A vertical stacking approach to rapid generation cycling for indoor growth of tall annual crops

- the case of *Vicia faba*

Maria Pazos-Navarro[1,2,¥], Richard G Bennett[2,3¥], Christine Munday[2], Robert Creasy[1,2], Samuel

C Catt[4], Judith Lichtenzveig[2], Federico Ribalta[2,5,§] & Janine Croser[2,4,6,§]

[1]School of Biological Sciences, The University of Western Australia, 6009, Crawley, Perth, WA

[2] The UWA School of Agriculture and Environment, The University of Western Australia, 6009,

Crawley, Perth, WA

[3]Primary Industries Development, Livestock-Feedbase, Department of Primary Industries and

Regional Development, South Perth, WA 6151, Australia

[4]School of Agriculture, Food and Wine, The University of Adelaide, Waite Campus, Urrbrae,

SA 5064, Australia

The UWA School of Agriculture and Environment, The University of Western Australia, 6009,

Crawley, Perth, WA

[6]South Australian Research and Development Institute, Hartley Grove, 5064, Urrbrae, SA

[¥]Joint first authors, [§]Joint corresponding authors

Abstract

Accelerating breeding cycles through rapid generation turnover is a critical strategy to

improve genetic gain in crops. This study presents a vertically stacked accelerated single-seed

descent (aSSD) protocol for faba bean (*Vicia faba* L.), aimed at reducing generation time while

ensuring robust plant development and seed viability. Alongside photoperiod extension to

truncate time to flowering, we present innovations including flurprimidol application to

control plant height and enable vertically stacked growth, and optimisation of immature seed

desiccation for precocious seed germination. Under controlled environment conditions, the

protocol achieved 4.1 to 5.7 generations per year across phenologically diverse germplasm.

Plant height was successfully reduced by up to 50% with flurprimidol without compromising

flowering or seed yield. The methodology was validated within the University of Adelaide led

Australian PBA faba bean breeding program (FBA), advancing 14 recombinant inbred line

populations over three years. Beyond faba bean, this scalable, genotype-independent

platform offers potential applications for other tall annual species in breeding and vertical

farming systems, enabling year-round crop production and genetic improvement. Moreover,

the protocol's adaptability to closed-environment agriculture presents unique opportunities

for plant-based life-support systems in extreme environments, including space missions. This

integrated approach to speed breeding and vertical farming represents a significant

advancement in agricultural innovation, with implications for food security and space

exploration.

Keywords

Accelerated single-seed-descent, precocious germination, plant miniaturisation, vertical

farming, closed-environment farming, extreme environment plant growth, recombinant

inbred lines, speed breeding, light spectrum, flurprimidol.

Background

The global population is expected to reach 9.7 billion by 2050 (1), posing a challenge to

agricultural producers, plant breeders and the research community to accelerate genetic

improvement for productivity-related traits in staple crops. The generation length was

recognised long ago by animal breeders for its impact on selection effectiveness and, by

extension, its effect on genetic improvement rate (2) (3). These observations have equal

relevance to plant breeding and impact all parameters of the equation proposed by Fisher (4)

whereby the rate of genetic gain ($\underline{\Delta}$) is a function of selection intensity (i), heritability (h^2) and

selection differential (S). Breeding programs that integrate protocols to speed generation

turnover can select and cross more individuals with desirable traits (which impacts on i),

rapidly identify and propagate individuals with a high heritability for desirable traits or identify

and select individuals with superior genetic traits (which impacts on S).

As a result, considerable attention has been focused on the development of methods to

accelerate the generation cycle across a range of economically important plant species. In

1964, Guha and Maheshwari (5)presented the concept of laboratory-based regeneration

from male gametes which led to the development of double haploidy as a technique for

fixation of alleles in a single generation in responsive species (as reviewed by (6)). Soon after,

Brim (7), building on the ideas of Goulden (8), presented a detailed single seed descent (SSD)

method focused on the growth of plants under conditions geared to achieve rapid progression

to reproduction rather than vegetative biomass, highlighting its value in rapid fixation of

alleles. Since the early 2000's researchers, spurred on by technological advances in controlled

environment plant growth, have further refined SSD by manipulation of photoperiod,

temperature, light spectrum, CO_2 levels, and hydroponic nutrient delivery. These long-

standing methodologies recently grouped under the heading of 'speed breeding' (9),

continued to be applied across public and private breeding programs for a range of broadacre

crop species, including cereals, oilseeds, maize and pulses (reviewed by (10)).

For the temperate pulses chickpea (*Cicer arietinum* L.), field pea (*Pisum sativum* L.), lentil (*Lens*

culinaris ssp. culinaris), and faba bean (*Vicia faba* L.), which remain recalcitrant to the robust

application of doubled haploid techniques, our group has developed and delivered an

accelerated Single Seed Descent (aSSD) platform to cycle >25,000 individuals/year across the

four species for the Australian national breeding programs (modified from (11) (12) (13)). We

have demonstrated the value of combining aSSD with marker assisted selection and advanced

field trial analytics to compress chickpea breeding pipelines by up to 3.5 years (13), with

phenotypic selection (14) and to fast-track the development of chickpea, lentil and lupin

(*Lupinus angustifolius* L.) populations for gene-trait discovery (15) (16) (17) (18). A pipeline of

aSSD-derived temperate pulse lines is embedded in the four major pulse improvement

programs in Australia and under evaluation for traits of interest.

