# Characterization of *FLOWERING LOCUS T* related genes and their putative gene regulatory network in semi-winter *Brassica napus* cultivar Zhongshaung11

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# Summary

Flowering time is a crucial phenological trait with a direct influence on biomass and seed yield of crop plants. In many plant species, *FLOWERING LOCUS T* (*FT*)-like genes promote transition to flowering by integrating environmental signals, in particular photoperiod, and internal cues.

- *Brassica napus* contains eight *FT*-like genes, of which four are orthologs of *FT*, one functional and two pseudogenes belong to an Brassicacae linage II-specific and one gene to a Brassica C-genome-specific orthogroup.
- All six extant *FT*-like genes induce early flowering in *ft* mutant background if expressed at the shoot apex, but only three orthologs are fully functional as mobile florigens.
- BnaFT.C6 was not fully functional al mobile florigen. A change of the last amino-acid from threonine to cysteine contributes to the reduced function and is private to a subset of semi-winter accessions

- Both distal enhancers of *FT* were found at all four syntenic genes in *B. napus*; however, homeologs *BnaFT.A7* and *BnaFT.C6* showed rearrangements of DNA-motifs binding NF-Y/CO and NF-Y transcription activator complexes between the proximal promoter and the downstream enhancer Block E.
- Homeologs with rearranged motifs could not be trans-activated by *B. napus* CO in transient reporter assays
- All *FT* orthologs were dependent on long day photoperiod and vernalization. Homeologs with rearranged and canonical motif arrangement showed higher transcript levels in vegetative and paraclade leaves, respectively
- Diurnal transcriptome data of leaves from *B. napus* plants grown in SD and LD photoperiod indicate that a large group of NF-Y encoding genes show a peak of expression in the critical phase between ZT12 and ZT16, exclusively in LD.

In sum, *B. napus* photoperiod dependent regulation of *FT*-like genes is a case study for the consequence of gene duplications, indicating gene retraction through loss-of-function, homeolog retention partially explained by differences transcriptional regulation and possibly variation between cultivated varieties due to changes in protein function.

Key words: FLOWERING LOCUS T, *Brassica napus*, flowering time, transcriptional regulation, CONSTANS, NF-Y

# Introduction

Flowering is an important growth stage in plants with direct impact on biomass, survival and seed production and hence crucial for crop yield. Flowering is promoted by environmental and developmental signals in angiosperms and based on observations made in the model plant *Arabidopsis thaliana,* the underlying flowering promoting pathways have been categorised as the vernalization, photoperiod, autonomous, gibberellin (GA) and age pathways (Andrés & Coupland, 2012; Teotia & Tang, 2015). A major integrator of flowering cues in *A. thaliana* is *FLOWERING LOCUS T* (*FT*), which plays a pivotal role in the photoperiod pathway but also senses cues from other pathways (Bratzel & Turck, 2015; Takagi *et al.*, 2023). FT acts as a mobile florigen, as it is transcribed in the phloem companion cells of leaves in response to a long day (LD) photoperiod. This subsequently allows FT protein to move as a protein through sieve elements to the shoot apical meristem (SAM), where it associates with the transcription factor FLOWERING LOCUS D (FD). The FT/FD complex directly promotes the expression of genes that switch the developmental program of the SAM from vegetative to reproductive growth (Abe *et al.*, 2005; Wigge *et al.*, 2005; Jaeger & Wigge, 2007).

*FT*-like genes were shown to promote flowering in many plant species; furthermore, as mobile signals they can also impact inflorescence commitment and architecture, shoot branching, storage organ formation and seed dormancy, underscoring their importance for plant fitness (Jin *et al.*, 2021a). Many plant species show *FT*-like gene expansion, such as the *FT* paralog *TWIN SISTER OF FT* (*TSF*) in *A. thaliana*, which has diversified in expression but not protein function (Yamaguchi *et al.*, 2005). Functional diversification of paralogs has also been reported; for example, *BvFT2* and *BvFT1* in *Beta vulgaris* (sugar beet) respectively activate and repress flowering, which is crucial to integrate vernalization to flowering regulation in this species (Pin *et al.*, 2010).

Research on the transcriptional regulatory mechanisms of *FT* uncovered a network of activating and repressing transcription factors, epigenetic regulators and cis-acting regulatory elements (Bratzel & Turck, 2015; Takagi *et al.*, 2023). *FT* activation in LD requires the combined input of the proximal promoter and two distal transcriptional enhancers, located at 5.7-kb and 1.6-kb distance up- and down-stream of the structural gene, respectively (Adrian *et al.*, 2010; Tiwari *et al.*, 2010; Cao *et al.*, 2014; Liu *et al.*, 2014; Zicola *et al.*, 2019). *FT* regulatory regions recruit related protein complexes: the canonical ternary eukaryotic CCAAT box binding factors (CBF), also known as NF-Y complexes and related plant-specific NF-Y/CO complexes. NF-Y complexes bind CCAAT motifs and are composed of one of each NF-YB, NF-YC and NF-YA subunits.

In NF-Y/CO complexes, the NF-YA component is replaced with the plant-specific CONSTANS, CONSTANS-like, TOC1 (CCT) domain protein CONSTANS (CO). CCT domains exhibit structural similarity to NF-YA, yet demonstrate direct, high-affinity binding to CCACA in lieu of CCAAT motifs (Wenkel *et al.*, 2006; Gnesutta *et al.*, 2017; Lv *et al.*, 2021).

Photoperiod regulation in plants involves transcriptional and post-transcriptional control of CO. Transcriptional control includes the degradation of CO's repressors, such as CYCLIC DOF FACTOR 1-LIKE (CDFs), by a blue light receptor complex that contains FKF1 and GIGANTEA (GI) (Imaizumi *et al.*, 2005; Sawa *et al.*, 2007; Fornara *et al.*, 2009). CO transcription is repressed in the morning and activated in the late afternoon. CO protein decreases in the night due to CONSTITUTIVE PHOTOMORPHOGENESIS 1 (COP1) and SUPPRESSOR OF PHYA-105 (SPA) 1-4 proteins (Laubinger *et al.*, 2006; Jang *et al.*, 2008), while photoreceptors regulate CO stability throughout the day (Yanovsky & Kay, 2002; Valverde *et al.*, 2004; Posé *et al.*, 2013). This regulation allows CO protein to accumulate at dusk under LD but not short day (SD) photoperiod. Additionally, other transcription factors like PHYTOCHROME INTERACTING FACTORs (PIFs) and CRYPTOCHROME 2-INTERACTING bHLH (CIB) proteins modulate *FT* expression in response to light and temperature (Kumar *et al.*, 2012; Liu *et al.*, 2013, 2018; Fernández *et al.*, 2016; Galvão *et al.*, 2019).

