



Conservation vs divergence in LEAFY and APETALA1 functions between Arabidopsis thaliana and Cardamine hirsuta

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Summary

- · A conserved genetic toolkit underlies the development of diverse floral forms among angiosperms. However, the degree of conservation vs divergence in the configuration of these gene regulatory networks is less clear.
- We addressed this question in a parallel genetic study between the closely related species Arabidopsis thaliana and Cardamine hirsuta.
- We identified leafy (Ify) and apetala1 (ap1) alleles in a mutant screen for floral regulators in C. hirsuta. C. hirsuta Ify mutants showed a complete homeotic conversion of flowers to leafy shoots, mimicking Ify ap1 double mutants in A. thaliana. Through genetic and molecular experiments, we showed that AP1 activation is fully dependent on LFY in C. hirsuta, by contrast to A. thaliana. Additionally, we found that LFY influences heteroblasty in C. hirsuta, such that loss or gain of LFY function affects its progression. Overexpression of UNUSUAL FLORAL ORGANS also alters C. hirsuta leaf shape in an LFY-dependent manner.
- We found that LFY and AP1 are conserved floral regulators that act nonredundantly in C. hirsuta, such that LFY has more obvious roles in floral and leaf development in C. hirsuta than in A. thaliana.

Introduction

Evo-devo studies seek to explain the developmental and genetic changes that have shaped diversity. In plants, the astonishing diversity of angiosperm flowers provides an ideal system to address this question. Our current knowledge of the genetic control of flower development is based on initial work in two distantly related species: Arabidopsis thaliana and Antirrhinum majus (Coen & Meyerowitz, 1991). This comparison showed that conserved regulators specify the fate of floral meristems and floral organs in both species, despite their evolutionary distance and divergent flower morphology. Since then, there has been considerable interest in understanding how a common set of genes are reconfigured in species-specific regulatory networks to produce diverse floral forms.

Flower formation relies on the acquisition of floral meristem identity, conferred by the genes LEAFY (LFY) and APETALA1 (API) in A. thaliana and the orthologous genes FLORICAULA (FLO) and SQUAMOSA (SQUA) in A. majus (Coen et al., 1990; Irish & Sussex, 1990; Schwarz-Sommer et al., 1990; Schultz & Haughn, 1991; Huala & Sussex, 1992; Mandel et al., 1992; Weigel et al., 1992; Shannon & Meeks-Wagner, 1993; Weigel & Meyerowitz, 1993). In flo mutants, flowers are homeotically converted to shoots because these meristems fail to acquire floral identity. The other three mutants, lfy and ap 1 in A. thaliana and

squa in A. majus, have a similar phenotype although they show only a partial homeotic conversion. Specifically, the first flowers to initiate in an Ify mutant are converted into leafy shoots, but later flowers acquire partial floral identity (Schultz & Haughn, 1991; Weigel et al., 1992). LFY is a transcription factor that directly activates the expression of various floral-organ identity genes, including the MADS-box gene AP1 (Parcy et al., 1998; Wagner et al., 1999). Overexpression of LFY converts the inflorescence shoot into a single terminal flower (Weigel & Nilsson, 1995). Therefore, LFY is sufficient and partially necessary for the acquisition of floral meristem identity in A. thaliana.

The development of flower-like structures in *lfy* mutants is caused by LFY-independent activation of AP1 expression, since these flowers disappear when both LFY and AP1 are mutated (Huala & Sussex, 1992; Weigel et al., 1992; Weigel & Meyerowitz, 1993; Wagner et al., 1999). In Ify ap I double mutants, flowers are homeotically converted to shoots, similar to flo single mutant flowers in A. majus (Coen et al., 1990; Huala & Sussex, 1992; Weigel et al., 1992). Therefore, AP1 expression in A. thaliana is activated in both an LFY-dependent and an LFYindependent manner. For example, AP1 expression is known to be directly induced by members of the SQUAMOSA BINDING PROTEIN-LIKE family, BLADE-ON-PETIOLE1 in concert with TGA transcription factors, the FLOWERING LOCUS D (FD) transcription factor together with FLOWERING LOCUS

T (FT), the MADS-box proteins SHORT VEGETATIVE PHASE (SVP), AGAMOUS-LIKE24 (AGL24) and SEPALLATA3, and the transcription factor LATE MERISTEM IDENTITY2 (Wigge *et al.*, 2005; Kaufmann *et al.*, 2009; Yamaguchi *et al.*, 2009; Xu *et al.*, 2010; Pastore *et al.*, 2011; Grandi *et al.*, 2012). This raises the possibility that LFY-independent activation of *AP1* in *A. thaliana* may contribute to the milder consequences of *LFY* loss-of-function, in comparison with the homeotic phenotype of *flo* mutants in *A. majus*.

LFY interacts with the F-box protein UNUSUAL FLORAL ORGANS (UFO) in A. thaliana and this interaction is conserved among orthologues of these proteins in different flowering plants (Lee et al., 1997; Chae et al., 2008; Souer et al., 2008). However, divergence in the spatiotemporal expression of these two genes played a major role in determining the various inflorescence architectures found in different species (Hake, 2008; McKim & Hay, 2010; Moyroud et al., 2010; Park et al., 2014; Kusters et al., 2015). For example, A. thaliana and A. majus have a raceme architecture with lateral flowers, and LFY/FLO expression is the limiting factor for acquisition of floral fate in these flowers (Coen et al., 1990; Blázquez et al., 1997). UFO is expressed in both vegetative and reproductive tissues, and neither UFO nor its A. majus orthologue FIMBRIATA is sufficient to specify floral meristem identity (Simon et al., 1994; Lee et al., 1997). By contrast, Solanaceae species such as petunia and tomato have a cyme architecture with terminal flowers, and rather than LFY, it is the UFO orthologues DOUBLE TOP and ANANTHA that are specifically expressed in these floral meristems and are necessary and sufficient to specify floral identity (Souer et al., 1998; Lippman et al., 2008). Another example is Gerbera hybrida, in which orthologues of UFO rather than LFY determine floral meristem identity in its capitulum inflorescence (Zhao et al., 2016). Therefore, distinct inflorescence architectures were produced by variation in the gene expression patterns of conserved floral regulators.

In addition to flower development, LFY orthologues also regulate leaf development in some species. Particularly in legume species, such as Pisum sativum or Medicago truncatula, expression of the LFY orthologues UNIFOLIATA and SINGLE LEAFLET1 is transiently activated in young leaves, and is required to produce a dissected leaf shape (Hofer et al., 1997; Wang et al., 2008; Chen et al., 2010). However, this function of LFY is mostly restricted to a subclade of the Fabaceae (Champagne et al., 2007). Throughout vascular plants, dissected leaf shape more commonly requires the co-option of genes active in the shoot apical meristem, such as class I Knotted1-like homeobox and CUP-SHAPED COTYLEDON genes, which pattern auxin maxima along the dissected leaf margin (Bharathan et al., 2002; Hay & Tsiantis, 2006, 2010; Barkoulas et al., 2008; Blein et al., 2008; Koenig et al., 2009). In the simple leaves of A. thaliana, overexpression of UFO changes the leaf margin from smooth to ruffled, and this requires LFY activity since these phenotypes disappear in an Ify background (Lee et al., 1997; Chae et al., 2008). Moreover, ectopic meristems form on leaves when UFO is fused with a VP16 transactivation domain in these experiments (Risseeuw

et al., 2013). Therefore, conserved floral regulators have evolved distinct functions in leaf development in some lineages.

