus* (Fig. 1C). No orthologous gene can be found for the third *Fragaria* gene. These results suggest that one *FT* homologue exist in Rosaceae, with a diversification in Rosoid, with a duplication in rose and strawberry. Another duplication (FvH4 6g00090.1) also happened in *F. vesca*. 344 These results are in agreement with a recent analysis of *FT* diversification in Rosaceae345 (Jiang et al. 2022).

346

347 Choice of RoFT gene for in planta study and transformation results

348 RoFT gene

349 Among the *RoFT* genes, RC4G0426500 gene was previously proposed to be involved in 350 the control of various rose traits. The expression of this gene increases during spring and 351 is correlated with the flowering time of recurrent blooming (Remay et al. 2009) and non-352 recurrent (Jiang et al. 2022) roses. Indeed, all inflorescence traits scored in a F1 353 population ('The Fairy' x hybrid of *Rosa wichurana*) co-localise on LG4, in the vicinity of 354 the RoFT/RC4G0426500 locus (Iwata et al. 2011) and QTLs for flowering control have 355 been detected in this region in two cross-populations (Iwata et al. 2011; Roman et al. 356 2015). Moreover, the plant height and shape and some other architectural traits were 357 controlled by a QTL, that co-localised with the *RoFT* gene (Iwata et al. 2011). Moreover, 358 a study of architectural traits in rose showed that a QTL controlling the length of long 359 axes was located on linkage group 4 and co-localised with the *RoFT* gene (Li-Marchetti et 360 al. 2017). These genetic results suggest that *RoFT/RC4G0426500* may have a pleiotropic 361 role in flowering and plant architecture. To test this hypothesis, we opted to carry out an 362 in planta study on the overexpression of this *RoFT* gene located on LG4 (RC4G0426500).



13

376 Fig. 1 PEBP family in rose (*R. chinensis*). A. Phylogenetic tree with the four clades (FT, 377 TFL1, MFT and BFT). The protein sequences were obtained from the GDR website 378 (https://www.rosaceae.org/tools/jbrowse) for rose (Rosa chinensis Genome v1.0), Fragaria 379 vesca (F. vesca Genome v4.0), Malus domestica (Malus x domestica GDDH13 v1.1) and 380 Prunus persica (Prunus persica Genome v2.0.a1). For the other proteins, the references 381 are: RoKSN(HO174211), FT (AT1G65480), TSF (AT4G20370), TFL1 (AT5G03840), ATC 382 (AT2G27550), BFT (AT5G62040) and MFT (AT1G18100). Lines in red represent lines with 383 a bootstrap value > 80 (out of 100). Thick lines represent lines with a bootstrap value >384 80 (out of 100). Rose proteins are underlined in red. B. and C. Microsynteny analysis for 385 the FT proteins within the FT clades. The synteny analysis was performed using the 386 syntenyviewer tools from GDR (https://www.rosaceae.org/synview/search). The syntenic 387 blocks are described in Table S1. No microsynteny was found for FvH4 3q09870.1

388 *Transformation results*

The genetic transformation was performed on two genotypes Rosa DELdog 389 'Pimprenelle®' (PIMP), and Rosa DELtrimen Guy Savoy®' (GS). A flow cytometry study 390 391 showed that both these genotypes are tetraploid (2n=4X) (data not shownFig. S1) and 392 have a different genotype for the *RoKSN* gene. GS has three alleles corresponding to RoKSN^{copia}, RoKSN^{G181} and RoKSN^{null} alleles while PIMP has only RoKSN^{copia} and 393 394 RoKSN^{G181} alleles (Fig. S2). The RoKSN alleles were denominated according to Soufflet-395 Freslon et al. (2021). Both genotypes are described as continuous-flowering. Somatic 396 embryo clusters were used as target tissues (Fig. 2A) for genetic transformation of PIMP 397 and GS. The time to obtain transformed and regenerated *in vitro* cultured plants was 398 around a year corresponding to embryo germination (Fig. 2B to 2F) (or regeneration of 399 plants emerging from embryos), multiplication and rooting (Fig. 2G-H). The transgene 400 presence was checked by GFP protein expression under UV light at different embryo 401 development stages (Fig. 2C, 2D, 2I) and by PCR. The primers chosen in different exons 402 enabled amplification of the endogenous gene and the transgene with different PCR 403 fragment sizes (1100 bp for endogenous gene and 536 bp for cDNA transgene; Fig. S1) 404 and for the presence of GFP and nptII (data not shown). We obtained several 405 transformation events and chose a limited number of regenerants for the experiments. 406 Ten and four events were thus transferred to the greenhouse and studied in detail for GS 407 and PIMP, respectively.

408

409 Phenotypic analysis of non-transformed and RoFT transformed plants

All transformation events of GS and PIMP were able to flower under the in vitro conditions (Fig. 2G and 2H), except for one GS event C5.1. The *RoFT* transcript levels were evaluated to compare the expression of three transgenic plants to that of the non-transgenic plants (Fig. 2K and 2L). In the three GS transgenic events, on average the *RoFT* transcript level had significantly >1200-fold and >1300-fold higher B1.1and C3.1 events, respectively, than NT plants but this increase was not as marked for GS C5.1 (300-fold). In PIMP, *RoFT* transcript accumulation was higher in the three transgenic events compared to NT plants (130- to 600-fold higher transcript accumulation). In vitro-rooted transgenic and non-transgenic (NT) plants were transferred to the S2 greenhouse. Similar results were found in buds of GS (Fig. 6) and PIMP (Fig. 7)

The plants were scored for different traits after pruning and cold homogenization (see Materials and Methods).





