Vernalization-triggered expression of the antisense transcript *COOLAIR* is mediated by *CBF* genes

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Abstract

Many plants undergo vernalization, a long-term winter-triggered acceleration of flowering, to align their flowering time with spring. In *Arabidopsis thaliana*, this is achieved by silencing a floral repressor, *FLOWERING LOCUS C (FLC)*. *COOLAIR*, an antisense noncoding RNA expressed at the *FLC* locus, is induced during the early phase of vernalization, preceding *FLC* suppression. However, the mechanism by which long-term cold induces *COOLAIR* is not well understood. Here, we showed that C-repeat (CRT)/dehydration-responsive elements (DREs) at the 3'-end of *FLC* and CRT/DRE-binding factors (CBFs) are required for vernalization-induced *COOLAIR* activation. The CBFs bind to CRT/DREs at the 3'-end of *FLC*, both *in vitro* and *in vivo*, and the CBFs levels increased gradually during vernalization. Additionally, vernalization-induced *COOLAIR* expression was highly suppressed in the *cbfs* mutant, in which all CBFs were knocked-out. Contrastingly, *CBF*-overexpressing plants showed *COOLAIR* upregulation, even at warm temperatures. We propose that *COOLAIR* is induced by CBFs in the early phase of vernalization but is downregulated as CBFs are evicted from closed *FLC* chromatin during the late vernalization phase. We also demonstrated that *cbfs* and *FLC_{ACOOLAIR}* mutants have a normal vernalization response, although they show defects in vernalization-induced *COOLAIR* activation, indicating that *COOLAIR* is not necessary for this process.

Introduction

Appropriate timing of flowering ensures plant reproductive success, which in turn provides evolutionary advantages. As sessile organisms, plants have evolved mechanisms by which reproductive growth is coordinated with seasonal cues. In many flowering plants, exposure to long-term winter cold is required for transition to the reproductive phase (*Chouard, 1960*). Vernalization, an acquisition of flowering competence in response to prolonged winter cold, allows plants to synchronize the timing of flowering with spring (*Chouard, 1960; Michaels and Amasino, 2000*).

Vernalization in *Arabidopsis thaliana* is mainly achieved by silencing a floral repressor gene, *FLOWERING LOCUS C (FLC)* (*Michaels and Amasino, 1999; Sheldon et al., 1999; Sheldon et al., 2000; Michaels and Amasino, 2001*). *FLC* encodes a MADS-box protein that directly associates with the promoter regions of floral activator genes, *SUPPRESSOR OF CO1 (SOC1)* and *FLOWERING LOCUS T (FT)*, which encodes florigen, and represses their expression (*Lee et al., 2000; Michaels et al., 2005; Helliwell et al., 2006*). *FLC* is highly expressed in winter annuals of *Arabidopsis*, such as San Feliu-2 and Lov-1, because of the strong transcriptional activation by the FRIGIDA (FRI) supercomplex which recruits general transcription factors, as well as several chromatin modifiers (*Michaels and Amasino, 1999; Sheldon et al., 1999; Johanson et al., 2000; Choi et al., 2011; Li et al., 2018*). Therefore, winter annuals show a late-flowering phenotype, but their flowering is dramatically accelerated by vernalization-induced *FLC* silencing (*Napp-Zinn, 1955; Lee et al., 1993; Clarke and Dean, 1994; Koornneef et al., 1994; Lee et al., 1994*). In contrast to winter annuals, rapid-cycling accessions, such as Columbia (Col) and Landsberg *erecta* (*Ler*), exhibit early flowering due to mutations in *FRI* and/or *FLC* (*Johanson et al., 2000; Gazzani et al., 2003; Michaels et al., 2003*). However, the autonomous pathway (AP) mutants in Col and *Ler* background also show late flowering with an increased level of *FLC*; vernalization causes the epigenetic suppression of *FLC*, thus accelerating their flowering to a degree similar to that seen in winter annuals (*Koornneef et al., 1998; Michaels and Amasino, 2001*).

In *Arabidopsis* winter annuals, flowering is prevented by strong expression of *FLC* during fall. Consistently, *FLC* chromatin is highly enriched with active histone marks such as histone

H3 acetylation and trimethylation of Lys4 or Lys36 at H3 (H3K4me3/H3K36me3) (*Bastow et al., 2004; Yang et al., 2014*). During winter, *FLC* chromatin is gradually deacetylated, and the H3K4me3 and H3K36me3 on *FLC* are removed concomitantly (*Bastow et al., 2004; Yang et al., 2014*). Additionally, the repressive histone marks, H3 Lys9 dimethylation (H3K9me2) and H3 Lys27 trimethylation (H3K27me3), are accumulated by the polycomb repressive complex 2 (PRC2) in the nucleation region around the first exon and intron of *FLC* (*Sung and Amasino, 2004; Wood et al., 2006; De Lucia et al., 2008; Angel et al., 2011*). Subsequently in the following spring, H3K27me3 is spread to the entire *FLC* chromatin region by LIKE HETEROCHROMATIN PROTEIN 1, which ensures stable *FLC* suppression and renders plants competent to flower (*Mylne et al., 2006; Yang et al., 2017*).

Several long-term cold-induced factors have been shown to play a crucial role in the epigenetic silencing of *FLC*. *VERNALIZATION INSENSITIVE 3 (VIN3)* family genes, which are upregulated by prolonged cold, encode PHD (Plant Homeodomain)-finger domain proteins which recognize H3K9me2 enriched in the *FLC* chromatin during the vernalization process (*Sung and Amasino, 2004; Kim and Sung, 2013, 2017a*). These proteins mediate the recruitment of PRC2 and subsequent deposition of H3K27me3 at the nucleation region of *FLC* (*Sung and Amasino, 2004; De Lucia et al., 2008; Kim and Sung, 2013*). In addition, vernalization-induced long noncoding RNAs (lncRNAs) are involved in such histone modifications. *COLD AIR* and *COLD WRAP*, the two lncRNAs transcribed from the first intron and promoter region of *FLC*, respectively, are necessary for H3K27me3 deposition in response to long-term cold (*Heo and Sung, 2011; Kim and Sung, 2017b*). Additionally, *COLD AIR* and *COLD WRAP* are thought to affect the formation of the intragenic chromatin loop at *FLC*, which may be part of the *FLC* silencing mechanism (*Kim and Sung, 2017b*).

Unlike *COLD AIR* and *COLD WRAP*, which are transcribed in the sense direction of *FLC*, *COOL AIR* is an antisense transcript expressed from the 3'-end of *FLC* (*Swiezewski et al., 2009*). The gradual accumulation of *COOL AIR* reaches a maximum within a few weeks of winter cold, whereas the other lncRNAs, *COLD AIR* and *COLD WRAP*, show peaks at a later phase of vernalization (*Csorba et al., 2014; Kim and Sung, 2017b*). Since the *COOL AIR* promoter is sufficient to confer cold-induced silencing of a reporter gene when added to the 3'-region of

the gene (*Swiezewski et al., 2009*), extensive efforts have been made to elucidate how *COOLAIR* antagonizes *FLC* expression. One possibility is that *COOLAIR* facilitates changes in the chromatin environment of *FLC*. *COOLAIR* has been reported to be involved in removing active histone marks, H3K4 and H3K36 methylations from *FLC* chromatin, thus leading to *FLC* suppression (*Helliwell et al., 2011; Csorba et al., 2014; Berry and Dean, 2015*). Co-transcriptional events governed by *COOLAIR*-targeted RNA-processing factors, including some factors involved in the autonomous pathway for flowering, seem to be critical for switching the *FLC* chromatin state (*Wu et al., 2020*). Furthermore, *COOLAIR* is also likely necessary for H3K27me3 deposition via interaction with FLOWERING CONTROL LOCUS A (FCA) protein (*Tian et al., 2019*).

