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

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- Hamama L., Bosselut J., Voisine L., Thouroude T., Ogé L., Chameau J.**,** Vilfroy**,** C., Foucrier
- S., Pierre S., Jeauffre J., Foucher F., Hibrand-Saint Oyant L.*
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- Université d'Angers, Institut Agro, INRAE, IRHS, SFR 4207 QuaSaV, 49000 Angers,
- France
- age The overexpression of *RoFT* gene in two rose van

I up- or [d](mailto:laurence.hibrand-saint-oyant@inrae.fr)own-regulates several target genes.

Bosa hybrida, FLOWERING LOCUS T gene, genetic to
 ndance : laurence.hibrand-saint-oyant@inrae.fr,_Tel

id.org/0000-000 **Key message** The overexpression of *RoFT* gene in two rose varieties induces pleotropic
- effects and up- or down-regulates several target genes.
- **Keywords** *Rosa hybrida*, *FLOWERING LOCUS T* gene, genetic transformation
- **Correspondance :** laurence.hibrand-saint-oyant@inrae.fr, Tel number +33241225795,
- https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7604-3811

Abstract

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

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 42 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

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

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

Figure 1. 2006; Wenzel et al. 2013) and variation
apple (Tanaka et al. 2014). In ornamental plants, cons
rom blueberry induces earlier flowering in petunia (
of the *FT* homologue from *Prunus mume* reduces the
in the non Many publications have highlighted the impact of the overexpression or extinction suppression of homologous *FT* genes *in planta*. In perennial plants, *FT* gene overexpression induces early flowering in *Eucalyptus* (Klocko et al. 2016), poplar (Bohlenius et al. 2006) and apple (Tanaka et al. 2014). Other modifications may also be observed such as suppression of the short-day-induced growth cessation trait and bud set in *Populus* (Hsu et al. 2006; Wenzel et al. 2013) and variation in the number of floral organs in apple (Tanaka et al. 2014). In ornamental plants, constitutive expression of the *FT* gene from blueberry induces earlier flowering in petunia (Lin et al. 2019). Ectopic expression of the *FT* homologue from *Prunus mume* reduces the juvenile phase and early flowering in the non-recurrent rose cultivar *Rosa rugosa* 'Bao White'. Note that the early flowering observed in *Rosa rugosa* alters the multiplication and rooting capacity of some transformation events (Xing et al. 2014). Nakatsuka et al. (2009) used the *FT* gene from *Arabidospsis* to transform an ornamental gentian, which gave rise to an early flowering phenotype with normal flower development. In *Artemisia*, *FT* RNAi causes a delay in flowering time and an increase in artemisine content (Lv et al. 2018) while, in *Populus*, *FT* interference generates a setting that is more sensitive day length shortening and leads to earlier bud set (Bohlenius et al. 2006).

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

eles: the *copia* in the *RoKSN^{copia}* allele can recombinonly a LTR, Long Terminal Repeat (*RoKSN^{LTR}*, Iwata a A at position 181 of the CDS is also responsibl³¹ (Soufflet-Freslon et al. 2021)). *RoKSN* overexpressio alleles were detected leading to different modes of flowering. Two knock-out mutants are responsible of continuous-flowering: one is due to the insertion a large *copia* transposable element (*RoKSNcopia* allele (Iwata et al. 2011)) and the second is a complete deletion of the gene (*RoKSNnull* allele, Hibrand Saint-Oyant et al. 2018). These two alleles are responsible of the complete absence of *RoKSN* transcript leading to roses that flower continuously. Intermediate phenotype (recurrent blooming roses that can rebloom late in the season, but without a continuous flowering behaviour) were characterized with other *RoKSN* alleles: the *copia* in the *RoKSNcopia* allele can recombinate and generate a new allele with only a LTR, Long Terminal Repeat (*RoKSNLTR* , Iwata et al. 2011). A conversion of G into a A at position 181 of the CDS is also responsible of recurrent blooming (*RoKSNA181* (Soufflet-Freslon et al. 2021)). *RoKSN* overexpression in rose totally blocked flowering in a continuous flowering genotype. This non-flowering phenotype might have been due to complete repression of the transcript accumulation of *RoFT* and/or to 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.