Fig. 2 Various rose genetic transformation steps. A) Somatic embryo clusters of Rosa DELdog Pimprenelle® genotype. B-E) Transformed somatic embryo of Rosa DELdog Pimprenelle® genotype 16 weeks after inoculation under white (B-D) and UV light (C-E). F) in vitro Rosa DELdog Pimprenelle® genotype regenerated transformed plantlets on kanamycine medium. G-H) in vitro rooted and blooming transformed plantlets of Rosa DELdog Pimprenelle® and Rosa DELtrimen Guy Savoy®. I-J) in vitro Rosa DELdog Pimprenelle® genotype regenerated transformed plantlets under white (I) and UV light (I). K-L) gRT-PCR was used to determine the relative expression levels of *RoFT* gene in leaves of transgenic and non-transgenic (NT) Rosa DELtrimen Guy Savoy® and Rosa DELdog Pimprenelle®. Results were expressed as mean of technical replicates ± SD (n = 3).

Flowering date time

460 Concerning the flowering datetime (Fig. 3) for GS genotype, 9 out of 10 transgenic
461 events featured early flowering (40-50 days) compared to NT plants (57-97 days).

Flowering in one *RoFT* transgenic plant (C5.1) was significantly delayed (140-157 days) compared to NT plants. For PIMP, all *RoFT* events flowered earlier than NT plants, and three events (8.1 1.1, 8.1 1.2, 8.1 4.1) showed significant differences compared to NT plants (12-17 days compared to 35-49 days for NT plants). The 8.1 2.1 PIMP event flowered 28 days after a cold period but this flowering pattern did not appear to significantly differ from that of NT. In conclusion, *RoFT* overexpression can induce early flowering, but this effect is variable depending on the genotype and events within the same genotype.

Number of floral organs

472 Figure 4 shows the number of petals, stamens, carpels and the total number of floral
473 organs. The number of sepals, was always five for all transgenic and non-transgenic plants
474 (not shown).

475 For GS *RoFT* events, no significant difference was observed in the petal number. For 476 stamens, carpels and the total number of floral organs, significant differences were 477 observed for seven transgenic events as compared to NT plants, while there was no 478 significant difference for three events (A2.1, A2.2, C5.1) (Fig. 4A and Table S2). For the 479 significantly different *RoFT* events, we noted a decrease in the number of stamens (50-480 112) compared to NT (82-171). Moreover, the carpel number ranged from 12 to 56 in 481 these *RoFT* events compared to 46 to 85 for NT plants. As a result of the decreased stamen 482 and carpel numbers, we observed a significant decrease in the total number of floral 483 organs on those seven transgenic plants.

For the four transformed PIMP *RoFT* events, we found that *RoFT* overexpression significantly affected (Fig. 4B and Table S2) the petal and stamen numbers. Thus, an increase in the number of petals (10-25) compared to NT plants (5-9) and a reduction in the stamen number (48-96 vs 80-118) were observed. There was no significant difference between transgenic and non-transgenic plants with regard to the number of carpels and the total number of organs.

490

491 Architecture

The plant architecture was evaluated by scoring the shoot size and diameter, and the
internode number and size (Fig. 5 and Table S2) when the floral bud is visible. Concerning
the stem diameter, nNo differences in stem diameter were observed between transgenic
and non-transgenic plants in all genotypes and events (data not shown).

496 For the GS shoot size and internode number, there were no significances noted for 497 three and two events, respectively (B1.1, A2.1, C5.1 and A2.1, C5.1) (Fig. 5 and Table S2). 498 For the other events, the shoot size was significantly lower (10-31 cm) than in NT plants 499 (38-70 cm). Moreover, the number of internodes in these events was lower (4-10) 500 compared to 11-16 for NT plants. These observations were correlated with the earlier 501 flowering dates times of these events (Fig. 5 and Table S2), except for the C5.1 event. 502 Concerning the mean internode number, no major differences were noted, except for one 503 event (C3 1) where there was a significant difference in comparison to NT plants.

For the PIMP genotype, a significant difference in the shoot size and internode number was observed for all *RoFT* events compared to NT plants. The mean shoot size was 10.8 cm in *RoFT* transgenic plants (5-18 cm), while that for the non-transformed plants was 35.33 cm (23-49 cm). These results were correlated with the early flowering observed in the *RoFT* plants (Fig. 3). Similarly, the internode number ranged from 3 to 13, with a mean of 7.6, while the mean internode number was 15.66 (11-18) in NT plants (Fig. 4). No significant differences were observed in the mean internode size (Fig. 4).

4. Accepted manuscript



522 523 524 Fig. 3 Flowering date time in transgenic plants (in grey) and non-transformed plants (NT in white) for Rosa DELtrimen Guy Savoy® and *Rosa* DELdog Pimprenelle®. The mean flowering dates times for three primary stems (DF) are indicated.

DF: date of Fflowering time, which corresponds, to the number of days between the plants coming out of the cold and the appearance of 525 the flower (see Material and Methods).

526 *= statistically significant difference from Tukey's multiple comparison test (Table S2).



