**Title: Florigen Activation Complex Dynamics and SVP-Mediated Repression Orchestrate Temperature-Regulated Flowering in Saffron**

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**Abstract**

Saffron, a high-value spice cultivated worldwide for its therapeutic and culinary uses, is a sterile triploid species, rendering conventional breeding approaches ineffective. This limitation underscores the need for molecular and biotechnological strategies for its genetic improvement. Flowering, a key determinant of saffron yield, is strongly influenced by temperature; however, the genetic regulatory networks underlying this process remain poorly understood. Our study identifies key regulators of saffron's flowering, focusing on the Florigen Activation Complex (FAC) components: *FLOWERING LOCUS T* (FT), bZIP transcription factor FD, and *TERMINAL FLOWER-1* (TFL-1), and demonstrate their temperature-dependent roles in floral regulation. Spatiotemporal expression analyses suggested that *CsatFT3* and *CsatFD2*, expressed in the floral meristem promote floral induction, while *CsatTFL1*-3 acts as a floral repressor. Protein interaction studies showed that CsatFT3 and CsatTFL1-3 compete for binding to CsatFD2, and their balance modulates floral induction. Functional validation in Arabidopsis and Saffron confirmed these findings. Furthermore, we identified *CsatSVP2*, an ortholog of *SHORT VEGETATIVE PHASE* (SVP), as a low temperature-responsive repressor that directly binds the CsatFT3

promoter to inhibit its expression. Together, these findings enhance our understanding

of temperature mediated floral induction in saffron and provide insights and lay the

groundwork for genetic interventions to enhance yield under variable temperature

conditions.

**Keywords:** Florigen activation complex (FAC), Flowering locus T(FT), bZIP

transcription factor-FD, *TFL1*, Geophytes, Thermoresponsive, Thermoperiodic, Floral

induction, Phosphatidyl Ethanolamine Binding Protein (PEBP), VIGS,

## Introduction

Saffron (*Crocus sativus* L.) is a sterile, clonally propagated, autotriploid geophytic

monocot cultivated for its highly valued dried stigmas, which constitute the world's

most expensive spice. While the stigmas are the primary edible and culinary

component, other parts of the saffron plant also have diverse applications, including

uses in agriculture, traditional medicine, and as a natural colouring agent, making the

entire flower economically valuable (Ahrazem et al., 2015). Saffron has been

predominantly cultivated for centuries in select regions such as Iran, India, Greece,

Italy, Afghanistan, Morocco, Spain, and various Mediterranean basins (Cardone et al.,

2020). Flowering is the key determinant of saffron's crop productivity, and this critical

phase is increasingly influenced by environmental changes. As a thermoperiodic plant,

saffron's flowering is primarily regulated by temperature. During the warm summer

months, the transition from vegetative to reproductive growth occurs underground,

with floral bud emergence only triggered by exposure to cooler temperatures (Molina

et al., 2005a). This biphasic thermal requirement consists of an induction phase at

warm temperatures lasting 50–150 days, followed by an emergence phase under

cooler conditions, a pattern that has been well documented (Jose-Santhi et al., 2023;

Molina et al., 2005a). The inappropriate temperature during the flowering transition

leads to flower atrophy or no flower, causing yield loss (Wang et al., 2021). Saffron

corms can sense the temperature change and modify the response accordingly

(Molina et al., 2005b). Thus, there exists a thermoresponsive regulation of flowering

in saffron which is still not well studied at the molecular level.

Flowering is a key transition in the angiosperm life cycle, marking the shift from

vegetative to reproductive growth and representing a tightly regulated process vital for

survival. This process is orchestrated by a complex network of environmental cues,

internal signalling pathways, hormonal regulation, and genetic programs that together ensure flowering occurs under optimal conditions (Zik and Irish, 2003). Key environmental pathways influencing flowering include photoperiod, ambient temperature, light quality, vernalization, and gibberellin signalling. These pathways operate in coordination with endogenous factors along with plant age and nutritional status, allowing plants to synchronize reproduction with favourable environmental windows (Andrés and Coupland, 2012; Freytes et al., 2021; Pyo et al., 2014; Srikanth and Schmid, 2011). Extensive studies in both monocot and dicot organisms, such as Arabidopsis thaliana and rice, have uncovered key regulatory components of flowering (Kinoshita and Richter, 2020). Central to this regulation are floral integrator genes, particularly *FLOWERING LOCUS T* (*FT*) in Arabidopsis and *Heading Date 3a* (*Hd3a*) in rice, which belong to the phosphatidylethanolamine-binding protein (PEBP) family. FT/Hd3a promotes flowering by forming the Florigen Activation Complex (FAC), composed of FD-like bZIP transcription factors and the florigen receptor 14-3-3 protein (Abe et al., 2005; Taoka et al., 2013). This complex activates floral meristem identity genes such as *LEAFY* and *APETALA1*, initiating floral development (Putterill et al., 2004; Simon et al., 1996; Wigge et al., 2005). In contrast, *TERMINAL FLOWER 1* (TFL1), another PEBP family member, acts antagonistically to repress flowering (Wickland and Hanzawa, 2015). In rice, Hd3a, RFT1, and OsFTL10 promote flowering by forming the Florigen Activation Complex (FAC) (Komiya et al., 2008; Tamaki et al., 2007). Conversely, OsFTL12, OsFTL4, RCN1, and RCN2 act as floral repressors by competing for FAC components to assemble a Florigen Repression Complex (FRC) (Nakagawa et al., 2002; Zheng et al., 2023). The dynamic balance between FAC and FRC finely regulates heading date and plant architecture in rice. Members of the FD family are key interaction partners of the PEBP family, playing roles in both promoting and repressing meristem differentiation, depending on their specific interacting partners (Zhu et al., 2020). Concurrently, the flowering program suppresses negative regulators, including *FLOWERING LOCUS C* (FLC), and *SHORT VEGETATIVE PHASE* (SVP), which are crucial for ensuring a proper transition from the vegetative to the reproductive phase mainly regulated by temperature (Bowman et al., 2012; Turck et al., 2008). Temperature-dependent flowering has been widely studied, with FT-like genes playing a central role (Capovilla et al., 2015). Upstream regulators include MADS-domain transcription factors such as SVP and FLC, which modulate flowering by forming complexes and repressing *FT* expression via direct binding to its

promoter (Balasubramanian et al., 2006; Gu et al., 2013; Lee et al., 2007). However,

the thermoresponsive pathway governing floral induction in saffron remains largely

unexplored.

In contrast to annuals, the regulation of flowering in perennial geophytes involves

modified or additional mechanisms to accommodate their extended life cycles, periods

of dormancy and dual reproduction (Khosa et al., 2021). This has been observed in

species like *Narcissus tazetta* (Noy-Porat et al., 2013), tulip (Tulipa spp.)

(Leeggangers et al., 2017a), and saffron (Molina et al., 2005a), where floral induction

occurs even in the absence of leaves. In these species, flowering is thought to be

mediated directly at the meristem level, independent of traditional photoperiod or

vernalization cues. Instead, ambient temperature plays a dominant role in determining

flowering time. These observations highlight the need to identify the specific genes

and mechanisms that govern flowering in geophytic perennials. Over evolutionary

time, the molecular mechanisms controlling flowering have grown increasingly

complex, involving intricate interactions between floral regulator genes and their

transcription factor partners, which form regulatory complexes (Wickland and

Hanzawa, 2015). Gene duplication and neofunctionalization have contributed to the

diversification of these regulatory genes. Both *FT* and *TFL1,* the central regulators of

flowering, have undergone gene duplication events in various lineages, leading to

paralogs with distinct functions that promote or inhibit flowering (Jin et al., 2021). This

evolutionary diversification is evident across many species. In geophytes, for instance,

members of the PEBP gene family have extended their functions beyond flowering to

include the formation of underground storage organs, contributing to both sexual and

asexual reproduction (Khosa et al., 2021). In species like potato, tulip, and others,

gene duplication has led to distinct roles in flowering, vegetative growth, and tuber or

bulb formation (Bellinazzo et al., 2025; Jing et al., 2023; Navarro et al., 2011).  Similar

divergence has been observed in onion (*Allium cepa*), sugar beet (*Beta vulgaris*), and

hybrid aspen, demonstrating the complexity of flowering regulation in perennials (Hsu

et al., 2011; Lee et al., 2013b; Pin et al., 2010). Beyond the PEBP gene family,

functional diversification is seen in related pathways. In hybrid aspen, two FD

homologs, *FDL1* and *FDL2*, regulate seasonal growth differently (Tylewicz et al.,

2015). In rice, *OsFD2* contributes to leaf development while *OsFD1* regulates

flowering (Tsuji et al., 2013). FD-like transcription factors can have dual roles,

promoting or repressing flowering depending on their partners. For instance, *CmFDa* in *Chrysanthemum morifolium* represses flowering through epigenetic regulation (Xue et al., 2025). These examples highlight the evolutionary plasticity of flowering networks and the importance of species-specific regulatory mechanisms.