Materials and Methods

Plant material

 Two continuous-flowering genotypes were used in the present study, i.e. *Rosa* DELdog 'Pimprenelle®' [PIMP]*,* and *Rosa* DELtrimen *'*Guy Savoy®' [GS], which were obtained from the *Société Nouvelle des pépinières Georges Delbard* (Malicorne, France). These genotypes are tetraploid cultivated garden roses (2X=4N=28). The *in vitro* conditions for introduction, multiplication and maintenance are as described in Hamama et al. (2019). 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-

134 benzylaminopurine), sucrose 30 g.L⁻¹ and solidified with 3 g.L⁻¹ PhytagelTM (Sigma, Ref: 135 P8169) (shoot elongation medium, SEM). The pH medium pH was adjusted to 5.7 before 136 sterilization (113°C, 20 min). The cultures were conducted under a 16 h photoperiod with 137 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/72-965 139 fluorescent lamp). The temperature regime was 23 ± 0.5 °C during the 16 h light period 140 and 19 ± 0.5 °C during the 8 h dark period.

Script

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RoFT isolation and cloning

Phylogenetic tree construction, gene structure and protein motif analysis

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

Cloning into the pK7GWS vector and Agrobacterium transformation

 The *RoFT* gene was amplified from leaf cDNA from a *Rosa wichurana* hybrid, as described 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,

 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/\)](http://gateway.psb.ugent.be/).

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

Rose genetic transformation

Somatic embryo formation, multiplication, germination and plantlet formation

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

- Compact yellow embryogenic calli were then transferred and maintained on embryo induction medium (EIM) (Vergne et al. 2010). EIM consisted of MS medium containing zeatin (Duchefa Biochemie, ref: 015494.04) 4 mg/L. Embryogenic lines were maintained 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 191 transformation.
- Shoot regeneration was induced by subculturing well-developed secondary somatic embryos on shoot multiplication medium (SMM) consisting of Murashige and Skoog basal

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

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n acclimation chamber (16h/8h light at 22°C) before st

b rose (Formule Potecs Sub Big-Bag, ref 391796) in

llowing conditions: minimum air temperature maint

t 20 °C; 201 After rooting, the plantlets were transferred on motte fertiss[®] then maintained for one month in an acclimation chamber (16h/8h light at 22°C) before subculturing into substrate adapted to rose (Formule Potees Sub Big-Bag, ref 391796) in a S2 greenhouse in the general following conditions: minimum air temperature maintained at 18 °C, with an aeration at 20 °C; relative humidity maintained at 70% and no complementary lighting. 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 $(6^{\circ}C \pm 2^{\circ}C)$ for 6 weeks before being returned to the greenhouse until they flower at which stage, the samples are taken.

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Agrobacterium transformation

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

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

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

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

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* 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 $(21\pm2°C)$. Cultures were then transferred on EIM selection

in Hamama et al. (Hamama et al. 2019). Shoot rege
ng well-developed secondary somatic embryos on sho
nsisting of MS basal medium containing 30 g/L of suc
nopurine. Duchefa Biochemie. ref: B0904.0001). I
id every 3 weeks u 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 subcultured on fresh EIM selection medium every 3 weeks until the formation of vigorous 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 $(NH_4NO_3 9.4$ mM; $KNO_3 20.6$ mM). Each well-formed plantlet was identified and transferred on selection elongation medium before rooting, as described in Hamama et al. (Hamama et al. 2019). Shoot regeneration was induced by subculturing well-developed secondary somatic embryos on shoot multiplication medium (SMM) consisting of MS basal medium containing 30 g/L of sucrose and 3 mg/L BAP (6- 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 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 and GA3 (SIGMA, ref: 201-001-0) 0.1 mg/L (Hamama et al. 2019). For rooting, plantlets were transferred on half dilution MS medium free of growth regulator. All ingredients were added to the medium before autoclaving (at 113°C for 20 min). The pH was adjusted to 5.8.

242 After rooting, the plantlets were transferred on motte fertiss[®] then maintained for one month in an acclimation chamber (16h/8h light at 22°C) before subculturing into substrate 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 \pm 2 $^{\circ}$ C) for 6 weeks before being returned to 249 the greenhouse until they flower at which stage, the samples are taken. 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.