Fig. 4 Number of floral organs in transgenic plants (in grey) and non-transformed plants (NT in white) for *Rosa* DELtrimen Guy Savoy®
(A), *Rosa* DELdog Pimprenelle® (B). The mean of the number of petals (Petal), stamens (Stamen), carpels (Carpel) and the mean of total number of floral organs (Total_FO) are indicated. The number of counted flowers is for GS: NT [8], A2.1[11] A2.2[20], B1.1[8], B1.2[8], B1.3[13], C3.1[9], C3.2[25], C5.1[5], C6.1[10], C6.2[10] and for PIMP: NT[28], 8.1_1.1[13], 8.1_1.2[25], 8.1_2.1[3], 8.2_4.1[3]. *= statistically significant difference from Tukey's multiple comparison test (Table S3).





**= statistically significant difference from Tukey's multiple comparison test (Table S3).*

573 Floral gene expression analysis

We then aimed to go further in the molecular characterization of the transgenic plants, and to assess how *FT* overexpression could modify the expression of some key floral genes. We thus studied the expression level of the target *FT* genes (rose homologues of *SOC1, FRUITFULL* and *AP1*), antagonist or interactive partners of *FT* genes (*RoATC, RoKSN*, a *TFL1* homologue and *FD*) and genes controlling flower development (*AP1, AP2, AP3* and *AGAMOUS*) in buds for three events per genotype, i.e. A2.1, C3.1 and C5.1 for GS and 8.1_1.1, 8.1_1.2 and 8.2_4.1 for PIMP.

Some of these events were chosen because they presented extremes in phenotypic characters such as the shoot size for GS_C3.1 and the flowering <u>date_time_delay</u> for GS_C5.1, and the floral organ number (e.g. carpels for 8.2_4.1) and architecture data for PIMP events. For all genes studied, Figures 6 and 7 show the mean relative transcript accumulation of transgenic and NT plants. In all the analyses, NT plants were chosen as the reference (value of 1) in terms of the relative transcript accumulation.

587 Higher *RoFT* transcript accumulation in buds was observed for transgenic GS and 588 PIMP plants compared to NT plants (110-fold to 1850-fold higher), and transcript 589 accumulation was higher in the PIMP *RoFT* genotype compared to the GS *RoFT* genotype. 590 Concerning the genes involved in floral initiation (RoAP1, RoAP1CAUL, RoFUL, 591 RoLFY, RoSOC1) for PIMP and (RoAP1, RoAP1CAUL, RoFUL, RoLFY), for GS (except 592 C5.1), we found that the transcripts were accumulated to a greater extent in transgenic 593 plants (Fig. 6). In GS, note that for these genes, transcript accumulation was higher in 594 C3.1 plants, that accumulate 600-fold higher *RoFT* transcript. Concerning *RoSOC1*, no 595 higher transcript accumulation was observed in GS A2.1, while the accumulation was 596 significant but very low in both other events. For GS C5.1, no higher accumulation was 597 observed for the floral initiation genes. Interestingly, for GS (except C5.1) and PIMP, we 598 also observed transcript accumulation of the RoATC floral repressor (with 40-fold 599 accumulation in some events). Concerning RoKSN, no variations were noted in PIMP, 600 whereas there was greater transcript accumulation in GS (except for C5.1 which showed 601 lower accumulation).

22

High variability was observed with regard to the floral identity genes. It should also be noted that the expression was studied in shoot axillary buds (and not in floral buds). In GS, upregulation was observed for *RoAG_D1* and *RoAG_C1* for A2.1, i.e. an event with no variation in floral organs (Fig. 4). Concerning PIMP, there was higher *AP3* transcript accumulation, and the same trends seem to apply in *AP2* (but marked variability was observed for this gene).

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Fig. 6 Relative expression levels of flowering-related genes (genes of Class-ABC: *RoAP1, RoAP1_CAUL, RoAP2, ROAP3_B3, RoAP3_euB3, RoAG-C1, RoAG-D1 and RoFT, RoSOC1, RoFF(AP1/FRUITFULL), RoKSN, RoATC, RoFD, ROLFY*) in buds of transgenic (in grey) and non-transgenic (NT in white) *Rosa* DELtrimen Guy Savoy® plants. Results were expressed as mean of technical replicates ± SD (*n* = 3).



Fig. 7 Relative expression levels of flowering-related genes (genes of Class-ABC: *RoAP1_CAUL, RoAP2_ROAP3_B3, RoAP3_euB3, RoAG-C1, RoAG-D1 and RoFT, RoSOC1, RoFF(AP1/FRUITFULL), RoKSN, RoATC, RoFD, ROLFY*) in buds of transgenic (in grey) and non-transgenic (NT in white) *Rosa* DELdog Pimprenelle® plants. Results were expressed as mean of technical replicates ± SD (*n* = 3).

674 Discussion

FT genes encode a mobile protein that mediates numerous developmental
processes such as growth, plant architecture control, fruit set and tuber formation (Pin
and Nilsson 2012).

678

679 Seven member genes of the rose PEBP family

680 In this study, we analysed the PEPB family in the rose genome and characterized 681 the seven PEBP members and grouped them in four clades (FT, TFL1, MFT and BFT), with 682 each containing at least one Arabidopsis PEBP gene. In contrast, Zhao et al. (2020) only 683 found three clades (FT, TFL1 and MFT) in 24 PEBP genes in pear. There are two rose 684 members within the FT clade (RC3G0419200 and RC4G04226500, respectively located 685 on chromosomes 3 and 4 (Hibrand Saint-Oyant et al. 2018)), which correspond to the 686 FvFT1 and FvFT2 respectively (phylogenetic and micro-synteny analysis). We selected the 687 FT member RC4G04226500 based on the findings of previous studies that highlighted a 688 correlation of this gene with different flowering and architecture QTLs (Iwata et al. 2011; 689 Li-Marchetti et al. 2017; Remay et al. 2009). This gene was previously found to be a floral 690 activator based on its overexpression in Arabidopsis thaliana, with an early flowering 691 phenotype, (Otagaki et al. 2015; Randoux et al. 2014). We decided to study the function 692 of this FT homologue by producing rose that ectopically expressed this gene. We have 693 characterized the transgenic plants at the phenotypic and molecular level.