Vertical stacking forms an integral part of our pulse aSSD platform. The improvements in the

design and cost of waterproof, low-heat, light emitting diode (LED) lighting systems that

facilitated accelerated generation cycling also provided the opportunity to grow plants in

vertically stacked layers under controlled environment conditions. Vertical stacking or vertical

farming has attracted attention for plant-based urban food production due to low 'food

miles', high plant density/ m^2 and potential for application of circularity principles including

energy (heat) redistribution, production of biogas from organic waste, water, and nutrient

recycling (reviewed by (19)). Closed environment-agriculture will be required to support

future off-planet exploration and colonisation and is the subject of current collaborative

research between NASA and partners (Plants for Space ARC Centre for excellence,

https://plants4space.com) (20). Within research and breeding organisations, vertical stacking

of plant growth systems can improve the efficiency of utilisation on a per m^2 basis of

controlled environment space, resulting in substantial running cost reductions and potential

for higher plant throughput. To successfully adapt our aSSD protocol to a vertically stacked

plant growth framework, we needed to develop methods to manage plant height (21) (22)

(23) and achieve reliable flowering and seed set under fully artificially lit conditions.

Here we describe i) a robust aSSD protocol for faba bean integrating *in vitro* or *in vivo*

immature seed germination protocols and ii) two methodology refinements aimed at

integrating vertical stacking approaches within crop speed breeding-related platforms. The

first of this methodology refinements is the control of plant height through a combination of

root restriction and exogenous application of anti-gibberellin, with no negative effect on

flowering time and seed viability. The second is fully artificially photoperiod supplied by LED

arrays with a low red to far red ratio (R:FR) spectrum to improve synchronisation of time to

flowering across breeding populations derived from phenologically diverse parents. Faba

bean provides an excellent case study for vertical stacked speed breeding due to a field height

of up to 1.8 m, a high flower: seed ratio under both field and controlled growing conditions

and an outcrossing rate of up to 25-30% (24).

Material and Methods

All experiments were undertaken at the University of Western Australia, Perth (lat:

31°58'49"S; long: 115°49'7"E). Plants were grown in steam- pasteurised potting mix (pH: 5.8-

6.5, UWA Plant Bio Mix - Richgro Garden Products, Australia Pty Ltd – Supplementary Table

2), hand watered daily and fertilised weekly with 20 mL (0.4 L pot) or 30 mL (1 L pot) of a

water-soluble N:P:K fertiliser (19:8.3:15.8) with micronutrients (Poly-feed, Greenhouse

Grade, Haifa Chemicals Ltd.) at a rate of 16 g L^{-1} (w: v). Each pot contained a single plant and

was considered an experimental unit. The plants' reproductive stage was recorded either at

anthesis (when petals are just longer than the sepals), or as open flower. For light quality and

quantity measurements we used a Sekonic C7000 SpectroMaster spectrometer (Sekonic

Corp., Tokyo, Japan) as per (11). Light intensity values were averaged over three

measurements in the range of 400–780 nm: blue (B, 400–500 nm), red (R, 600–700 nm) and

far-red (FR, 700–780). Relative (%) and absolute (μmol m^{-2} s^{-1}) intensity values in the ranges

of B, R and FR were calculated (25). Red to far-red ratio (R:FR) calculations followed the

method by (26): photon irradiance between 655-665 nm/photon irradiance between 725-735

nm (Supplementary material: Spectral models and measurements and Supplementary Table

1). All seed was kindly provided by FBA.

For the development of this methodology all statistical analysis were performed using RStudio

2022.12.0, and R version 4.2.3. software and graphs were plotted using the ggplot2 library.

<u>Effect of antigibberellin on plant height</u>

Field grown faba bean reach a height of up to 1.8 m at full maturity. To facilitate growth in

vertically stacked shelves, we tested exogenous application of the antigibberellin flurprimidol

(Topflor, SePRO Corporation, USA) to restrict plant height as per (21) (22) (23). Seed of Nura,

a shorter variety with mid-maturity, and PBA Samira, a tall variety with early to mid-maturity,

were sown in 0.4 L pots and plants were grown in a glasshouse set at 24/18 $^{\circ}$C with natural

photoperiod supplemented and extended to 18 h by light emitting dioide (LED) arrays AP67

L-series, Valoya, Finland. When plants had reached the 3 - 5 fully reflexed leaf stage, *c.* 15

days after sowing (DAS) (Figure 1A), they were treated with 5 ml flurprimidol in either 0.00,

0.05, 0.10, 0.20, 0.40 or 0.80 % v: v, applied as leaf and soil drench (Figure 1B).

Four experimental units per line (Nura and PBA Samira) and flurprimidol dose were set in a

complete random design (n = 24). The effect of the antigibberellin on the response of plant

height at flowering, days to flower, number of seeds, and seed weight were analysed by

treating the two genotypes separately and conducting a one-way ANOVA and LSD test (α=

0.05, Agricolae library).

<u>Effect of photoperiod on floral phenology and seed set</u>

The effect of photoperiod on days to flower (DTF) and seed number per plant was assessed

in an early field flowering Australian breeding line '1952-1' and a late variety 'Icarus' (93 and

105 DTF respectively when grown in season, in-field at Turretfield Research Centre, South

Australia). Seeds were sown in 0.4 L pots and were placed in controlled environment rooms

(CERs) (Conviron, model BDW40, Controlled Environments Ltd, Canada) with light intensity

set at 500 µmol m^{-2} s^{-1} provided by metal halide lamps (Venture lamp type HIE 400W) and

incandescent bulbs, with a R:FR light ratio of 1.3. The day/night temperature of 24/ 18 ^{o}C (12

h: 12 h) was uncoupled from the photoperiod length and remained constant in all seven

photoperiod treatments. Due to CER availability, the experiment was performed in two sets.