A strong motivation for in-depth studies in genetic model organisms is the potential for translational application to crops. While key pathway integrators are mostly conserved, how these are embedded in gene regulatory networks can diverge even between closely related species. The Brassica genus includes important crops, which diverged from *A. thaliana* 27 million years ago. The genus underwent a genome triplication and differentiated three lineages, designated as type A, B and C genomes (Kagale *et al.*, 2014). Detailed comparison of synteny between and within these genomes revealed the presence of a least fragmented (LF) genome and two genomes that were mildly (MF1) or mostly fragmented (MF2) with rearrangements often resulting in gene loss (Parkin *et al.*, 2005; Cheng *et al.*, 2013). Hybrids between Brassica lineages were strongly favoured by early farmers in their selection of crops. The most important, *Brassica napus* (AACC, 2n=38) is mostly grown as oilseed rape (canola) and originated around 7,500 years ago through hybridization between the diploid progenitors *Brassica rapa* (AA, 2n=20) and *Brassica oleracea* (CC, 2n=18), probably in the Mediterranean region (Chalhoub, 2014; Wu *et al.*, 2019; Lu *et al.*, 2019). The global *B. napus* gene pool has undergone several post-domestication ecogeographic radiations, which provided the origin of three cultivars according to their vernalization requirements (Zou *et al.*, 2019). Winter rapeseed is mainly found in Europe

and requires a prolonged period of low temperatures to transit from vegetative to reproductive growth; semi-winter rapeseed, mainly produced in China, can initiate flowering after a shorter vernalization period; and spring rapeseed, which presents a wide distribution in Northern Europe, Canada, and Australia, can flower and reproduce without vernalization.

Previous studies have shown that gene groups involved in flowering regulation in *A. thaliana* show both expansion and retraction in *B. napus*, indicating that purifying and diversifying selection takes place. In the case of *FT*, six or seven homologs were identified, depending on study and genetic background (Schiessl *et al.*, 2014; Schiessl, 2020). Notably, silencing of a *FT* syntenic *B. napus* gene on chromosome C02 (*BnaFT.C2*) coincided with two TE insertions between the proximal promoter and consequent high levels of cytosine methylation in TE sequences within proximal promoter region (Wang *et al.*, 2012a). Three *BnaFT* paralogues, designated as *BnaA2.FT*, *BnaC6.FT.a* and *BnaC6.FT.b* were associated with two major QTL clusters for flowering time, in a mapping population from the cross of the winter-type cultivar Tapidor and the semi-winter cultivar NY7 (Wang *et al.*, 2009). Analysis of selective sweeps between spring, semi-winter and winter ecotypes, and GWAS for flowering time confirmed that *BnaFT.A2* (*BnaA02g12130D*) is significantly associated with flowering-time variation (Wu *et al.*, 2019). In addition, EMS-induced mutant alleles of *BnaC6.FT.b* exhibited delayed flowering compared to the control group, while mutants of *BnaC6.FT.a* exhibited flowering patterns akin to the non-mutated parent in winter-type inbred line Express 617 (Guo *et al.*, 2014). Furthermore, loss-of-function mutants in Westar and RNAi lines in Tapidor of *BnaFT*.A2 have smaller leaves, a lower net photosynthetic rate, as well as a substantial delay in flowering time compared to their parents (Jin *et al.*, 2022).

Here we present a comparative analysis of six *FT*-like genes encoded by the semi-winter *B. napus* cultivar Zhongshaung11 (ZS11).

# Materials and Methods

### Plant material and growth conditions

*A. thaliana* accession Columbia (Col-0) and the *ft-10* T-DNA insertion mutant (GABI-Kat line 290E08) were cultivated in a temperature-controlled greenhouse in LD photoperiod (20-24°C, 16h light/8h dark) on soil. *B. napus* cultivar ZS11 plants were grown in the greenhouse (20-24°C) for the collection of tissues from different growth stages and in growth chambers (CLF Plant Climatics, AR-95L3X, 60% light intensity (12570 LUX), 75% relative humidity. 22°C) under LD (16 h light /8 h dark) or SD (8 h light /16 h dark) for the collection of leaf material

146   for diurnal transcriptomes. For vernalization, plants were moved to vernalization rooms (4°C,

147   SD).

**Identification of *BnaFT* and *NF-Y* homologs in *B. napus***

Synteny analysis was performed using the MCscan algorithm (Wang *et al.*, 2012b) as

implemented in the JCVI toolkit (Tang *et al.*, 2024). Genome sequences and genome annotations

for *B. napus* (ZS11.v0) and *Brassica oleracea* var capitata (JZS.v2) (BnPIR;

http://cbi.hzau.edu.cn/bnapus)        (Song *et al.*, 2020),        *Brassica        rapa        Z1_v2*

(https://www.genoscope.cns.fr/externe/plants/data/), *Schrenkiella parvula* v2.2 (Phytozome13;

https://phytozome-next.jgi.doe.gov/) and *A. thaliana* Col-0 Araport11 (TAIR;

https://www.arabidopsis.org/) were downloaded from the indicated sources. Amino acid

sequences of annotated proteins were generated using the scripts of the JCVI toolkit and blasted

all against all using the LAST algorithm (Kiełbasa *et al.*, 2011). To identify syntenic genes, 6

iterations of comparing all genomes against the *A. thaliana* and *S. parvula* genomes by MCscan

were performed.

Homologs of FT (AT1G65480) (Supplemental Table 1) and NF-Y proteins (Supplemental

Table 2) in *B. napus* var ZS11 were identified using screen criteria of E-value $\leq$ 1.0E-20,

coverage $\geq$ 95%, identity $\geq$ 80%. *FT*-like pseudogenes were identified by relaxing the coverage

criteria. To include them in the alignment, frameshift mutations and stop codons were corrected

according to the output of the Scipio webtool (Hatje *et al.*, 2011). To construct a phylogenetic tree

of FT-like proteins, full length protein sequences of FT, TSF, TFL1, BFT and MFT from *A.*

*thaliana* were obtained from TAIR database (https://www.*arabidopsis*.org/). Protein

alignments were performed with ClustalW and a 60% majority-rule consensus tree was

constructed from a bootstrapped (n=1000) neighbor joining (NJ) using MEGA11 (Tamura *et al.*,

2021). NF-Y proteins were aligned and visually curated with ClustalW. An maximum-

likelihood phylogenetic tree was generated that included *A.thaliana* and *B.napus* homologs of

all three NF-Y families for overview.