In summary, current evidence suggests that functionally conserved orthologues of LFY, API and UFO contribute to floral initiation; and it is how these genes are wired in species-specific regulatory networks that is key to understanding floral diversity (Rosin & Kramer, 2009). In particular, it is important to understand whether LFY-independent activation of AP1 involves relatively recent evolutionary events that are specific to the Arabidopsis lineage, rather than conserved features of angiosperm flower development. For example, the functions of AP1 in sepal and petal development in A. thaliana may involve LFYindependent activation of API that is specific to this lineage (Ye et al., 2016). Moreover, because LFY activity is required to produce a dissected leaf shape in some legume species (Hofer et al., 1997; Wang et al., 2008; Chen et al., 2010), and also contributes to the development of dissected tomato leaves (Molinero-Rosales et al., 1999), it is important to understand the prevalence of this function of LFY. One approach to address these questions is to use parallel genetic studies in A. thaliana and its close relative Cardamine hirsuta. Both species belong to the Brassicaceae family, diverged c. 32 Ma and are reproductively isolated (Hay et al., 2014; Gan et al., 2016). Comparative genetic analyses in these species have successfully identified molecular changes that underlie phenotypic differences that are of evolutionary significance, such as leaf shape and seed dispersal (Hay & Tsiantis, 2006; Barkoulas et al., 2008; Vlad et al., 2014; Hofhuis et al., 2016; Vuolo et al., 2016).

To determine the degree of conservation vs divergence in gene networks that control floral initiation in A. thaliana and C. hirsuta, we performed a genetic screen to identify C. hirsuta mutants with defects in floral meristem identity. Following this unbiased approach, we isolated alleles of *lfy* and *ap1* as important floral regulators in C. hirsuta. The ap1 mutant phenotype was very similar between C. hirsuta and A. thaliana, but C. hirsuta lfy mutants showed a homeotic conversion of flowers to leafy shoots. We showed that this phenotype is explained by AP1 expression being fully dependent on LFY activity in C. hirsuta. Moreover, we found that LFY was necessary for correct heteroblastic progression of leaf shape, and sufficient to alter this progression, in the dissected leaves of *C. hirsuta*. Finally, we showed that overexpression of UFO did not affect floral initiation, but increased the complexity of C. hirsuta leaves; and this required LFY activity. Our findings provide evidence of conserved and divergent functions of floral meristem identity genes between A. thaliana and C. hirsuta, and shed light on the evolution of AP1 regulation.

Materials and Methods

Plant material and growth conditions

C. hirsuta reference Oxford (Ox) accession, herbarium specimen voucher Hay 1 (OXF) (Hay & Tsiantis, 2006). The following C. hirsuta cDNA sequences have been deposited in GenBank: ChLFY (KX772396) and ChAP1 (KX772395), and can also be found by these gene identifiers in the C. hirsuta genome

assembly: ChLFY(CARHR275620) ChAP1 and (CARHR062020) (Gan et al., 2016). Arabidopsis Biological Resource Center (ABRC) accession numbers for A. thaliana mutants used in this study are as follows: Ify-6 (CS8552), Ify-10 (CS6279), ap1-12 (CS6232) and ap1-1 (CS28). All plants were grown in long day conditions in the glasshouse: 16 h at 22°C: 8 h at 20°C, light: dark. For quantitative PCR on seedling tissue, seeds were surface sterilised, stratified for 1 wk at 4°C and grown on 0.5 Murashige-Skoog medium for 8 d under long day conditions in a growth chamber. A C. hirsuta lfy-2; ap1-119 double mutant was constructed by pollinating phenotypically wildtype individuals from a segregating lfy-2 family with ap1-119 pollen, selfing four ap1-119 individuals in the F2 generation, and identifying lfy-2; ap1-119 double mutants segregating in the progeny of ap1-119; lfy-2/+ parents.

Mutagenesis, mutant screening and cloning

Seeds (1500) of *C. hirsuta* Ox were washed with 0.1% Triton-X 100, agitated with 17 mM ethyl methyl sulphonate (EMS) for 10 h, washed 12 times with deionised H_2O , suspended in 0.1% agarose and sown on 1:1 soil: vermiculite mix. M_2 progeny were harvested as pools of five M_1 plants and 100 seeds each of 300 pools were sown and screened for defects in normal flower development.

Five alleles of *lfy* and three alleles of *ap1* were isolated. All mutants were backcrossed to Ox before further analysis. Molecular lesions and proof of cloning by transgenic complementation are described for alleles used in this study. The lfy-2 sequence bears a G to A single nucleotide change at position 994 of the genomic sequence (starting from the ATG), predicted to convert a Try residue to a stop codon and produce a truncated 178 amino acid protein. The lfy-3 sequence bears a C to T single nucleotide change at position 112 of the coding sequence (CDS), predicted to convert a Gln residue to a stop codon and produce a truncated 37 amino acid protein. The lfy-4 sequence bears a C to T single nucleotide change at position 451 of the CDS, predicted to convert a Gln residue to a stop codon and produce a truncated 150 amino acid protein. The *lfy-3* mutant phenotype was complemented by expressing a pAtLFY::AtLFY transgene, described in the text, and other alleles were confirmed by allelism tests with lfy-3. The ap1-119 sequence bears a G to A single nucleotide change at position 1855 of the genomic sequence (starting from the ATG), which modifies the splicing donor site of the second intron. The ap1-797 sequence bears a G to A single nucleotide change at position 2592 of the genomic sequence, which modifies the splicing acceptor site of the fifth intron. Expressing a gChAP1: GFP translational fusion complemented the ap1-119 mutant phenotype and other alleles were confirmed by allelism tests with *ap1-119*.

Transgenic plant construction

All binary vectors were transformed into *C. hirsuta* by *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* (strain GV3101)-mediated floral dip.