694

695 High variability in the rose transformation process

696 In many studies, FT was functionally validated in a heterologous recipient system 697 such as Arabidopsis thaliana, which favours easy and quick genetic transformation 698 (Koembuoy et al. 2020; Tanaka et al. 2014; Zhang et al. 2010; Zhi-Yi et al. 2020). The 699 RoFT homologue studied in this study has been previously demonstrated to be a floral 700 activator in rose by complement of a *ft* mutant in *Arabidopsis* (Randoux et al. 2014). In 701 this study, we decided to focus on rose for genetic transformation as this process is 702 generally long and inefficient. Rose is considered to be recalcitrant to regeneration 703 (Nguyen et al. 2017) although this is a crucial step in the genetic transformation process,

which in turn may be highly affected by the genotype. Indeed, there have only been 20
papers published on stable genetic transformation in rose and only one genotype was
transformed in most of these studies.

707

708 Inter- and intra-genotype variability in RoFT transgenic plants

Here we obtained several *RoFT* overexpression events for the two genotypes, i.e.
PIMP and GS. Variations in phenotypic characters and gene expression were noted
between and within the two genotypes.

712 First, we observed a difference in *RoFT* transcript accumulation in transgenic 713 plants, i.e. between events and genotypes, and between leaves and buds. High transgene 714 expression variability in independent transformants has been frequently reported (Butaye 715 et al. 2004; Day et al. 2000; Kirchhoff et al. 2020; Peach and Velten 1991; Rosin et al. 716 2008). Several hypotheses and explanations have been put forward to explain these 717 differences. First, natural variation can arise spontaneously (Anderson et al. 2016) during 718 the tissue culture process (Lambirth et al. 2015; Neelakandan and Wang 2012). Indeed, 719 somaclonal variation is known in Rosa species (Arene et al. 1993), and variations in 720 methylation profiles has been observed in rose during somatic embryogenesis and *in vitro* 721 organogenesis (Xu et al. 2004).

Secondly, during the transformation process, variability arise due to the transgenenumber, position effects and epigenetic silencing.

724

725 FT homologue overexpression in rose leads to early flowering

726 In both PIMP and GS genotypes (except for C5.1, see below), we observed early 727 flowering in transgenic roses (Fig. 3). In some cases, flowers were also observed under in 728 vitro conditions. This phenotype was expected as FT is known to be a major floral activator 729 (Kinoshita and Richter 2020) and similar results have also been obtained in other woody 730 plants (Bohlenius et al. 2006; Hsu et al. 2006; Klocko et al. 2016; Tanaka et al. 2014; 731 Wenzel et al. 2013). The ectopic expression of the orthologous gene in F. vesca, FvH4-732 4q30710.1/ FvFT2, is also responsible of precocious flowering and dwarf plants (Gaston 733 et al. 2021). The early flowering phenotype featured shorter shoots and fewer internodes,

734 whereas the internode length was not modified by *RoFT* overexpression (Fig. 5). This 735 suggested that early flowering was due to early floral induction, leading to shoots 736 producing fewer internodes. We sought to understand how overexpression of *RoFT* could 737 lead to early floral induction by studying the expression of major genes involved in floral 738 initiation. In all transgenic events (except C5.1), we observed higher transcript 739 accumulation of floral initiation genes, such as homologues of SOC1, AP1, FUL or LFY. 740 Surprisingly, floral repressor (*RoATC*) transcripts were also accumulated (Fig. 6). It was 741 previously shown in rose that ectopic expression of a floral repressor from the same family 742 (RoKSN) led to non-flowering of continuous-flowering plants with high repression of floral 743 initiation genes such as LFY or AP1 (Randoux et al. 2014). This RoTFL1 transcript 744 accumulation might be explained by a negative feedback loop to avoid to precocious 745 flowering.

746 Concerning the C5.1 event in GS, we observed no *RoFT* accumulation in buds, 747 whereas high accumulation was detected in leaves (Figs. 2 and 6). Moreover, associated 748 with *RoFT* accumulation pattern, the C5.1 plants flowered later than the non-transgenic 749 plants. This further suggested that transgene silencing was involved in this event. Since 750 the first report of transgene silencing in petunia (Napoli et al. 1990), several studies have 751 shown that the 35S transgene could be silenced (Fan et al. 2011; Jin and Guo 2015; 752 Mishiba et al. 2005; Sohn et al. 2011). In agreement with this phenotype, we observed an 753 absence of accumulation of the floral initiation gene transcripts (Fig. 6). Interestingly, 754 despite the substantial flowering delay, C5.1 plants had the same number of internodes 755 and the same shoot size as the non-transgenic plants (Fig. 5). Therefore, the flowering 756 delay was not due to the production of more internodes.