Set 1 = photoperiods 9, 12, 14, 16, 20 h; Set 2 = photoperiods 16, 18, 20, 24 h. Days to flower

and number of seeds were recorded per plant. The experimental units (pots) were set in a

split-plot design with the photoperiod treatments as main plots with partial repeats (16 and

20 h) and plant lines as secondary plots, n = 3 – 9 randomly distributed per room.

The effect of photoperiod on number of seeds and days to flower in the two genotypes were

analysed separately using a one-way ANOVA. Means of response and 95% confidence

intervals were calculated for the photoperiod treatments and compared (α= 0.05) using an

LSD test (Agricolae library).

<u>Effect of light spectrum and vertical farming conditions on floral phenology and seed set</u>

To determine the effect of light spectrum on time to flower and number of seed produced

per plant. We grew 1952-1 and Icarus, under six different controlled growth environments

(E1 – E6) set at constant photoperiod (18 h) and temperature (22/18 ^{o}C day: night), but

different in light spectrum and intensity (Figure 2). All plants were drenched with 5 ml 0.2%

v: v flurprimidol at 15 DAS.

Light spectrum, intensity, photoperiod, and quantum were central to the analysis of our

results. In fully artificial environments E1, E3 and E4, the light features remain constant over

the course of the experiments. However, in E2, daylength and therefore light quantum

changed over the course of the experiment. In the supplemented and extended photoperiod

environments E5 and E6, changes in daylength altered both the quantum and quality of light

as mixtures of natural and artificial light varied across the day. Models of the daylength,

photoperiod, intensity and light spectrum measures were generated and adapted to each

individual's planting date and date of anthesis, using measurements of light quality and

intensity, and daylength during the plant's growing period as inputs (full details of spectral

models and measurements are presented in supplementary material). We tested growth

under vertically stacked plant growth conditions in E3 and E4, with pots placed on a three-

tiered shelving unit with 80 cm high spacing between shelves and the Valoya AP67 L-series

arrays linked to form two parallel lighting arrays, covering a surface of 200 cm x 60 cm per

shelf (Figure 3 A and 3B).

The experimental units (pots) were set in a split-plot design with the environment (E1 – 6)

treatments as main plots and plant lines as secondary plots, n = 5 randomly distributed per

room. The experiment was repeated twice. Time to flower, number of seed per plant and 100

seed weight were recorded for each line in each environment.

To understand the effect of both pot size and light spectrum on days to flower, number of

seeds produced, and 100 seed weight (g), Icarus and 1952-1 were separately subjected to

two-way ANOVA with pot size and environment as the explanatory variables. For number of

seeds, where both variables were significant and had significant interactions, comparisons

between all variable combinations were analysed using one-way ANOVA and LSD test

(α=0.05) and plotted as previously described. For days to flower and 100 seed weight, there

was no significant pot effect or interaction between environment and pot size, hence, the

effects of light environment were analysed using one-way ANOVA, and LSD test (α=0.05). In

both cases, only the results for the 0.4 L pots are plotted as this pot size allowed for maximum

planting density and, therefore, was adopted in our standard procedure.

In those environments with extended photoperiod, further analyses were conducted of the

effect of light spectrum and quantity (intensity) on days to flower, seed number per plant and

100 seed weight by calculating and plotting correlations between these plant growth

variables and selected aspects of light quality using 'cor' and 'corrplot' in R. For this analysis,

genotypes were analysed separately, and only those treatments grown in 0.4 L pots were

included.

In vitro precocious seed germination

Forty plants of 1952-1 were grown in 0.4 L pots under our accelerated single seed descent

(aSSD) conditions of 22/18 ^{o}C (coupled to light/ night cycles), and 18 h photoperiod provided

by Valoya AP67 LED arrays with 0.2% v: v flurprimidol treatment applied at 15 DAS. At

anthesis, flowers were tagged at the base of the floral peduncle (APLI Strung Tickets, Pelikan).

To determine the association effect between seed developmental stage and robust

germination, pods with immature seeds were harvested 26, 28, 30, 31 and 32 days after

anthesis (DAA) and seeds were cultured *in vitro* (modified from (4)). Briefly, pods were surface

sterilized in 70% ethanol for 1 min, followed by 5 min in sodium hypochlorite (21 g/ L active

HOCl), and rinsed thrice in sterile water. Pods were opened with a scalpel and forceps under

sterile conditions and immature seeds with removed integuments were cultured in 20 x 90

mm petri dishes containing 20 mL of Gamborg B5 basal medium (G398, Phytochemlab) with

20% sucrose, pH adjusted at 5.7 and solidified with 0.6% Type M agar (Sigma). Seeds were

considered germinated when both radicle and shoot had emerged. After *ex vitro* transfer,

seedlings were rinsed and transferred directly to soil in 0.4 L pots under aSSD conditions as

above.

The proportion of germinated seeds 5 days after establishment *in vitro*, seedlings with normal

development after 21 d, and plants that reach reproductive stage, as well as days to flower

and generation time, were recorded for each treatment (DAA). The experiment was repeated

three times with a minimum of 27 seeds per treatment. The experimental design was

completely randomized, and the statistical analysis performed using χ2 test for homogeneity

of the binomial distribution. A Proportion test analysis was performed when significant

differences between treatments were observed (P=0.05).