35S::AtLFY was constructed in the destination vector pB2GW7 by recombination with the AtLFY cDNA in pENTR221 (DQ447103; ABRC). Forty independent lines were generated in both segregating C. hirsuta lfy-3 and A. thaliana lfy-6 backgrounds. T₃ lines homozygous for the transgene were identified in homozygous mutant and wild-type backgrounds. Plants were genotyped for the lfy-3 mutation using the primer pair *lfy3_RsaI-1F* (5'-CCTGAAGGTTTCACGAGTGGC) lfy3_int1-R (5'-TGACAAGTGTTGTTGGGAAG), producing a 614 bp amplicon digested by Accl into 108 bp and 506 bp fragments in the mutant allele. Plants were genotyped for the 1fy-6 the primer pair *lfy-6_Mae3-F* (5'mutation using TATGGATCCTGAAGGTTTCACG) and lfy-6_Mae3-R (5'-CGGGCATAGAAATGTTG) (www.weigelworld.org).

Forty independent lines of *pAtLFY::AtLFY* (pETH29) (Chahtane *et al.*, 2013) were generated in a segregating *C. hirsuta lfy-3* background and a T₃ line homozygous for both the transgene and the *C. hirsuta lfy-3* allele was used for further analysis. This line was confirmed by seed fluorescence (Bensmihen *et al.*, 2004) and by genotyping with the primer pair *lfy3_RsaI-1F* and *lfy3_int1-R*.

For 35S::AtAP1 and 35S::ChAP1 constructs, the AtAP1 cDNA was subcloned from pUNI51 (U20604; ABRC) into pBluescript SK and the ChAP1 cDNA was amplified from C. hirsuta cDNA synthesised from RNA extracted from floral apices and cloned in pCRBlunt. AtAP1 and ChAP1 cDNAs were subcloned behind the cauliflower mosaic virus (CaMV) 35S promoter of the pART7 vector and the 35S::AtAP1 and 35S::ChAP1 cassettes were transferred to the binary vector pMLBART. Forty independent lines were generated for each construct in A. thaliana ap1-1 and ap1-12 and a subset was analysed in the T2 generation.

gChAP1:GFP was constructed in the destination vector pMDC107 by recombination of a 6.6 kb genomic *C. hirsuta AP1* fragment in pCR8, which was generated by PCR amplification from a bacterial artificial chromosome (BAC) containing the *C. hirsuta AP1* locus (SIU_BAC 20-M1) with the primers ChAP1pro-F (5'-CGTGGTGGTTAGAAGATAGCGTCAAC) and ChAP1cterm-R (5'-TGCGGCGAAGCAGCCAAGGTT). Ten independent lines of gChAP1:GFP were generated in *C. hirsuta ap1-119*.

The 35S:UFOi plasmid (pJP61a) was a gift from P. Laufs (Laufs et al., 2003) and independent insertion lines were generated in *C. hirsuta* wild-type plants. Ethanol induction was performed as previously described (Deveaux et al., 2003).

Quantitative reverse transcription PCR (qRT-PCR) analysis

Rosette leaves and whole inflorescences from *C. hirsuta* wild-type adult plants were used to measure *LFY* expression levels. Whole 8-d-old seedlings of *C. hirsuta* wild-type and *35S::AtLFY* plants were used to measure *LFY* and *AP1* expression levels. These *35S::AtLFY* plants were segregating for the *lfy-3* allele. Total RNA was extracted from three biological replicates of each tissue using the Spectrum Plant Total RNA Kit (Sigma-Aldrich). RNA was converted into cDNA using SuperScript III Reverse Transcriptase (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) and an oligo-

dT primer. qPCR was performed in triplicate using Power SYBR Green Master Mix (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and the ViiA 7 Real-Time PCR System (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Primer efficiency and expression level were determined as previously described (Pfaffl, 2001). Expression levels of *LFY* (5'-CCAA GAAGGCTTATCAGAGGAGCCG-3' and 5'-CCGTCTTTG CTGTTGCTTC TTCATCT-3') and *API* (5'-TGGGTGGT CTGTATCAAGAAGAAG-3' and 5'-TATATGGAAATGCTT CATGCGGC-3') were normalised to the reference gene *CLATHRIN/AP2M* (5'-TCGATTGCTTGGTTTGGAAGATA AGA-3' and 5'-TTCTCTCCCATTGTTGAGATCAACTC-3').

Sequence analysis

Amino acid sequences for ChAP1 and ChLFY were derived from in silico translation of cDNA sequences amplified from C. hirsuta cDNA synthesised from RNA extracted from floral apices. The ChAP1 and ChLFY protein sequences were aligned to AtAP1 and AtLFY, respectively, using the MUSCLE (MUltiple Sequence Comparison by Log-Expectation) tool available online (http://www.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/mafft/index.html) BLOSUM62 matrix and per cent identity was calculated by pairwise alignment in JALVIEW. The alignment residues were colour-coded based on identity and conservation using the AMAS server (http://www.compbio.dundee.ac.uk/www-amas). LFY binding sites were predicted in A. thaliana and C. hirsuta AP1 regulatory regions as previously described (Moyroud et al., 2011). A score is computed on a 19 bp fragment and is negatively proportional to the in vitro affinity of LFY for the fragment (Moyroud et al., 2011).

In situ hybridisation

Shoot apices were induced to flower by a shift from short- to long-day conditions. For *in situ* hybridisation, apices were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde, processed through to paraffin using a Tissue-Tek processor (Sakura Finetek USA Inc., Torrance, CA, USA) and 8 µm sections were hybridised with *C. hirsuta LFY* and *AP1* RNA probes as previously described (Hay & Tsiantis, 2006). Probes were amplified from *C. hirsuta* cDNA synthesised from RNA extracted from floral apices to give the following fragments: *ChLFY*, 1263 bp; *ChAP1*, 1400 bp.

Scanning electron microscopy

Shoot apices were induced to flower by a shift from short- to long-day conditions and fixed in FAA (formaldehyde – acetic acid – ethanol), post-fixed in osmium tetraoxide, dehydrated, critical point dried and dissected before coating with gold/palladium for viewing in a JSM-5510 microscope (JEOL, Welwyn Garden City, UK).

Leaf shape analysis

Shape variation in the terminal leaflets of *C. hirsuta* genotypes was quantified using Extended Eigenshape analysis as previously described (MacLeod, 1999; Cartolano *et al.*, 2015). Leaves of

A. thaliana genotypes were adhered to white paper using spray adhesive and digitally scanned. Images were converted into binary images, and leaf area and perimeter were automatically computed using the IMAGEJ plugin IJBLOB (Wagner & Lipinski, 2013). The leaf dissection index was calculated as perimeter²/(4π × area) (Bai *et al.*, 2010).

Results

Cardamine hirsuta Ify mutants show homeotic conversion of flowers to leafy shoots

To identify floral regulators in *C. hirsuta*, we screened an EMS-mutagenised *C. hirsuta* population for floral meristem identity defects and isolated five *lfy* mutants (Fig. 1a–h). Sequencing of three alleles, *lfy-2*, *lfy-3* and *lfy-4*, revealed single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in the *C. hirsuta LFY* CDS, generating premature stop codons predicted to produce truncated 177, 37 and 150 amino acid proteins, respectively (Fig. 1h). We complemented the *lfy-3* mutant phenotype with an *A. thaliana LFY* transgene (*pAtLFY::AtLFY*; Fig. 2f–l). We confirmed that all other alleles belonged to a single complementation group by allelism tests with *lfy-3*.

