

Day-neutral response of photoperiodic flowering in tomatoes: possible implications based on recent molecular genetics of *Arabidopsis* and rice

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Abstract Photoperiodic flowering responses are classified into three major types: long day (LD), short day (SD), and day neutral (DN). *Arabidopsis* is one of the best-characterized LD plants and flowers much earlier under LD than SD conditions. In contrast, SD conditions promote flowering of SD plants such as rice and *Pharbitis nil*. Recently, molecular genetics of *Arabidopsis* (LD) and rice (SD) have identified genes that play key roles in the photoperiodic flowering of these plants. A common role of the *GIGANTEA (GI)-CONSTANS (CO)-FLOWERING LOCUS T (FT)* pathway in *Arabidopsis* and rice, and a specific role of *EARLY HEADING DATE 1 (EHD1)* in rice, but not in *Arabidopsis*, have been demonstrated. The DN response is the most poorly characterized among the three types of photoperiodic flowering responses. In this short review, we discuss how the DN flowering response is achieved in tomato based on recent progress in the analysis of *Arabidopsis* mutations in the photoperiodic flowering pathway and circadian rhythms.

Key words: *Arabidopsis*, circadian rhythms, day-neutral plant, long-day plant, photoperiodic flowering, short-day plant.

Fluctuations in day length affect the developmental processes and behaviors of many organisms. This phenomenon is called photoperiodism and allows the detection of seasonal changes and anticipation of future environmental conditions (Garner and Allard 1920). Garner and Allard (1920) found that many plants flower in response to changes in day length. The photoperiodic control of flowering time is tightly linked to the circadian clock (Mizoguchi et al. 2002, 2005). In *Arabidopsis*, *LATE ELONGATED HYPOCOTYL (LHY)* and *CIRCADIAN CLOCK ASSOCIATED 1 (CCA1)* each encode a myb protein essential for clock function (Schaffer et al. 1998; Mizoguchi et al. 2002; Wang and Tobin 1998;). Two floral activator genes, *GIGANTEA (GI)* and *CONSTANS (CO)*, play key roles in photoperiodic flowering (Fowler et al. 1999; Park et al. 1999; Putterill et al. 1995). We recently proposed that GI plays dual roles, acting within the circadian clock to regulate period length and circadian phase while also more directly promoting the expression of a circadian clock output pathway that includes *CO* and *FLOWERING LOCUS T (FT)* and promotes flowering in *Arabidopsis* (Mizoguchi et al. 2005). *FT* has been proposed as an important component of the elusive “florigen” signal (Abe et al. 2005; Huang et al. 2005; Wigge et al. 2005).

The photoperiodic flowering responses of plants are classified into 3 major types, long-day (LD), short-day (SD) and day-neutral (DN) (Thomas and Vince-Prue 1997). The LD plants only flower (an absolute LD plant) or flower most rapidly (a facultative LD plant) with more than a certain number of hours of light in each 24 h period. By contrast, the SD plants only flower or flower most rapidly with fewer than a certain number of hours of light in each 24 h period. The DN plants flower at the same time irrespective of the photoperiodic conditions. *Arabidopsis* is a facultative LD plant and flowers much earlier in a photoperiod with a long light period and a short dark period (e.g. 16 h light/8 h dark) than that with a short light period and a long dark period (e.g. 8 h light/16 h dark or 10 h light/14 h dark).

The reverse response to day length observed between *Arabidopsis* (LD plant) and rice (*Oryza sativa* L.; SD plant) is partly explained by the difference in the function of *CO* in *Arabidopsis* and the rice homolog *HEADING DATE 1 (Hd1)*; Hayama et al. 2003; Izawa et al. 2002). However, the molecular mechanisms underlying the photoperiodic responses of other LD, SD, and day-neutral (DN) plants are largely unknown. Among these, the DN response is the most poorly characterized. Finding novel mechanisms involved in photoperiodism and switching one type to another (e.g.,

LD to SD or DN plants) remain important topics of investigation. In the first section of this short review, we summarize recent progress in comparisons of molecular mechanisms of photoperiodic flowering in *Arabidopsis* and rice. In the second section, we summarize how to create DN *Arabidopsis* based on recent genetic analyses of genes involved in photoperiodic flowering and circadian rhythms. Finally, we discuss potential molecular mechanisms of the DN response in tomatoes.

Why does photoperiod not affect flowering time in tomato?

Lessons from *Arabidopsis* research

Photoperiods affect the developmental processes not only of plants but also of insects and animals. Diapause induction and termination of certain kinds of insects are under photoperiodic control. For examples, the production of elusive signal, pigment dispersing factor (pdf), is controlled by circadian clock, and this signal mediates between the clock and the photoperiodic response, diapause in flies (Figure 1).

In the past decade, photoperiodic flowering of the LD plant *Arabidopsis* (Figure 1) and the SD plant rice has been well characterized using molecular genetics. Loss-of-function or over-expression of certain genes changes the photoperiodic response type of *Arabidopsis* from the