Compared to the functional mechanism of *COOLAIR* in *FLC* silencing, how long-term cold triggers *COOLAIR* induction is less well-understood. Previous studies have inferred that the regulatory region conferring long-term cold response of *COOLAIR* is well-conserved among relatives of Arabidopsis (*Swiezewski et al., 2009; Castaings et al., 2014; Csorba et al., 2014; Berry and Dean, 2015*). However, little is known about their upstream regulators. Although a recent report has shown that an NAC domain-containing protein, NTM1-LIKE 8 (NTL8), can bind to the *COOLAIR* promoter and activate its expression, it has not been thoroughly addressed whether NTL8 is necessary for vernalization-induced *COOLAIR* activation (*Zhao et al., 2021*). In the present study, we identified that CRT/DREs at the 3'-end of *FLC* are required for the long-term cold response of *COOLAIR*. Additionally, we showed that CRT/DRE-binding factors (CBFs), which accumulate through the long-term winter cold, act as upstream regulators of *COOLAIR* during vernalization.

Results

A CRT/DRE-binding factor, CBF3, directly binds to CRT/DREs at the 3'-end of *FLC*

Since it has already been shown that the proximal promoter region of *COOLAIR* is highly conserved among the *FLC* orthologs from *A. thaliana* relatives (Castaings *et al.*, 2014), we assumed that the *cis*-element conferring long-term cold response would exist within that region. A comparison of the region near the transcriptional start site of *COOLAIR* revealed that two CRT/DREs are well-conserved among six *FLC* orthologs from five related species in the Brassicaceae family (Figure 1A). CRT/DRE, whose core sequence is CCGAC, is a regulatory element that imparts cold- or drought-responsive gene expression (Baker *et al.*, 1994). Three *CBF* family genes, *CBF1*, 2, and 3, have been known to encode AP2 (APETALA2) domain-containing proteins that can bind to CRT/DRE, and are usually present in the promoters of cold- and drought-regulated genes (Stockinger *et al.*, 1997; Medina *et al.*, 1999). Consistent with this, the Arabidopsis cistrome database suggests that the CBFs bind to the 3'-end sequence of *FLC* containing CRT/DREs (Figure 1—figure supplement 1; O'Malley *et al.*, 2016).

To confirm this binding, we performed electrophoretic mobility shift assay (EMSA) using probes harboring the CRT/DREs (DRE1 or -2) from the *COOLAIR* promoter. The mobility of these two Cy5-labelled probes was retarded by maltose-binding protein (MBP)-fused CBF3 (Figure 1B, Figure 1—figure supplement 2). The band shift was competed out by adding an excess amount of non-labelled DRE1 or 2 oligonucleotides (Figure 1B, Figure 1—figure supplement 2). By contrast, the competitors containing the mutant forms of DRE1 or 2 (DRE1^m or 2^m respectively) failed to compete (Figure 1B). We also tested the binding of other CRT/DRE-like sequences distributed in the *FLC* locus. Two of these (DREa and b) were present in the *FLC* promoter, while the other two, DREc and d, were present in the first and last exons, respectively (Figure 1—figure supplement 2). Among these, only DREc competed with the band shift caused by the CBF3-DRE1 interaction (Figure 1B).

Subsequently, a chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) assay using a *CBF3*-overexpressing transgenic plant, *pSuper::CBF3-myc* (Liu *et al.*, 2017), was performed to determine whether CBF3 is associated with the region of *FLC* containing CRT/DREs *in vivo*. Consistent with the *in vitro* results, the CBF3-myc protein was enriched at the 3'-end of *FLC*

as well as the first exon of *FLC*, where DREc was located (*Figure 1C*). Without vernalization (NV), CBF3-myc was highly enriched at both the 5'- and 3'-ends of *FLC* (P1 and P3), indicating that CBF3 protein can activate *FLC* in warm conditions, as previously reported (*Seo et al., 2009*). However, the enrichment on the P1 region rapidly disappeared during the vernalization period. By contrast, the enrichment on P3 was maintained until 10 days of vernalization (10V) and was subsequently reduced (*Figure 1C*). This is coincident with the expression pattern of *COOLAIR*, which declines in the late phase of vernalization (*Csorba et al., 2014*).

***COOLAIR* is one of the CBF regulons in Arabidopsis**

CBF genes are rapidly and transiently induced upon exposure to cold (*Medina et al., 1999*). *CBF* regulons, which are *CBF*-targeted genes, are correspondingly up- or down-regulated after a few hours-long cold interval (*Gilmour et al., 1998; Liu et al., 1998; Fowler and Thomashow, 2002*). As *COOLAIR* bears CBF3-binding sites in its promoter (*Figure 1*), it was expected that *COOLAIR* would show *CBF* regulon-like expression.

The expression of genes assigned to the *CBF* regulon is up- or downregulated by *CBF* overexpression under warm condition (*Park et al., 2015*). Likewise, we found that the total transcript level of *COOLAIR* increased in *CBF3*-overexpressing transgenic plants (*pSuper::CBF3-myc*) grown at room temperature (22°C), as compared to that in the wild-type (Col-0) (*Figure 2A*). Such upregulation was mainly due to type I or type II *COOLAIR* isoforms. As the levels of both proximal (type I) and distal (type II) isoforms of *COOLAIR* were higher in the *CBF3* overexpressor than in the wild-type, it is likely that *COOLAIR* transcription, instead of the 3'-processing event, is affected by *CBF3* (*Figure 2A; Liu et al., 2010; Marquardt et al., 2014*). It has been reported that the targets of *CBF1* or -2 are not entirely identical to those of *CBF3*, although *CBF* genes show high sequence similarity (*Novillo et al., 2007*). Thus, we compared the expression levels of all *COOLAIR* isoforms in transgenic plants overexpressing *CBF1*, -2, and -3 (*Seo et al., 2009*). Overall, all *CBF*-overexpressing plants showed increased levels of *COOLAIR* (*Figure 2—figure supplement 1*). However, each *CBF*-overexpressing plant showed a subtly different effect on *COOLAIR* expression. The *CBF2* overexpressor showed the highest level of the proximal *COOLAIR* isoform, whereas the *CBF3*

overexpressor showed the highest level of distal *COOLAIR*. By contrast, the *CBF1*-overexpressing plants showed a slightly smaller increase of proximal *COOLAIR* levels and a negligible increase in distal *COOLAIR*, as compared to those in the wild-type, Ws-2. Such results imply that the three CBFs regulate *COOLAIR* transcription subtly differently.

Another characteristic of CBF regulons is that they are induced by a day of cold exposure (Park *et al.*, 2015). Thus, we checked if *COOLAIR* is also induced by short-term cold. Wild-type (*FRI* Col) plants were treated with 0, 0.5, 1, 1.5, 2, 3, 6, and 24 h of cold (4°C), then the levels of total *COOLAIR* were measured. The results showed that cold treatment less than 3 h failed to induce *COOLAIR* expression, although the CBFs expression reached a peak at 3 h of cold treatment (Figures 2B and 3A; Gilmour *et al.*, 1998). Following 6 h of cold treatment, *COOLAIR* was conspicuously induced (Figure 2B). Thus, short-term cold induced *COOLAIR* expression similar to those of other CBF-targeted genes, *i.e.* the expression is highly increased after CBF levels reach a peak upon cold exposure (Fowler and Thomashow, 2002). To confirm whether CBFs are responsible for the rapid cold response of *COOLAIR*, we checked *COOLAIR* induction in the wild-type and *cbfs-1* mutant, in which all three CBFs are knocked-out (Jia *et al.*, 2016), after a day of cold treatment (Figure 2C). All isoforms, as well as total *COOLAIR*, failed to be induced by short-term cold exposure in the *cbfs* mutant, although a drastic increase was observed in the wild-type. Thus, the results strongly suggested that CBFs are required for *COOLAIR* induction, even under a short period of cold exposure.