We exploited this allelic series of *lfy* mutants in *C. hirsuta* to assess the degree of conservation in LFY gene function by comparison with Ify alleles in A. thaliana. We detected a striking difference in *lfy* phenotypes between species: all *lfy* alleles in C. hirsuta lacked floral meristem identity and instead formed a continuous phyllotactic spiral of leaves in the axils of bracts, which are cryptic in wild-type flowers (Fig. 1a-g). This indicates a complete homeotic conversion of flowers to leafy shoots in these mutants. By contrast, even the null lfy-6 allele in A. thaliana showed only partial homeotic conversion, producing flowers subtended by a bract that retain multiple floral features including whorled phyllotaxy, sepals and central carpels that are fused or unfused (Fig. 1i-l) (Schultz & Haughn, 1991; Weigel et al., 1992). Complete conversion of flowers to leafy shoots is only observed in A. thaliana when both LFY and API functions are lost (Fig. 1m-p) (Huala & Sussex, 1992; Weigel et al., 1992; Weigel & Meyerowitz, 1993; Wagner et al., 1999). Therefore, lfy single mutants in C. hirsuta phenocopy lfy ap 1 double mutants in A. thaliana.

The bracts subtending leafy shoots in *C. hirsuta lfy* mutants have a dissected shape, similar to cauline leaves of wild-type *C. hirsuta*, while bracts in *A. thaliana lfy* resemble the simple cauline leaf shape found in wild-type *A. thaliana* (Fig. 1c,k). Cauline leaves were continuously produced along the stem of all *C. hirsuta lfy* alleles, compared with the production of only three to four cauline leaves in the wild-type (Fig. 1g). The small leaves produced in the leafy shoots of *C. hirsuta lfy* are also dissected, unlike wild-type sepals, which are simple (Fig. 1b,d). Therefore, the shape of lateral organs produced by the inflorescence of *lfy* mutants in *C. hirsuta* vs *A. thaliana* differs for two reasons: first, because of a difference in leaf bauplan between species and, second, because sepals are produced in the flower-like structures in *A. thaliana* but not *C. hirsuta lfy* mutants.

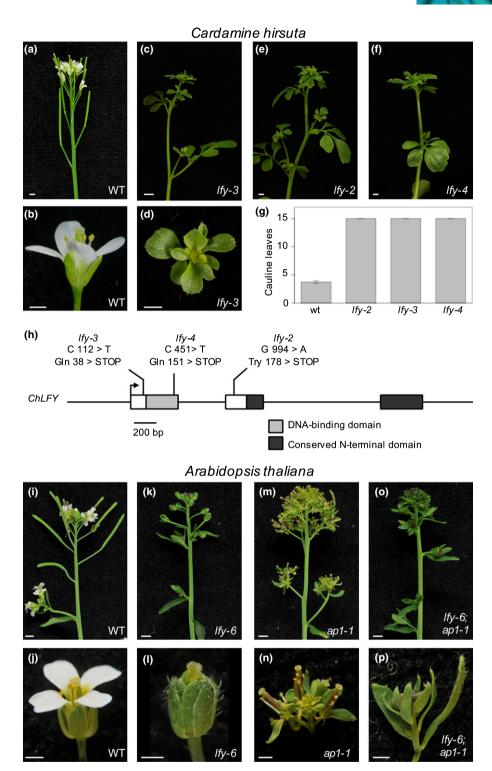


Fig. 1 Cardamine hirsuta Ify mutants resemble Ify ap1 double mutants of Arabidopsis thaliana. (a, b) C. hirsuta wildtype (a) inflorescence and (b) flower with floral organs arranged in whorls. (c, d) C. hirsuta Ify-3 inflorescence shows (c) complete floral to shoot conversion with (d) flowers consisting of leaves in a spiral arrangement. (e, f) C. hirsute (e) Ify-2 and (f) Ify-4 inflorescences look identical to Ify-3. (g) Average number of cauline leaves/bracts on the main stem of C. hirsuta wild-type and Ify mutant alleles (up to a maximum of 15 leaves were scored). Data reported as means \pm SE. (h) C. hirsuta LFY gene model showing the Ify-2, Ify-3 and Ify-4 mutations. Lines represent introns and rectangles represent exons; regions encoding the DNA-binding domain (dark grey) and the conserved Nterminal domain (light grey) are indicated (Hames et al., 2008; Sayou et al., 2016). (ip) A. thaliana inflorescences and flowers of the following genotypes: (i, j) wild-type; (k, l) Ify-6 showing an incomplete floral to shoot transformation with flowers consisting of sepals and (l) a central carpel; (m, n) ap1-1; (o, p) Ify-6 ap1-1 showing a complete floral to shoot conversion. Bars: (a, c, e, f, i, k, m, o) 2 mm; (b, d, j, l, n, p) 1 mm.

LFY function is conserved between A. thaliana and C. hirsuta

We hypothesised that the divergence in *lfy* phenotypes between *C. hirsuta* and *A. thaliana* reflected species-specific differences in either *LFY* or *AP1* function and sought to discriminate between these two possibilities. To start with, we examined whether *LFY* gene expression or function differed between *A. thaliana* and

C. hirsuta and found several lines of evidence to suggest conservation rather than divergence. First, we found that C. hirsuta LFY (ChLFY) expression was significantly upregulated in inflorescence vs leaf tissue, and was strongly expressed in floral meristems initiating at the flanks of the inflorescence meristem, a similar pattern to that observed in A. thaliana (Fig. 2a,b) (Weigel et al., 1992). Second, we showed that overexpressing the A. thaliana LFY cDNA from the CaMV 35S promoter in either A. thaliana or