<u>Fully *in planta* accelerated SSD platform</u>

For users without access to sterile culture facilities, we developed a fully *ex vitro* aSSD

protocol, validated across 30 phenologically diverse individual lines (Supplementary Table 3),

representing the variability within the FBA (Pers. comm. Dr Jeff Paull, FBA primary breeder

(2007-2021)). In brief, two seeds per line at generation 1 were sown in 0.4 L pots at 22/18 °C

(light/ dark cycle), with an 18 h photoperiod provided by AP67 Valoya L-series and light

intensity of 350-400 µmol m^{-2} s^{-1} as per (11). After seedling establishment and prior to

antigibberellin treatment, the number of seedlings were reduced to one. Flurprimidol at 0.2%

v: v was applied as a 5 mL leaf drench at 15 DAS. Flowers were tagged at anthesis, and

immature seeds harvested at physiological maturity, c. 32 days after anthesis. The in-pod

immature seeds were dried in seed envelopes placed in seedling trays in a *c.* 3 cm deep bed

of orange indicator silica gel (Dessico Pty Ltd, Australia) for 5-7 days at 25 °C (Thermoline

cabinet). At 8% seed moisture, measured with an active water meter (Rotronics HC2-AW-

USB, www.rotronic.com) and converted to seed moisture reading (as per (27)), seed were

resown in pots and grown under the same conditions as the previous generation. The seeds

from the final generation were left an additional 14 -21 days to mature naturally on the plant.

From each individual line one pot was sown, except for breeding line 1952-1 (early flowering),

PBA Warda (mid flowering) and Icarus (late flowering). For these lines, a minimum of 30 plants

were grown to establish if there was variability within the lines used. From each line, days to

flower and time to harvest were recorded, and generation turnover time estimated.

<u>Methodology validation within FBA</u>

Over three years, the aSSD platform progressed ($F_{2:5}$) 14 faba bean recombinant F_2

populations segregating for important agronomic traits from the FBA, for which the pedigree

was recorded for each recombinant inbred line (RILs) and spare seeds were made available

to the breeders for every line and generation. Plants were subjected to the same growth

conditions as described in "Fully *in planta* accelerated SSD platform'. For each individual in

each generation, flowering time was recorded, and pods removed 32 DAA. Seeds were

desiccated in pods as described previously, and three seeds from each RIL were resown and

thinned randomly to one individual per pot post seedling establishment.

In the example provided here, we selected for herbicide resistance at F_4 generation. The

selection for herbicide resistance was performed on 21-day old F_4 seedlings. Plants were

treated with the herbicide metribuzin (180 g active ingredient ha^{-1}) and then leaf damage was

scored after a further 14 days to select tolerant RILs which were then progressed for F_5 seed

collection.

Results

<u>Effect of photoperiod and genotype on reproductive phenology under controlled-</u>
<u>environment conditions</u>

Faba bean is a photoperiod responsive species. Under controlled-environment conditions of

photoperiod and temperature, accessions which are considered 'early' and 'late' under field

conditions differ in their reproductive phenology response to photoperiod. The breeding line

1952-1 ('early') showed a typical facultative long-day response as it successfully flowered

under short days and time to flower was shorter in longer photoperiods (Figure 4A). The

cultivar Icarus had an obligatory long day response, it failed to flower at short photoperiods

(9 and 12h), and its days to flower (DTF) shortened exponentially with longer photoperiod

treatments. The accessions reached photoperiod saturation at different treatments, 1952-1

at 16 h, and Icarus at 20 h. Neither of the lines set seed under short days (9 h; Figure 4B). We

selected an 18 h photoperiod for the aSSD platform as it resulted in acceleration of flowering

while maintaining adequate seed production for SSD purposes and general plant health.

<u>Plant miniaturisation is achieved using a single antigibberellin treatment.</u>

Decreased plant height during plant development was achieved with increasing flurprimidol

concentrations ($P<0.001$) (Figure 1C and 1D), in both naturally tall (PBA Samira) and short

(Nura) plants. The 0.2% v: v concentration applied as 5 mL leaf drench at 15 DAS was selected

due to its 'goldilocks' miniaturisation effect, reducing height of PBA Samira plants from c. 380

mm to c. 180 mm, and with no significant effect on time to flower ($P>0.05$), number of seed

produced per plant ($P>0.48$) or seed weight ($P>0.10$) (Supplementary Figure 1A, 1B and 1C).

The 0.2% v:v concentration and timing of flurprimidol application was incorporated as a

routine step in the aSSD protocol. The resulting miniature plants allowed for growth in 0.4 L

pots and a density of up to 80 plants/ m^2 in all environments, including the vertically stacked

shelves (Figure 3).

<u>Minimal effect of light spectrum at photoperiod saturation</u>

The photoperiod effect was more pronounced for Icarus with an average of 27 d truncation

in time to flowering in the extended photoperiod environments (a 39% reduction compared

to natural photoperiod in E2), while 1952-1 was 7 d shorter (21 % reduction) (Figure 5A).

Within fully artificial (E1, E3 and E4) or semi-artificial light environments (E5 and E6), spectrum

had a bearing on days to flower, however the effects were relatively small. E3 resulted in a

longer time to flower than E4 for 1952-1, while for Icarus E5 was a longer time than E6 (Figure

5A and Supplementary Table 3). For 1952-1, the light spectra had a substantial bearing on

100 seed weight, with the heaviest seeds produced in semi-artificial lit environments (E5 and

E6). For Icarus, no clear effects were observed (Figure 5B and Supplementary Table 3).