CBFs accumulate during vernalization

We subsequently questioned whether CBFs are also responsible for the induction of *COOLAIR* during vernalization. *COOLAIR* is gradually upregulated as the cold period persists and peaks after 2-3 weeks of vernalization (Csorba *et al.*, 2014). However, most studies on CBF expression have been performed within a few days, since the function of CBFs has been analyzed only in the context of short-term cold (Gilmour *et al.*, 1998; Liu *et al.*, 1998; Medina *et al.*, 1999; McKhann *et al.*, 2008). Therefore, we investigated the expression patterns of CBFs before and after long-term cold exposure, to find a correlation between the expression of CBFs and *COOLAIR* during vernalization. As previously shown, the levels of all three CBFs reached

their peaks within 3 h of cold exposure, thereafter decreased rapidly (*Figure 3A*). However, the expression of *CBFs* increased again as the cold period was prolonged (>20V), suggesting that both short-term and vernalizing cold treatments upregulated *CBF* expression (*Figure 3B*).

Since *CBFs* are known to be regulated by circadian rhythms (*Dong et al., 2011*), we also investigated whether the circadian rhythm affects vernalization-induced *CBF* expression. For this, we collected wild-type (Col-0) plants every 4 h under a short-day cycle (SD, 8 h light/16 h dark), in both the NV and 40V conditions. As shown in *Figure 3C*, although the rhythmic pattern of each *CBF* was variable, the overall transcript levels of all three *CBFs* were much higher at 40V than at NV.

To verify whether the increased transcription of *CBF3* led to protein accumulation, we also measured the level of CBF3 at each time-point of vernalization using the *pCBF3::CBF3-myc* plant (*Jia et al., 2016*). In accordance with the rapid and transient induction of *CBF3* under short-term cold (*Medina et al., 1999*), CBF3 was highly expressed after a day of cold exposure (1V), but decreased at 10V (*Figure 3D*). However, as the period of cold exposure was prolonged, the CBF3 level was re-increased such that the level at 40V was similar to that at 1V. The increased protein level after 40V rapidly decreased if the plants were transferred to room temperature for 4 d (40VT4). Such results suggested that CBFs are responsible for the progressive upregulation of *COOLAIR*, at least during the early phase of vernalization (*Csorba et al., 2014*).

***CBFs* are involved in vernalization-induced *COOLAIR* expression**

To clarify whether *CBFs* are responsible for long-term cold-mediated *COOLAIR* induction, we quantified *COOLAIR* levels in the wild-type and *cbfs* mutant during the vernalization process. Although the level of total *COOLAIR* gradually increased until 20V, and then decreased afterward in the wild-type as previously reported (*Csorba et al., 2014*), the level in *cbfs* mutant was severely reduced across the entire vernalization period (*Figure 4A*). It suggests that *CBFs* are required for full induction of *COOLAIR* in the early phase of vernalization.

Consistent with the suppressed *COOLAIR* expression in *cbfs* mutants, the *CBF3*

overexpressor, *pSuper::CBF3-myc*, showed a much higher *COOLAIR* level than the wild-type (Col-0), throughout the vernalization period (Figure 4B). It is noteworthy that *COOLAIR* expression in *pSuper::CBF3-myc* was further upregulated by cold, especially during the early vernalization phase (10V) (Figure 4B). This result implies that both transcriptional and post-transcriptional regulation of CBFs are involved in the long-term cold response of *COOLAIR*.

A recent study has shown that the first seasonal frost (<0°C) during the winter season strongly induces *COOLAIR* expression (Zhao *et al.*, 2021). Therefore, we tested whether CBFs are also required for the strong induction of *COOLAIR* triggered by freezing temperatures. Wild-type and *cbfs* mutants were subjected to 20V, with or without an additional 8 h of -1°C freezing treatment (8hF). In both the genotypes, the *COOLAIR* levels were increased upon 8hF treatment, but *cbfs* mutants showed a much smaller increase compared to the wild-type (Figure 4C). Thus, CBFs seem to be responsible for both the gradual increase of *COOLAIR* during vernalization and the strong *COOLAIR* induction triggered by freezing temperatures.

CRT/DREs at the 3'-end of *FLC* are necessary for CBFs-mediated induction of *COOLAIR* during vernalization.

Since CBF3 was able to bind to CRT/DREs in the first exon (DREc) and the 3'-end of *FLC* (DRE1 and 2) (Figure 1B-C), we questioned whether CRT/DRE is responsible for the CBF-mediated long-term cold response of *COOLAIR*. To address this, we performed an *A. thaliana* protoplast transfection assay using the *35S::CBF3-HA* effector construct and *pCOOLAIR_{DRE}::LUC* reporter construct, in which the 1 kb wild-type *COOLAIR* promoter was fused to the luciferase reporter gene. The luciferase activity assay suggested that the CBF3-HA protein activates transcription of the *COOLAIR* promoter (Figure 5A). By contrast, CBF3-HA failed to increase luciferase activity when the mutant version of the *COOLAIR* promoter with mutant DRE1 and 2 (*pCOOLAIR_{DRE}^m::LUC*) was used as a reporter (Figure 5A). Additionally, co-transfection of the *35S::CBF3-HA* effector and *pFLC::LUC* reporter construct, which harbors the 1 kb sequence including the promoter and first exon of *FLC*, did not show increased luciferase activity (Figure 5A). These results strongly indicated that CBF3 can activate *COOLAIR* transcription through DRE1 and 2 located in the promoter, but not via the first exon

of *FLC*.

To further determine whether the 3'-end region of *FLC* is required for the vernalization response of *COOLAIR*, we measured *COOLAIR* expression in the wild-type and *FLC_{ΔCOOLAIR}* mutant, which lacks a 324 bp portion of the *COOLAIR* promoter region (Luo *et al.*, 2019), before and after vernalization. Although the common *COOLAIR* transcriptional start site was eliminated in *FLC_{ΔCOOLAIR}*, the proximal *COOLAIR* isoform (type I) was still detected, probably due to alternative transcription start sites (Figure 5B; Zhao *et al.*, 2021). As expected, the expression of the proximal *COOLAIR* variant in the *FLC_{ΔCOOLAIR}* mutant was not induced at 20V, while the wild-type showed increased type I *COOLAIR* level at 20V (Figure 5B). Thus, the *COOLAIR* promoter region containing two CRT/DREs is necessary for the long-term cold response of *COOLAIR*.

CBFs-mediated *COOLAIR* induction by vernalization is not necessary for *FLC* silencing

Lastly, we investigated the role of *COOLAIR* induced by CBFs in the vernalization-triggered *FLC* silencing process. *COOLAIR* is reported to facilitate the removal of H3K4me3 and H3K36me3 from *FLC* chromatin during vernalization, whereas the other lncRNAs, *COLD AIR* and *COLDWRAP*, are required for H3K27me3 deposition (Csorba *et al.*, 2014; Berry and Dean, 2015; Kim and Sung, 2017b). Therefore, we compared the enrichment of H3K4me3, H3K36me3, and H3K27me3 on *FLC* chromatin in non-vernalized or vernalized wild-type and *cbfs* mutants. As reported (Bastow *et al.*, 2004; Sung and Amasino, 2004; Yang *et al.*, 2014), there was a reduction in the enrichment of H3K4me3 and H3K36me3, whereas that of H3K27me3 increased considerably in the nucleation region of *FLC* by 40V in the wild-type (Figure 6A-D). Interestingly, although *COOLAIR* levels were significantly reduced in the *cbfs* mutant (Figure 4A), vernalization-caused reductions in H3K4me3 and H3K36me3 levels and increase in H3K27me3 levels were comparable to those in the wild-type (Figure 6A-D). This result indicates that CBF-mediated *COOLAIR* induction is not necessary for vernalization-induced epigenetic changes in *FLC* chromatin.