**mVISTA analysis**

173   Genomic sequences including upstream and downstream sequences up to the next flanking

174   genes        were        submitted        to        the        mVISTA        webtool        for        alignment

175   (https://genome.lbl.gov/vista/mvista/submit.shtml).

**Annotation of cis-regulatory motifs at conserved regulatory regions**

177   Sequences identified as aligning to conserved Blocks C, A and E were extracted and re-aligned

178   using ClustalW in MEGA11 (Tamura *et al.*, 2021). Motifs were annotated and plotted using

179   custom scripts in R.

**Plasmids construction for complementation and transient expression**

The vector *(C+A)-FTpromoter(FTp)-FTcDNA-pGreen* and transgenic *(C+A)-FTp-FTcDNA-*

*pGreen/ft-10* plants were described previously (Liu *et al.*, 2014). Full length coding sequences of

*BnaFT.A2*, *BnaFT.C2*, *BnaFT.A7*, *BnaFT.C6*, *BnaNFT.A7*, and *BnaCFT.C4* were amplified

from ZS11 cDNA using primer pairs as indicated in Supplemental Table 2. PCR products were

introduced into *(C+A)-FTp-FTcDNA-pGreen* (Liu *et al.*, 2014) via *Hind*III and *Sac*I restriction

enzyme sites to replace the original *FT* CDS on the backbone using NEBuilder® HiFi DNA

Assembly Master Mix according manufacturer's instructions (NEB, Frankfurt, Germany).

For expression of *FT*-like genes at the shoot apex, the vector *FDp-FD-3xVENUS-pER8* was

used as backbone.  Full-length coding sequences were amplified with two rounds of PCR to

add an N-terminal HA-epitope to the full-length sequence using primers as indicated in

Supplemental Table 3. Similarly, the mutant versions of *BnaFT.A7* and *BnaFT.C6*, namely

*BnaFT.A7*m and *BnaFT.C6*m, were amplified using vectors *(C+A)-FTp-BnaFT.A7-pGreen* and

*(C+A)-FTp-BnaFT.C6-pGreen* as the templates. The final PCR products were inserted into

vector backbone FDprom-FD3V-pER8 using *Xho*I restriction enzyme sites using NEBuilder®

HiFi DNA Assembly Master Mix.

For luciferase (LUC)  reporter vectors, a cassette containing the *CaMV 35S* promoter (*35Sp*)

and *Renilla Luciferase (RLUC)* was inserted into *BlockA-FTp-LUC68-pGreen* (Adrian *et al.*,

2010) via *Eco*RI restriction enzyme sites using Gibson assembly. Promoters of *BnaFT.A2*,

*BnaFT.A7*, *BnaFT.C6* were amplified from ZS11 gDNA using primer pairs listed in

Supplementary Table 3 and introduced via *Sca*I and *Nco*I restriction enzyme sites to replace the

*Block A FT* promoter using Gibson assembly. For effector vectors, the cassettes *35Sp-*

*BnaCO.A10* and *35Sp-BnaCO.C9* were introduced into the vector *BlockA-FTp-LUC68-pGreen*

via restriction enzyme sites *Sca*I and *Sac*I using Gibson assembly, to replace Block *FTp-*

*LUC68*. For transient LUC reporter assays, the vectors *35Sp-LUC68-pGreen* and *35Sp-H2B-*

*pGreen* were used as positive and negative controls, respectively.

**Plant transformation**

207   Plasmids were introduced into *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* strain GV3101(pSoup) to transform

208   *ft-10* by floral dipping (Clough & Bent, 1998). Transformants were selected on soil by applying

209   Basta (glufosinate) spray (0.1%) twice for the vectors using *(C+A)-FTp-FTcDNA-pGreen* and

on plates supplemented with hygromycin (50 mg/L) for the vectors using *FDp-FD3V-pER8* as the backbone.

**Tobacco infiltration and luciferase assay**

The cell suspension of *A. tumefaciens* GV3101(pSoup) strain carrying the plasmids of interest was mixed according to the experimental design and then infiltrated into the underside of the *N. benthamiana* leaves as described (Sparkes *et al.*, 2006) with the following adjustments: 10 mM MES and 40 µM acetosyringone were added to the *A. tumefaciens* culture, which was then incubated overnight at 28°C. The culture was then centrifuged at 4,000 *g* for 15 min and the supernatant was replaced with the infiltration medium. *A. tumefaciens* culture was then placed at room temperature for at least 3 h before being used for infiltration. At 48 h after infiltration, infiltrated *N. benthamiana* leaves were excised and sprayed with triple-diluted Luciferase Assay Reagent (Promega E1500). Fluorescence signal images were taken at least 10 min later with the ChemiDoc Imaging System (Bio-Rad). If signals were observed, the infiltrated leaf spots were sampled with a punch and transferred into 1.5-mL Eppendorf tubes containing magnetic beads (the diameter of 0.32 cm). The samples were snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen and were stored at -80°C for subsequent signal quantification. Frozen samples were ground with the TissueLyser II (QIAGEN) for 1 min at 30 Hz. Then, 150 µL of 1× lysis reagent (Promega E1500) was added to the sample, which was mixed and then centrifuged at full speed with a bench-top 5427 R centrifuge (Eppendorf) for 1 min. A 60 µL portion of the supernatant was transferred to a 96-well plate. An equivalent volume (60 µL) of Dual-Glo® Luciferase Reagent (Promega E2920) was added to each well and mixed with the sample. After at least 10 min, the firefly luminescence was measured using a multimode reader TriStar² LB 942 (BERTHOLD). The same volume of 60 µL oDual-Glo® Stop & Glo® Reagent (Promega E2920) was added to each well and mixed with the sample. At least 10 min later, the RLUC luminescence was quantified using the same luminescence reader.