Saffron, due to its sterile nature and extremely limited genetic diversity, is not amenable to conventional breeding approaches, which hinders efforts to develop climate-resilient, high-yielding, and stress-tolerant varieties. As a result, there have been no significant advancements in improving saffron's adaptability to climate change, making its cultivation increasingly vulnerable to environmental fluctuations. Consequently, only biotechnological interventions can be employed to introduce desirable traits. Despite its economic and agricultural importance, research on the molecular regulation of flowering in saffron remains limited. Most existing studies have focused on temperature effects on flowering physiology (Molina et al., 2005a; Wang et al., 2021), and while several flowering-related genes have been identified through transcriptomic and genomic analyses (Hu et al., 2020; Kalia et al., 2022; Renau-Morata et al., 2021; Singh et al., 2023; Tsaftaris et al., 2013), these remain largely descriptive and lack functional validation. Expression profiling has indicated the involvement of multiple *FT* and *TFL1* homologs in saffron flowering (Kalia et al., 2022; Renau-Morata et al., 2021; Tsaftaris et al., 2013), yet no functional characterization of these genes has been reported. To fill this gap, we present a comprehensive molecular framework for temperature-dependent floral induction in saffron, a geophytic monocot with a unique flowering phenotype. By integrating gene expression profiling, heterologous functional assays, protein–protein interaction studies, promoter binding analyses, and virus-induced gene silencing, we identify key regulatory components that mediate the floral transition in response to ambient temperature. Overall, these findings advance our understanding of temperature-mediated flowering in saffron and provide a foundation for genetic interventions aimed at improving yield under fluctuating environmental conditions

## Methods

### Plant materials and growth conditions

Saffron corms *(Crocus sativus* L.) were grown under controlled conditions at CSIR-IHBT, and samples were collected monthly from January to September, covering both the vegetative growth and flowering phases (Jose-Santhi et al., 2023; Kalia et al.,

2022). To analyze gene expression patterns, apical buds, axillary buds, and corm tissues were harvested across this period, with three biological replicates per time point, each comprising pooled tissue from ten individual corms. For RT-qPCR analysis, apical buds, axillary bud, corm tissue collected during the vegetative and flowering stages were used, with detailed methods and results provided in the Supplementary Information.

ViGS experiments were conducted using corms grown under the same controlled conditions as described earlier. Corms with high flowering competency (weighing >10 g) were selected for the silencing of *CsatFT3* and *CsatFD2*. To investigate the role of *CsatSVP2*, two experimental conditions were used: (i) standard growth conditions, and (ii) a temperature-sensitive treatment in which corms were incubated at 8 °C during the flowering phase to assess temperature-dependent gene regulation. For silencing of *CsatTFL1-3/CEN1*, corms with lower flowering competency (weighing 7–9 g) were utilized.

*Arabidopsis thaliana* (Col-0) was used as the wild-type background for transformation experiments, and the ft1 mutant in the Ler background was used for functional complementation of CsatFT3. *Nicotiana benthamiana* was used for transient expression assays. Arabidopsis seeds were surface-sterilized with 4% sodium hypochlorite and germinated on half-strength Murashige and Skoog (MS) medium. To synchronize germination, seeds were stratified at 4°C for two days before being transferred to a soil mixture of peat, vermiculite, and perlite (2:1:1). All plants were cultivated in controlled growth chambers under long-day conditions (16 h light/8 h dark) at 22°C for Arabidopsis and 25°C for *Nicotiana benthamiana*.

**RNA isolation and expression analysis by RT-qPCR**

Total RNA was isolated from saffron apical buds, axillary buds, corm tissues, and Arabidopsis using the Plant Total RNA Isolation Kit (Sigma-Aldrich), according to the manufacturer's protocol. For each sample, 1 μg of total RNA was used to synthesize cDNA. Reverse transcription was performed using the RevertAid cDNA Synthesis Kit. The transcript level of each gene was quantified by quantitative real-time PCR (q-PCR) using gene-specific primers (Supplementary Table 1), generated by SnapGene Viewer 5.3.1 software (version 0.4.0) using the System (BioRad CFX Opus Real time PCR). Each expression analysis included three biological replicates, with each replicate derived from pooled tissue of ten individual corms. RT-qPCR results are

203 presented as the mean ± standard error (SEM) of three technical replicates per
204 biological sample.
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**Sequence alignments and phylogenetic analysis**

Protein sequences were aligned using the ClustalW algorithm with default parameters
to generate high-quality multiple sequence alignments. Visualization of the alignments
was performed using ESPript 3.x (Robert & Gouet, 2014) to highlight conserved
regions and structural features. The aligned sequences were exported in Newick
(.nwk) format for phylogenetic analysis. Phylogenetic tree construction was carried out
using the "build" function of ETE3 v3.1.3 (Huerta-Cepas et al., 2016), implemented via
the GenomeNet platform (https://www.genome.jp/tools/ete/). FastTree v2.1.8 (Price et
al., 2010) was used with default settings to infer approximately maximum-likelihood
phylogenetic trees.
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**Plant transformation**

To generate Arabidopsis transgenic lines, full-length coding sequences (CDS) of the
target genes were amplified and first cloned into the pENTR entry vector using
Gateway® cloning technology. Subsequently, LR recombination was performed to
transfer the CDS into the destination vectors pK2GW7 (for overexpression analysis),
under the control of the Cauliflower Mosaic Virus (CaMV) 35S promoter. The resulting
constructs included 35S::*CsatFD1*, 35S::*CsatFD2*, 35S::*CsatFD3*, 35S::*CsatFT3*,
35S::*CsatTFL1-1*, 35S::*CsatTFL1-2*, 35S::*CsatTFL1-3*, 35S::*CsatSVP1*, and
35S::*CsatSVP2*. Primer sequences used for vector construction are provided in the
supplementary table 1 file. The final recombinant plasmids were introduced into
*Arabidopsis thaliana* (Col-0) via Agrobacterium tumefaciens strain GV3101 using the
floral dip transformation method. Transgenic seeds were harvested individually and
screened based on the appropriate selection marker. Homozygous T3 lines were
identified and used for further phenotypic characterization. Flowering time was
recorded as the number of days from germination to the emergence of the first floral
bud.
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**Yeast one hybrid (Y1H) assay**

To examine the binding of CsatSVP2 to the CsatFT3 promoter, yeast one-hybrid (Y1H)
assays were conducted using the Matchmaker® Gold Yeast One-Hybrid System Kit

(Clontech). Promoter fragments of CsatFT3 containing the core CArG-box motif were
cloned into the pAbAi vector. The resulting recombinant pAbAi-promoter plasmids
were linearized with BstBI (NEB) and integrated into the genome of the Y1HGold yeast
strain. Transformants were selected on synthetic dextrose (SD) medium lacking uracil
(SD/-Ura). The coding sequence of CsatSVP2 was amplified and inserted into the
pGADT7-AD vector. The recombinant pGADT7-AD constructs were then introduced
into the Y1HGold strains containing the integrated CsatFT3 promoter. Protein–DNA
interaction was assessed by culturing the transformed yeast on SD medium lacking
leucine (SD/-Leu) and supplemented with Aureobasidin A (AbA) at a minimal inhibitory
concentration of 150 ng/mL for four days. Primer sequences used for cloning are
provided in Supplementary Table 1.
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**Histochemical localization of GUS activity**
GUS activity was performed using the histochemical staining protocol described by
Jefferson (Jefferson et al., 1987). Transgenic *Arabidopsis thaliana* lines with
*ProCsatFT3::GUS* construct were incubated in a staining solution composed of 50 mM
sodium phosphate buffer (pH 7.2), 2.0 mM potassium ferricyanide [$K_3Fe(CN)_6$], 2.0
mM potassium ferrocyanide [$K_4Fe(CN)_6$], 0.1% (v/v) and 1.0 mg/mL X-Gluc (5-bromo-
4-chloro-3-indolyl-β-D-glucuronide). Samples were incubated at 37 °C for 5 hours to
allow GUS expression to develop. Following staining, tissues were cleared with 70%
(v/v) ethanol to remove chlorophyll and enhance contrast, then examined under a
stereo microscope (ZEISS Stemi 508). To validate GUS expression patterns, at least
ten independent transgenic lines were screened for the construct. Plants from three
confirmed GUS-positive lines were selected for detailed expression analysis at various
developmental stages, including 7, 14, and 21 days after germination (DAG),
inflorescence emergence, flowering, and silique formation. For the flowering and
silique stages, staining was performed on aerial tissues from soil-grown plants
264
**Yeast two-hybrid (Y2H) assays**
Yeast two-hybrid assays were conducted following the manufacturer's protocol using
the Matchmaker™ Two-Hybrid System (Clontech). The coding sequences of
CsatFD1, CsatFD2, and CsatFD3 were cloned into the bait vector pGBKT7, whereas
those of CsatFT3, CsatTFL1-1, CsatTFL1-2, and CsatTFL1-3 were inserted into the
prey vector pGADT7. The primers used for amplification are provided below. Bait and