Consistent with the epigenetic changes in *FLC* chromatin in the *cbfs* mutant, the *FLC* level

was gradually suppressed during the vernalization process, and the suppression was maintained after 40VT4 (*Figure 7A*), similar to that seen in the wild-type. Accordingly, vernalization-triggered acceleration of flowering was comparable in the wild-type and *cbfs* (*Figure 7B-C*), indicating that *cbfs* show a normal vernalization response. It has recently been proposed that the strong induction of *COOLAIR* by the first seasonal frost is correlated with stronger *FLC* repression (*Zhao et al., 2021*). However, hyper-repression of *FLC* upon exposure to freezing temperature for 8 h after 20V (20V+8hF) was not observed under our growth conditions, in both the wild-type and *cbfs* (*Figure 7D*), although both genotypes showed stronger *COOLAIR* induction upon 8hF treatment (*Figure 4C*).

Since our results suggested that *COOLAIR* induction is not required for *FLC* silencing achieved by means of vernalization, we checked if the loss-of-function mutant, *FLC_{ACOOLAIR}*, displays any defect in the vernalization response. The *FLC_{ACOOLAIR}* mutant produced virtually undetectable levels of total *COOLAIR* even after 20V (*Figure 5B*). Additionally, although the proximal *COOLAIR* variant was barely detected in *FLC_{ACOOLAIR}* as previously reported (*Zhao et al., 2021*), the level of the proximal form did not increase by 20V (*Figure 5B*). Therefore, the results strongly suggested that *FLC_{ACOOLAIR}* fails to show vernalization-induced *COOLAIR* expression. We then compared *FLC* levels between the wild-type and *FLC_{ACOOLAIR}* after vernalization (*Figure 7E*). Similar to the wild-type, the *FLC* level gradually decreased and was silenced by long-term cold in *FLC_{ACOOLAIR}*. Consistently, the flowering time of *FLC_{ACOOLAIR}* was normally accelerated by vernalization (*Figure 7F*). Taken together, it is likely that CBFs, upregulated by long-term cold, induce *COOLAIR* expression (*Figure 8*). However, such induced *COOLAIR* does not seem to be absolutely necessary for *FLC* silencing during vernalization.

Discussion

Plants recognize and remember a period of cold during the winter season to determine the proper timing of flowering. Several long-term cold-induced factors are known to facilitate such “memory of winter”, which establishes flowering competence (*Michaels and Amasino, 2000; Sung and Amasino, 2004; Heo and Sung, 2011; Csorba et al., 2014; Kim and Sung, 2017b*). However, the mechanism by which long-term cold activates such regulators is not well understood. In the present study, we showed that CBF proteins act as transcriptional activators of *COOLAIR*, a long-term cold-induced lncRNA, during vernalization. CBF3 directly binds to the CRT/DRE elements located in the *COOLAIR* promoter region, which is evolutionarily conserved among *FLC* orthologs from Arabis family plants. CBFs are required for the full induction of *COOLAIR* during vernalization (*Figures 2C and 4A*), but their overexpression upregulates *COOLAIR* even at warm temperatures (*Figures 2A and 4B*). Consistently, our results show a gradual accumulation of CBFs during vernalization (*Figure 3*). Thus we propose that the increase in CBF levels induces *COOLAIR* expression during vernalization (*Figure 8*).

However, CBF-mediated *COOLAIR* induction during vernalization cannot be fully explained by increased CBF levels, as the *CBF3* overexpressor still shows *COOLAIR* induction by vernalization (*Figure 4B*). This suggests the involvement of additional factors that regulate CBF function. Previously, it has been reported that low temperatures cause functional activation of CBFs through degradation of HD2C and BTF3s, which prevent CBFs from activating downstream targets at warm temperatures (*Ding et al., 2018; Park et al., 2018*). Moreover, cold triggers the monomerization of CBF proteins, thereby activating their functions (*Lee et al., 2021*). Similarly, such an additional regulatory mechanism of CBFs, which fine-tunes vernalization-induced *COOLAIR* activation, may be enhanced by long-term winter cold. Additionally, *cbfs* mutant showed weak *COOLAIR* induction at 20V (*Figure 4A*). Thus, there are likely other thermosensors that facilitate *COOLAIR* induction by vernalization. Recently, it has been suggested that NTL8, an NAC domain-containing transcription factor, acts as an upstream regulator of *COOLAIR* (*Zhao et al., 2021*). NTL8 also binds to the *COOLAIR* promoter region, which is not far from the CBF-binding sites (*O'Malley et al., 2016; Zhao et al., 2021*). Furthermore, *COOLAIR* has been shown to be highly expressed in both dominant

mutant alleles, *ntl8-Ds*, and *NTL8*-overexpressing transgenic plants at warm temperatures. Thus, it has been proposed that slow accumulation of *NTL8* protein, due to reduced dilution resulting from slower growth at low temperatures, causes *COOLAIR* induction during vernalization. It would be worthwhile to elucidate whether CBFs and *NTL8* synergistically activate *COOLAIR* transcription during vernalization. The reason as to why vernalization-triggered *COOLAIR* induction requires more than one thermosensor is not apparent. Presumably, multiple thermosensory modules ensure precise and robust *COOLAIR* expression during the winter season when the temperature fluctuates.

The increasing trend of *COOLAIR* levels under long-term cold is not maintained across the entire vernalization period (Swiezewski *et al.*, 2009; Csorba *et al.*, 2014). After reaching a maximum at the early phase of vernalization, the *COOLAIR* level gradually reduced, although the accumulation of CBFs continued as vernalization proceeded (Figures 3 and 4A). This is likely due to the falling off of CBF proteins from the *COOLAIR* promoter during the late phase of vernalization (Figure 8). The molecular mechanisms underlying this phenomenon are yet to be explored. One possibility is that epigenetic silencing of *FLC*, which occurs after cold-induced transcriptional silencing (Antoniou-Kourounioti *et al.*, 2018; Hepworth *et al.*, 2018), suppresses both *COOLAIR* and *FLC*. A previous report has shown that there is a continuous increase in the *COOLAIR* level throughout the vernalization period in the *vin3* mutant (Swiezewski *et al.*, 2009). Thus, *VIN3*-dependent polycomb silencing appears to be at least partially involved in this mechanism.

Based on previous reports and the results shown here, CBFs are believed to facilitate both sense and antisense transcription of *FLC*, depending on the duration of cold exposure (Seo *et al.*, 2009). Under intermittent cold, such as a brief cold treatment during daytime, CBFs activate *FLC* expression, thus delaying floral transition (Seo *et al.*, 2009). By contrast, under conditions of long-term winter cold, CBFs favor *COOLAIR* activation over *FLC* transcription (Figure 4). Considering that CBF3 protein is enriched at both the 5'- and 3'-ends of *FLC* under warm conditions (Figure 1C), CBFs are likely to directly activate both sense and antisense transcription of *FLC*. However, CBF3 enrichment at the 5'-end of *FLC* was quickly reduced to the basal level by prolonged cold (Figure 1C), suggesting that CBF3 loses its control over *FLC*

transcription in the sense direction. By contrast, CBF3 protein binds to the *COOLAIR* promoter during the early phase of vernalization, which leads to *COOLAIR* induction (Figure 1C). Thus, we propose that different types of cold durations determine the direction of *FLC* transcription by controlling the binding of CBF to the *FLC* locus. This may allow plants to flower in favorable environments.