**RNA extraction, reverse transcription and quantitative reverse transcribed-PCR (qRT-PCR)**

For the analysis of tissue-specific expression, *B. napus* cultivar ZS11 were cultivated for 4 weeks at 22°C in the greenhouse under LD condition, vernalization for 4 weeks at 4°C in SD, and transferred back to the LD greenhouse. Throughout the developmental progression, sequential samplings of three biological replicates occurred at Zeitgeber time 12 (ZT12). Root and leaf 6 were sampled prior to vernalization, leaf 8, paraclade leaf, floral bud, flower and

siliques were sampled after vernalization. Material from leaf 8 was also sampled from non-vernalized plants.

For diurnal expression analysis, ZS11 was cultivated for four weeks in separate LD or SD growth chambers, followed by an intervening vernalization period of 4 weeks, after which plants were transferred back to the LD or SD chambers, respectively. Leaf 6 was sampled just before plants were transferred to the vernalization and leaf 8 was harvested one week after transfer to LD or SD chambers at 22°C. Biological triplicates were sampled every 4 hours for 24 hours.

Total RNA was extracted using the RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen, Cat. no. 74104) following manufacturer's instructions. For each sample, 4 µg of total RNA was treated with DNA-free[TM] Kit (Invitrogen, REF AM1906), and cDNA synthesis was performed with Superscript[TM] IV reverse transcriptase kit (Invitrogen, REF18090050) following manufacturer's instructions. qRT-PCR was conducted in three technical replicates for each biological replicate using the Bio-Rad CFX384[TM] system (Bio-Rad), technical replicates are shown as median value.

The expression levels of *BnaFT.A2*, *BnaFT.C2*, *BnaFT.A7*, *BnaFT.C6*, *BnaNTF.A7*, *BnaCTF.C4*, *BnaCO.A10*, *BnaCO.C9* and *BnaENTH* were tested with gene-specific primer pairs that are listed in Supplemental table 3. Standard curves of each pair of primers were obtained through PCR using gradient-diluted ZS11 genome DNA as the template and Ct values were adjusted using amplification efficiencies prior to using the -ddCt method. The *BnaENTH* gene was used to correct for differences in cDNA concentration, a dilution of genomic DNA was used as common scale for all genes.

**Generation and analysis of RNAseq data**

Total RNA from three biological replicates of leaf 8 from 24 h time-courses of vernalized *B. napus* var ZS11 plants grown in LD and SD were sent to BGI (Hongkong, China) for library preparation and sequencing using the DNBSEQ platform. Reads were aligned to the reference transcriptome using STAR version 2.7.10b (Dobin *et al.*, 2013) and gene expression was quantified as transcript per million (TPM) using RSEM version 1.3.3 (Li & Dewey, 2011). Diurnally expressed genes were identified using Bioconductor R libraries DESeq2 (Dobin *et al.*, 2013) and RAIN (Thaben & Westermark, 2014).

# Results

**The *B. napus* genome carries four functional *FT* orthologous and two *FT* paralogous genes**

A protein similarity search against a high-quality assembly of *B. napus* semi-winter cultivar ZS11 (Song *et al.*, 2020) detected eight FT homologs with identity scores above 81%, of which two were annotated as homologs of TSF but covered the query sequence only partially (Supplemental Table 1). A query of the genomic sequence with the Scipio webtool (Hatje *et al.*, 2011) confirmed the presence of six complete *FT*-like genes while proteins showing an incomplete overlap are likely pseudo-genes due to presence of frame shifts and/or non-canonical introns in the predicted coding sequence (Supplemental Table 3, Supplemental Figure 1).

We compared the linearity of lastal hits between *A. thaliana, S. paruvla*, and *B. napus* genomes using the MCscan toolkit (Tang *et al.*, 2008). *S. parvula* is a diploid representative of the Brassicacea lineage II, which includes the genus Brassica. The analysis confirmed that four *FT* syntenic genes are located on chromosomes A02, C02, A07, and C06 (Wang *et al.*, 2009) (Figure 1A, Supplemental Data 1). A *TSF* ortholog was present in *S. parvula* but missing at the corresponding syntenic blocks in *B. napus*, indicating gene loss in the genus Brassica rather than a lineage I specific duplication (Figure 1B). On the other hand, *S. paruvla* and *B. napus* featured an *FT*-like gene at a novel syntenic position on chromosome A07, for which no correspondence could be found in *A. thaliana* (Figure 1C). This gene is a homeolog of both *FT*-like pseudogenes. We propose the name *NEW SISTERS OF FT AND TSF* (*NFT*) to distinguish them from *FT* or *TSF* orthologous genes. *BnaFT.A7*/*BnaNFT.A7* and *BnaFT.C6*/Pseudo-*BnaNFT.C6* are located near a region showing a large inverted duplication in Chromosomes A07/C06 (Parkin *et al.*, 2005); however juxtaposition with the *FT* and *NFT* syntenic segments showed that the *FT* gene is situated at the margin of the original syntenic fragment, narrowly avoiding the duplication (Supplemental Figure 2). A sixth functional *FT*-like gene was located on chromosome C04 at a position unique to *B. napus* and the C-genome parent *B. oleracea*, but absent from *B. rapa*, *S. parvula* and *A. thaliana* (Figure 1D). We propose the name *C-GENOME SISTER OF FT AND TSF* (*CFT*) for this gene.

A bootstrapped neighbour-joining phylogenetic tree was constructed from the alignment of six functional FT-like proteins, two frame-corrected pseudogenes and FT homologs from *B. rapa*, *B. oleracea*, *S. parvula*, *A. lyrata* and *A.thaliana*. TERMINAL FLOWER 1 (TFL1), BROTHER OF FT AND TFL1 (BFT) and MOTHER OF FT AND TFL1 (MFT) were added as outgroups (Figure 1E). In this tree, TSF/*Al*TSF clustered together with TSF from *S. parvula* and NFT/CFT proteins indicating a more recent duplication history for non-*FT* orthologs (Figure 1A).

**Six extant *B. napus FT* homologs show divergence in their potential to act as mobile florigen**

To elucidate the potential of FT-like proteins from *B. napus* to act as mobile florigen, the corresponding cDNAs were stably transformed into the *A. thaliana ft-10* mutant under the control of a modified *FT* promoter (*(C+A)-FTp*) that was previously shown to express transgenes in phloem companion cells similar to endogenous *FT* in LD photoperiod (Figure 2A) (Liu *et al.*, 2014). *B. napus* genes formed two distinct complementation groups (Figure 2B). *BnaFT.A2*, *BnaFT.A7* and *BnaFT.C2* complemented *ft-10* with delay of 5 to 10 leaves compared to the *FT* control line. Conversely, *BnaNFT/BnaCFT* and *BnaFT.C6* transgenic lines flowered almost as late as *ft-10*. When *B. napus FT*-like genes were expressed directly in the SAM under the control of the *FD* promoter (*FDp*) (Figure 2A) (Abe *et al.*, 2005), independent T1 lines expressing *FT* or *B. napus FT* homologs flowered earlier than wild type controls, although a mild but statistically significant delay in flowering was observed within the transgenic lines for *FDp-BnaNFT.A7* and *FDp-BnaCFT.C4* compared to other lines (Figure 2C).