757

758 Variability in floral organs

As expected, *FT* ectopic-expression impacted the flowering date, but more surprisingly it also affected floral development, particularly the number of different floral organs. *RoFT* transcripts (*RC4G0426500*) have been previously shown to be accumulated in floral bud (Remay et al, 2009; Jiang et al, 2021), suggested a possible role of this gene in flower development. In both genotypes (GS and PIMP), we observed a variation in floral

764 organs, but both genotypes responded differently. In GS, seven out of the ten studied 765 transgenic plants presented fewer stamens and carpels, yet the petal and sepal numbers 766 were not affected (Fig. 4). Consequently, the total number of floral organs decreased in 767 these transgenic plants, suggesting mitotic rather than homeotic conversion. The A2.1 768 event did not show any differences in the number of floral organs compared to NT plants 769 and, despite the presence of *RoFT* in buds, and except for *RoLFY*, *RoFT* targets were 770 weakly upregulated (RoAP1, RoAP1CAUL, RoFF). In this event, we also observed 771 upregulation of *RoAG* genes without any phenotype linked to this activation. For the C3.1 772 event, all RoFT targets were upregulated and we noted upregulation of RoAP3 euB3. The 773 role of this class B gene is still unclear, but Hibino et al. (2006) hypothesized that this 774 gene is involved in petal and stamen development, and in our study the C3.1 event was 775 the one with the least number of stamens. In this event, we also observed upregulation of 776 RoATC and RoKSN (a TFL1-like gene family (Iwata et al. 2011)).

777 In PIMP, we observed more petals and fewer stamens in all of the transgenic plants. The 778 number of sepals and carpels was not modified. Furthermore, the total number of floral 779 organs was similar between transgenic and NT plants, suggesting that the stamens were 780 in the process of converting into petals. This homeotic conversion has already been 781 observed in rose, and is associated with the mis-regulation of ABCE model genes (Dubois 782 et al. 2011). In such a scenario, it could be expected that A type genes would be more 783 expressed while C type genes would be less expressed, leading to more petals and less 784 stamens. However, we did not observe any significant variations in A class genes (AP2) or 785 C class genes (AG). Only class B gene transcripts (AP3 B3) were more accumulated. In 786 pear, citrus FT overexpression induces a modification in the number of floral organs, while 787 there is an increase in petal number in some events (Matsuda et al. 2009). Similarly, 788 Tanaka et al. (2014) showed that AtFT transgenic apple lines contained more petals and 789 fewer stamens than non-transformed apple cultivars, as was observed in the PIMP 790 genotype. These lines feature LEAFY ortholog upregulation, which might affect the floral 791 organ number and shape (Mimida et al. 2011).

In this study, we were able to transform two rose genotypes and showed that *RoFT* mayhave multiple functions in floral initiation and development. However, further research is

needed to gain further insight into how *RoFT* is involved in these mechanisms.
Nevertheless, our findings demonstrated that rose transformation could serve as a model
for molecular genetic analyses to elucidate the reproductive mechanisms of ornamental
plants.

798

Supplementary information tables S1 to S4 and Figs. S1 and S2

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811 Author contribution FF, LH, LHSO conceived and managed this study and wrote this 812 manuscript. LH, LV, JB, SA, SF managed in vitro plants, conducted plant genetic 813 transformation. JC, TT conducted data collecting and managed the plants into the 814 greenhouse. LO and JJ cloned *RoFT* for *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* genetic 815 transformation. JB, LO conducted gRT-PCR experiments.

- 816 **Data available on request** The data underlying this article will be shared on reasonable
- 817 request to the corresponding author.
- 818 **Declaration of interest** The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest
- 819

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Fig. S1. Result of PCR amplifications. *RoFT* amplication of genomic DNA (1110 bp) and transgene cDNA (536 bp). A: *Rosa* DELdog Pimprenelle®) : Lane 1, 8.1_1.1, lane 2, 8.1_1.2, lane 3 8.1_1.2, lane 4, 8.2_4.1, lane 5, NT, lane 6, negative control.

B: *Rosa* DELtrimen Guy Savoy®) :lane 1, A2.1 , lane 2, A2.2, lane 3 , B1.1, lane 4, B1.2, lane 5, B1.3, lane 6, C3.1, lane 7, C3.2, lane 8, C5.1, lane 9, C6.1, lane 10, NT, lane 11, negative control. M molecular weight ladder.



Fig. S2: Genotyping of *RoKSN* for GS and PIMP. Using different primers, we have genotyped all the known alleles at the *RoKSN* locus. The genotyping was done based on previous described methods for *RoKSN*^{copia} (³¹), *RoKSN*^{null} (³³), *RoKSN*^{A181} and *RoKSNG*¹⁸¹ (³⁴). GS is *RoKSN*^{null} / *RoKSN*^{copia} whereas PIMP is *RoKSN*^{copia} / *RoKSN*^{G181}. The presence of the *RoKSN*^{G181} allele in GS is explained by the presence of the G at position 181 in the *RoKSN*^{copia} allele.