Extensive analyses of genes involved in AP have revealed how processing of proximal *COOLAIR* is associated with switching *FLC* chromatin state inactive (Whittaker and Dean, 2017; Wu et al., 2020). Under warm temperatures, a group of AP proteins involved in RNA 3'-end processing, such as FCA, FY, FPA, CLEAVAGE STIMULATION FACTOR 64 (CstF64), and CstF77, promote proximal polyadenylation of *COOLAIR* (Hornyik et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2010). This process is linked to H3K4 demethylation at the *FLC* locus through the interaction of FCA and FLOWERING LOCUS D (FLD), an AP protein that acts as an H3K4 demethylase, thus suppressing *FLC* (Liu et al., 2010). In contrast with such a role of *COOLAIR* for *FLC* repression at warm temperatures, there is some controversy regarding the function of *COOLAIR* in vernalization-induced epigenetic silencing of *FLC* (Swiezewski et al., 2009; Helliwell et al., 2011; Li et al., 2018; Luo et al., 2019; Luo and He, 2020; Zhao et al., 2021). The results shown here favor the proposal that *COOLAIR* expression is not required for vernalization response. The *cbfs* mutant, which exhibited severely reduced *COOLAIR* induction, showed almost normal vernalization responses such that flowering time is fairly well accelerated and active histone marks, H3K36me3 and H3K4me3, are reduced, but inactive histone mark, H3K27me3, is increased on the *FLC* chromatin by vernalization as seen in the wild-type (Figures 6 and 7). Consistently, the *FLC_{ACOOLAIR}* mutant, which had almost undetectable levels of total *COOLAIR* and failed to induce proximal *COOLAIR* by vernalization, showed both *FLC* suppression and acceleration of flowering by vernalization similar to that seen in the wild-type (Figure 7). Moreover, the freezing temperature treatment mimicking the first frost did not affect *FLC* suppression, although it caused CBF-mediated *COOLAIR* induction, as reported previously (Figures 4C and 7D; Zhao et al., 2021). It is noteworthy that our hypothesis, favoring against *FLC* suppression mediated by vernalization-induced *COOLAIR*, has been formulated using mutant lines, *cbfs* and *FLC_{ACOOLAIR}*, instead of transgenic lines. Thus, we could exclude the possibility that transgenes somehow affect the

vernalization response.

This discrepancy can be explained in several ways. First, different experimental schemes may affect the vernalization response differently. The *bona fide* evidence favoring the hypothesis that vernalization-induced *COOLAIR* acts on *FLC* suppression has been obtained in natural environments with fluctuating temperatures (Zhao *et al.*, 2021). However, most of the experiments in previous studies were performed in constant environments. Thus, it is possible that fluctuating temperatures have different effects on the vernalization response. Consistent with such idea, in our experiment using the first frost-mimicking cold treatment, *FLC* suppression was not observed, although *COOLAIR* was strongly activated, as reported (Zhao *et al.*, 2021). The difference between the two experimental schemes is fluctuating versus constant cold conditions. The other reason may be due to the small level of CAS (convergent antisense transcript of *COOLAIR*) produced at the 5'-end of *FLC* in transgenic lines defective of *COOLAIR* promoter or even in the *FLC_{ΔCOOLAIR}* mutant (Zhao *et al.*, 2021), which may somehow affect the epigenetic silencing of *FLC*. Otherwise, the effect of *COOLAIR* on *FLC* silencing may be obscured due to the functional redundancy between *COOLAIR* and other lncRNA, such as *COLD AIR* in Arabidopsis, as suggested previously (Castaings *et al.*, 2014).

Although cold stress and vernalization elicit different developmental responses, both are triggered by the same physical environment. Therefore, it is logical that a common signaling network governs both the processes. *CBF* genes have been highlighted for their role in cold stress responses (Gilmour *et al.*, 1998; Liu *et al.*, 1998; Jia *et al.*, 2016; Zhao *et al.*, 2016). *CBFs* rapidly accumulate upon short-term cold exposure, thereby activating the transcription of cold-responsive genes, such as *COR15A* and *RD29A* (Stockinger *et al.*, 1997; Liu *et al.*, 1998). Interestingly, *CBFs* are also highly accumulated during the vernalization process and mediate long-term cold-induced *COOLAIR* expression. Hence, our results support that cold signaling and vernalization pathways are not sharply distinguishable, as suggested previously (Seo *et al.*, 2009).

Materials and Methods

Plant materials and treatments

Arabidopsis thaliana Columbia-0 (Col-0), Wassilewskija-2 (Ws-2), and Col:*FRI*^{SF2} (*FRI* Col) were used as wild types in this study. “Wild type” in this paper mainly refers to *FRI* Col unless otherwise specified. *FRI* Col (Lee *et al.*, 1994), *cbfs-1*, *pCBF3::CBF3-myc* (Jia *et al.*, 2016), *pSuper::CBF3-myc* (Liu *et al.*, 2017), *35S::CBF1*, *35S::CBF2*, and *35S::CBF3* (Gilmour *et al.*, 2004) have previously been described. *FRI cbfs-1* was generated by crossing *FRI* Col with *cbfs-1* stated above. *FLC_{ΔCOOLAIR}* was generated by crossing *FRI* Col with *FLC_{ΔCOOLAIR}* in Col-0 background described previously (Luo *et al.*, 2019). For all experiments using plant materials, seeds were sown on half-strength Murashige & Skoog (MS) media (Duchefa) containing 1% sucrose and 1% plant agar (Duchefa) and stratified at 4°C for 3 days. Plants were germinated and grown at 22°C under a short day (SD) cycle (8 h light/16 h dark) with cool white fluorescent lights (100 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹). For the vernalization treatment, plants were grown at 22°C for the prescribed period and then transferred to a 4°C growth chamber under an SD cycle. To adjust the developmental stage, the plants to be vernalized for 40 days (40V), 30 days (30V), 20 days (20V), 10 days (10V), and 1 day (1V) were transferred to 4°C after being grown at 22°C for 10 days, 12 days, 14 days, 15 days, and 16 days respectively. Non-vernalized (NV) plants were grown at 22°C for 16 days. For 0, 0.5, 1, 1.5, 2, 3, 6, and 24 hours of cold treatment, plants were grown at 22°C for 16 days before the 4°C treatment. For the freezing treatment, 20V plants were transferred to -1°C, dark condition for 8 hours (8hF). To measure flowering time of vernalized plants, plants were transferred to 22°C under a long day (LD) cycle (16 h light/8 h dark) directly after the vernalization treatment.

Plasmid construction

To generate the *35S::CBF3-HA* construct, the entire coding sequence of *CBF3* was amplified by PCR and was cloned into the *HBT-HA-NOS* plasmid (Yoo *et al.*, 2007). For *pCOOLAIR_{DRE}::LUC* and *pCOOLAIR_{DRE}^m::LUC* construction, the 1 kb sequence containing the *COOLAIR* promoter, the 3' UTR and last exon of *FLC* was amplified by PCR and was

cloned into *LUC-NOS* plasmid (Hwang and Sheen, 2001). To generate *pCOOLAIR_{DRE}^m::LUC*, two CRT/DREs in the *COOLAIR* promoter, 5'-AGGTCGGT-3' and 5'-ACCGACAT-3', were replaced with 5'-CGAGGTGT-3' and 5'-TGAACCCA-3', respectively. For *pFLC::LUC* construction, the 1 kb sequence containing the promoter, 5' UTR, and first exon of *FLC* was amplified by PCR and was cloned into the *LUC-NOS* plasmid.