RNA extraction and qRT-PCR

 For RNA analysis, cutting of 3 independent transgenic events were grown for GS 271 (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 272 axillary buds were put under floral meristem on the plants after cold homogenization (see § Somatic embryo formation, multiplication, germination and plantlet formation) omitting 274 the buds at the base of the stem.

 Total RNAs were extracted from leaves and axillary buds using the NucleoSpin RNA Plus and RNA Plus XS kits, respectively (Macherey-Nagel, Düren, Germany). The absence of genomic DNA contamination was checked by PCR on total RNA. cDNAs were obtained by reverse transcription performed on 500 ng of total RNA using iScript Ready-to-use (Bio- Rad, Inc., Hercules, CA, USA). Real-time amplification (q-PCR) was performed with 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 (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.

Phenotypic analysis

ic analysis
measurements were obtained to monitor the effects
notype. The plants were grown in a confined greenhor
guilations) after *in vitro* multiplication and rooti:
and non-transgenic plants, we cultivated them until Several measurements were obtained to monitor the effects of the transgene on the plant phenotype. The plants were grown in a confined greenhouse (type 2 according to French regulations) after *in vitro* multiplication and rooting. To homogenize the 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 maintained in the greenhouse and gradually scored. The architectural data corresponded to the length and diameter of three to five floral stems, the length and number of 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 of flower development stage 4 described by Bergougnoux et al. (2007).

Statistical analyses

 All data were statistically analyzed with the R software package, version 4.0.3 (2020- 10-10) (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.

Results

RoFT gene family and phylogenetic analysis

precurrent blooming (Iwata et al. 2011), is not present

mull allele for this locus in the reference genome (H

s gene was included in the analysis. For the phyloge

is A. thaliana proteins from the PEBP family and annot
 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 (RC4G04226500, RC3G0419200, RC6G0343500, RC1G0537200, RC7G0018600, RC5G0373700). Note that one member of the family, i.e. *RoKSN* (HQ174211), the gene controlling recurrent blooming (Iwata et al. 2011), is not present in the reference genome as it has a *null* allele for this locus in the reference genome (Hibrand Saint-Oyant et al. 2018). This gene was included in the analysis. For the phylogenetic analysis, we added *Arabidopsis A. thaliana* proteins from the PEBP family and annotated proteins from *Malus 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 present, with RC5G0373700 and RoKSN as rose representatives respectively. RC5G0373700 was previously denominated *RoTFL1* (Remay et al. 2009), based on our new analysis we suggest renaming this gene *RoATCTFL1*. RC7G0018600 was a member of the MFT clade which contained a single gene of each species. Two rose proteins (RC6G0343500 and RC2G0537200) belonged to the BFT clade. Concerning theThe 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 in apple and peach and 3 in woodland strawberry. To go further in the *FT* analysis, we have performed a micro-synteny analysis (Fig. 1B and C). A clear micro-synteny can be demonstrated for the four genes (RC3G0419200, FvH4_6g00090.1, Prupe.6G364900.1 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*.

 These results are in agreement with a recent analysis of *FT* diversification in Rosaceae (Jiang et al. 2022).

Choice of RoFT gene for in planta study and transformation results

RoFT gene

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

 Fig. 1 PEBP family in rose (*R. chinensis*). **A.** Phylogenetic tree with the four clades (FT, TFL1, MFT and BFT). The protein sequences were obtained from the GDR website (<https://www.rosaceae.org/tools/jbrowse>) for rose (*Rosa chinensis* Genome v1.0), *Fragaria vesca (F. vesca Genome v4.0), Malus domestica (Malus x domestica* GDDH13 v1.1) and *Prunus persica* (*Prunus persica* Genome v2.0.a1). For the other proteins, the references are: RoKSN(HQ174211), FT (AT1G65480), TSF (AT4G20370), TFL1 (AT5G03840), ATC (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 $>$ 80 (out of 100). Rose proteins are underlined in red. **B**. and **C.** Microsynteny analysis for the FT proteins within the FT clades. The synteny analysis was performed using the syntenyviewer tools from GDR (https://www.rosaceae.org/synview/search). The syntenic blocks are described in Table S1. No microsynteny was found for FvH4_3g09870.1