Photo A



Photos B and C



Accepted manuscript

Photos D and E



Photos I and J



Accepted manuscript

Table S1. Syntenic blocks. The synteny analysis was performed using the synteny viewer tool from the GDR (https://www.rosaceae.org/synview/search). The rose chromosomes 3 and 4 (location of RC3G0149200 and RC4G0426500) and the strawberry chromosome 3 (location of FcH4_3g09870.1) were selected as genome and chromosome to search blocks by a given location against other *Rosaceae genome:* Fragaria vesca (*F. vesca* Genome v4.0), *Malus*

| | Syntenic blocks | | | | | |
|--------------|-----------------|-------|-----------|-------|-----------|---------|
| | Fragaria | vesca | Prunus pe | rsica | Malus don | nestica |
| Genes | Name | Chr | Name | Chr | Name | Chr |
| RC3G0149200 | ftrcB290 | 6 | pprcB303 | 6 | mdrcB183 | 12 |
| RC4G0426500 | ftrcB182 | 4 | pprcB277 | 5 | mdrcB218 | 13 |
| FvH3_3g09870 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| P | ccef | te | a mar | 20 | | |

Accepted manuscript

Table S2. Primers used for PCR and qRT-PCR analyses.RC number corresponds to the number of gene annotation in Hibrand-sain

| | Rose gene | name |
|---------|------------|---|
| class A | RoAP1 | EuApetala 1 - CAULIFLOWER |
| class A | RoAP1 | Apetala 1 |
| | RoFF | Apetala 1/FRUITFULL |
| class A | RoAP2 | Apetala2/TOE homologue |
| class B | RoAP3_B3 | Masako B3 |
| class B | RoAP3_EuB3 | Masako EuB3 |
| class C | RoAG_C1 | Agamous C1 |
| class C | RoAG_D1 | Agamous D1 |
| | RoFD | Flowering locus D |
| | RoFT | Flowering locus T |
| | RoLFY | Leafy |
| | RoSOC1 | Suppressor of overexpression of CO 1 |
| | RoTFL1 | Terminal flower 1 |
| | UBC | ubiquitin conjugating protein |
| | ТСТР | Translationally controlled tumour protein |
| | nptII | neomycin phosphotransferase II |
| | GFP | green fluorescent protein |

ıt Oyant et al. 2018

| located or Rose | n RC number |
|--------------------|-------------|
| 4 | RC4G0415400 |
| 7 | RC7G0064200 |
| 2 | RC2G0592900 |
| 3 | RC3G0243000 |
| 2 | RC2G0142200 |
| 6 | RC6G0508500 |
| 5 | RC5G0115100 |
| 2 | RC2G0490100 |
| 6 | RC6G0520900 |
| 4 | RC4G0426500 |
| 7 | RC7G0109100 |
| 1 | RC1G0310700 |
| 5 | RC5G0373700 |
| 7 | RC7G0173600 |
| 4 | RC4G0282100 |
| | |

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| function | primer name |
|---|---------------------------------------|
| K-box region and MADS-box transcription factor family | RoAP1CAUL F |
| protein | RoAP1CAUL_R |
| ACAMOUS like 9 | RoAP1_F |
| AGAMOUS-like o | RoAP1_R |
| AGAMOUS-LIKE 8 AGL8 FRUITFULL FUL | RoFF_F |
| | RoFF_R |
| | RoAP2_F |
| | RoAP2_R |
| K-box region and MADS-box transcription factor family protein | RoAP3_B3_F |
| <u> </u> | 1000000000000000000000000000000000000 |
| | $R_0 \Delta P_3 F_{11} B_3 R_1$ |
| | $R_0AG C1 F$ |
| K-box region and MADS-box transcription factor family protein | RoAG C1 R |
| Khan marian and MADC has transmistion for the family materia | RoAG D1 F |
| K-box region and MADS-box transcription factor family protein | RoAG D1 R |
| | RoFD_F |
| CO. | RoFD_R |
| FBP (phosphatidylethanolamine-binding protein) family protein | RoFT_DH_F |
| | RoFT_DH_R2 |
| floral meristem identity control protein LEAFY (LFY) | RoLFY_F |
| | RoLFY_R |
| AGAMOUS-like 20 | RoSOC1_F |
| | RoSOC1_R |
| ATC Centroradialis | RoTFL1_F |
| | <u>Rolffl1_R</u> |
| | ROUBC_F |
| | ROUBC_R |
| | ROICIP-SI |
| | ROICIP-ASI |
| | nptII_F0 |
| | <u>IIPUII_K/</u> |
| | CFD R6 |
| | 01.L_V0 |

primers sequence for real time amplificatio

CAGCTCGACCTTACTCTCG CTACAAGCTAGTGCACTTAGC GGGAGAAGGAGAAGGAGAAAGCAG AAGGCGGCAGGAGCGTATTAC TGGAGCGATATGAACAATAC GACCAGTTTCCCTGTGATTC CCACTTTTCACCATCGTTCACC anuscript CGTGGTTAAATCCTAGCTACC ATGATCTTAATGGTCTGAGCT AAGGTTGTGGTTGTTGTGG TCTGAGATTCGCTGAACTGC CGGTGAAGATTAGGATGATGA CACCACCAATCGTCAAGTCACC ACCTCAGCATCACAGAGCACAG CTCAATCATACGATAGGAG GGAGAGGTGTCTGGTTCTG AAAAGGGCGTTAGAAGAAAATGG GCCGATTCTCTGTTCTTGATC CACCATGCCTAGGGCTAGCGATCG CAACGCTAAACTCTCCTTCCA GGGAGCAAACTACATCAATAAGCC CTCCTCAGCGCATTCGAACC GCAAAAGACAACCAAGCCAAC TTCTTGCAGTTCGTCAATGC AAGCAGAAAGGTCGGCAAACAGTG GCAGTTTCCCTCTGGGCATTGAAG GCCAGAGATTGCCCATATGTA TCACAGAGTCCTAGCAGCACA GAGGGAGCAACCAAGTTTCTG TGTAGTAGGCAAAGACCAAAGC GGGACTGGCTGCTATTGG CCCCTGATGCTCTTCGTC ACGTAAACGGCCACAAGTTC CTTGTAGTTGCCGTCGTCCT

Table S3. HSD-Tukey test for phenotypic data analyses of transformed and nontransformed (NT) plants for *Rosa* Deltrimen Guy Savoy®, *Rosa* Deldog Pimprenel the grey color indicates the RoFT events that are significantly different from the 1 plants.