prey plasmids were co-transformed into the Y2HGold yeast strain and cultured on

synthetic dextrose (SD) medium lacking tryptophan (SD/-Trp) and leucine (SD/-Leu)

for 3–5 days at 30°C. Protein-protein interactions were assessed by selecting colonies

on SD medium lacking Trp, Leu, and histidine (SD/-Trp/-Leu/-His).

**Bimolecular fluorescence complementation (BiFC)**

The coding sequences of *CsatFD1*, *CsatFD2*, *CsatFD3* Cloned into YFP C-terminal

(YFPC) and *CsatFT3*, *CsatTFL1-1*, *CsatTFL1-2*, *CsatTFL1-3* were cloned into the

YFP N-terminal (YFPN) vectors. Primer sequences used for vector construction are

provided in the supplementary table 1. These constructs were then introduced into

Agrobacterium tumefaciens strain GV3101 for transient expression in 5-week-old

*Nicotiana benthamiana* leaves. After co-infiltration for 48 hours, fluorescence was

imaged using a confocal laser scanning microscope (Leica, Stellaris 5, Germany). YFP

fluorescence was excited at 514 nm, with emission detected between 522 and 560

nm.

**Firefly Complementation Assay**

The full-length coding sequences (CDSs) of CsatFT3, CsatTFL1-3, and CsatFD2 were

cloned into the pCAMBIA1300-nLUC and pCAMBIA1300-cLUC vectors, respectively,

and introduced into Agrobacterium tumefaciens strain GV3101. Various combinations

were co-infiltrated into Nicotiana benthamiana leaves. The infiltrated plants were

incubated at 22 °C for two days. Prior to LUC activity detection, the leaves were

sprayed with 1 mM D-luciferin (Potassium Salt, BioVision) and incubated in the dark

for 8 minutes to eliminate background fluorescence. Fluorescence was detected using

a cooled CCD camera system (Bio-Rad Chemi Doc). Relative LUC intensity was

quantified using ImageJ software. Statistical analysis was performed using one-way

ANOVA, and significance was assessed using the Compact Letter Display (CLD)

method to indicate differences at a significant p-value level. Primer sequences used

in these assays are provided in Supplementary Table 1.

**Genome walker library for promoter amplification**

The 5′ upstream region of the CsatFT3 gene from Crocus sativus was obtained using

the Genome Walker™ kit (Clontech, USA). Genomic DNA was extracted from leaf

tissue following the protocol provided with the QIAGEN DNA isolation kit, then

digested with two blunt-end restriction enzymes, DraI and EcoRV, and further ligated

with adapters, to generate Genome Walker libraries. Gene-specific primers (GSPs),

designed based on the CsatFT3 cDNA sequence, were used alongside adaptor

primers from the kit to carry out primary and nested PCR amplifications as listed in

Supplementary Table 1. The amplified PCR products were resolved on a 1% (w/v)

agarose gel, purified, and cloned into the pGEM-T Easy vector (Promega, USA) for

sequencing. The resulting CsatFT3 promoter sequence was analyzed using the

PlantCARE database (Lescot et al., 2002) to identify potential cis-regulatory elements

involved in transcriptional regulation.

**Virus-induced gene silencing (VIGS)**

Virus-induced gene silencing (VIGS) was carried out following the protocol established

in lab (Kalia et al., 2024). Gene-specific fragments were amplified for *CsatFT3* (300

bp, flanked by EcoRI sites), *CsatFD2* (292 bp, flanked by BamHI sites), *CsatTFL1-3*

(302 bp, containing both EcoRI and BamHI sites), and *CsatSVP2* (318 bp, with

EcoR1and BamH1 sites) restriction sites at both termini. These fragments were cloned

into the pTRV2 vector to generate the constructs. Agrobacterium-mediated infiltration

was performed as previously described (Kalia et al., 2024). To confirm gene silencing,

transcript levels of *CsatFT3*, *CsatFD2*, *CsatTFL1-3*, and *CsatSVP2* were quantified by

RT-qPCR in apical buds collected at the floral induction stage. Phenotypic analysis of

flower development was conducted when floral buds reached the floral emergence

stage. Primer sequences used for the VIGS assay are listed in Supplementary table

1.

**Luciferase assay**

To investigate the regulatory effect of *CsatSVP2* on the *CsatFT3* promoter, a

luciferase reporter assay was conducted in *Nicotiana benthamiana* leaves. Promoter

sequences of *CsatFT3* were cloned into the Gateway-compatible vector pGWB435

(Invitrogen) upstream of the luciferase (Luc) reporter gene. Three promoter constructs

were generated: (i) the full-length promoter (FL), (ii) a truncated fragment containing

the CArG motif(T1), and (iii) a truncated fragment lacking the CArG motif (T2). The

*CsatSVP2* coding sequence was separately cloned into pGWB402 under the control

of the CaMV35S promoter to serve as an effector. Control treatments included empty

vectors (pGWB435 and pGWB402) as a negative control, and *ProCsatFT3*::Luc alone

as a positive control. Constructs were introduced into the *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*

strain GV3101 and co-infiltrated into *Nicotiana benthamiana* leaves. Each leaf was

divided into four quadrants to enable side-by-side comparisons of different treatments

within the same biological context. Luciferase activity was visualized and quantified

using ImageJ software. The experiment was repeated independently at least three

times in separate leaves to ensure reproducibility. One-way ANOVA was used for

statistical analysis, and differences among treatments were determined using

Compact Letter Display (CLD) to indicate statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$).

**Statistical analyses**

All statistical analyses were conducted using GraphPad Prism version 10 for Windows

(GraphPad Software, Boston, MA, USA; www.graphpad.com). One-way ANOVA

followed by Tukey's Honest Significant Difference (HSD) test was applied for multiple

comparisons. Statistically significant differences between groups at $p < 0.05$ are

indicated by different letters, as determined by Compact Letter Display (CLD). Two-

way ANOVA to assess the effects of temperature, month, and their interaction,

followed by Sidak's multiple comparisons test and Student's t-test for one-to-one

comparison. (*: $p<0.05$; **: $p<0.01$***: $p<0.001$) (****: $p<0.0001$).

**Results:**

**CsatFT3 functions as a temperature-sensitive regulator of floral induction in**

**saffron**

Our previous work identified several PEBP family genes implicated in flowering

regulation in saffron, with *CsatFT3* emerging as a potential key regulator of floral

induction (Kalia et al., 2023). However, that study was limited to spatial and temporal

expression profiling during the reproductive phase transition. To further elucidate the

functional role of *CsatFT3*, we investigated its expression dynamics across vegetative

and reproductive phases in saffron apical buds. We found that *CsatFT3* is specifically

expressed during the reproductive phase, with transcript accumulation coinciding with

the floral induction stage (Figure 1A, Supplementary Figure 1). In contrast, its

expression was barely detectable in apices of newly developing corms and during the

vegetative phase in winter. Given that low temperatures are known to suppress floral

induction in saffron (Jose-Santhi et al., 2023), we next assessed *CsatFT3* expression

in apical buds of corms stored under low (8°C) and ambient (25°C) temperature conditions following the vegetative phase. Consistent with a temperature-responsive role, *CsatFT3* transcript levels were markedly reduced in corms stored at 8°C compared to those maintained at 25°C (Figure 1B).