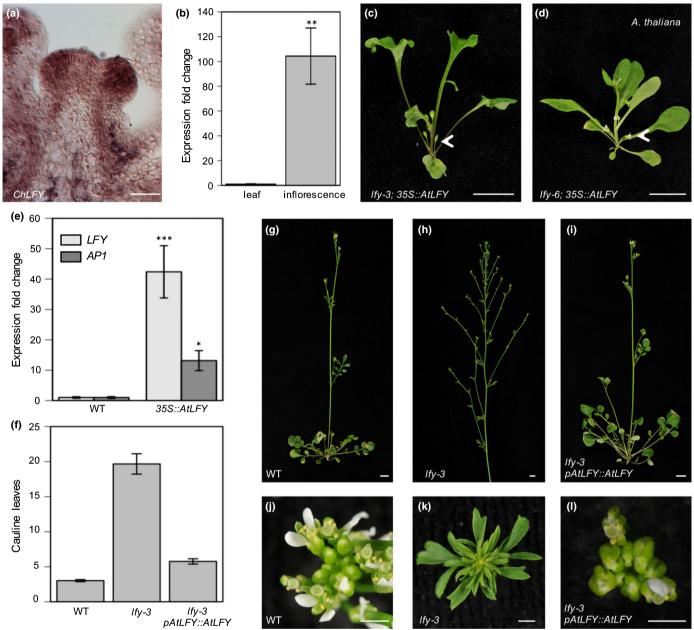


Fig. 2 LFY function is conserved between *Arabidopsis thaliana* and *Cardamine hirsuta*. (a) *In situ* hybridisation on a longitudinal section through a wild-type *C. hirsuta* inflorescence probed with *C. hirsuta LFY*. (b) *C. hirsuta LFY* expression in inflorescence compared with leaf tissue, determined by qRT-PCR and expressed as fold change (Student's *t*-test: P = 0.006). Data reported as means of three biological replicates ± SE. (c, d) *355::AtLFY* promotes early flowering and converts each axillary shoot to a solitary flower (arrows) in (c) *C. hirsuta Ify-3* and (d) *A. thaliana Ify-6*. (e) *C. hirsuta LFY* and *AP1* expression in 8-d-old seedlings of *355::AtLFY* compared with 8-d-old wild-type (WT) seedlings, determined by qRT-PCR and expressed as fold change (Student's *t*-test: P = 0.0008 for *LFY*, P = 0.029 for *AP1*). Data reported as means of three biological replicates ± SE. Note that the *Ify-3* allele is segregating in *355::AtLFY* plants. (f) Average number of cauline leaves/bracts on the main stem of *C. hirsuta* wild-type, *Ify-3* and *Ify-3*; *pAtLFY::AtLFY* genotypes (up to a maximum of 20 leaves were scored). Data reported as means ± SE. (g-i) Whole plant and (j-l) inflorescences of the *C. hirsuta* genotypes: (g, j) wild-type, (h, k) *Ify-3*; *pAtLFY::AtLFY*. Note that the rosette is omitted from the plant in (h), and older flowers are dissected off the inflorescence in (l). Significance levels: ***, P < 0.001; **, P < 0.01; **, P < 0.05. Bars: (a) 50 μm; (c, d, g-i) 1 cm; (j-l) 0.5 cm.

C. hirsuta led to a comparable acceleration of flowering and conversion of axillary shoots to terminal flowers (Fig. 2c,d), suggesting that A. thaliana LFY is sufficient to cause flowering and ectopic flower formation in either species (Weigel & Nilsson, 1995). We also found that AP1 expression was significantly upregulated in 8-d-old C. hirsuta 35S::AtLFY seedlings (Fig. 2e),

suggesting that LFY activates AP1 expression in C. hirsuta similarly to in A. thaliana (Parcy et al., 1998; Wagner et al., 1999). Consistent with this result, we showed that the best LFY binding site in the A. thaliana AP1 promoter is probably conserved in the AP1 promoter of C. hirsuta, and is predicted to have a high affinity for LFY in both species (see Supporting Information Fig. S6)

(Benlloch et al., 2011; Moyroud et al., 2011; Winter et al., 2011). Finally, we tested whether expression of A. thaliana LFY from its own promoter (pAtLFY::AtLFY) complemented the lfy phenotype in C. hirsuta. We found that transformants recovered wild-type flower and floral organ production in C. hirsuta lfy-3, in the same manner as in A. thaliana lfy (Fig. 2f–l) (Blázquez et al., 1997). Therefore, LFY gene expression and function seem to be conserved between species, and LFY proteins from each species share 94% amino acid sequence identity (Fig. S1), suggesting that this is not the cause of the divergent lfy phenotype between C. hirsuta and A. thaliana.

Species-specific differences in AP1 regulation

Next, we examined whether differences in API gene expression or function might explain the homeotic lfy phenotype in C. hirsuta. C. hirsuta AP1 (ChAP1) is expressed in floral meristems initiating at the flanks of the inflorescence meristem in a similar domain to ChLFY (Fig. 3a). A. thaliana AP1 (AtAP1) shares this wild-type expression pattern and is also expressed in Ify mutants due to activation by additional floral regulators, although the onset of expression is slightly delayed as compared with wild-type plants (Liljegren et al., 1999; Wagner et al., 1999). Surprisingly, we did not detect any ChAP1 expression in C. hirsuta lfy-3 by in situ hybridisation (Fig. 3b). To maximise our chances of detecting API expression we performed these experiments with samples collected > 2 wk after floral induction by which time AP1 expression was easily detected in multiple A. thaliana lfy alleles (Liljegren et al., 1999; Wagner et al., 1999). Thus, AP1 expression in C. hirsuta appears entirely dependent upon LFY activity, in striking contrast to API expression in A. thaliana.

To investigate ChAP1 function, we isolated two ap1 alleles from an EMS-mutagenised C. hirsuta population, ap1-119 and ap1-797, which showed a characteristic phenotype of branched flowers and petal loss (Figs 3c-j, S2a,b). Sequencing these ap1 alleles revealed an SNP that mutates the splice donor site of the second intron in ap1-119, and the splice acceptor site of the fifth intron in ap1-797 (Fig. 3d). We complemented the ap1-119 mutant phenotype with a C. hirsuta AP1:GFP translational fusion (gChAP1:GFP, Fig. S2c) and crossed the ap1-797 allele with ap1-119 to confirm allelism. The branched flowers found in C. hirsuta ap1-119 are due to ectopic floral meristems formed in the axils of first-whorl floral organs that reflect a partial transformation of sepals into leaves with associated axillary meristems (Fig. 3f,g). Floral organ development is also altered, particularly in the first two whorls. For example, sepals are flanked by stipules, which normally form at the base of leaves, and lateral sepals initiate lower on the receptacle and often abort (Fig. 3h). Comparable defects are found in A. thaliana ap 1 mutants, indicating a conserved function for AP1 in regulating floral meristem identity and sepal and petal development in these species (Irish & Sussex, 1990; Bowman et al., 1993). To further compare the function of A. thaliana AP1 and C. hirsuta AP1, we used the CaMV 35S promoter to overexpress the CDS of each gene in A. thaliana ap1 mutants. Transformants expressing either construct showed

equivalent acceleration of flowering, conversion of axillary shoots to terminal flowers, and rescue of branching and petal loss in flowers (Fig. S2d–i; Table S1) (Mandel & Yanofsky, 1995). These results, together with 97% amino acid identity shared between *C. hirsuta* and *A. thaliana* AP1 (Fig. S3), support the conclusion that *AP1* function is conserved between species.

We used genetics to explore the functional significance of our observation that the inflorescence of *C. hirsuta lfy* mutants lacked *AP1* expression. If *AP1* activation is completely dependent on *LFY* in *C. hirsuta*, then we predicted that *lfy* mutants would show complete epistasis to *ap1*. We tested this prediction by constructing *lfy ap1* double mutants and found that these double mutants were indistinguishable from single *lfy* mutants in *C. hirsuta* (Fig. 3i–l). Therefore, the genetic interaction between *LFY* and *AP1* differs between species. The additive interaction in *A. thaliana* (Fig. 1i–p) reflects both *LFY*-dependent and *LFY*-independent activation of *AP1*, while the epistatic interaction in *C. hirsuta* (Fig. 3i–l) is likely to reflect only *LFY*-dependent activation of *AP1*.