Pot size is an important factor in determining the plant density within controlled

environments. Growth in 0.4 L versus 1 L pots did not change days to flower in 1952-1 or

Icarus (Table 1). Unsurprisingly, the larger pot size (1L) led to increased seed number per plant

across most environments (Figure 6A and 6B and Supplementary Table 3). Notably, the pot

size effect was smallest in E2 (the natural light). Overall effects of pot size on seed weight

were negligible (Supplementary Table 3). We regularly use 0.4 L pots, as SSD requires only

one viable seed to move to the next generation, and it results in the production of 2-5 spare

seeds as backup in case of germination failure in subsequent generations.

<u>Truncation of seed development without affecting germination and plant development</u>

The age at which the immature seeds were harvested did not affect gemination, as root and

shoot growth was observed in all seeds harvested independently of their DAA stage

(Supplementary Figure 2A and 2B). However, the proportion with normal seedling

development and proportion of reaching flowering depended on the DAA (Table 1). Reliable

seedling establishment was reliably achieved from plants derived from immature seeds older

than 28 DAA (over 90%), while subsequent flowering was achieved from 32 DAA seeds (Table

1).

Table 1. Effect of seed developmental stage (26-32 days after anthesis, DAA) on the

proportion of seeds with normal seedling development 21 days after *in vitro* culture, and

proportion of plants from the total number of cultured seeds reaching reproductive stage up

to day 50. Statistical analysis was performed using $\chi 2$ test for homogeneity of the binomial

distribution ($\chi 2$= 10.85, df = 4, P = 0.03) and Prop.Test, different letters represent significant

differences between seed developmental stage (DAA) (P ≤0.05; n> 27).

Seed developmental stage (DAA)	Proportion of seeds that developed into seedlings	Proportion plants that reached floral stage
26	0.67 b	0.67 b
28	0.90 a	0.60 b
30	1 a	0.73 ab
31	1 a	0.84 ab
32	0.93 a	0.93 a

In a similar manner, Generation 1 time (i.e., G1 - seed sowing to immature seed culture) and

subsequent generations (G2+, immature seed culture to immature seed harvest of the

following generation) were affected by the immature seed developmental stage (Table 2, P =

0.001). While the culture of immature seeds 26 DAA achieved the shortest G1 and G2+

generation cycles, it also yielded the lowest proportion of seeds reaching the reproductive

stage. Delaying the harvest of immature seeds until 32 DAA resulted in more robust

precocious seed development and subsequent flowering and enabled G1 and G2+ generation

cycles below 70 days. Supplementary Figure 2 shows a snapshot of the *in vitro* process from

precocious seed gemination to seed harvest of the following generation.

Table 2. Plant cycle length for the first generation (G1, mature seed sowing to immature seed

culture) and subsequent generations (G2+, immature seed culture to immature seed harvest

of the following generation) following *in vitro* culture of immature seeds at embryo

physiological maturity (26-32 days after anthesis, DAA). Different letters represent significant

differences between DAA.

Seed developmental stage (DAA)	G1 (days)	G2+ (days)
26	63.1 d	67.8 b
28	64.4 c	71.2 a
30	66.0 b	71.0 a
31	68.2 a	71.7 a
32	68.1 a	69.6 ab

<u>Protocol validation with diverse germplasm</u>

We validated our fully *in vivo* aSSD protocol with a range of phenologically diverse germplasm,

selected by the breeder to represent the genetic variability within the FBA program

(Supplementary Table 4) using the above optimised conditions. Under aSSD conditions the

different lines flowered 25 to 51 days after sowing, and the variability within a line based on

1952-1 (early flowering genotype), was 3 days for Warda (mid flowering) and 6 for Icarus (late

genotype).

In our *in vivo* protocol we established the overall generation time as the summation of days

to flower, days to harvest of the immature seed (32 days) and desiccation treatment (5 - 7

days). Across the diverse germplasm evaluated, the proposed protocol resulted in generation

cycles between 64-90 days, enabling the progression of 4 – 5.7 generations per year

(Supplementary Table 4).

We translated the research into an industry relevant platform (Figure 3) which was validated

utilising 14 F_2 populations provided by the FBA over the years 2018 – 2021As a practical case

study of the application of this platform we hereby dissect the time it took to progress from

F_2 to F_5 for a metribuzin tolerance population, with plants subjected to metribuzin tolerance

selection in the F_4 generation. In brief, 73 F_2 independent lines were sown, and aSSD used to

cycle to F_4. In the F_4 generation, 21-day-old seedlings were sprayed with metribuzin, and leaf

damage was evaluated 14 days post spraying. The surviving plants were cycled using aSSD to

produce F_5 seed. Twenty-eight elite RILs were returned to FBA for further selection. These

three generation cycles including selection were achieved in 342 d. It is worthy of note that

this example population was slower to progress through the generations, as we allowed extra

time for F3 plant development and F4 seed maturation. This ensured the health of F4 seed to

enable accurate screening for herbicide tolerance.

Discussion

We have demonstrated the effective integration of vertical farming and speed breeding to

accelerate generation cycle turnover in the globally significant, protein rich pulse crop faba

bean. This approach can improve the rate of genetic gain for crop species and maximise

research space utilisation in costly controlled environments. Combining vertically stacked

growth with antigiberellin-mediated plant height restriction enables simultaneous growth of

large breeding populations, increasing the probability of identifying desirable recombinants.

A vertically stacked approach to speed breeding also offers opportunity for direct technology

transfer from advances made in vertical farming including robotics for tasks such as planting,

watering, fertilizing, monitoring, and harvesting.