To further investigate tissue- and temperature-specific expression of the *CsatFT3* gene, we isolated a 1.2 kb fragment of the *CsatFT3* promoter (Supplementary figure 2) that contains several core, distal, and proximal promoter elements and constructed a promoter-GUS fusion construct. GUS-driven transcription reporter lines of *CsatFT3* displayed meristem and flower-specific expression in Arabidopsis, consistent with our spatiotemporal expression profiling in saffron (Figure 1C and Supplementary figure 3). Furthermore, these *ProCsatFT3::GUS* fusion lines demonstrated temperature-sensitive regulation, with expression gradually decreasing as the temperature was lowered, in line with our previous findings that low temperatures suppress the expression of *CsatFT3* (Figure 1D). At low temperatures (4°C), GUS activity was nearly undetectable, indicating a significant suppression of expression under cold conditions. These findings reinforce the role of *CsatFT3* in temperature-sensitive flowering regulation in saffron and suggest that its expression is activated under the relatively high-temperature conditions that promote floral induction.

To functionally validate the role of *CsatFT3* in floral regulation, we ectopically expressed *CsatFT3* in Arabidopsis Col-0 and complemented the late-flowering *ft-1* mutant (Ler-0). Overexpression in Col-0 resulted in a significant early-flowering phenotype (Figure 1E–G), while *ft-1* plants transformed with *CsatFT3* exhibited restored or even earlier flowering compared to wild-type (Figure 1H–J). These results confirm that *CsatFT3* is functionally conserved and capable of promoting flowering in a heterologous system. Following confirmation of CsatFT3's involvement in floral induction and flowering, finally, to evaluate the role of *CsatFT3* in its native we performed Virus-Induced Gene Silencing (VIGS) of *CsatFT3* in saffron corms and monitored flowering. Silencing of *CsatFT3* led to a significant reduction in its transcript levels in apical buds (Figure 1K) and was accompanied by a marked decrease in flowering percentage compared to TRV2 mock-infected controls (Figure 1L–M). No significant decrease of *CsatFT1* and *CsatFT2* was observed in TRV2-silenced CsatFT3 corms (Supplementary Figure 4). Together, these findings establish CsatFT3 as a temperature-sensitive floral inducer in saffron, functioning as a key regulatory component during the transition from vegetative to reproductive growth.

**Identification of florigen activation complex component FD, involved in flowering induction in saffron**

*FT* like genes requires interaction with bZIP transcription factor-*FD* to form FT-FD complex that directly activates the floral meristem identity genes. Thus, to identify the FD like genes involved in floral induction of saffron we have cloned full length cDNAs for three FD-like genes (*CsatFD1*, *CsatFD2* and *CsatFD3*), which encodes for 197, 215 and 245 aa of proteins respectively. All the three FDs are similar to FD proteins from other plants and contains the conserved basic region, Leucine zipper region and the functionally important conserved threonine (T)/SAP motif at the C terminus (Supplementary Figure 5A). Phylogeny aligns CsatFD's with monocot FDs with Asparagus officinalis as the nearest family member (Supplementary Figure 5B).

We next investigated the expression profiles of the three saffron *FD* genes during the vegetative and flowering induction stages. Interestingly, the expression of *CsatFD2* coincided with the floral induction stage, whereas *CsatFD3* showed higher expression at later stages of sprouting, specifically in July, when floral differentiation and vegetative growth begin (Figure 2 A). In contrast, *CsatFD1* was expressed at relatively stable levels throughout flower initiation and the vegetative phase, but its expression was generally lower compared to *CsatFD2* and *CsatFD3*. In saffron, the apical bud gives rise to the flower, while the axillary buds contribute only to vegetative growth, thereby distinguishing the reproductive meristem from the vegetative meristems (Kalia et al., 2022). Notably, *CsatFD2* was predominantly expressed in apical buds and flower tissues, indicating a primary role in flowering (Figure 2B, C). Additionally, *CsatFD2* showed comparatively higher expression in flower tissues compared to the other two FD genes (Figure 2C). We also examined the temperature-sensitive expression of these genes in corms stored at low (8°C) and ambient high (25°C) temperatures. Our results revealed that CsatFD2 expression was significantly downregulated at low temperatures (Figure 2D), whereas CsatFD1 and CsatFD3 did not show a similar trend (Supplementary Figure 6A). Notably, CsatFD1 expression remained unchanged at 8°C in June, the period when floral induction typically occurs. Interestingly, CsatFD3 showed higher expression in corms stored at low temperatures compared to those stored at 25°C (Supplementary Figure 6B).

Next, we examined the effect of ectopic expression of the saffron *FD* genes in Arabidopsis. Ectopic expression of *CsatFD2* can only induce early flowering in

Arabidopsis, whereas there was no significant phenotypic change observed in
*CsatFD1* and *CsatFD3* expressing Arabidopsis plants (Figure 2E). These findings
were further supported by measurements of days to flowering and the number of
rosette leaves in the Arabidopsis transformants (Figures 2F-K). These results further
suggest that *CsatFD2* may be the primary gene involved in flowering regulation in
saffron. To confirm the role of *CsatFD2* during floral induction, we silenced the gene
using Virus-Induced Gene Silencing (VIGS) in flower-competent saffron corms.
Compared to the TRV2 control, silencing of *CsatFD2* resulted in a reduction in flower
formation and overall flowering percentage (Figure 2L). VIGS silencing of CsatFD2
also led to a significant decrease in its transcript levels (Figure 2M), but did not affect
the expression of *CsatFD1* and *CsatFD3* (Supplementary Figure 7 A and B). These
results suggest that *CsatFD2* is a key component of the Floral Activator Complex
(FAC) involved in floral induction in saffron.

**TFL1-3/CEN1 is a newly identified negative regulator of flowering induction in**
**saffron**

In our previous study (Kalia et al., 2023), we identified two homologs of *TFL-1*/*CEN*,
named Csat*TFL1-1* and Csat*TFL1-2*, and through spatio-temporal expression
profiling, we proposed that TFL1-2 may play a role in determining flowering
competency in saffron (Supplementary figure 8A and B). However, neither of these
two *TFL-1* genes exhibited a temperature-sensitive response (Supplementary Figure
9A and B). Furthermore, ectopic expression of *CsatTFL1-1* and *CsatTFL1-2* in
Arabidopsis led to delayed bolting in only *CsatTFL1-2* plants compared to wild-type
(WT) under long-day (LD) conditions, whereas *CsatTFL1-1* transformants bolted
normally, similar to WT plants (Supplementary figure 10A-F). Additionally, interaction
studies, including BiFC and Y2H assays, did not reveal any positive interactions with
*CsatFD2*, our identified positive regulator of flowering (Supplementary Figure 11A and
B). These findings prompted us to investigate further, hypothesizing that another
homolog of TFL1/CEN might be involved in floral induction in saffron. Through corm
development studies in our lab (Jose-Santhi et al., 2023), we identified a third *TFL1*
homolog, which exhibited higher expression during the vegetative phase. This gene
shares similarities with *CsatTFL1-1* and *CsatTFL1-2*, but phylogenetic analysis
clustered it within the CEN subgroup. Based on this, we named it *CsatTFL1-3*/*CEN1*
(Supplementary Figure 12A and B). Like other TFL1/CEN family members, TFL1-