The florigenic BnaFT.A7 and the non-florigenic BnaFT.C6 of cultivar ZS11 differ at 5 amino-acid residues, of which none correspond to five FT residues (D17, V18, V70, S76, and R83) previously identified as important for intercellular trafficking (Yoo *et al.*, 2013; Endo *et al.*, 2018) (Supplemental Figure 3). The carboxy-terminus is important for FT function, which is abolished by the deletion of the last nine amino acid residues (Kim *et al.*, 2016). The presence of a cysteine at the last position of BnaFT.C6 instead of the threonine of BnaFT.A7 alters biochemical properties and could cause covalent protein-protein cross-linking under oxidizing conditions (Figure 2D). Modified protein versions carrying a mutual exchange of the last residue (BnaFT.A7m and BnaFT.C6m) were expressed in *ft-10* under the control of *C+A-FTp*. T1 plants transformed with *BnaFT.A7m* showed a significant delay in flowering compared to *BnaFT.A7* transformed lines (Figure 2E). In contrast, *BnaFT.C6m* T1 plants did not flower earlier than *BnaFT.C6* transformed plants (Figure 2E). Taken together, the data indicate that a cysteine as the last amino-acid contributed to a reduced florigen function of BnaFT.C6, but was not the only determinant. Comparison of BnaFT.C6 from different cultivars revealed that the threonine to cysteine change at the last amino-acid position was only found in a subset of semi-winter cultivars (Supplemental Figure 4).

**Expression of *FT* homologs across tissues**

Although *BnaFT.C6*, *BnaNFT.A7* and *BnaCFT.C4* may not encode fully functional mobile florigens, they induce flowering if transcribed close to the apical meristem. We compared

steady-state mRNA levels of *BnaFT*-like genes in different tissues and developmental stages in
the cultivar ZS11 grown in LD with and without vernalization (Figure 3). Our RT-qPCR
protocol used genomic DNA as a common reference point to allow copy-number comparisons
of mRNA levels between homologs. Without vernalization, no differences in steady-state
mRNA levels were detected between leaf 6 and leaf 8. In the case of vernalized plants, leaf 6
was fully expanded before while leaf 8 expanded after the plants were moved to and out of the
vernalization chamber, respectively. *BnaFT.A7* and *BnaFT.C6* were strongly induced in leaf 8
of vernalized compared to non-vernalized plants, while *BnaFT.A2* was vernalization-responsive
but less induced. As previously reported, *BnaFT.C2* was barely expressed, which has been
attributed to the presence of several TE insertions at the locus (Wang *et al.*, 2012a). After
vernalization, *BnaFT.A2* was expressed at much lower levels than *BnaFT.A7/BnaFT.C6* in leaf
8, but became the highest expressed *FT*-like gene in paraclade leaves. Steady-state mRNA
levels were similar for all three *FT* orthologs in floral buds, flowers and developing siliques. In
contrast, expression of *BnaFT.C2, BnaNFT.A7* and *BnaCFT.C4* was low throughout
development; therefore, these *FT*-like genes are unlikely to play a major regulatory role for
flowering regulation or inflorescence development under our test conditions.

**Conservation of cis-regulatory regions at *B. napus FT* homologs**

Previous reports established that the distal *FT* enhancer Block C is conserved at *FT* orthologs
between *B. napus* and *A. thaliana* (Adrian *et al.*, 2010; Wang *et al.*, 2012a). Here we show that
this is also the case for Block E, which is located downstream of the structural gene. *FT*
orthologs of *B. oleracea*, *B. rapa* and *S. parvula* showed the presence of all three blocks, while
non-orthologous *FT* homologues showed no conservation of the distal blocks and limited
conservation at the proximal promoter Block A (Supplementary Figure 5).

In *A. thaliana*, *FT* transcription is dependent on the NF-Y/CO-complex, but also requires
canonical NF-Y complexes, that contain NF-YA family proteins instead of CO (Wenkel *et al.*,
2006; Kumimoto *et al.*, 2008, 2010; Siriwardana *et al.*, 2016). The effect of NF-Y is likely mediated
by cognate CCAAT-boxes located at the distal enhancers Block C and Block E (Cao *et al.*, 2014;
Siriwardana *et al.*, 2016; Zicola *et al.*, 2019). A CCACA-motif as high-affinity binding site of the
CO-complex is found three times at Block A; a CCACT-motif that still binds the CO-complex
with fair affinity is found twice (Gnesutta *et al.*, 2017) (Figure 4A). The function of three distinct
CCACA-motifs, named P1, P2 and CORE2, has been experimentally validated (Adrian *et al.*,
2010; Tiwari *et al.*, 2010). In *B. napus*, CO-binding motifs P2 and CORE2 are present at
*BnaFT.A2/BnaFT.C2,* P1 is present as CCACT-motif in *BnaFT.A7*, *BnaFT.A2*, *BnaFT.C2* and
*SpFT*, while an additional C to A change creates a CCAAT-motif at the same position in