Temperature along with duration and intensity of supplied photoperiod are the undisputed

key factors in successful generation cycling. Temperature, light, and water/nutrient

availability interact with plant genetic pathways to determine the timing of flowering. Speed

breeding protocols rely on triggering adaptive plasticity in response to changes in

environmental cues, particularly light. This is typically achieved through saturation of

photoperiod, which can be easily achieved by supplementing natural light in a glasshouse with

conventional (metal halide/ fluorescent/ incandescent/ high pressure sodium) or newer (light

emitting diode, LED) lighting technology. In faba, we identified variation in photoperiod

saturation between the early (16 h) and late (18 h) field flowering genotypes. For the early

type, 1952-1, 9 h photoperiod was sufficient to trigger flowering, but no seed set; and 12 h

resulted in the highest seed number, likely due to additional time in the vegetative phase to

develop the biomass to support reproduction.

Advances in LED systems enable wavelength customisation and a more nuanced assessment

of the role of light quality in speed breeding platforms. In temperate pulses, we have

previously identified acceleration of flowering in response to enrichment in the far-red

spectrum (11) (12), which we postulate is the result of triggering aspects of 'shade avoidance

syndrome' (28). For faba bean, we demonstrate here successful plant growth under fully

artificial light environments across a wide range of R:FR ratios (viz. 10.2; 3.3; 1.2). We

conclude that faba appears relatively insensitive to light quality at photoperiod saturation.

Further study of light quality at 12 h photoperiod would likely facilitate better discrimination

between R:FR regimes. However, for the purpose of speed breeding within a vertical stacking

framework, AP67 arrays (R:FR 3.3, Valoya, Finland) were well-suited to acceleration of

flowering, compression of flowering time phenology differences, adequate seed set quantum

and viable seed weight.

Miniaturisation of tall plants such as faba bean is essential to the implementation of vertically

stacked plant growth. For faba, we achieved a highly reduced mature plant height by chemical

application of flurprimidol at the four-leaf growth stage, combined with growth in small pots

of either 1 L or 0.4 L. Ochatt (21) proposed flurprimidol to keep field pea (*Pisum sativum* L.)

plants at a manageable size in the glasshouse. We adapted this concept and used flurprimidol

as an *in vitro* treatment in our effort to develop a genotype-independent, fully *in vitro* rapid

generation turnover system for pea (22). This idea was taken up by Mobini (23) to develop an

in vitro generation acceleration system for lentil (*Lens culinaris* L.) and faba bean. As outlined

herein, flurprimidol, applied at the correct concentration and growth stage, is a reliable

method of reducing internode length and thus plant height, without extending time to

flowering. For the purposes of SSD which requires only 1 viable seed to move to the next

generation and 2-3 seeds as generational back-ups, combining flurprimidol treatment with a

0.4 L pot size provided sufficient seed in both the early and late flowering genotypes with

negligible effect on days to flowering and weight per seed.

There are two key points in the plant lifecycle where time can be saved, progression to

flowering and seed maturation. Building on our studies in other pulses and legume pastures

(11) (29) (12) (18) (13), we describe both an *in vitro* and *in vivo* method for achieving robust

precocious germination of immature seed following embryo physiological maturity in faba

bean. Both methods are simple and relatively easy to implement at scale. The *in vivo*

desiccation method is our favoured approach due to not requiring specialized sterile culture

facilities. Drying down the in-pod immature seed to a seed moisture content of ~7.5% (as per

the sorption isotherms (27)) enabled reliable germination of seed harvested pre-maturity and

saved 1-2 weeks per generation. We observed no germination penalty between mature and

immature seed post treatment. However, if generation turnover time is not critical, it is a

simple process to stop watering and allow seed to dry down on the plant.

The compression of breeding generation cycle has emerged as a cost-effective tool for

manipulating the rate of genetic gain (15) (30). For faba bean, the accelerated single seed

descent (aSSD) platform described here has been applied within FBA since 2019. Based on the

principles of single seed descent (8) (7), plants are grown under photoperiod extension, late-

spring temperature regime and precocious germination technology to enable rapid lifecycle

completion year-round for faba, irrespective of the field flowering phenology. Harnessing out-

of-season accelerated generation turnover enables i) phenotyping in-season at a more

advanced generation and ii) marker-assisted selection (MAS) for rapid identification and

culling of lines not homozygous for a desired trait prior to in-season field evaluation. The

combined aSSD-MAS approach is a highly efficient method to rapidly introgress novel traits

and target downstream breeding program resource allocation.

Conclusions

The positive implications of rapid generation cycling for rate of genetic gain in crops are widely

discussed in the literature (e.g., (31) (30) (32)). Speed breeding (9) has become an

international catch phrase to describe a range of techniques including Rapid Generation

Cycling (RGC), Fast Generation Cycling (FGC) and Rapid Generation Turnover (RGT). Despite

the literature being replete with examples of individual breeding/ pre-breeding technologies

with potential to this end, there remains no evidence in faba bean of protocols that are i)

genotype-independent and ii) delivered at scale across segregating populations in public

breeding. We bridge this gap with the development of the accelerated single seed decent

(aSSD) platform for faba bean and its extensive delivery to FBA. We provide evidence that

faba bean is relatively insensitive to R:FR ratio at photoperiod saturation, negating the need

for highly specialised lighting arrays for accelerating generation turnover. We provide a robust

protocol for the growth of miniaturised plants to maturity, enabling adoption of vertically

stacked plant growth systems that can be adapted to the growth of a range of tall crop plants

for plant genetic improvement purposes.

Figure legends

Figure 1. (A) PBA Samira plant at 15 days after sowing (3 fully reflexed leaf stage). (B) leaf and

soil drench. (C) Effect of flurprimidol concentration applied to PBA Samira. (D) Effect of

flurprimidol concentration applied to Faba bean genotypes PBA Nura and PBA Samira on plant

height at flowering (mm). Letters indicate significance groupings (P=0.05) among flurprimidol

concentrations within each genotype, and do not compare differences between genotypes.