3/CEN1 contains the conserved domains characteristic of this gene family.
Quantitative PCR (qPCR) expression profiling revealed that *CsatTFL1-3/CEN1*
expression is elevated during the vegetative phase, with a significant decrease during
the reproductive phase (Figure 3A). Tissue-specific expression analysis confirmed
that *CsatTFL1-3/CEN1* is predominantly expressed in the axillary bud tissue, further
supporting its potential role in negatively regulating flowering (Figure 3 C and D).
Next, we examined the expression of *CsatTFL1-3/CEN1* in corms stored at low (8°C)
and ambient (25°C) temperatures. Interestingly, there was no reduction in *TFL1-*
*3/CEN1* expression in corms stored at low temperatures compared to those stored at
ambient high temperatures, suggesting that it may be regulated by temperature and
could play a role in temperature-mediated floral induction in saffron (Figure 3B). We
then performed ectopic expression of *CsatTFL1-3/CEN1* in *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Col-
0) under the control of the constitutive 35S promoter. Transgenic lines exhibited a
significant delay in flowering compared to wild-type plants, as evidenced by increased
days to bolting and a higher number of rosette leaves at flowering (Figure 3F-G).
These results confirm the ability of TFL1-3/CEN1 to act as a floral repressor in
Arabidopsis, consistent with its proposed function in saffron. Notably, ectopic
expression of TFL1-3/CEN1 also led to a hyper-vegetative shoot phenotype,
characterized by the development of an inflorescence composed of leaf primordia
surrounded by small, serrated leaves—a phenotype not observed in TFL1-1 or TFL1-
2 expressing Arabidopsis lines (Figure 3E). Finally, we performed Virus-Induced Gene
Silencing (VIGS) of *CsatTFL1-3/CEN1* in low-flower-competent saffron corms. In
comparison to TRV2 control plants, silencing of *CsatTFL1-3/CEN1* led to the formation
of floral structures in 7-9 g corms (classified as low-flower-competent), and these
flowers appeared earlier than in TRV2 controls (Figure 3G-I). Importantly, VIGS of
*CsatTFL1-3/CEN1* did not affect the transcript levels of the other two *TFL1* homologs,
TFL1-1 and TFL1-2 (Supplementary Figure 13 A and B), suggesting TFL1-3/CEN1
and not TFL1-1 or TFL1-2 could play a role in flowering in saffron. This observation
suggests that TFL1-3/CEN1 acts as a negative regulator of floral induction, and its
silencing promotes floral transition in otherwise low-flowering competence corms.
505
### The FT-FD-TFL complex involved in floral regulation
507  Our earlier analyses identified *CsatFT3*, *CsatFD2*, and *CsatTFL1-3/CEN1* as potential
508  core components of a Floral Activator Complex (FAC) in saffron. To investigate

whether these proteins physically interact to form functional regulatory complexes, we employed two complementary approaches: yeast two-hybrid (Y2H) assays and bimolecular fluorescence complementation (BiFC) in *Nicotiana benthamiana*. In the Y2H assays, the coding sequences (CDS) of the three *CsatFD* genes were cloned into the pGADT7 prey vector, and co-transformed into yeast with either *CsatFT3* or *CsatTFL1-3/CEN1* fused to the pGBKT7 bait vector. Interaction screening revealed that both CsatFT3 and TFL1-3/CEN1 specifically interacted with CsatFD2, but not with CsatFD1 or CsatFD3 (Figure 4 A and B). These results suggest that CsatFD2 may serve as a central interacting hub for both activator (FT3) and repressor (TFL1-3) proteins within the FAC.

We further validated these interactions by BiFC assays in *Nicotiana benthamiana* leaves. YFP fluorescence was observed in nuclei of cells co-expressing the C-terminal half of YFP fused to CsatFD2 (cYFP–CsatFD2) with the N-terminal half of YFP fused to either CsatFT3 (nYFP–CsatFT3) or CsatTFL1-3 (nYFP–CsatTFL1-3) (Figure 4 C and D). No YFP fluorescence was detected in negative controls, including co-expression of cYFP–CsatFD2 with nYFP alone or cYFP alone with nYFP–CsatFT3 or CsatTFL1-3. Furthermore, consistent with the Y2H results, no BiFC signal was observed when CsatFT3 or TFL1-3/CEN1 were co-expressed with CsatFD1 or CsatFD3 (Supplementary Figure). Together, these findings strongly support a model in which CsatFD2 specifically interacts with both CsatFT3 and TFL1-3/CEN1, suggesting that competitive complex formation may modulate floral transition in saffron.

Given the antagonistic roles of CsatFT3 and CsatTFL1-3 in the regulation of flowering, and their respective interactions with the transcription factor CsatFD2, it was hypothesized that CsatFT3 and CsatTFL1-3 may compete for binding to CsatFD2. To investigate this, a luciferase complementation imaging (LCI) assay was conducted in *Nicotiana benthamiana* leaves to evaluate the interaction strength between CsatFD2-nLUC and cLUC-CsatTFL1-3 in the presence or absence of SK-CsatFT3.Strong luciferase (LUC) activity was observed when CsatFD2-nLUC and cLUC-CsatTFL1-3 were coexpressed, indicating a robust interaction. However, coexpression with SK-CsatFT3 significantly reduced LUC activity, suggesting that CsatFT3 interferes with the interaction between CsatTFL1-3 and CsatFD2. Moreover, this suppression was dose-dependent, with increasing amounts of CsatFT3 leading to a progressive decrease in LUC signal (Figure 4E). Biological replicates supporting these

observations are presented in Supplementary figure 15 A and B. These results
strongly suggest that CsatFT3 competes with CsatTFL1-3 for interaction with
CsatFD2, which interferes with CsatTFL1-3's ability to interact with CsatFD2.

**CsatSVP2 Acts Upstream of FT3 in Temperature-Mediated Floral Repression**
To identify upstream genes potentially involved in temperature-dependent floral
induction in saffron, we screened transcriptome data representing the suppression of
floral induction under low temperatures (Jose-Santhi et al., 2023) and identified two
partial SVP-like MADS-box genes that were upregulated in non-flowering samples.
SVP-like genes are known to regulate flowering in a temperature-dependent manner
(Lee et al., 2007). Using long-read and other in-house transcriptome data, and based
on sequence similarity, we obtained full-length sequences of these two SVP-like
genes. We isolated and cloned them from saffron, naming them *CsatSVP1* and
*CsatSVP2*. Sequence analysis indicated that while these genes are highly similar, they
code for different amino acid sequences. Multiple sequence alignment revealed that
both CsatSVP1 and CsatSVP2 contain the conserved MADS-box domain, and
phylogenetic analysis grouped them with SVP-like genes from other geophytes, such
as Narcissus, Zingiber, and Lilium (Supplementary Figure 16 A and B).
To further characterize their role in flowering, we performed expression analysis of
*CsatSVP1* and *CsatSVP2* during vegetative and floral induction stages. Both genes
showed a significant reduction in expression during the floral induction stage (June);
however, the reduction in *CsatSVP2* was more pronounced and correlated closely with
floral induction and subsequent stages (Figure 5A). We then evaluated their
expression in corms stored under floral inductive (25°C) and non-inductive (8°C)
conditions. *CsatSVP2* transcript levels remained high at both temperatures,
suggesting it may contribute to the floral repression observed at low temperatures
(Figure 5C). In contrast, *CsatSVP1* expression decreased under both conditions,
showing no temperature-dependent pattern (Figure 5B). Additionally, *CsatSVP2*
expression was comparatively higher in floral tissues than *CsatSVP1*, further
supporting its potential regulatory role (Supplementary Figure 17).
Next, to functionally validate these genes, we ectopically expressed both *CsatSVP1*
and *CsatSVP2* in Arabidopsis under a constitutive promoter. Ectopic expression of
both genes resulted in delayed flowering, with a more pronounced delay in the
CsatSVP2-transformed lines compared to both the control and *CsatSVP1* lines (Figure

5D-I). Arabidopsis plants expressing *CsatSVP2* displayed various phenotypic changes
in flower bud and flower morphology, producing smaller, more compact flowers and
shorter siliques (Supplementary Figure 18). To investigate the role of *SVP* in
temperature-mediated floral suppression, we silenced *CsatSVP2* in saffron corms
using Virus-Induced Gene Silencing (VIGS). Csat*SVP2* was selected due to its
expression pattern and phenotype in Arabidopsis, which correlated with its expected
function. Since low temperatures during storage or dormancy are known to suppress
flowering, and CsatSVP2 may be involved in this process, we stored the *CsatSVP2-*
silenced corms at low temperatures, alongside a mock control (TRV2). Silencing of
SVP2 resulted in flowering in corms at low temperatures, whereas the TRV2-treated
corms stored at low temperatures did not flower (Figure 5J). In parallel, corms stored
at 25°C—an inductive condition—showed flowering in both control and SVP2-silenced
groups, confirming that *CsatSVP2* acts specifically in the floral suppression
mechanism under cold conditions (Figure 5K). Gene expression analysis further
revealed that *CsatSVP2* silencing prevented the typical low-temperature-mediated
suppression of *CsatFT3* expression, thereby facilitating flowering (Figure 5P and Q).
These findings suggest that CsatSVP2 and CsatFT3 act within the same regulatory
pathway, mediating temperature-responsive floral induction in saffron.