*BnaFT.C6*. A second change from CCACT- to CCAAT-motif is common to *BnaFT.C6*,
*BnaFT.A7* and *SpFT*. *BnaFT.C6* contains a third, private CCAAT-motif close to the
transcription start site. A recent structural study of the CO-complex with target DNA indicated
that only the CACA core of the first motif was involved in protein-DNA interactions (Lv *et al.*,
2021). Two additional CACA-motifs can be identified at Block A of which one is present in all
*BnaFT* paralogs and *SpFT*. In sum, more CO-binding CCACA-motifs are observed in block A
in a trend from *BnaFT.C6* to *BnaFT.A7*, *SpFT*, *BnaFT.A2/BnaFT.C2* and *FT*, while a trend
towards more NF-Y-binding CCAAT-motifs is observed in the opposite order. Notably, trend
to more promoter-located CCAAT-motifs correlated with expression levels in leaves.
At Block C, an important CCAAT-motif is conserved in all *FT* orthologs (Figure 4B), but at
the downstream enhancer Block E, *SpFT*, *BnaFT.C6* and *BnaFT.A7* share a CCACA-motif that
is not present at the other genes; furthermore, *BnaFTA7* and *BnaFTC6* have evolved two
additional CCACA sites as candidates for binding a CO-complex (Figure 4C). In contrast, the
first CCAAT motif has been lost at these homeologs.
To test whether the variation in *cis*-motifs at *B. napus FT* promoters had an impact on gene
activation by CO, we cloned upstream sequence of *FT* and *B. napus* orthologs to a binary
Luciferase reporter vector that allowed us to test transactivation by *B. napus* CO homologs in
transiently infiltrated tobacco leaves. The distance between regulatory blocks differs greatly in
*B.napus* and we could not amplify the 21 Kb promoter region of *BnaFT.C2* (Figure 4D). We
tested *BnaFT.A7*, *BnaFT.C6*, *BnaFT.A2* and *FT* promoter-mediated reporter gene induction in
response to BnaCO.A10 and BnaCO.9 controlled by the *CaMV 35S* promoter. We found that
promoters of *FT* and *BnaFT.A2* could be activated in the presence of both *B. napus* COs while
the homeolog pair *BnaFT.A7/BnaFT.C6* was not or significantly less induced (Figure 4E).
In sum, *BnaFT.A2*, which shows conservation of putative CO binding CCACA-motifs at the
proximal promoter is responsive to *B. napus* CO homologs in transient assays. In contrast,
homeologs *BnaFT.A7/BnaFT.C6* respond poorly to transactivation, corresponding to the
absence of conserved CO- binding motifs at the promoter.

**Diurnal expression pattern of *B. napus FT* homologs in response to photoperiod and**
**vernalization**
Since the homeologs Bna*FT.A2/BnaFT.C2* and *BnaFT.A7/BnaFT.C6* showed remarkable
differences in the distribution of cis motifs across regulatory blocks, we compared their
transcript levels across time-series of plants grown in SD and LD photoperiod both before and
after vernalization. The analysis confirmed that *BnaFT.A2*, *BnaFT.A7* and *BnaFT.C6* respond
to vernalization; furthermore, expression was induced by LD versus SD conditions, with a

strong synergism between LD and vernalization signals (Figure 5). The expression of *BnaFT.C2* was low (approximately 20 and 100 times less than *BnaFT.A2* and *BnaFT.C6*, respectively) but essentially followed the same induction pattern. In the case of non-*FT* orthologs, *BnaCFT.C4* mirrored the vernalization response and the diurnal expression pattern of *BnaFT* genes, at a level 10 times lower than *BnaFT.C2*. *BnaNFT.A7* was only notably expressed at the beginning of LDs before vernalization. Overall, apart from *BnaNFT.A7*, *FT*-like genes shared an expression minimum at ZT8 and high expression throughout the night until the next morning (Figure 5 A and B).

**Photoperiod-dependent regulation of putative *B. napus* FT activators**

Differences in the arrangement of cis-motif for NF-Y/CO- and NF-Y complexes between regulatory regions did not abolish the dependence of *BnaFT* genes on LD photoperiod. In *A. thaliana*, the accumulation of CO protein in the second half of long days largely explains LD dependency of *FT* expression, but it is not yet addressed if this model applies to other Brassicaceae. We measured steady-state transcript levels of *BnaCO.A10* and *BnaCO.C9* in leaves throughout SD and LDs before and after vernalization (Figure 5C). As previously described, *BnaCO.C9* mRNA accumulated at higher levels than *BnaCO.A10* (Jin *et al.*, 2021b). Both genes showed higher expression in LD vs SD, with similar trends before and after vernalization. As observed for *BnaFT*-like genes, transcript levels of both *BnaCO* genes showed a trough at ZT8 in LD. For *BnaCO.A10*, the general pattern of transcript accumulation was similar in SD and LD, showing an increase during the dark and at dawn. For *BnaCO.C9*, steady-state levels declined 8 h after the onset of the dark period in SD corresponding to the onset of dark in LD, but transcript levels continued to increase in LD during the dark period. Under the assumption that CO proteins in *B. napus* require light for stabilization, only *BnaCO.A10* transcripts accumulating in the morning would contribute to a NF-Y/CO complex in the morning in SD, while both COs could contribute to early morning and late afternoon NF-Y/CO complexes in LD.

To assess whether NF-Y components could also limit *FT* gene expression in *B. napus*, we generated RNAseq libraries of a diurnal time-series of vernalized ZS11 plants grown in LD and SD photoperiod. Of the annotated 95560 nuclear *B. napus* genes, 47198 were considered as expressed (at least 25 transcripts per million (TPM) summed across all samples) (Supplemental Data 2). After applying the Rhythmicity Analysis Incorporating non-Parametric methods (RAIN) pipeline with a FDR <0.05, 33714 genes (71,4%) scored as diurnally expressed, with a slightly higher number in SD vs LD (29596 vs 21757). Most genes were detected as diurnally

expressed in both photoperiods (52.3%), but more genes were SD- than LD-specific (35.5% vs

12.2%, respectively) (Figure 6A, Supplemental Data 3).

We re-annotated *B. napus* NF-Y genes based on synteny to *A. thaliana* homologs and removed

four genes that were annotated as NF-Y genes but that likely encoded by pseudogenes due to a

partial protein prediction and/or frame-shift mutations (Supplemental Table 4, Supplemental

Figure 6). We found that 78 of 106 NF-Y genes were expressed, of which 55 showed diurnal

changes in their transcript levels. The fraction of diurnally expressed NF-Y genes is as expected

and although a slightly greater than expected number of NF-Y genes showed LD-specific

rhythmicity, this was not statistically significant (Figure 6B). Hierarchical clustering of

diurnally expressed *B. napus* NF-Y genes based on their transcript accumulation patterns

(normalized across all samples) identified 3 major clades (Figure 6C). A clade containing 29

NF-Y genes was expressed at higher level in LD versus SD and showed a marked peak of

expression in the critical afternoon light period from ZT12 to ZT16 in LD. The clade also

included *BnaFT* and CO genes that had been added to the clustering analysis; however,

expression of these genes extended to the dark phase and/or showed later peak values than

ZT16.