Transformation results

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ferent genotype for the *RoKSN* gene. GS has three
 The genetic transformation was performed on two genotypes *Rosa* DELdog 'Pimprenelle®' (PIMP)*,* and *Rosa* DELtrimen *'*Guy Savoy®' (GS). A flow cytometry study showed that both these genotypes are tetraploid (2n=4X) (data not shownFig. S1) and have a different genotype for the *RoKSN* gene. GS has three alleles corresponding to *RoKSNcopia* , *RoKSNG181* and *RoKSN*null alleles while PIMP has only *RoKSNcopia* and *RoKSNG181* alleles (Fig. S2). The *RoKSN* alleles were denominated according to Soufflet-395 Freslon et al. (2021). Both genotypes are described as continuous-flowering. Somatic embryo clusters were used as target tissues (Fig. 2A) for genetic transformation of PIMP and GS. The time to obtain transformed and regenerated *in vitro* cultured plants was around a year corresponding to embryo germination (Fig. 2B to 2F) (or regeneration of plants emerging from embryos), multiplication and rooting (Fig. 2G-H). The transgene 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 enabled amplification of the endogenous gene and the transgene with different PCR 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 transformation events and chose a limited number of regenerants for the experiments. Ten and four events were thus transferred to the greenhouse and studied in detail for GS and PIMP, respectively.

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).

Rosa DELdog Pimprenelle® genotype regenerated
the medium. G-H) *in vitro* rooted and blooming trans
imprenelle® and *Rosa* DELtrimen Guy Savoy®. I-
le® genotype regenerated transformed plantlets und
RT-PCR was used to d **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 (J). K-L) qRT-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* 456 DELdog Pimprenelle®. Results were expressed as mean of technical replicates \pm SD 457 $(n=3)$.

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Flowering datetime

460 Concerning the flowering date time (Fig. 3) for GS genotype, 9 out of 10 transgenic 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 464 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

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

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

I numbers, we observed a significant decrease in the those seven transgenic plants.

Le four transformed PIMP *RoFT* events, we found the petal and state perfected (Fig. 4B and Table S2) the petal and state is the number 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.

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 494 the stem diameter, nN differences in stem diameter were observed between transgenic and non-transgenic plants in all genotypes and events (data not shown).

 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). For the other events, the shoot size was significantly lower (10-31 cm) than in NT plants (38-70 cm). Moreover, the number of internodes in these events was lower (4-10) compared to 11-16 for NT plants. These observations were correlated with the earlier flowering dates times of these events (Fig. 5 and Table S2), except for the C5.1 event. Concerning the mean internode number, no major differences were noted, except for one 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).

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

**= 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® 545 (A), *Rosa* DELdog Pimprenelle® (B). The mean of the number of petals (Petal), stamens (Stamen), carpels (Carpel) and the mean of total 546 number of floral organs (Total FO) are indicated. The number of counted flower 546 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], B1.2[8], 547 B1.3[13], C3.1[9], C3.2[25], C5.1[5], C6.1[10], C6.2[10] and for PIMP 547 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]. *=
548 *statistically significant difference from Tukey's multiple comparison test (Table statistically significant difference from Tukey's multiple comparison test (Table S3).*

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

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 580 GS and 8.1 1.1, 8.1 1.2 and 8.2 4.1 for PIMP.

L₁.1, 8.1₁.2 and 8.2₁.4.1 for PIMP.

of these events were chosen because they presented

is such as the shoot size for GS₁C3.1 and the flowerd mand the floral organ number (e.g. carpels for 8.2₁4.1)

onts. For a Some of these events were chosen because they presented extremes in phenotypic 582 characters such as the shoot size for GS C3.1 and the flowering date time delay for 583 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.

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

 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,* 636 *RoAP3_euB3, RoAG-C1, RoAG-D1 and RoFT, RoSOC1, RoFF(AP1/FRUITFULL), RoKSN, RoATC, RoFD, ROLFY*) in buds of
637 transgenic (in grey) and non-transgenic (NT in white) *Rosa* DELtrimen Guy Savoy® plants. Results were exp transgenic (in grey) and non-transgenic (NT in white) *Rosa* DELtrimen Guy Savoy® plants. Results were expressed as mean of technical 638 replicates \pm SD ($n = 3$).