**SVP2 Directly Binds to the CsatFT3 Promoter and Represses Its Expression**
Our previous results indicated that CsatSVP2 and CsatFT3 function in the same
temperature-sensitive regulatory pathway: low temperature maintains or upregulates
CsatSVP2 expression, which in turn suppresses *CsatFT3*, thereby repressing floral
induction. Notably, *CsatFT3* transcript levels were restored in *CsatSVP2*-silenced
corms, suggesting that CsatSVP2 functions upstream of *CsatFT3*. To further explore
the mechanism of this regulation, we analyzed the CsatFT3 promoter sequence to
identify potential binding motifs for MADS-box transcription factors. In silico analysis
of the 1.2 kb FT3 promoter, previously shown to drive temperature-responsive
expression, revealed a conserved CArG-box motif (CCATTTAAGG) located
approximately 827 bp upstream of the ATG start codon that is established for binding
of MADS boxes genes including SVP orthologs (Figure 6A). To experimentally test
further whether CsatSVP2 directly binds to the *CsatFT3* promoter, we performed a
yeast one-hybrid (Y1H) assay. The Y1H assay confirmed that CsatSVP2 specifically
binds to the *CsatFT3* promoter, supporting the hypothesis of direct regulation (Figure

6B). To further validate the functional specificity of this interaction, we employed a
luciferase reporter assay using *Nicotiana benthamiana* transient expression (Figure
6C) and conducted a luciferase reporter assay using three different FT3 promoter
fragments: (1) the full-length promoter (~1.2kb), (2) a truncated version containing the
conserved CArG motif (T1), and (3) a truncated version lacking the motif (T2) (Figure
6D). Co-expression of CsatSVP2 with these constructs in *Nicotiana benthamiana*
revealed that luciferase activity was significantly reduced in both the full-length and T1
constructs (Figure6 D and F). In contrast, no repression was observed with the T2
construct, confirming that SVP2 specifically suppresses FT3 expression through direct
binding to the CArG motif (Figure 6F). Together, these results establish a mechanistic
model in which CsatSVP2 acts as a temperature-responsive floral repressor that
directly binds to the FT3 promoter via a conserved CArG motif, thereby repressing
FT3 expression and floral induction under low-temperature conditions.
624
**Discussion**
Saffron is a high-value crop cultivated in limited regions due to its strict temperature
requirements, which distinctly regulate its vegetative and reproductive growth. High
temperatures induce flowering, while subsequent cooling triggers flower formation. In
contrast, low temperatures suppress floral induction and support vegetative growth,
enabling overwintering and daughter corm development (Molina et al., 2005a). This
temperature sensitivity restricts saffron cultivation to specific climates. Although
environmental control of flowering has enabled cultivation in soilless and controlled
settings, the molecular mechanisms underlying temperature-regulated flowering
remain poorly understood. As a sterile crop, saffron cannot be improved through
conventional breeding, making biotechnological interventions essential. However,
limited genomic and genetic resources, challenges in genetic transformation, and a
scarcity of molecular studies have hindered progress in functional genomics, creating
a critical knowledge gap that must be addressed.
In this study, we have identified a temperature-sensitive transcriptional network that
regulates flowering in saffron, uncovering both conserved and saffron-specific
components involved in floral induction (Figure 7). Our data establish a regulatory
module involving CsatFT3, CsatFD2, CsatTFL1-3/CEN1, and CsatSVP2 as key
components in mediating floral transition in response to temperature cues. Although
the core elements of the Florigen Activation Complex (FAC) - FT, FD, and TFL1 are

conserved across angiosperms, their expression patterns, protein interactions, and functional dynamics in saffron suggest neofunctionalization in line with its geophytic lifecycle. For instance, Notably, CsatFT3 and CsatFD2 are upregulated at higher temperatures and co-expressed in the floral meristem, promoting flowering. In contrast, other FT and FD homologs show no such expression correlation (Figure 2; (Kalia et al., 2022), indicating their limited or no involvement in floral induction. Similarly, CsatTFL1-3 functions as a floral repressor by competitively binding to CsatFD2, whereas the other two TFL1 homologs neither interact with CsatFD2 nor delay flowering in Arabidopsis, suggesting a lack of functional redundancy and functional specificity. Functional validation in both Arabidopsis and saffron confirms that floral induction is governed by the dynamic interplay between CsatFT3, CsatFD2, and CsatTFL1-3.Given the roles of gene duplication, neofunctionalization, and lineage-specific gene expansion in driving the specialization of reproductive and vegetative pathways in geophytes (Khosa et al., 2021), our identification of distinct regulatory factors and their molecular interactors from multigene families in saffron represents a significant advance.

A distinguishing feature of floral induction observed in saffron is the spatial restriction of flowering-related gene expression predominantly to the meristem. All the genes identified in this study were specifically expressed in the apical (flowering) meristem. During floral induction, saffron corms are either underground or stored in the dark and remain leafless, indicating that the molecular signals initiating flowering are localized within the apical buds. Such meristem-localized control may reflect an adaptation to the geophytic habit of saffron, which undergoes floral induction in the absence of foliage, similar to what has been observed in other geophytes such as tulips (Leeggangers et al., 2017a). This localization supports the hypothesis that temperature cues are sensed and interpreted locally within the corm, rather than systemically via leaves, as observed in many other species, including some geophytes (Lee et al., 2013b; Navarro et al., 2011; Wigge, 2011; Wu et al., 2022; Yan et al., 2021).

Temperature plays a pivotal role in regulating flowering time across plant species, often through conserved thermosensory pathways. In Arabidopsis, warmer temperatures promote flowering via *FT* activation (Balasubramanian et al., 2006). while in crops like strawberry and onion, cold exposure induces flowering by triggering FT-like genes (Heide, 1977; Lee et al., 2013b). Interestingly, the effect of temperature

on flowering is not always straightforward. Temperatures above 25°C seem to have both inductive and repressive effects on flowering, depending on the species and environmental conditions (Nakano et al., 2013; Noy-Porat et al., 2013; Oda et al., 2012). This temperature sensitivity is closely linked to the regulation of FT, a key gene that integrates various environmental signals and controls the timing of flowering. In *Narcissus tazetta* (daffodils), floral induction is triggered by high ambient temperatures (25°C) through the activation of *NtFT*, while in tulips, *TgTFL1* downregulation and *TgFT2* upregulation contribute to temperature-induced floral induction (Leeggangers et al., 2017b; Noy-Porat et al., 2013). In contrast, in species like onion and lily, which flower in spring, vernalization (low-temperature treatment) is required to activate the expression of *AcFT2* and *LiFT*, respectively (Lee et al., 2013b). In our study, we also found that *CsatFT3*, a key flowering-time gene in saffron, is temperature-regulated, with its expression being induced by high ambient temperatures and suppressed by low temperatures (Figure 1B). Similarly, *CsatFD2*, a partner of *CsatFT3* in the flowering regulatory network, follows a similar expression pattern, suggesting their involvement in the temperature-mediated floral induction pathway in saffron. Interestingly, we observed that *CsatTFL1-3*, a gene that maintains the vegetative state and prevents early flowering, exhibits a reciprocal expression pattern. In Arabidopsis low and ambient temperature regulation of flowering involves the gene *TFL1* (Strasser et al., 2009). Higher expression of *CsatTFL1-3* is observed during the vegetative phase, which coincides with the low winter temperatures during saffron's growth cycle (Figure 3A). This expression pattern is crucial for maintaining the vegetative phase and delaying flowering, as confirmed by the hyper-vegetative shoot phenotype in *TFL1*-3 overexpressing Arabidopsis plants (Figure 3) similar to what was observed when Arabidopsis *TFL1* is overexpressed (Lee et al., 2019). In contrast, as temperatures rise in the summer, the expression of CsatFT3 increases (Figure 1A), likely triggering the activation of floral pathway genes and the transition to reproductive development. Overall, a balance between CsatFT3, CsatTFL1-3, and their interaction with CsatFD2 governs floral induction in a temperature-dependent manner. This delicate interplay between temperature and gene expression is vital for ensuring proper timing of flowering in saffron, aligning the plant's reproductive phase with favourable environmental conditions.