Figure 2. Light spectrum profiles across the six environments used in this study (E1-6). The X

axis is wavelength (nm) from 300 to 780 nm, while the Y axis is the strength of that portion of

the wavelength relative to the strongest wavelength (0-1). Percentage numbers on each

graph represent amount of blue (B), red (R) and far red (FR) nm from the total in each profile,

and B: R and R: FR the ratios among those. Int represents the total intensity (photon flux

density, $\mu mol\ m^{-2}\ s^{-1}$) in each environment. E1: natural sunlight spectrum NS1 (Valoya RX

series); E2: natural sunlight; E3: far- red enriched AP67 spectrum, E4: AP673 spectrum; E5:

natural + AP67; E6: natural + AP673. Broad band red (R, 600–700 nm) and far-red (FR, 700–

780 nm) wavelengths with % of total light spectrum values for each region indicated within

each box. Narrow band R (650 ± 5 nm) and FR (730 ± 5 nm) regions were used for calculating

the ratio of R: FR light.

Figure 3. Industry relevant platform for Faba bean. Plants grow in A. multi-tiered shelves with

80 cm high spacing between shelves and B. the Valoya AP67 L-series arrays linked to form two

parallel lighting arrays, covering a surface of 200 cm x 60 cm per shelf. C. Detail of Faba bean

pods grown under aSSD conditions.

Figure 4. Effect of photoperiod on (A) days to flower and (B) number of seeds produced per

plant. Letters indicate significance groupings (α= 0.05) among photoperiods within each

genotype, and do not compare differences between genotypes.

Figure 5. Effect of light environment (E1: natural sunlight spectrum NS1 (Valoya RX series);

E2: natural sunlight; E3: AP67 spectrum, E4: AP673 spectrum; E5: natural + AP67; E6: natural

+ AP673) on (A) days to flower and (B) 100 seed weight (g) in Faba bean genotypes Icarus and

1952-1. Letters indicate significance groupings (α= 0.05) among environments within each

genotype, and do not compare differences between genotypes.

Figure 6. Effect of light environment (E1: natural sunlight spectrum NS1 (Valoya RX series);

E2: natural sunlight; E3: AP67 spectrum, E4: AP673 spectrum; E5: natural + AP67; E6: natural

+ AP673) and pot size on the count of seed produced per plant by faba bean genotypes (A)

1952-1 and (B) Icarus. Letters indicate significance groupings (P=0.05) among all environment

and pot size combinations within each genotype.

List of abbreviations

aSSD: accelerated single seed descent

MAS: Marker Assisted Selection

DTF: Days to flower

CER: Controlled environment room

R:FR: red to far red

LED: light emitting diode

DAS: Days after sowing

DAA: Days after anthesis

RIL: Recombinant inbred line

FBA: Australian PBA faba bean breeding program (FBA)

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

Not applicable

Consent for publication

Not applicable

Availability of data and materials

The datasets used and analysed during the development of this methodology are available

from the corresponding author upon request.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Funding

This work was supported by the Grains Research and Development Corporation [UWA00159

and UWA00175].

Authors' contributions

JC and FR conceived the study. JC supervised the project. FR, JC and JL designed the

experiments. The Australian PBA faba bean breeding program (FBA) represented in this

manuscript by SC provided all faba bean lines and populations used during the development

of this methodology. CM, RB, FR and MPN performed the experiments. RC managed plant

growth facilities. RB and FR analysed the data. MPN prepared the manuscript. All authors

have edited and participated in the writing process of the manuscript and agreed to

participate.

Acknowledgements

502   We thank Prof. William Erskine for his leadership, Mr Bill Piasini and Mr Leon Hodgson for

503   glasshouse expertise and Ms Kylie Edwards, Ms Sabrina Tschirren, Ms Karen Nelson, Dr Theo

504   Pfaff-Lichtenzveig and Ms Simone Wells for technical assistance. The authors are indebted to

505   Dr Jeff Paull for providing breeding materials.

References

1.   UNDESA UNDoEaSa, Population Division. World Population Prospects 2022:
Summary of Results2022 10 Dec 2023.

2.   Hazel LN, Lush JL. The efficiency of three methods of selection. Journal of Heredity.
1942;33(11):393-9.

3.   Lush JL. Animal breeding plans. Animal breeding plans. 1943(Edn 2).

4.   Fisher RA. The fundamental theorem of natural selection. The genetical theory of
natural selection. 1930:22-47.

5.   Guha S, Maheshwari SC. In vitro production of embryos from anthers of Datura.
Nature. 1964;204(4957):497-.

6.   Seguí-Simarro JM, Moreno JB, Fernández MG, Mir R. Species with haploid or doubled
haploid protocols. Doubled Haploid Technology: Volume 1: General Topics, Alliaceae,
Cereals. 2021:41-103.

7.   Brim CA. A modified pedigree method of selection in soybeans 1. Crop science.
1966;6(2):220-.

8.   Goulden CH. Problems in plant selection.-Burnett, RC (ed.): Proceedings of the 7th
International Genetic Congress. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge; 1939.

9.   Watson A, Ghosh S, Williams MJ, Cuddy WS, Simmonds J, Rey M-D, et al. Speed
breeding is a powerful tool to accelerate crop research and breeding. Nature plants.
2018;4(1):23-9.

10.   Samantara K, Bohra A, Mohapatra SR, Prihatini R, Asibe F, Singh L, et al. Breeding
more crops in less time: A perspective on speed breeding. Biology. 2022;11(2):275.