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 Fig. 7 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* DELdog Pimprenelle® plants. Results were expressed as mean of technical 673 replicates \pm SD ($n = 3$).

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).

Seven member genes of the rose PEBP family

PEBP members and grouped them in four clades (FT, T
uning at least one *Arabidopsis* PEBP gene. In contras
ee clades (FT, TFL1 and MFT) in 24 PEBP genes in j
within the FT clade (RC3G0419200 and RC4G04226
ssomes 3 and 4 (H In this study, we analysed the PEPB family in the rose genome and characterized the seven PEBP members and grouped them in four clades (FT, TFL1, MFT and BFT), with each containing at least one *Arabidopsis* PEBP gene. In contrast, Zhao et al. (2020) only found three clades (FT, TFL1 and MFT) in 24 PEBP genes in pear. There are two rose members within the FT clade (RC3G0419200 and RC4G04226500, respectively located on chromosomes 3 and 4 (Hibrand Saint-Oyant et al. 2018)), which correspond to the FvFT1 and FvFT2 respectively (phylogenetic and micro-synteny analysis). We selected the FT member RC4G04226500 based on the findings of previous studies that highlighted a correlation of this gene with different flowering and architecture QTLs (Iwata et al. 2011; Li-Marchetti et al. 2017; Remay et al. 2009). This gene was previously found to be a floral activator based on its overexpression in *Arabidopsis thaliana*, with an early flowering phenotype, (Otagaki et al. 2015; Randoux et al. 2014). We decided to study the function of this *FT* homologue by producing rose that ectopically expressed this gene. We have characterized the transgenic plants at the phenotypic and molecular level.

High variability in the rose transformation process

 In many studies, FT was functionally validated in a heterologous recipient system such as *Arabidopsis thaliana*, which favours easy and quick genetic transformation (Koembuoy et al. 2020; Tanaka et al. 2014; Zhang et al. 2010; Zhi-Yi et al. 2020). The RoFT homologue studied in this study has been previously demonstrated to be a floral activator in rose by complement of a *ft* mutant in *Arabidopsis* (Randoux et al. 2014). In this study, we decided to focus on rose for genetic transformation as this process is generally long and inefficient. Rose is considered to be recalcitrant to regeneration (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 706 transformed in most of these studies.

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 711 between and within the two genotypes.

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St, we observed a difference in *RoFT* transcript accepts between events and genotypes, and between leaves a

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

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

FT homologue overexpression in rose leads to early flowering

 In both PIMP and GS genotypes (except for C5.1, see below), we observed early flowering in transgenic roses (Fig. 3). In some cases, flowers were also observed under *in vitro* conditions. This phenotype was expected as FT is known to be a major floral activator (Kinoshita and Richter 2020) and similar results have also been obtained in other woody plants (Bohlenius et al. 2006; Hsu et al. 2006; Klocko et al. 2016; Tanaka et al. 2014; Wenzel et al. 2013). The ectopic expression of the orthologous gene in *F. vesca, FvH4- 4g30710.1/ FvFT2*, is also responsible of precocious flowering and dwarf plants (Gaston et al. 2021). The early flowering phenotype featured shorter shoots and fewer internodes,

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

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

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

on of *RoAG* genes without any phenotype linked to thi
RoFT targets were upregulated and we noted upregulas
s class B gene is still unclear, but Hibino et al. (200
volved in petal and stamen development, and in our s
th th organs, but both genotypes responded differently. In GS, seven out of the ten studied transgenic plants presented fewer stamens and carpels, yet the petal and sepal numbers were not affected (Fig. 4). Consequently, the total number of floral organs decreased in these transgenic plants, suggesting mitotic rather than homeotic conversion. The A2.1 event did not show any differences in the number of floral organs compared to NT plants and, despite the presence of *RoFT* in buds, and except for *RoLFY*, *RoFT* targets were weakly upregulated (*RoAP1, RoAP1CAUL, RoFF*). In this event, we also observed upregulation of *RoAG* genes without any phenotype linked to this activation. For the C3.1 event, all RoFT targets were upregulated and we noted upregulation of RoAP3_euB3. The role of this class B gene is still unclear, but Hibino et al. (2006) hypothesized that this 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 *RoATC* and *RoKSN* (a TFL1-like gene family (Iwata et al. 2011)).