Electrophoretic mobility shift assay (EMSA)

Maltose binding protein (MBP) and MBP-CBF3 recombinant fusion protein were induced by 500 μ M of isopropyl β -D-thiogalactoside (IPTG) in *E. coli* BL21 (DE3) strain. Cell extracts were isolated with buffer containing 20 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.4), 1 mM EDTA, 200 mM NaCl, 10% Glycerol, 1 mM DTT, and 1 mM PMSF. Proteins were purified from cell extracts using MBPTrap™ HP column (GE Healthcare) with ÄKTA FPLC system (Amersham Biosciences). The Cy5-labelled probes and unlabelled competitors were generated by annealing 25 bp-length oligonucleotides. EMSA was performed as previously described with few modifications (Seo *et al.*, 2012). 5 μ M of proteins and 100 nM of Cy5-labelled probe were incubated together at room temperature in a binding buffer containing 10 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5), 1 mM EDTA, 50 mM NaCl, 5% glycerol, and 5 mM DTT for each EMSA reaction. For the competition assay, the reaction mixtures were incubated in the presence of 100-fold molar excess of each competitor. The reaction mixtures were electrophoresed at 100 V after incubation. The Cy5 signals were detected using WSE-6200H LuminoGraph II (ATTO).

Chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) assay

Approximately 4 g of seedlings grown on MS plate were collected and cross-linked using 1% (v/v) formaldehyde. Nuclei were isolated from seedlings using buffer containing 20 mM PIPES-KOH pH 7.6, 1 M hexylene glycol, 10 mM MgCl₂, 0.1 mM EGTA, 15 mM NaCl, 60 mM KCl, 0.5% Triton-X, 5 mM β -mercaptoethanol, and 1X cOmplete™ EDTA-free Protease Inhibitor Cocktail (Roche) as described previously with few modifications (Shu *et al.*, 2014). Isolated nuclei were lysed with buffer containing 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.4), 150 mM NaCl, 1%

(v/v) Triton X-100, and 1% SDS (w/v), and were subsequently sonicated using Digital Sonifier[®] (Branson). Sheared chromatin was diluted with buffer containing 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.4), 150 mM NaCl, 1% (v/v) Triton X-100, and 1 mM EDTA. Immunoprecipitation was undertaken by incubating sheared chromatin together with Protein G Sepharose[™] 4 Fast Flow beads (GE Healthcare) and antibodies. Anti-myc (MBL, #M192-3) and normal mouse IgG₁ (Santa Cruz, #sc-3877) were used to detect CBF3 protein enrichment on *FLC* locus, and anti-H3K36me3 (Abcam, #Ab9050), H3K4me3 (Millipore, #07-473), and anti-H3K27me3 (Millipore, #07-449) were used to detect histone modifications deposited on *FLC* chromatin. DNA was extracted with phenol:chloroform:isoamyl alcohol (25:24:1, v/v) or with Chelex[®] 100 Resin according to the manufacturer's instruction.

Gene expression analysis

Total RNA was isolated from ~100 mg of seedlings grown on MS agar plate using TRI Reagent[®] (Sigma-Aldrich) or TS[™] Plant Mini Kit (Taeshin Bio Science, Gyeonggi-do, Republic of Korea). cDNA was generated using 4 µg of total RNA, 5 units of Recombinant DNase I (TaKaRa), 200 units of RevertAid[™] Reverse Transcriptase (Thermo Scientific), and buffer containing 0.25 mM dNTP and 0.1 µg oligo(dT)₁₈. Quantitative PCR analysis was performed using iQ[™] SYBR[®] Green Supermix (Bio-Rad) and CFX96 Real-Time PCR system (Bio-Rad).

Immunoblotting

Total protein was isolated from ~100 mg of seedlings using buffer containing 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5), 100 mM NaCl, 10 mM MgCl₂, 1 mM EDTA, 10% glycerol, 1 mM PMSF, 1 mM DTT and the 1X cOmplete[™] EDTA-free Protease Inhibitor Cocktail (Roche). 50 µg of total protein was loaded onto SDS-PAGE gels and separated by electrophoresis. The proteins were transferred to PVDF membranes (Amersham Biosciences) and probed with anti-myc (MBL, #M192-3; 1:10000 dilution) antibody overnight at 4°C. Then, the samples were probed with horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-conjugated anti-mouse IgG (Cell Signaling, #7076; 1:10000

dilution) antibody at room temperature. The signals were detected by ImageQuant™ LAS 4000 (GE Healthcare) using WesternBright™ Sirius ECL solution (Advansta).

Luciferase assay using Arabidopsis protoplast

Protoplast isolation and transfection were undertaken as previously described with few modifications (Yoo *et al.*, 2007). Protoplast was isolated from leaves of SD-grown wild-type plant (Col-0) using a buffer containing 150 mg Cellulase Onozuka™ R-10 (Yakult), 50 mg Maceroenzyme™ R-10 (Yakult), 20 mM KCl, 20 mM MES-KOH (pH 5.6), 0.4 M D-mannitol, 10 mM CaCl₂, 5 mM β-mercaptoethanol, 0.1 g bovine serum albumin. For protoplast transfection, 200 µg of plasmid DNA and isolated protoplast were incubated together in buffer containing 0.1 M D-mannitol, 50 mM CaCl₂, and 20% (w/v) PEG. Luciferase activity in protoplast was measured using Luciferase Assay System (Promega) and MicroLumat Plus LB96V microplate luminometer (Berthold Technologies).

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526 **Competing interests**

527 The authors declare that no competing interests exist.

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530 **Supplementary Files**

531 **Supplementary File 1.** Oligonucleotide sequences used in this study.

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Figure legends

Figure 1. CBF3 directly binds to the CRT/DREs at the 3'-end of *FLC*.

(A) Comparison of sequences around the 3'-end of the *FLC* orthologs from Arabidopsis relatives. The upper graphic presents the gene structure of *AtFLC*. The black bars, thick lines, thicker lines indicate exons, introns, and UTRs, respectively. The blue-coloured box presents the region used for sequence comparison among 6 orthologous genes from 5 plant species. In the sequence alignment below, the grey box indicates the 3'-UTR of *FLC* orthologs, the blue arrow indicates the transcriptional start site of *AtCOOLAIR*, and the red dotted boxes indicate CRT/DREs. At, *Arabidopsis thaliana*; Cr, *Capsella rubella*; Al, *Arabidopsis lyrata*; Aa, *Arabis*

alpina; Th, *Theellungiella halophila*.

(B) EMSA using one of the CRT/DREs located at the *COOLAIR* promoter, DRE1, as a probe. In the upper graphic showing *AtFLC* gene structure, CRT/DRE-like sequences are marked as blue arrows and labelled as a, b, c, d for CRT/DRE-like sequences and as 1, 2 for CRT/DRE sequences. For the competition assay, these CRT/DRE-like sequences and mutant forms of DRE1, DRE2 were used as competitors. A 100-fold molar excess of unlabelled competitors was added. FP, free probe.

(C) ChIP assay result showing the enrichment of CBF3-myc protein on the *AtFLC* locus. Samples of NV, 10V, 20V, and 40V plants of *pSuper::CBF3-myc* were collected at zeitgeber time (ZT) 4 in an SD cycle. The CBF3-chromatin complex was immunoprecipitated (IP) with anti-myc antibodies (blue bars), and mouse IgG (black bars) was used as a control. Positions of qPCR amplicons used for ChIP-qPCR analysis are illustrated as P1, P2, and P3 in the upper graphic. The red arrow in the graphic denotes the position of two CRT/DREs located on the *COOLAIR* promoter. ChIP-qPCR results have been represented as mean $\pm$ SEM of the 3 biological replicates in the lower panel. Dots represent each data-point. Relative enrichments of the IP/5% input were normalized to that of *pTUB2*. The blue shading indicates a cold period. Asterisks indicate a significant difference between IgG and anti-myc ChIP-qPCR results at each vernalization time-point (*, $P < 0.05$; **, $P < 0.01$; unpaired Student's *t*-test). ns, not significant.