In *A. thaliana*, NF-Y paralogs with a critical role in *FT* expression were identified by their

phloem-specific expression and subsequently tested by reverse genetic approaches (Kumimoto

*et al.*, 2008, 2010; Siriwardana *et al.*, 2016). Although the tissue-specific expression pattern of NF-

Y genes in *B. napus* is unknown, it is noteworthy that 4 of 4 NF-YB2 homologs, 4 of 5 NF-

YC9 homologs and 2 of 3 NF-YA2 homologs, all orthologs of photoperiod-responsive NF-Ys,

are part of the expression cluster with an LD-specific peak at ZT16. *B. napus* homeologs are

likely to act redundantly and we therefore prepared cumulative plots that consider the

expression of all *B. napus* NF-YB2, NF-YC9 and NF-YA2 genes (Figure 6 D-F). If the sum of

the expression of all homeologs is considered, a marked peak of expression at ZT16 in LD and

an overall higher expression in LD vs SD was detected. In sum, NF-Y genes that are candidates

for photoperiod-dependent induction of *FT*-like genes could strongly promote *FT* expression at

the end of LD.

## Discussion

468 Land plants share a recurrent history of whole genome duplications (WGD) through

469 polyploidisation and subsequent retraction of the coding genome (Panchy *et al.*, 2016). In some

470 cases, homeologs may be retained if increased gene dosage of redundant genes confers a fitness

471 advantage, but more often retention is linked to partial redundancy either through the evolution

of divergent expression patterns or through preferred interactions with other protein partners. *B. napus* is a particularly rewarding case for study, combining two paleontological events with different outcomes with a recent hybridisation event that has been partially shaped by human selection for crop traits (Parkin *et al.*, 2005; Lu *et al.*, 2019).

Analysis of the genome of the genus Brassica suggests that one of the paleo-duplications resulted in unequal retention of homeologs, while for the second event, two fairly co-linear genomes can still be recognized (Parkin *et al.*, 2005). Only two *FT* syntenic genes are conserved per Brassica genome lineage, indicating a loss of the copy of the weaker genome from the first polyploidisation event. *NFT* and *CFT* are not survivors of the weak genome as syntenic copies can be detected in *S. paruvula,* a sister genus of *Brassica* that did not undergo whole genome duplication (Figure 1) (Cheng *et al.*, 2012). Differences in expression may have contributed to the maintenance of both *FT* paralogs. In the case of the Brassica A genome, both paralogs are expressed; however, expression seems specialised as *BnaFT.A7* and *BnaFT.A2* show higher expression in rosette and paraclade leaves, respectively (Figure 3). In the case of the C-genome, *BnaFT.C2* is barely expressed, probably due to the presence of TE insertions that are common to *B. napus* but not to all *B. oleracea* varieties (Wang *et al.*, 2012a). Since *BnaFT.C2* encodes a fully functional florigen (Figure 2), the presence of a second *FT*, even if only marginally expressed, may be advantageous under certain conditions and therefore retained. Similarly, circumstances causing the induction of *BnaNFT.C6* and *BnaCFT.C4* could influence flowering and convey an advantage; however, *BnaNFT.C6* homeologs have not survived as functional genes (Figure 1). Similarly, *BnaFT.C6*, the second *FT* of the C-genome may be impaired or at least attenuated for its florigen function (Figure 2). The amino acid change from threonine to cysteine, which contributed to the reduced systemic function, is not found in all *B. napus* accessions (Supplemental Figure 4). Further studies are required to clarify whether the mutation can be linked to a flowering QTL. In the case of the semi-winter *B. napus* variant ZS11, both *FT* genes originating from the C-genome seem compromised in their function.

*A. thaliana FT* regulation depends on an intricate interplay of two distal enhancers with an accessible chromatin structure and a proximal promoter that is inaccessible (Zicola *et al.*, 2019). Binding of NF-Y complexes to distal enhancers is thought to somehow increase the probability of NF-Y/CO to bind to the proximal promoter and increase expression; how NF-Y/CO binding is mechanistically linked the induction of transcription is currently unknown. Although the cis-regulatory Blocks were found as conserved at all *B. napus FT* genes, the shift from NF-Y/CO to NF-Y binding sites at the proximal promoter was unexpected and raises a couple of questions (Figure 4). First, can binding of NF-Y simply replace NF-Y/CO causing similar effects leading

to the induction of transcripts? Second, if NF-Y binding is sufficient to induce expression, what limits induction of BnaFTA7/BnaFTC6 to LD? Here, we propose that transcriptional regulation of NF-Y genes may contribute to photoperiod control (Figure 6). Alternatively, *B.napus* CO proteins as part of a NF-Y/CO complex binding to the distal enhancer could contribute as limiting factors, but how it could do so is not obvious. Gnesutta et al. determined the binding preferences of the NF-Y/CO complex to DNA (Gnesutta *et al.*, 2017). The preferred binding motif for NF-Y/CO (CCACA) is two nucleotide edits away from the CCAAT motif. We found that replacement of motifs happened at conserved in the proximal promoter and propose that an intermediate CCACT motif that can still be bound (or already be bound) by NF-Y/CO served as stepping stone during the motif change (Figure 4).

In sum, *B. napus* photoperiod dependent regulation of *FT*-like genes is a case study for the consequence of gene duplications, indicating gene retraction through loss-of-function, homeolog retention partially explained by differences transcriptional regulation and possibly variation between cultivated varieties due to changes in protein function.

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# Competing interests

None declared.

# Author contributions

JJW and FT outlined, created figures and wrote the manuscript outline. JJW performed all experimental work, FT and HRZ contributed with guidance and critical discussion. JJW and FT performed all data analysis. JJW, FT, HRZ and JW were involved in revising the manuscript.

# Data availability

RNAseq datasets generated and analysed in the current study are available at the European Nucleotide archive under the accession number project accession number PRJEB82128.