We also identify CsatSVP2, a MADS-box transcription factor, as a critical floral repressor acting upstream of FT–FD–TFL core module. MADS-box genes are key

regulators of flowering time, with SVP-like genes playing central roles in ambient temperature-mediated floral control (Jin and Ahn, 2021). CsatSVP2 directly binds a conserved CArG-box in the CsatFT3 promoter, repressing its expression under low temperatures. Silencing of SVP2 alleviated low-temperature-induced flowering suppression and restored *CsatFT3* expression, thereby establishing a direct mechanistic link between ambient temperature perception and floral induction (Figure 5). In *Arabidopsis thaliana*, a comparable regulatory pathway has been described, where SVP negatively regulates FT expression by directly binding to a CArG motif in its promoter (Lee et al., 2007). Additionally, SVP levels are known to increase under low temperatures and are degraded at higher temperatures, facilitating early flowering as SVP abundance declines (Blázquez et al., 2002; Lee et al., 2013a; Sureshkumar et al., 2016). Interestingly, individual members of the SVP gene family have been shown to play distinct roles in processes such as bud dormancy, flowering initiation, and floral development reflecting adaptations of developmental timing to local environmental conditions and seasonal temperature fluctuations. In tulips, gene expression analyses have similarly identified *TgMADS15/16* and *TgMADS9* as low-temperature-responsive SVP-like genes involved in floral induction (Lu et al., 2023), reinforcing the conserved role of this gene family in temperature-mediated flowering regulation across geophytic species. SVP homologs in Lilium and *Narcissus tazetta* have also been reported as flowering repressors, though their temperature responsiveness remains unexplored (Li et al., 2015; Wu et al., 2024). Notably, ectopic expression of *CsatSVP2* in Arabidopsis caused floral morphology defects, reminiscent of phenotypes observed with Lilium SVP expression (Wu et al., 2024), suggesting that these homologs may also contribute to flower development in addition to regulating flowering time.

**Conclusion**

Collectively, our findings establish a detailed molecular framework for temperature-regulated flowering in saffron, centered on the dynamic balance between floral activators (CsatFT3, CsatFD2) and repressors (CsatTFL1-3, CsatSVP2). The spatiotemporal expression patterns and protein interactions among these components provide key insights into how flowering is precisely modulated in response to environmental temperature fluctuations. By uncovering saffron-specific adaptations within otherwise conserved gene networks, this study advances our understanding of

floral regulation in geophytes and sterile crops. Importantly, these results lay a foundation for the development of genetic and biotechnological strategies to improve saffron yield, synchronize flowering, and enhance resilience to climate variability. Our work highlights a saffron-specific model of thermoresponsive flowering that builds upon conserved floral regulatory pathways, yet exhibits functional divergence shaped by the geophytic lifecycle. Beyond saffron, these findings offer a valuable framework for translational research in other temperature-sensitive geophytes such as tulip, Narcissus, Hyacinthus, and Iris, where molecular insights remain scarce (Khodorova and Boitel-Conti, 2013). By identifying novel regulatory targets, this study opens new avenues for improving flowering and productivity in saffron and related high-value geophytic species.

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**Author contribution statement**

R.K.S. conceptualized the research idea and designed the work plan. D.K., J.J.S., and F.R.S. conducted the experiments and collected the data. D.K., J.J.S., and R.K.S. analyzed the data and contributed to writing the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final version of the manuscript.

**Conflicts of Interest**

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

**Figure Legends**

**Figure 1. *CsatFT3* is involved in temperature mediated floral induction in saffron.**
**(A)** CsatFT3 transcript levels in apical buds across developmental stages show specific expression during the reproductive phase. **(B)** Relative expression of CsatFT3 in apical buds of saffron corms stored at ambient (25°C) and low (8°C) temperatures. Data are means ± SEM from 3 biological replications, where n=10 for each replicate. **(C)** Histochemical GUS assay of the *CsatFT3* promoter (proCsatFT3) in transgenic Arabidopsis in long-day conditions (LD) during various developmental stages. 1.2kb sequence upstream of the CsatFT3 translation start sites (proCsatFT3) was fused with uidA (GUS) reporter gene. Different developmental stages include Arabidopsis plants after 7 Days After Germination (DAG), 14DAG, 21DAG, and 30DAG. FT3 expression is confined to meristem and inflorescence **(D)** Temperature sensitive GUS activity at 3 different temperatures. The experiment was repeated three times independently with similar results. **(E-G)** Ectopic expression of CsatFT3 in Arabidopsis resulted in early flowering phenotype. Statistical significance was analyzed by Student's t-test (*P < 0.05). **(H-J)** Functional complementation of the *ft-1* mutant with CsatFT3 restores flowering. Representative line expressing number of rosette leaves and number of days to flower. Total leaf number was calculated by combining total rosette leaves. Data represent a minimum of 10 plants scored for each line. Statistical significance was analyzed by Student's t-test (*P < 0.05). **(K)** Representative flowering vs. non-flowering phenotypes in control and CsatFT3-silenced saffron corms. The scale bar represents 2 cm. **(L)** qRT-PCR validation of CsatFT3 transcript knockdown in saffron corm apices following VIGS (n=3 technical replicates, 10 independent corms). Error bars are shown as Standard Error of Mean (SEM) of three technical repeats. **(M)** Percentage of flowering in VIGS-silenced vs. TRV2 control corms. The data presented includes the mean percentage of flowering, with error bars representing the Standard Error of Mean (SEM) of three technical repeats (n=3) and for each replicate, 10 corms were used. All data in this figure are shown as mean ± SEM. Statistical Significance for Data in panel A, I, & J are analyzed using one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's Honest Significant Difference (HSD) test for multiple comparisons. Different letters indicate statistically significant differences between groups at p < 0.05, according to Compact Letter Display (CLD). Data in panels B are analyzed using two-way ANOVA to assess the effects of temperature, month, and their interaction, followed by Sidak's

multiple comparisons test. Asterisks indicate significant differences between 8°C and 25°C within each month (**** p < 0.0001), F, **G**, **L**, and **M** are analyzed using the student's t-test (*: p<0.05; **: p<0.01).

**Figure 2: Functional characterization of FD-like genes in saffron (A)** Expression profiles of CsatFD1, CsatFD2, and CsatFD3 during vegetative and floral induction stages in the apical bud by RT-qPCR. Data are means ± SE of 3 independent replicates. **(B)** Expression patterns of CsatFD1, CsatFD2, and CsatFD3 in the Main bud (MB), axillary bud (AB), and corm tissue (CT) during the floral induction stage. Values are means ± SE of 3 independent replicates. **(C)** Tissue specific expression of FDs in different parts of saffron plant. **(D)** Expression analyses of *CsatFD* genes in apical buds of corms stored at 25◦ C and 8 during months of May and June (**E**) Phenotypic comparison of early flowering in CsatFD2-expressing Arabidopsis compared to control. **(F-K)** Measurements of days to flowering and rosette leaf number in CsatFD1, CsatFD2, and CsatFD3 expressing Arabidopsis plants. Values are means ± SE (n = 10). Asterisks indicate a significant difference between the transgenic Arabidopsis lines and wild-type plants (Col-0; Student's t-test, P < 0.05). **(L)** Phenotypes of CsatFD2-TRV2 silenced lines and TRV2 lines. The scale bar represents 2 cm. **(M)** qRT-PCR validation of CsatFD2 knockdown in saffron corm apices after VIGS (n=3). Error bars are shown as SD of three technical repeats **(N)** Flowering percentage in TRV2 control and CsatFD2 VIGS-silenced saffron corms. The data presented includes the mean percentage of flowering, with error bars representing the standard error of mean (SEM) of three technical repeats (n=3) and for each replicate, 10 corms were used. All data in this figure are shown as mean ± SEM. Statistical Significance for data in panel **A** & **B** are analyzed using two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's Honest Significant Difference (HSD) test for multiple comparisons. Different letters indicate statistically significant differences between groups at p < 0.05, according to Compact Letter Display (CLD). Data in panel **D** are analyzed using two-way ANOVA to assess the effects of temperature, month, and their interaction, followed by Sidak's multiple comparisons test. Asterisks indicate significant differences between 8°C and 25°C within each month (**** p < 0.0001), **F**,**G**,**H**,**I**,**J**,**K**,**M** and **N** are analyzed using the Student's t-test (*: p<0.05; **: p<0.01).