To directly test whether this species-specific difference in AP1 regulation was responsible for phenotypic differences between Ify mutants in A. thaliana vs C. hirsuta, we overexpressed AP1 in the C. hirsuta Ify mutant. We predicted that the Ify mutant would no longer have a homeotic phenotype in C. hirsuta if AP1 was expressed. We found that the 35S::AtAP1 transgene was sufficient to recover floral organ identity in C. hirsuta Ify-2, such that flowers comprised sepals and central unfused carpels (Fig. 3m-p), essentially converting C. hirsuta Ify to an A. thaliana Ify phenotype. Taken together, our findings show that species-specific differences in AP1 expression underlie the difference in Ify phenotypes between A. thaliana and C. hirsuta.

LFY regulates heteroblastic leaf shape in C. hirsuta

A role for LFY orthologues in determining leaf shape has been shown in a number of species with dissected leaves, particularly legumes in a subclade of the Fabaceae (Hofer et al., 1997; Champagne et al., 2007; Wang et al., 2008; Chen et al., 2010). We took advantage of C. hirsuta lfy mutants to assess the contribution of LFY to dissected leaf shape in a species in the Brassicaceae. The shape of successive leaves differs in many plants, including C. hirsuta, in an age-dependent process called heteroblasty, tracking progressive phases of plant life from juvenile to adult, and vegetative to reproductive (Telfer et al., 1997; Cartolano et al., 2015). In C. hirsuta, leaf shape changes during ageing by increasing leaflet number and altering leaflet shape from kidney- to wedge-shape, which is particularly pronounced in terminal leaflets (Fig. 4a) (Cartolano et al., 2015). We found that this heteroblastic progression was delayed in lfy-3 mutants such that leaves had significantly fewer leaflets than the wild-type from leaf 3 onwards, and failed to produce the maximum number of leaflets found in wild-type adult leaves (Fig. 4a,b). This heteroblastic delay was not associated with a significant delay in *lfy-3* flowering time, as both mutant and wild-type produced a similar number of rosette leaves before flowering (Figs 4c, S4a).

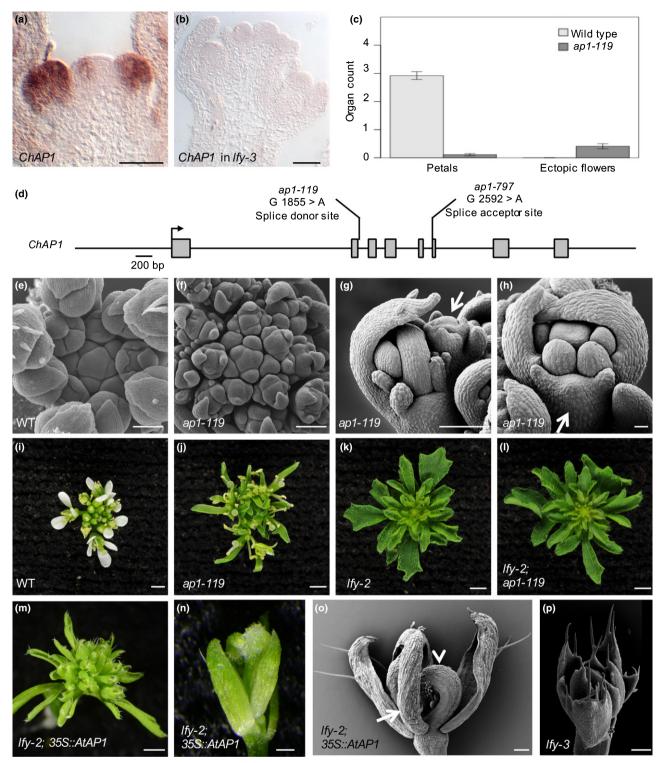


Fig. 3 Regulatory divergence of *AP1*. (a, b) *In situ* hybridisations on longitudinal sections through *Cardamine hirsuta* inflorescences of the following genotypes: (a) wild-type and (b) *Ify-3*, probed with *C. hirsuta AP1*. In *C. hirsuta* wild-type, the expression of *AP1* marks cells at the periphery of the shoot apical meristem that have acquired floral meristem fate and mRNA for this gene accumulates throughout early floral meristems (a). No *AP1* expression is observed in *C. hirsuta Ify* (b). (c) Number of floral organs in wild-type and *ap1-119 C. hirsuta* plants showing fewer petals and the presence of ectopic flowers in *ap1-119*. Data reported as means \pm SE. (d) *C. hirsuta AP1* gene model showing the positions of *ap1-119* and *ap1-797* mutations. Lines represent introns and rectangles represent exons. (e–h) Scanning electron micrographs of (e) wild-type and (f) *ap1-119* inflorescences, and (g, h) *ap1-119* flowers; arrows indicate ectopic flower in the axil of (g) a medial sepal and (h) stipules flanking an aborted lateral sepal. (i–m) Inflorescences of *C. hirsuta* (i) wild-type, (j) *ap1-119*, (k) *Ify-2*, (l) *Ify-2*; *ap1-119* and (m) *Ify-2*; *35S::AtAP1*. (n, o) *C. hirsuta Ify-2*; *35S::AtAP1* flowers consisting of sepals and a central carpel; arrow indicates sepal identity of epidermal cells and arrowhead indicates carpel with stigmatic papillae and ovules (o). (p) *Ify-3* flower consisting of leaves that lack floral organ identity. Bars: (a, b, e–g, o, p) 100 μm; (h) 20 μm; (i–m) 0.5 cm; (n) 0.5 mm.