Guy Savoy NhIN - number of internodes Pimprenelle

Date of floweringDate of flowering

| Event | Letters |
|-------|---------|
| C3.1 | a |
| C6.1 | a |
| B1.2 | a |
| C6.2 | a |
| B1.1 | a |
| C3.2 | a |
| A2.2 | a |
| A2.1 | a |
| B1.3 | a |
| NT | С |
| C5.1 | b |

| - 5 | | JI 110 001 | 9 | |
|-----|-----------|-------------------|-------|--------|
| | Event | Letters | | |
| | 8.1_1.1 | a | | |
| | 8.1_1.2 | a | | |
| | 8.2_4.1 | a | | |
| | 8.1_2.1 | ab | | |
| | NT | b | | * |
| | Stame | a mar | Carpe | 1 |
| 8 | Event | Letters | Event | Letter |
| | C_{2} 1 | d | C = 1 | |

Guy Savoy

| Petal | |
|-------|---------|
| Event | Letters |
| A2_1 | b |
| A2_2 | ab |
| B1_1 | ab |
| B1_2 | ab |
| B1_3 | ab |
| C3_1 | ab |
| C3_2 | ab |
| C5_1 | ab |
| C6_1 | a |
| C6_2 | ab |
| NT | ab |

| Stamen | | |
|--------|---------|--|
| Event | Letters | |
| C3_1 | d | |
| C3_2 | bd | |
| B1_2 | bd | |
| B1_3 | bd | |
| B1_1 | abd | |
| C6_1 | abd | |
| C6_2 | abd | |
| C5_1 | abcd | |
| A2_2 | abc | |
| A2_1 | ac | |
| NT | С | |

Event Letters C6_1 a C6_2 a B1_1 a B1_2 a B1_3 a C3_1 a C3_2 a

ab

ab

ab

b



Pimprenelle

Petal

| Event | Letters |
|---------|---------|
| 8.2_2.1 | a |
| 8.1_1.2 | a |
| 8.2_4.1 | a |
| 8.1_1.1 | a |
| NT | b |

Stamen

| Event | Letters |
|---------|---------|
| 8.2_2.1 | a |
| 8.2_4.1 | ab |
| 8.1_1.1 | a |
| 8.1_1.2 | a |
| NT | b |

Carpel

C5 1

A2 2

A2 1

NT

| <u> </u> | |
|----------|---------|
| Event | Letters |
| 8.2_2.1 | a |
| 8.2_4.1 | a |
| 8.1_1.1 | a |
| 8.1_1.2 | a |
| NT | a |



| Evei | nt |
|------|------|
| 8.2 | _2.1 |
| 8.2 | 4.1 |
| 8.1_ | 1.1 |
| 8.1_ | 1.2 |
| NT | |

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| Event | Letters |
|-------|---------|
| C3_1 | a |

NbIN

| Event | Letters | |
|-------|---------|--|
| B1_2 | a | |

MeanSizeIN

| Event | Letters |
|-------|---------|
| C3_1 | a |

| C3_2 | a |
|------|-----|
| A2_2 | ab |
| B1_2 | ab |
| B1_3 | ab |
| C6_2 | ab |
| C6_1 | ab |
| B1_1 | abc |
| A2_1 | abc |
| C5_1 | bc |
| NT | С |

| C3_2 | a |
|------|-----|
| C6_1 | a |
| C6_2 | a |
| B1_1 | ab |
| B1_3 | ab |
| C3_1 | ab |
| A2_2 | abc |
| A2_1 | bcd |
| C5_1 | cd |
| NT | d |

Pimprenelle shootsize

NbIN

| Event | Letters |
|---------|---------|
| 8.1_1.1 | a |
| 8.1_1.2 | a |
| 8.1_2.1 | a |
| 8.2_4.1 | a |
| NT | b |

| INDIN | | |
|---------|---------|---|
| Event | Letters | |
| 8.1_1.1 | a | |
| 8.1_1.2 | a | |
| 8.1_2.1 | ab | |
| 8.2_4.1 | b | ŀ |
| NT | С | |

MeanSizeIN

| Event | Letters |
|---------|---------|
| 8.1_1.1 | a |
| 8.1_1.2 | a |
| 8.1_2.1 | a |
| 8.2_4.1 | a |
| NT | a |

Guy Savoy

PlantSize

| Event | Letters |
|-------|---------|
| A2.1 | a |
| A2.2 | a |
| B1.1 | a |
| B1.2 | a |
| B1.3 | a |
| C3.1 | a |
| C3.2 | a |
| C5.1 | a |
| C6.1 | a |
| C6.2 | a |
| NT | a |