**Figure 3: CsatTFL1-3 is negative regulator of floral induction in saffron (A)**
Relative expression of CsatTFL1-3 during vegetative and reproductive phase in the
apical bud by RT-qPCR. Data are means ± SE of 3 independent replicates. **(B)**
Expression analyses of CsatTFL1-3 gene in apical buds of corms stored at 25°C and
8 °C during floral induction time **(C)** Corm tissue specific expression of TFL1-3 during
floral induction. **(D)** Tissue Specific Expression of CsatTFL1-3. **(E)**Phenotypic analysis
of Arabidopsis Col-0 plants ectopically expressing TFL1-3/CEN1, Hyper vegetive
phase phenotype observed in CsatTFL1-3 transgenic lines of Arabidopsis. **(F and G)**
Rosette leaves number and number of days to flower of 35S::TFL1-3 transgenic and
control plants respectively. Values are means ± SEM (n = 10). Asterisks indicate a
significant difference between the transgenic Arabidopsis lines and wild-type plants
(Col-0; Student's t-test, P < 0.05). **(H)** Virus-Induced Gene Silencing (VIGS) of TFL1-
3/CEN1 in low-flower-competent saffron corms. The scale bar represents 2 cm. **(I)** The
expression of *CsatTFL1-3* in *CsatTFL1-3*-TRV2 silenced lines and TRV2 lines (n=3).
**(J)** Comparison of flowering percentages in VIGS-silenced versus control saffron
corms. The data presented includes the mean percentage of flowering of three
technical repeats (n=3) and for each replicate, 10 corms were used. All data in this
figure are shown as mean ± SEM. Statistical Significance for Data in panel **A**, **C** & **D**
are analyzed using one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's Honest Significant
Difference (HSD) test for multiple comparisons. Different letters indicate statistically
significant differences between groups at p < 0.05, according to Compact Letter
Display (CLD). Data in panel B are analyzed using two-way ANOVA to assess the
effects of temperature, month, and their interaction, followed by Sidak's multiple
comparisons test. Asterisks indicate significant differences between 8°C and 25°C
within each month (**** p < 0.0001), F,G,I, & J are analyzed using the Student's t-test
(*: p<0.05; **: p<0.01).

**Figure 4. Interaction analysis of CsatFT3, CsatTFL1-3, and CsatFD2.**
**(A, B)** Yeast two-hybrid (Y2H) assays showing physical interactions between
CsatFT3/CsatTFL1-3 and CsatFD2. The coding sequences of *CsatFT3* and
*CsatTFL1-3* were fused to the activation domain in the pGADT7 vector, and *CsatFD2*
was fused to the DNA-binding domain in the pGBKT7 vector. Yeast transformants
were grown on double dropout (DDO) medium lacking tryptophan and leucine
(selection for transformation) and quadruple dropout (QDO) medium lacking

tryptophan, leucine, histidine, and adenine (selection for interaction). pGBKT7-53 and pGADT7-T were used as positive control; pGBKT7-lam and pGADT7-T interactions served as the negative control. **(C-D)** Bimolecular fluorescence complementation (BiFC) assay showing nuclear localization of the interactions between CsatFT3 or CsatTFL1-3 with CsatFD2 in *Nicotiana benthamiana* leaf epidermal cells. CsatFD2 was fused to the C-terminal half of YFP (cYFP), and CsatFT3 or CsatTFL1-3 were fused to the N-terminal half of YFP (nYFP). YFP signal indicates interaction. Bars = 20 μm. **(E)** Competitive luciferase complementation assay demonstrating the competition between CsatFT3 and CsatTFL1-3 for binding to CsatFD2 in *N. benthamiana* leaves. CsatTFL1 was fused to the N-terminal half of luciferase (nLUC), and CsatFD2 to the C-terminal half (cLUC). Increasing amounts of CsatFT3 (non-tagged, driven by 35S promoter, in SK vector) were co-infiltrated at different ratios. Images represents three independent replications. **(F)** Relative luminescence intensities indicate competition for FD2 binding with TFL1-3 and FT3. Data represented is mean of three replicates. Statistical Significance are analyzed using one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's Honest Significant Difference (HSD) test for multiple comparisons. Different letters indicate statistically significant differences between groups at $p < 0.05$, according to Compact Letter Display (CLD).

**Figure 5: Functional characterization of CsatSVP1 and CsatSVP2 in temperature-dependent floral regulation (A)** Expression profiling of CsatSVP1 and CsatSVP2 in apical bud during different vegetative and flowering stages. Data are means ± SE from 3 replications. **(B and C)** Expression of SVP1 and SVP2 genes in corms stored at inductive (25°C) and non-inductive (8°C) temperatures respectively. **(D)** Flowering phenotypes of Arabidopsis lines ectopically expressing CsatSVP1. **(E and F)** Rosette leaves number and number of days to flower of CsatSVP1 transgenic and control plants respectively **(G)** Phenotypic changes of the floral organs in 35S::CsatSVP2 transgenic Arabidopsis plants. **(H-I)** Rosette leaves number and number of days to flower of CsatSVP2 transgenic and control plants respectively. The total leaf number was calculated by combining total rosette leaves. **(J-K)** Silencing of CsatSVP2 by VIGS rescues flowering under low-temperature conditions in saffron. The scale bar represents 2 cm. **(L-M)** qRT-PCR validation of CsatSVP2 knockdown in saffron corm apices after VIGS stored at different temperatures (n=3). Error bars are shown as SD of three technical repeats. **(N-O)** Flowering percentage in TRV2 control

and CsatSVP2 VIGS-silenced saffron corms stored at low (8°C) and ambient (23°C)
temperatures. The data presented includes the mean percentage of flowering, with
error bars representing the standard deviation (SD) of three technical repeats (n=3)
and for each replicate, 10 corms were used. **(P-Q)** Relative expression of CsatFT3 in
SVP2-silenced versus control corms under different temperature regimes. All data in
this figure are shown as mean ± SEM. Statistical Significance for data in panel A are
analyzed using two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's Honest Significant Difference
(HSD) test for multiple comparisons. Different letters indicate statistically significant
differences between groups at $p < 0.05$, according to Compact Letter Display (CLD).
Data in panel B & C are analyzed using two-way ANOVA to assess the effects of
temperature, month, and their interaction, followed by Sidak's multiple comparisons
test. Asterisks indicate significant differences between 8°C and 25°C within each
month (**** $p < 0.0001$), E, F, H, I, L, M, N, O, P & Q are analyzed using the student's
t-test (*: $p<0.05$; **: $p<0.01$).

**Figure 6. CsatSVP2 directly binds to the FT3 promoter via the CArG motif and**
**represses its transcription (A)** Schematic diagram of the 1.2 kb CsatFT3 promoter
showing the location of a conserved CArG-box motif (CCATTTAAGG) approximately
827 bp upstream of the ATG start codon. **(B)** Yeast one-hybrid assay showing
interaction between CsatSVP2 and the FT3 promoter region containing the CArG
motif. Growth on selective media confirms binding specificity. **(C)** Schematic diagram
of the effectors and reporters used in dual-luciferase reporter. **(D)** Schematic of the
dual-luciferase constructs used for transient expression in *Nicotiana benthamiana*: FL
(Full length promoter) T1 (with CArG motif) and T2 (without). **(E)** Relative luciferase
activity in leaves co-expressing CsatSVP2 with the full promoter and T1 fragment
construct of *CsatFT3* gene. **(F)** Relative luciferase activity in leaves co-expressing
CsatSVP2 and CsatFT3 full promoter and with T2 fragment constructs. Significant
repression is observed only in the T1 construct, indicating that CsatSVP2 represses
*CsarFT3* transcription through the CArG motif. **(G and H)** Quantification of luciferase
activity. Bars represent mean ± SEM (n = 3). All data in figure are shown as mean ±
SEM. Statistical Significance for Data in panel **F** & **H** areanalyzed using one-way
ANOVA followed by Tukey's Honest Significant Difference (HSD) test for multiple
comparisons. Different letters indicate statistically significant differences between
groups at $p < 0.05$, according to Compact Letter Display (CLD)

**Figure 7. Proposed model of temperature-mediated flowering regulation in saffron.** This schematic model illustrates the temperature-regulated floral induction pathway in saffron, emphasizing the key roles of CsatFT3, CsatFD2, TFL1-3/CEN1, and CsatSVP2 in transitioning from vegetative to reproductive growth.  At low temperatures (e.g., below 10°C), *CsatFT3* expression remains low, and TFL1-3/CEN1 binds to CsatFD2, preventing the formation of the Floral Activator Complex (FAC) and maintaining the shoot apical meristem in a vegetative state and inhibiting flowering. Additionally, CsatSVP2 is upregulated at low temperatures and binds directly to a conserved CArG motif in the CsatFT3 promoter, repressing its transcription and reinforcing the suppression of flowering. As temperatures increase beyond a critical threshold (e.g., above 25 °C), CsatFT3 expression is upregulated, enabling its interaction with CsatFD2 to form the FAC, which in turn activates floral meristem identity genes and promotes floral initiation. Concurrently, TFL1-3/CEN1 expression is downregulated, releasing the repression on CsatFD2 and facilitating the transition to reproductive development.

984    **Figure 1**

**Figure 2**

**Figure 3**

# Figure 4

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