We quantified terminal leaflet shape by Extended Eigenshape analysis, a multivariate approach based on outline analysis (MacLeod, 1999; Cartolano *et al.*, 2015). We found that the first principal component eigenvalue (ES1) accounts for 10.3% of the total shape variation found between the terminal leaflets of all genotypes, and quantifies the transition in shape from a juvenile kidney-shape to an adult wedge-shape (Figs 4d, S4b). Again, we found that heteroblastic progression was delayed in *lfy-3* mutants such that terminal leaflets had significantly lower ES1 eigenscore

values than the wild-type from leaf 8 onwards, and failed to acquire the maximum ES1 value found in wild-type adult leaves (Fig. 4d). By contrast, we found significantly higher ES1 values in terminal leaflets of 35S::AtLFY transgenic lines in *C. hirsuta* than the wild-type, from leaf 5 onwards, and precocious acquisition of the maximum ES1 value found in the wild-type (Fig. 4d). Flowering was also accelerated in 35S::AtLFY, such that fewer rosette leaves were formed, and the maximum number of leaflets found in wild-type adult leaves was never reached on 35S::AtLFY

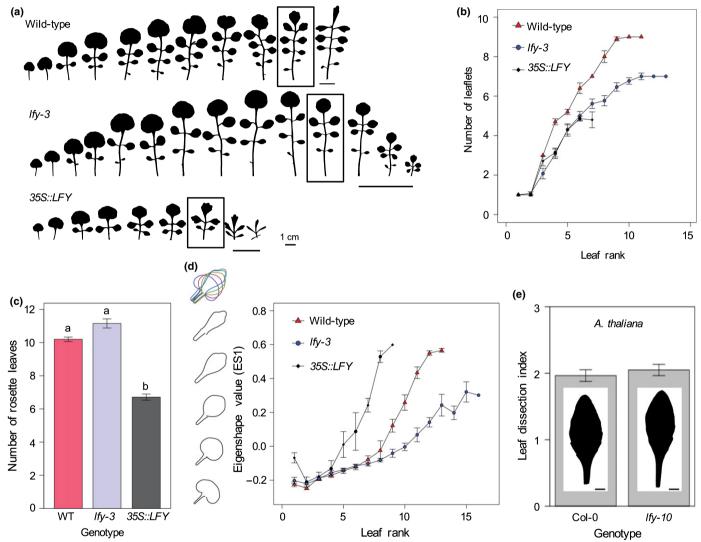


Fig. 4 *LFY* regulates heteroblastic progression of leaf shape in *Cardamine hirsuta*. (a) Heteroblastic leaf series of *C. hirsuta* wild-type, *Ify-3* and *355::LFY* genotypes. First to last rosette leaves shown from left to right, rectangles indicate the last rosette leaf; cauline leaves are underlined. (b) Leaflet number is significantly lower in *Ify-3* and *355::LFY* leaves compared with wild-type from leaf 3 onwards and the maximum number of leaflets produced in *Ify-3* leaves is significantly lower than for the wild-type; n = 11 (wild-type), n = 13 (*Ify-3*), n = 7 (*355::LFY*). (c) Flowering time does not differ significantly between *Ify-3* and the wild-type (WT) but *355::LFY* plants flower early, as indicated by the number of rosette leaves produced; significant differences between means are shown by different letters (P < 0.01 Tukey's test); n = 10 (WT), n = 13 (*Ify-3*), n = 7 (*355::LFY*). (d) The *y*-axis shows the shape model for the first Eigenshape axis (ES1). ES1 describes the heteroblastic change in terminal leaflet morphology from kidney-shaped (low ES1) to wedge-shaped (high ES1) and accounts for 10.3% of shape variation between all genotypes. The terminal leaflet of *Ify-3* leaves has lower ES1 values that differ significantly from other genotypes from leaf 8 onwards, indicating a delay in heteroblastic development and a failure to acquire final adult shape. The terminal leaflet of *355::LFY* leaves has higher ES1 values that differ significantly from other genotypes at leaf 1 and from leaf 5 onwards, indicating a precocious acquisition of adult shape; n = 6 (WT and *Ify-3*), n = 5 (*355::LFY*). (e) *Arabidopsis thaliana* leaf shape (as measured by the leaf dissection index) of the last rosette leaf before flowering does not differ significantly between Col-0 and *Ify-10* (P = 0.5 Student's *t*-test); n = 5 (Col-0), n = 14 (*Ify-10*). Bars: (a) 1 cm; (e) 0.5 cm. Statistical tests used in (b)–(d) were ANOVA with post-hoc Tukey tests. Data reported as means \pm SE

leaves before flowering (Fig. 4b,c). Our findings indicate that LFY provides a key input into the heteroblastic progression of C. hirsuta leaf shape and that altering its activity is both necessary and sufficient to alter this progression. Loss of LFY function reduces the rate of shape change in terminal leaflets, such that adult shape is never reached, while *LFY* overexpression accelerates this change, such that adult shape is reached precociously. Given that leaflet number is reduced in 35S::AtLFY, compared with the wild-type, LFY overexpression may also disrupt other aspects of leaf development in addition to heteroblasty. However, the heteroblastic effect of LFY is obvious when simply comparing the terminal leaflet shape of the last rosette leaf before flowering between these C. hirsuta genotypes (indicated in Fig. 4a). By contrast, we detected no difference in the shape of the last rosette leaf between wild-type and *lfy* mutants in *A. thaliana* (Figs 4e, S4c). Therefore, the contribution of LFY activity to heteroblastic leaf shape variation is more pronounced in C. hirsuta than A. thaliana.

LFY is required for UFO function in C. hirsuta

Since *UFO* overexpression alters leaf shape in an *LFY*-dependent manner in *A. thaliana* (Lee *et al.*, 1997; Chae *et al.*, 2008; Risseeuw *et al.*, 2013), we tested whether this function was conserved in *C. hirsuta*. We found that, similar to *A. thaliana*, expressing an ethanol-inducible version of *UFO* (*UFOî*) broadly under the CaMV *35S* promoter (Laufs *et al.*, 2003) alters the dissected leaf shape of *C. hirsuta* by increasing its complexity (Figs 5a–d, S5a–

c). This phenotype was dependent on LFY activity since the supernumerary leaflets and lobes disappeared in 35S::UFOi lfy-2 plants (Fig. 5e,f). Moreover, overexpression of UFO did not accelerate flowering in C. hirsuta (Figs 5g, S5d), suggesting that LFY is the limiting factor for floral initiation in both C. hirsuta and A. thaliana. These results suggest that LFY and UFO functions are potentially conserved between C. hirsuta and A. thaliana, although future work will help to determine the precise role of UFO in C. hirsuta development.

Discussion

Floral initiation is a critical point in a plant's life. In C. hirsuta, we found this irreversible switch to floral development is specified by the concerted action of LFY and AP1, similar to A. thaliana. However, in contrast to A. thaliana, the activation of AP1 expression is entirely dependent on LFY in C. hirsuta. As a consequence, flowers are homeotically converted to shoots with cauline leaves in C. hirsuta lfy mutants, because these meristems fail to acquire floral identity. This is in stark contrast to A. thaliana, where LFY-independent activation of AP1 maintains the development of flower-like structures in *lfy* mutants. We uncovered an additional function for LFY as necessary and sufficient for the heteroblastic progression of dissected leaf shape in C. hirsuta. Leaf shape is also modified by UFO overexpression, which markedly increased the complexity of C. hirsuta leaves, and as in A. thaliana, it requires LFY activity for this function. Our findings show that LFY, AP1 and probably UFO are functionally