 In PIMP, we observed more petals and fewer stamens in all of the transgenic plants. The number of sepals and carpels was not modified. Furthermore, the total number of floral organs was similar between transgenic and NT plants, suggesting that the stamens were in the process of converting into petals. This homeotic conversion has already been observed in rose, and is associated with the mis-regulation of ABCE model genes (Dubois et al. 2011). In such a scenario, it could be expected that A type genes would be more expressed while C type genes would be less expressed, leading to more petals and less stamens. However, we did not observe any significant variations in A class genes (*AP2*) or C class genes (*AG*). Only class B gene transcripts (AP3_B3) were more accumulated. In pear, citrus *FT* overexpression induces a modification in the number of floral organs, while there is an increase in petal number in some events (Matsuda et al. 2009). Similarly, Tanaka et al. (2014) showed that *AtFT* transgenic apple lines contained more petals and fewer stamens than non-transformed apple cultivars, as was observed in the PIMP genotype. These lines feature LEAFY ortholog upregulation, which might affect the floral organ number and shape (Mimida et al. 2011).

 In this study, we were able to transform two rose genotypes and showed that *RoFT* may have 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.

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

notic (https://doi.org/10.17180/YKBZ-2V85) team for jet also the Biological Resource Center ance) for managing the rose genetic resources and the uck, Alexandre Rouinsard, Corentin Chateau, Safator their *in vitro* culture **Acknowledgements** The authors thank Christine Boursier and Rémi Gardet and the IRHS-Phenotic (<https://doi.org/10.17180/YKBZ-2V85>) team for plant management in the greenhouse. We acknowledge the Biological Resource Center (Pome Fruits and Roses, Angers, France) for managing the rose genetic resources and the students Colyne Angelin, Helene Duck, Alexandre Rouinsard, Corentin Chateau, Safae Ouchetto and Wassim Ouchetto for their *in vitro* culture technical assistance. We are also thankful to Fabienne Simmoneau and Aurelia Roland (IMAC from SFR Quasav) for their help with the microscopic analyses. We acknowledge David Manley for proofreading the English in this manuscript.

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

- **Data available on request** The data underlying this article will be shared on reasonable
- 817 request to the corresponding author.
- **Declaration of interest** The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest
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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 *RoKSNcopia* (31) *, RoKSN^{null}* (33)*, RoKSN*^{*A181*} and *RoKSNG*¹⁸¹ (34). GS is *RoKSN^{null}* / *RoKSNcopia* whereas PIMP is *RoKSNcopia* / *RoKSNG181*. The presence of the *RoKSNG181* allele in GS is explained by the presence of the G at position 181 in the *RoKSNcopia* allele.

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Photo A

Photos B and C

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Photos D and E

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Photos I and J

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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*

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Table S2. Primers used for PCR and qRT-PCR analyses.

RC number corresponds to the number of gene annotation in Hibrand-sain

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primers sequence for real time amplification

anuscript CAGCTCGACCTTACTCTCG CTACAAGCTAGTGCACTTAGC GGGAGAAGGAGAAGGAGAAAGCAG AAGGCGGCAGGAGCGTATTAC TGGAGCGATATGAACAATAC GACCAGTTTCCCTGTGATTC CCACTTTTCACCATCGTTCACC 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 \textsf{I} plants.

FO: floral organs, NbIN : number of internodes
Guy Savoy Pimprenelle Pimprenelle

Date of floweringDate of flowering

Guy Savoy

Pimprenelle

Petal Stamen Carpel Total

Guy Savoy

shootsize NbIN MeanSizeIN

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Pimprenelle

shootsize NbIN MeanSizeIN

Guy Savoy Pimprenelle
PlantSize PlantSize **PlantSize PlantSize**

transformed $\text{He} \,\circledR$. the grey color indicates the RT

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

 $\overline{\mathsf{d}}$

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

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

B

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try of the controls of tetraploid genotype (*Rosa hybrida* 'Black Baccara'®), diploid genotype (*Rosa chinensis* 'Old Blush'), g 'Pimprenelle'[®]) and