Pimprenelle **PlantSize**

| Event | Letters | | |
|---------|---------|--|--|
| 8.1_1.1 | a | | |
| 8.1_1.2 | a | | |
| 8.1_2.1 | a | | |
| 8.2_4.1 | a | | |
| NT | a | | |

lle®. NT

Accepted manuscript FO Letters bd bd bd bd abd abd abcd abc ac FO

| Letters | 5 |
|---------|---|
| a | |
| a | |
| a | |
| a | |
| a | |

d

С

| Reference | Cultivar | Ploidy | Modified character | |
|-----------------------------------|---|--------|-----------------------|--|
| Firoozabady et al. 1994 | 'Royalty' | 4X | Flower color | |
| Matthews et al. 1994 | Rosa persica X xanthina | 4X | Marker Gene | |
| Derks et al. 1995 | 'Sonia' | 4X | Disease resistance | |
| Souq et al. 1996 | 'Deladel' | 4X | Plant Architecture | |
| Van der Salm et al. 1997, 1998 | 'Moneyway' | 4X | Root system | |
| Marchant et al. 1998 | 'Glad tidings' | 4X | Disease resistance | |
| Dohm et al. 2001, 2002 | 'Heckenzauber' et 'Pariser charme' | 4X | Disease resistance | |
| Li et al. 2002 | <i>'Carefree</i> 'Only love' | 4X | Marker Gene | |
| Condliffe et al. 2003 | 'Romy [°] 'Fresco' 'Tineke' 'Glad | 4X | Marker Gene | |
| Li et al. 2003 | 'Carefree | 4X | Disease | |
| Kim et al. 2004 | 'Tineke' | 4X | Marker Gene | |
| Chen et al. 2006 | <i>Rosa chinensis</i> Jacq. | ND | Marker Gene | |
| Vergne et al., 2010 | <i>R chinensis</i> 'Old Blush' | 2X | Marker Gene | |
| Zvi et al., 2012 | 'Pariser | 4X | Transcription | |
| Zakizadeh et al., 2013 | <i>Rosa hybrida</i> 'Linda' | 4X | Marker Gene | |
| Xing et al., 2014 a, b | R. rugosa | 2X | Flowering | |
| Randoux et al, 2014 | Rosa hybrida | 2x | Flowering | |
| Qiu et al, 2015 | Rosa multiflora | 2X | Disease | |
| Lee et al., 2020 | KR056002 | ND | drought stress | |
| Liu et al., 2021 | <i>Rosa hybrida</i> 'Samantha' | ND | Marker Gene | |

Table S4. List of the papers on stable rose genetic transfomatio

| n. | | | |
|-----------------------|---|-----------------------|----------------------------|
| Transformatio n by | Integrated gene | Target tissus | Efficiency of transformati |
| A. tumefaciens | Chalcone synthase | Embryogenic callus | ND |
| A. tumefaciens | β- glucuronidase | Protoplastes | ND |
| A. tumefaciens | β- glucuronidase (intron), | Embryogenic callus | ND |
| A. tumefaciens | <i>Chalcone</i> <i>synthase</i> | Embryogenic callus | 1 to 2 % |
| A. rhizogenes | Rol gene | Embryogenic callus | ND |
| biolistic | β- glucuronidase | Embryogenic callus | ND |
| A. tumefaciens | <i>Chitinase Glucanase Lysozyme</i> | Somatic Embryo | ND |
| A. tumefaciens | β- β- | Somatic Embryo | ND |
| A. tumefaciens | glucuronidase (intron) | Somatic Embryo | ND |
| A. tumefaciens | Ace-AMP1 | Embryogenic | 9% |
| A. tumefaciens | GFP | Embryogenic | 6.6% |
| A. tumefaciens | β- glucuronidase | organogenic callus | ND |
| A. tumefaciens | β- glucuronidase | Embryogenic callus | 3-9% |
| A. tumefaciens | PAP1 | Embryogenic | ND |
| A. tumefaciens | P _{SAG12} -ipt | Embryogenic callus | 0.1 |
| A. tumefaciens | β- glucuronidase FT Prunus | Embryogenic callus | 0.00114 |
| A. tumefaciens | RoKSN | Embryogenic | 0.17-12% |
| A. tumefaciens | MLO genes | Embryogenic | ND |
| A. tumefaciens | SOD2 | Embryogenic | ND |
| A. tumefaciens | GFP | Embryogenic callus | 6% |

Figure S1 : Histogram (A) and table (B) of fluorescent intensity on flow cytomet tetraploid genotype (*Rosa hybrida* 'Black Baccara'®), diploid genotype (*Rosa ch.* the two genotypes to be tested (*Rosa* DELtrimen 'Guy Savoy'® and *Rosa* DELdog



В

| | | | Pea | | |
|---------------------------|-----------------|-------|--------|---------------|--|
| genotype | ploidy expected | Count | %Gated | Mean-x | |
| Rosa hybrida 'Black Bacc | 4 x | 36 | 2.5 | 196.53 | |
| Rosa chinensis 'Old Blush | 2x | 25 | 2.67 | 197.2 | |
| Rosa DELtrimen Guy Savoy@ | ? | 16 | 1.81 | 203.44 | |
| Rosa DELdog Pimprenelle® | ? | 52 | 4.1 | 198.92 | |

try of the controls of *inensis* 'Old Blush'), g 'Pimprenelle'®) and



| | Rosa | | | | |
|-------|-------|--------|--------------|-------|---------------|
| CV-x% | Count | %Gated | Mean-x | CV-x% | loidy defined |
| 2.16 | 52 | 3.61 | 52.64 | 4.54 | 4x |
| 2.03 | 54 | 5.78 | 27.85 | 9.24 | 2x |
| 2.4 | 91 | 10.27 | 56.2 | 5.86 | 4x |
| 2.38 | 172 | 13.56 | 53.08 | 6.73 | 4x |