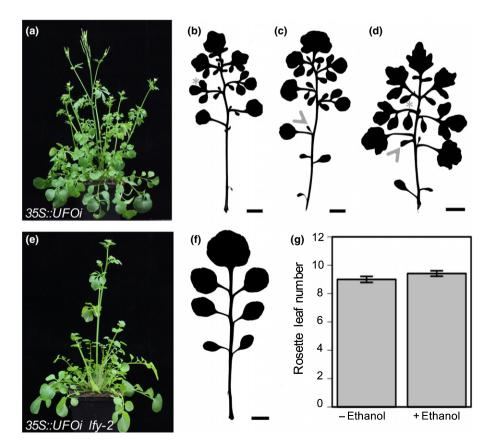


Fig. 5 LFY is required for UFO function in Cardamine hirsuta. Plants and representative leaves of (a-d) 35S::UFOi and (e, f) 35S:: UFOi Ify-2 after ethanol induction. Ethanol induction of UFO expression, driven by the CaMV 35S promoter, produces more complex leaves: for example, leaflets dissected to deep lobes (asterisk, b), leaflets initiated in the axils between leaflet and rachis (arrow, c), intercalary leaflets borne on the rachis (arrow, d) and individual leaflets borne on the petiolule (asterisk, d). Leaf shape is unaffected by ethanol induction of UFO expression in an Ify background (e, f). (g) Number of rosette leaves at flowering time is not significantly affected by ethanol induction of UFO expression in 35S::UFOi lines (Wilcoxon test, P > 0.05). Data reported as means \pm SE. Bars: 1 cm.

conserved floral regulators in *C. hirsuta*. However, LFY has more obvious roles in the floral and leaf development of *C. hirsuta* than of *A. thaliana*. This difference arises from differential *AP1* regulation during floral development, and divergent gene regulatory networks operating in simple vs dissected leaf development.

Divergent AP1 regulation between A. thaliana and C. hirsuta

In A. thaliana, LFY and AP1 act in a partially redundant manner to determine the identity of the floral meristem. This is not the case in C. hirsuta. Three independent Ify alleles show complete loss of floral meristem identity in C. hirsuta. The position and nonsense nature of the mutations, and the fact that all three alleles showed an identical phenotype, suggests that these are null alleles. Our results show that LFY acts nonredundantly to specify floral identity in C. hirsuta because API activation is completely dependent on LFY. This suggests that components responsible for LFYindependent induction of AP1 may have diverged between A. thaliana and C. hirsuta. LFY-independent activation of AP1 is thought to be achieved by the FT-FD complex, since double mutants between lfy ft and lfy fd mimic the homeotic phenotype of lfy ap1 double mutants (Wigge et al., 2005). However, the exact cis-element that FT-FD binds to in the AP1 promoter is still unknown (Benlloch et al., 2011). A recently evolved MADS-box transcription factor binding site (CArG box) was identified in the AP1 promoter of A. thaliana, via which CAULIFLOWER and AP1 itself could induce AP1 expression (Ye et al., 2016). SVP and AGL24 are additional MADS-box proteins that could activate AP1 via this CArG box, independent of LFY, since double mutants between lfy svp and lfy agl24 also mimic the phenotype of lfy ap1 double mutants (Grandi et al., 2012). In comparison to the A. thaliana CArG box sequence, there are two mutations and one deletion in the *C. hirsuta* sequence, suggesting it is nonfunctional, and a possible candidate to explain why regulation of AP1 in C. hirsuta is completely dependent on LFY (Fig. S6). Despite this difference, our analysis of C. hirsuta ap1 mutants shows that AP1 is required for sepal and petal development in both C. hirsuta and A. thaliana and that this is not a derived function of AP1 in A. thaliana (Ye et al., 2016). Future work will help to identify the precise regulatory changes that underlie the difference in AP1 regulation between A. thaliana and C. hirsuta.

Previous studies have reported both partial and full homeotic conversions of flowers to shoots in orthologous *lfy* mutants in various flowering plants (Coen *et al.*, 1990; Weigel *et al.*, 1992; Hofer *et al.*, 1997; Molinero-Rosales *et al.*, 1999; Bomblies *et al.*, 2003; Dong *et al.*, 2005; Souer *et al.*, 2008; Wang *et al.*, 2008; Ikeda-Kawakatsu *et al.*, 2012; Zhao *et al.*, 2016). This suggests that the relative role of *LFY* vs other regulators of floral meristem identity is evolutionarily labile. It will be interesting to understand whether differences in *AP1* regulation underlie not only the difference between *A. thaliana* and *C. hirsuta lfy* phenotypes, but have evolved repeatedly, and contribute to the variable floral phenotypes of *lfy* mutants across angiosperms. Generating additional mutants in *LFY* orthologues in other species, particularly in *A. thaliana* relatives, should help to resolve this question.

LFY influences the heteroblastic progression of leaf shape in *C. hirsuta*

Previous work showed that regulatory divergence in FLOWERING LOCUS C (FLC) underlies much of the natural variation in C. hirsuta leaf shape (Cartolano et al., 2015). Lowexpressing FLC alleles accelerate both flowering time and heteroblastic progression of leaf shape, resulting in a faster progression to adult leaf shape. This work showed that FLC coordinates leaf development with reproductive timing, and that this coordination influences seed yield (Cartolano et al., 2015). Here we found that LFY also influences the heteroblastic progression of C. hirsuta leaf shape, such that LFY is required to produce an adult leaf shape. However, we observed no flowering time delay in the C. hirsuta lfy mutant. This finding suggests that the role of LFY in heteroblasty may be independent of the floral transition. There are at least two possible explanations for this: first, the low level of LFY expression in leaves (Fig. 2b) may promote adult traits or, second, LFY-dependent signals that are produced after bolting may feedback to influence leaf development. This latter possibility is consistent with the work on FLC (Cartolano et al., 2015), which suggests that the transition to flowering is accompanied by developmental changes in leaves that prepare the plant for impending reproduction.

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Author contributions

A.H. designed and directed the project; A.H., M.M., S.M.M. and M.C. performed research; F.P. and E.T. contributed materials and M.T. contributed to leaf shape analysis. A.H. wrote the paper with help from M.M. and S.M.M.

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Supporting Information

Additional Supporting Information may be found online in the Supporting Information tab for this article:

- **Fig. S1** Alignment of LFY proteins from *Arabidopsis thaliana* and *Cardamine hirsuta*.
- Fig. S2 AP1 protein function is conserved between *Arabidopsis thaliana* and *Cardamine hirsuta*.
- Fig. S3 Alignment of AP1 proteins from *Arabidopsis thaliana* and *Cardamine hirsuta*.
- **Fig. S4** LFY does not influence *Cardamine hirsuta* flowering time or *Arabidopsis thaliana* leaf shape.
- **Fig. S5** Induction of *UFO* overexpression affects *Cardamine hirsuta* leaf shape but not flowering time.
- **Fig. S6** Comparative analysis of LFY binding sites and a CArG box between the *AP1* regulatory regions of *Arabidopsis thaliana* vs *Cardamine hirsuta*.
- Table S1 Organ counts for 35S::AP1 genotypes

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