11.   Croser JS, Pazos-Navarro M, Bennett RG, Tschirren S, Edwards K, Erskine W, et al.
Time to flowering of temperate pulses in vivo and generation turnover in vivo–in vitro of
narrow-leaf lupin accelerated by low red to far-red ratio and high intensity in the far-red region.
Plant Cell, Tissue and Organ Culture (PCTOC). 2016;127:591-9.

12.   Ribalta FM, Pazos-Navarro M, Nelson K, Edwards K, Ross JJ, Bennett RG, et al.
Precocious floral initiation and identification of exact timing of embryo physiological maturity

facilitate germination of immature seeds to truncate the lifecycle of pea. Plant Growth Regulation. 2017;81:345-53.

13.   Croser J, Mao D, Dron N, Michelmore S, McMurray L, Preston C, et al. Evidence for the Application of Emerging Technologies to Accelerate Crop Improvement–A Collaborative Pipeline to Introgress Herbicide Tolerance Into Chickpea. Frontiers in Plant Science. 2021;12:779122.

14.   Bennett RG, Ribalta FM, Pazos-Navarro M, Leonforte A, Croser JS. Discrimination of boron tolerance in Pisum sativum L. genotypes using a rapid, high-throughput hydroponic screen and precociously germinated seed grown under far-red enriched light. Plant Methods. 2017;13:1-11.

15.   Atieno J, Colmer TD, Taylor J, Li Y, Quealy J, Kotula L, et al. Novel salinity tolerance loci in chickpea identified in glasshouse and field environments. Frontiers in Plant Science. 2021;12:667910.

16.   Dadu RHR, Bar I, Ford R, Sambasivam P, Croser J, Ribalta F, et al. Lens orientalis contributes quantitative trait loci and candidate genes associated with ascochyta blight resistance in lentil. Frontiers in Plant Science. 2021;12:703283.

17.   Khoo KHP, Sheedy JG, Taylor JD, Croser JS, Hayes JE, Sutton T, et al. A QTL on the Ca7 chromosome of chickpea affects resistance to the root-lesion nematode Pratylenchus thornei. Molecular Breeding. 2021;41(12):78.

18.   Taylor CM, Garg G, Berger JD, Ribalta FM, Croser JS, Singh KB, et al. A Trimethylguanosine Synthase1-like (TGS1) homologue is implicated in vernalisation and flowering time control. Theoretical and Applied Genetics. 2021;134:3411-26.

19.   Kalantari F, Tahir OM, Joni RA, Fatemi E. Opportunities and challenges in sustainability of vertical farming: A review. Journal of Landscape Ecology. 2018;11(1):35-60.

20.   Maiwald V, Kyunghwan K, Vrakking V, Zeidler C. From Antarctic prototype to ground test demonstrator for a lunar greenhouse. Acta Astronautica. 2023;212:246-60.

21.   Ochatt SJ, Sangwan RS, Marget P, Ndong YA, Rancillac M, Perney P, et al. New approaches towards the shortening of generation cycles for faster breeding of protein legumeshh. Plant Breeding. 2002;121(5):436-40.

22.   Ribalta FM, Croser JS, Erskine W, Finnegan PM, Lulsdorf MM, Ochatt SJ. Antigibberellin-induced reduction of internode length favors in vitro flowering and seed-set in different pea genotypes. Biologia Plantarum. 2014;58:39-46.

23.   Mobini SH, Lulsdorf M, Warkentin TD, Vandenberg A. Plant growth regulators improve in vitro flowering and rapid generation advancement in lentil and faba bean. In Vitro Cellular & Developmental Biology-Plant. 2015;51:71-9.

24.   H MPaM. Faba bean. AgFact [Internet]. 2003 10 Dec 2023.

25.   Cope KR, Bugbee B. Spectral effects of three types of white light-emitting diodes on plant growth and development: absolute versus relative amounts of blue light. HortScience. 2013;48(4):504-9.

26.   Runkle ES, Heins RD. Specific functions of red, far red, and blue light in flowering and stem extension of long-day plants. Journal of the American society for horticultural science. 2001;126(3):275-82.

27.   Menkov ND. Moisture sorption isotherms of broad bean seeds at different temperatures. Food/Nahrung. 2000;44(6):443-6.

28. Smith H, Whitelam GC. The shade avoidance syndrome: multiple responses mediated
by multiple phytochromes. Plant, Cell & Environment. 1997;20(6):840-4.

29. Pazos-Navarro M, Castello M, Bennett RG, Nichols P, Croser J. In vitro-assisted single-
seed descent for breeding-cycle compression in subterranean clover (Trifolium subterraneum
L.). Crop and Pasture Science. 2017;68(11):958-66.

30. Cobb JN, Juma RU, Biswas PS, Arbelaez JD, Rutkoski J, Atlin G, et al. Enhancing the
rate of genetic gain in public-sector plant breeding programs: lessons from the breeder's
equation. Theoretical and applied genetics. 2019;132:627-45.

31. Ghosh S, Watson A, Gonzalez-Navarro OE, Ramirez-Gonzalez RH, Yanes L,
Mendoza-Suárez M, et al. Speed breeding in growth chambers and glasshouses for crop
breeding and model plant research. Nature protocols. 2018;13(12):2944-63.

32. Varshney RK, Bohra A, Roorkiwal M, Barmukh R, Cowling WA, Chitikineni A, et al.
Fast-forward breeding for a food-secure world. Trends in Genetics. 2021;37(12):1124-36.

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6