Figure 1—figure supplement 1. CBF proteins directly bind to the sequence at the 3'-end of *FLC* in DNA affinity purification sequencing (DAP-seq).

DAP-seq results showed enrichment of CBF proteins at the *AtFLC* locus obtained from the Plant Cistrome Database (http://neomorph.salk.edu/dev/pages/shhuang/dap_web/pages/index.php; O'Malley *et al.*, 2016). The top bars represent the structures of alternatively spliced forms of the *FLC* transcript. The green, grey, and red bars indicate the exons, introns, and UTRs of *FLC*, respectively. The peaks below represent the positions of the CBF enrichments. CBF-amp; Amplification of DAP-seq results.

Figure 1—figure supplement 2. CBF3 binds to DRE1 and DRE2 on the *COOLAIR* promoter and DREc on the first exon of *FLC*.

(A) Schematic showing the positions of six CRT/DRE-like sequences distributed on the *AtFLC* locus. CRT/DRE sequences have been labelled as DRE1, -2, and CRT/DRE-like sequences have been labelled as DREa, -b, -c, and -d. The black bars, white lines, and light blue lines represent exons, introns, and UTRs of *AtFLC*, respectively. The red-coloured bases indicate the core sequence (CCGAC) of CRT/DRE. The blue-coloured bases represent bases known to

832 determine the binding affinity of CBF3 to CRT/DRE (*Maruyama et al., 2004*).
 833 (B-C) EMSA using DRE1 (B) or DRE2 (C) as probe. For competition assay, DRE1, DRE2,
 834 and DREc were used as competitors. Molar excess (1-, 10-, and 100-fold) of unlabelled
 835 competitors was added. FP, free probe.

Figure 2. *COOLAIR* is one of the CBF regulons.

(A) Expression levels of total *COOLAIR* and *COOLAIR* isoforms in the wild-type (Col-0) and *CBF3*-overexpressing plants (*pSuper::CBF3-myc*). The gene structures of *FLC* and *COOLAIR* variants are illustrated in the upper panel. The thin black arrow indicates the transcriptional start site of *COOLAIR*. The thick black arrows indicate exons of each *COOLAIR* isoform. The structures of proximal (I) and distal (Iii and Iiii) *COOLAIR* isoforms are shown. The primer sets used for total, proximal (I), and distal (Iii, Iiii) *COOLAIR*s are marked in Figure 2-supplement 1. Relative transcript levels of total *COOLAIR* and *COOLAIR* variants have been represented as mean ± SEM of 3 biological replicates. Relative expression levels of *UBC* were

normalized to that of Col-0. Dots represent each data-point. Asterisks indicate a significant difference, as compared to the wild-type (*, $P < 0.05$; **, $P < 0.01$; ***, $P < 0.001$; unpaired Student's t -test).

(B) Expression dynamics of total *COOLAIR* after short-term cold (0, 0.5, 1, 1.5, 2, 3, 6, and 24 h) treatment. Wild-types (*FRI* Col) were subjected to 4°C cold and harvested at each time-point. Relative transcript levels of total *COOLAIR* to *UBC* were normalized to that of non-cold-treated wild-type. The values have been represented as mean $\pm$ SEM of 3 biological replicates. Dots represent each data-point. The blue shading indicates periods under cold treatment. Significant differences have been marked using different letters (a, b; $P < 0.05$; one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post-hoc test).

(C) Transcript levels of total *COOLAIR* and *COOLAIR* isoforms in wild-type and *cbfs-1* mutant before (–Cold) and after (+Cold) a day of 4°C cold treatment. Relative levels of total *COOLAIR* and *COOLAIR* variants were normalized to that of *PP2A*. Values have been represented as mean $\pm$ SEM of 3 biological replicates. Dots indicate each data-point. Significant differences have been marked using different letters (a, b; $P < 0.05$; two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post-hoc test).

Figure 2—figure supplement 1. Overexpression of *CBF1*, -2, or -3 causes an increase in *COOLAIR* level, but the effects on *COOLAIR* variants are subtly different.

(A) Positions of qPCR amplicons used for detecting proximal (I) and distal (Iii and Iiii) *COOLAIR* variants. The black bars denote exons, thin lines denote introns, and thick lines denote UTRs of *FLC*. The thin black arrow below the gene structure indicates the transcriptional start site of *COOLAIR*. The thick black arrows below denote exons of the type I, type Iii, and type Iiii *COOLAIR* variants. The positions of qPCR amplicons used for the qPCR analysis have been marked using blue arrows.

(B-D) Transcript levels of *COOLAIR* variants in the wild-type (Ws-2) and *CBF1*-, -2-, and -3-overexpressing transgenic plants (*CBF1ox*, *CBF2ox*, and *CBF3ox*, respectively; *Seo et al.*, 2009). Relative levels of type I (B), type Iii (C), and type Iiii (D) *COOLAIR* were normalized

874 to that of *UBC*. Values have been represented as mean $\pm$ SEM of 3 biological replicates. Dots
 875 represent each data-point. Asterisks indicate a significant difference, as compared to the wild-
 876 type (**, $P < 0.01$; ***, $P < 0.001$; unpaired Student's *t*-test). ns, not significant.

Figure 3. Protein levels of CBFs increase during the vernalization process.

(A) Transcript levels of *CBF1*, -2, and -3 under short-term cold exposure. Wild-type plants were subjected to 0, 1, 3, 6, 12, and 24 h of 4°C cold treatment. Relative levels of *CBF1*, -2, and -3 were normalized to that of *UBC*. Values have been represented as mean ± SEM of 3 biological replicates. Dots represent each data-point. The blue shadings indicate periods under cold period. Significant differences have been marked using different letters (a-c; $P < 0.05$; one-

way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post-hoc test).

(B) Transcript levels of *CBF1*, -2, and -3 after 20V and 40V. Wild-type plants were treated with 4°C vernalization under an SD cycle and collected at ZT4. Relative levels of *CBF1*, -2, and -3 were normalized to that of *UBC*. Values have been represented as mean ± SEM of 3 biological replicates. Dots indicate each data-point. The blue shadings denote periods under cold period. Significant differences have been marked using different letters (a-c; $P < 0.05$; one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post-hoc test).

(C) Daily rhythms of *CBF1*, -2, and -3 transcript levels in NV or 40V plants. Col-0 plants grown under an SD cycle were collected every 4 h between ZT0 and ZT24. Relative transcript levels of *CBF1*, -2, and -3 were normalized to that of *PP2A*. Values have been represented as mean ± SEM of 3 biological replicates. The grey shadings represent dark periods. Asterisks indicate a significant difference between NV and 40V at each time-point (*, $P < 0.05$; **, $P < 0.01$; ***, $P < 0.001$; two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post-hoc test).

(D) Increase of CBF3 protein level during the vernalization process. The *pCBF3::CBF3-myc* transgenic plants, subjected to 4°C vernalization, were collected at ZT4 of the indicated time-point. CBF3 proteins were detected using anti-myc antibodies. Rubisco was considered the loading control. Numbers below each band indicate relative signal intensity compared to 1V. The mean values of 3 biological replicates are presented.

Figure 4. CBFs are involved in vernalization-induced *COOLAIR* expression.

(A) Expression dynamics of total *COOLAIR* in wild type and *cbfs-1* mutant during vernalization. Relative transcript levels of total *COOLAIR* were normalized to that of *PP2A*. Values have been represented as mean $\pm$ SEM of 3 biological replicates. Dots represent each data-point. Asterisks indicate a significant difference between wild-type and *cbfs-1* mutant at each time-point (**, $P < 0.01$; ***, $P < 0.001$; two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post-hoc test).