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## Figure legends

**Figure 1. Phylogenetic and syntenic analysis of *FT* and *TSF* and their homologues in *B. napus*, *B. oleracea* and *S. parvula*.** (A)-(D) Microsynteny between *FT* homologs. *FT*-like genes from *A. thaliana* (bottom), *S. parvula* (middle) and *B. napus* (top) are connected by red lines, orthologs of flanking genes present in all genomes are connected by golden lines, orthologs of flanking genes that exist only in a subset of Brassica genomes are connected by purple, blue and gray lines. Genes are depicted as boxes (blue forward, green reverse orientation). **(A)** Four paralogous *FT* orthologs were identified in *B. napus*, one in *S. parvula*. **(B)** One *TSF* ortholog was identified in *S. parvula*, none in *B. napus*. **(C)** Three paralogous *FT*-like genes (*BnaNFT*) on Chr. A07/C02/C06 in *B. napus* have an ortholog in *S. parvula*, but not in *A. thaliana*. Only the paralogue on chromosome A07 (*BnaNFT.A7*) encodes a functional gene. **(D)** An *FT*-like gene on Chr. C04 (*BnaCFT.C4*) in *B. napus*, is present in the C-genome parent *B. oleracea* and absent in the *S. parvula* and *A. thaliana* genomes. **(E)** Full-length protein sequences of FT, TSF and FT homologues obtained by blast analysis against *B. napus*, *B. rapa*, *B. oleracea, A. lyrata* and *S. parvula* genomes were used to create the neighbour-joining (NJ) consensus tree using MEGA-11 with 1,000 bootstraps. TFL1, BFT, MFT were set as an outgroup, and FT and TSF orthologues in *A. thaliana* and *A. lyrata* were added for reference.

**Figure 2. Florigen function of *B. napus* FT homologs.** **(A)** Schematic illustration of the constructs used to complement *ft-10*. The *A. thaliana FD* promoter (*FD*p) or the synthetic *FT* promoter (*(C+A)-FTp*) was used to drive expression of *FT*, *BnaFTs*, *BnaNFT* and *BnaCFT* cDNA in *ft-10* plants in the shoot apical meristem and the *FT* expression domain in the phloem, respectively. **(B)** Flowering time of homozygous T3 plants of two representative *ft-10* lines transformed with *FT* and *B. napus FT* homologs driven by *(C+A)-FTp*. The number of plants used for analysis was greater or equal to 7. **(C)** Flowering time of independent T1 *ft-10* plants transformed with *FT* and *B. napus FT* homologs under the control of *FD*p. The number of T1 plants used for analysis was greater or equal to 13. **(D)** Selection of amino-acids alignment of *A. thaliana* and *B. napus FT* homologs. Arrows indicate differences between *BnaFT.A7* and *BnaFT.C6*. *BnaFT.A7m* and *BnaFT.C6m* are mutant versions in which the last amino acid residue was swapped. **(E)** Flowering time of independent T1 *ft-10* T1 plants transformed with *BnaFT.C6, BnaFT.A7, BnaFTC6m and BnaFTA7m* driven by *(C+A)-FTp*. The number of plants used for analysis was greater or equal to 13. (B, C, E) Flowering time was scored as total leaf number. Box plots show the medians as vertical lines; box limits indicate the 25th and 75th

percentiles. Different symbols from a to h above the plots indicate significant differences (P < 0.05, two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Tukey's multiple comparison test).

**Figure 3. Tissue-specific expression of *B. napus FT* homologs in ZS11.** Expression of *B. napus FT* homologs in roots, leaf 6, leaf 8, paraclade leaf, floral bud, flower and siliques. Plants were sown in the greenhouse for 4 weeks under LD conditions, then vernalized for 4 weeks before being transferred back to LD conditions in the greenhouse. Root and leaf 6 and 8 were sampled before vernalization, leaf 8, paraclade leaf, floral bud, flower and siliques were sampled after vernalization at ZT12. Boxes represent inner quartiles of three biological replicates, medians are indicated by vertical lines, single measurements are indicated by dots. *BnaENTH* was used as reference gene, all values were compared to genomic DNA, which was set as 1.

**Figure 4. Conservation of the cis-regulatory code at *B. napus FT* homologs.**
Schematic diagram showing the distribution of motifs within conserved blocks A **(A)**, C **(B)** and E **(C)** for *FT-like* genes from *A. thaliana, S. parvula* and *B. napus*. Gray boxes indicate aligned sequences, white spaces indicate alignment gaps. Cis-elements are marked in different colors as indicated in the common legend. The length of the unaligned sequences is shown after each alignment block. Red numbers above the position of motifs at *FT* block A indicate previously characterized functional motifs. **(D)** Scheme of the promoter region of *B. napus FT* genes fused to LUC. **(E)** Promoter-reporter transactivation assay in infiltrated tobacco leaves. Agrobacteria transformed with a binary vector containing promoter Firefly luciferase fusions and Renilla luciferase under the control of the CaMV 35S promoter were co-infiltrated with bacteria expressing either BnaCO.A10, BnaCO.C9 or an empty binary vector. Infiltrated areas were extracted and Luciferase vs Renilla luciferase activity quantified. Boxplots show relative firefly vs Renilla signal from 4 to 6 independent infiltrations, the median is indicated as line, data-points as dots. Statistical analysis was performed using the non-parametric Wilcocxon signed rank test with FDR correction.

**Figure 5. Diurnal expression of *B. napus FT* and *CO* homologs in ZS11. (A)** Diurnal expression of *BnaFT.A2, BnaFT.C2, BnaFT.A7, BnaFT.C6.* **(B)** Diurnal expression of *BnaNFT.A7* and *BnaCFT.C4.* **(C)** Diurnal expression of *BnaCO.A10* and *BnaCO.C9.* Material from leaf 6 and leaf 8 were sampled every 4 h from ZS11 plants grown in SD and LD photoperiod in growth chambers at 22°C before (BV) and after (AV) vernalization, respectively. Time is plotted in reference to Zeitgeber (light on). Expression levels were analysed by gene-specific qRT-PCR using four independent biological replicates using

genomic DNA as common reference point. *BnaENTH* was used to correct for differences in

cDNA amount. Values for ZT0 and ZT24 were pooled at both time points. Data points are

indicated as dots, lines were generated using a loess smoothing function, grey shapes indicate

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**Figure 6. Diurnal expression of *B*. napus NF-Y homologs. (A)** Venn diagram showing

rhythmically expressed genes in LD and SD photoperiod.  **(B)** As A) for NF-Y genes. **(C)**

Heatmap of rhythmically expressed *B. napus* NF-Y genes after hierarchical clustering based on

expression patterns. Expression data in TPM were normalized across all samples per gene,

clustering was performed using the Manhattan distance metric. Colours indicate *B. napus*

homologs of *NF-Y*s involved in *FT* regulation (red), *BnaFT*s (blue) and *BnaCO*s (purple). **(D)**

Cumulative sum plot of TPM values in SD (left panel) and LD (right panel) for all *BnaNFYB2*

genes. **(E)** as D) for *BnaNF-YC9* genes. **(F)** as D) for *BnaNF-YA2* genes.

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