(B) Transcript level of total *COOLAIR* in wild-type (Col-0) and CBF3-overexpressing transgenic plant (*CBF3ox*; *pSuper::CBF3-myc*) during vernalization. Relative levels of total *COOLAIR* were normalized to that of *PP2A*. Values have been represented as mean $\pm$ SEM of 3 biological replicates. Dots represent each data-point. Asterisks indicate a significant difference between the wild-type and *CBF3* overexpressor (*, $P < 0.05$; **, $P < 0.01$; ***, $P < 0.001$).

$P < 0.001$; two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post-hoc test). Blue shading denotes cold periods in (A) and (B).

(C) Effect of first frost-mimicking treatment [8 h of freezing ($<0^{\circ}\text{C}$)] on the level of total *COOLAIR* in 20V wild-type and *cbfs-1*. The upper panel shows a schematic of the experimental procedure. For NV, wild-type and *cbfs-1* were collected at ZT4 after growing at 22°C for 16 d. For the first frost treatment, 20V wild-type and *cbfs-1* mutant were treated with an additional 8 h of 4°C (20V, blue line) or 8 h of -1°C (20V+8hF, light blue line) under dark, and then the whole seedlings were collected at ZT22 for analysis. All the plants were grown under an SD cycle. The grey shadings denote dark periods. Total *COOLAIR* levels in wild-type and *cbfs-1* treated with NV, 20V, and 20V+8hF have been represented as mean $\pm$ SEM of 3 biological replicates in the lower panel. Dots indicate each data-point. Relative levels of total *COOLAIR* were normalized to that of *PP2A*. Asterisks indicate a significant difference (***, $P < 0.001$; two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post-hoc test).

Figure 5. *COOLAIR* promoter containing CRT/DREs is necessary for CBFs-mediated vernalization induction.

(A) Luciferase assay showing that CBF3 activates *COOLAIR* promoter with wild-type CRT/DRE (DRE) but fails to activate the one with mutant CRT/DRE (DRE^m). A schematic of the reporter constructs used for the luciferase assay is presented in the upper panel. *pFLC::LUC* harbors 1 kb of the promoter, the 5'-UTR, and the first exon of *FLC*. The blue arrow in the *pFLC::LUC* graphic indicates the location of DRE_c. Wild-type (WT) and mutant (Mut) forms of *pCOOLAIR::LUC* include 1 kb of the *COOLAIR* promoter with the 3'-UTR and last exon of *FLC*. The blue and red arrows mark the positions of the wild-type (DRE) and mutant (DRE^m) forms of DRE1 and DRE2, respectively. Each reporter construct was co-transfected into *A. thaliana* protoplast together with the 35S::*CBF3-HA* effector construct. In parallel, 35S-*NOS* control plasmid was transfected as a control. The result is shown below. Relative luciferase activities were normalized to that of the 35S-*NOS* control. Values have been represented as mean ± SEM of 3 biological replicates. Dots represent each data-point.

(B) Transcript levels of total *COOLAIR* and proximal (I) *COOLAIR* isoform in wild-type and

944 *FLC_{ACOOLAIR}* mutant before (NV) and after vernalization (20V). *FLC_{ACOOLAIR}* has a 324 bp
 945 deletion of the *COOLAIR* promoter region containing DRE1 and -2 (Luo *et al.*, 2019). The
 946 position of the deleted region is marked in red lines with reversed triangle in the upper graphic.
 947 Black bars denote exons, thin lines denote introns, and thick lines denote UTRs of *FLC*. The
 948 thin black arrow below the gene structure indicates the transcriptional start site of *COOLAIR*.
 949 The thick black arrow below denotes exons of the type I *COOLAIR* variant. The positions of
 950 amplicons used for the qPCR analysis are marked as blue arrows. The qPCR analysis result is
 951 presented in the lower panel. Relative transcript levels were normalized to that of *PP2A*. Values
 952 have been represented as mean $\pm$ SEM of 3 biological replicates. Dots represent each data-
 953 point. Asterisks indicate a significant difference, as compared to NV (**, $P < 0.01$; ***, $P < 0.001$;
 954 unpaired Student's *t*-test). ns, not significant.

Figure 6. Histone modifications on *FLC* chromatin are not affected by *cbfs* mutation.

(A) Schematic representation of *FLC* gene structure showing the positions of qPCR amplicons used for ChIP analysis. The red arrow presents the position of two CRT/DREs in the *COOLAIR* promoter. qPCR amplicons are marked as blue bars labelled P1, P2, P3, and P4.

960 (B-D) Enrichments of H3K36me3 (B), H3K4me3 (C), and H3K27me3 (D) on the *FLC* locus
 961 in NV or 40V wild-type and *cbfs-1* plants. The whole seedlings were collected at ZT4 under an
 962 SD cycle. Modified histones were immunoprecipitated with anti-H3K36me3, anti-H3K4me3,
 963 or anti-H3K27me3 antibodies. H3K36me3, H3K4me3, and H3K27me3 enrichments of the
 964 IP/5% input at P1, P2, P3, and P4 were normalized to those of *ACT7* and *FUS3*. Relative
 965 enrichments have been represented as mean $\pm$ SEM of 3 biological replicates. Dots represent
 966 each data-point. ns, not significant between wild-type and *cbfs-1*, as assessed using two-way
 967 ANOVA followed by Tukey's post-hoc test ($P>0.05$).

(B) Photographs of NV and 40V wild-type and *cbfs-1*. NV plants were grown at 22°C under LD and 40V plants were grown at 22°C under LD after being treated for 40V under SD. The photos were taken when the NV plants started to bolt and the 40V plants showed the first open flower.

(C) Flowering times of NV and vernalized (10V-40V) wild-type and *cbfs-1* plants. Flowering time was measured in terms of the number of rosette leaves produced when bolting. Plants were grown under LD after vernalization treatment. Bars and error bars represent the mean $\pm$ standard deviation (SD) of 3 biological replicates. Each dot indicates individual flowering time. Significant differences have been marked using different letters (a-e; two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post-hoc test; $P < 0.05$).

(D) Effect of the first frost-mimicking treatment (8 h freezing) on *FLC* mRNA level in wild-type and *FLC_{ΔCOOLAIR}* after 20V. NV, 20V, and 20V+8hF plants were subjected to the treatments described in Figure 4C. Relative levels were normalized to that of *PP2A*. Values have been represented as mean $\pm$ SEM of 3 biological replicates. Dots represent each data-point. Asterisks indicate a significant difference ($***P < 0.001$; two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post-hoc test). ns, not significant.

(E) Transcript levels of *FLC* mRNA in wild-type and *cbfs-1* during vernalization. Blue shading denotes cold periods. Bars and error bars represent mean $\pm$ SEM of 3 biological replicates. Dots represent each data-point. ns, not significant between wild-type and *FLC_{ΔCOOLAIR}*, as assessed using two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post-hoc test ($P > 0.05$).

(F) Flowering times of non-vernalized (NV) and vernalized (10V-40V) wild-type and *FLC_{ΔCOOLAIR}*. Flowering time was measured in terms of the number of rosette leaves produced when bolting. Plants were grown under LD after vernalization. Bars and error bars indicate mean $\pm$ SD. Each dot represents individual flowering time. Significant differences have been indicated using different letters (a-e; two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post-hoc test; $P < 0.05$).

Figure 8. Schematic model describing the mechanism of CBFs-mediated *COOLAIR* expression during the early phase of vernalization.

During the early phase of vernalization, increased CBF upregulates *COOLAIR* expression by binding to the CRT/DREs at the 3'-end of *FLC*. In the late phase of vernalization, CBF proteins fall off from CRT/DREs in the *COOLAIR* promoter, which leads to a reduction in *COOLAIR* levels.