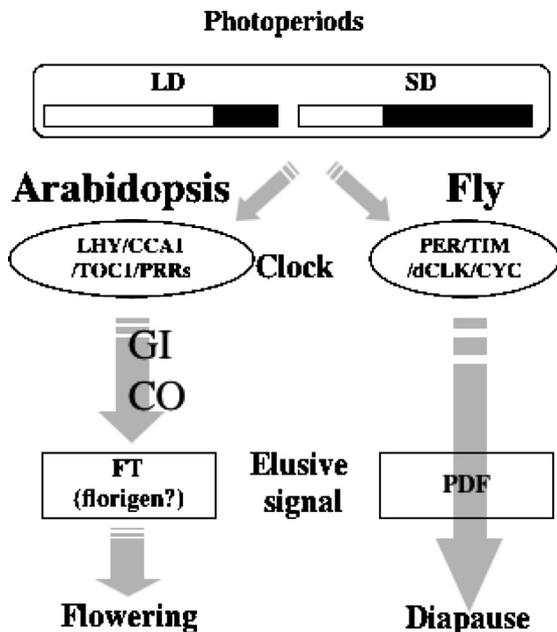


Figure 1. Connection between the photoperiodic responses and circadian clocks in *Arabidopsis* and fly. Circadian clocks play key roles in photoperiodic responses such as flowering in *Arabidopsis* and diapause in flies. In both cases, the production of elusive signals, i.e., FT and pigment dispersing factor (pdf), is controlled by the clocks, and these signals mediate between the clocks and the photoperiodic responses. The *Arabidopsis* clock not only affects the gene expression of *GI-CO*, but may also play important roles in distinct pathway(s) to control *FT* expression.

LD-type to the DN-type. DN (or day-length insensitive) responses can be further classified into several groups: types I to III (Figure 1).

Arabidopsis is a facultative LD plant that flowers much earlier under LD than SD conditions. Loss-of-function of floral activators in the photoperiod pathway such as *gi*, *co*, and *ft* largely delay flowering under LD, but not SD conditions (Koornneef et al. 1991). The *gi* mutation has the most severe effect among these mutations. The *gi* mutant plants produce more leaves than do wild-type plants in the inductive condition (LD), but the flowering times of *gi* and wild-type plants are almost the same in the noninductive condition (SD; type I; Figure 2).

In contrast, over-expression of *CO* (*CO-ox*) accelerates flowering even under SD conditions (Simon et al. 1996). The *CO-ox* plants flower earlier than wild-type plants under LD conditions (type II; Figure 2). Photoperiodic flowering is affected by the circadian clock (Mizoguchi and Coupland 2000; Mizoguchi et al. 2006). For example, *LHY* and *CCA1* encode myb proteins and play key roles in the control of circadian rhythms and flowering time. The *lhy cca1* double loss-of-function causes day-length insensitive early flowering (Mizoguchi et al. 2002) and is classified as type II (Figure 2).

The third class of the DN response of flowering can be obtained by over-expression of either *LHY* or *CCA1*. These plants flower later than wild-type plants under LD conditions, but slightly earlier under SD conditions (Mizoguchi et al. 2005; Suárez-López et al. 2001).

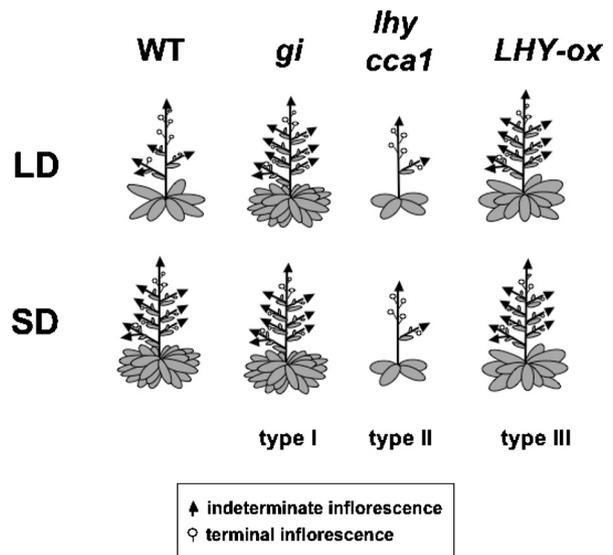


Figure 2. Three types of day-neutral flowering response in *Arabidopsis*. Delay of flowering in the inductive condition (long day [LD]; type I, e.g., *gi*) and acceleration of flowering in the noninductive condition (short day [SD]; type II, e.g., *CO-ox* and *lhy cca1*) cause day-neutral flowering responses in *Arabidopsis*. Over-expression of either *LHY* or *CCA1* has a unique effect on flowering; it delays and accelerates flowering under LD and SD conditions, respectively (type III). WT, wild type. See text for details.

Almost all of the late and early flowering patterns described above are well correlated with levels of *FT* expression in *Arabidopsis* (Calvino *et al.* 2005; Fujiwara *et al.* 2005a, b, c; Mizoguchi *et al.* 2005).

Can the tomato day-neutral response type be explained by simple loss- or gain-of-function of *GI*, *CO*, or *FT*?

Current tomato cultivars with the DN response have been chosen by breeders using long-term selection. The modern tomato has a mild short day response that is sometimes unnoticed due to other environmental inductions (high light or mild temperatures) (Samach and Lotan 2006, this issue). This allows for the harvest of tomato fruits over the entire year if temperatures in the growth environment are high enough. How did the ancestral tomato with the strong/mild photoperiodic response type become day-neutral? Or did the ancestral tomato have DN response type?

Day length affects a number of secondary compounds in tomato cultivars. For example, in *syn. Solanum hirsutum*, levels of the steroidal glycoalkaloid tomatine are different under LD than SD conditions at the same irradiance (Sinden *et al.* 1978). The levels of tomatine are correlated with the susceptibility to attacks by the Colorado potato beetle (Sinden *et al.* 1978).

Trichome density is also affected by day length in tomatoes and *Arabidopsis* (Chien and Sussex 1996; Gianfagna *et al.* 1992). Tight connections between photoperiodic responses and circadian rhythms have been outlined in detail in recent reviews (Mizoguchi *et al.* 2000, 2006). Some biological processes in tomatoes are controlled by the circadian clock (Samach and Lotan 2007, this issue), although core clock components in tomatoes have not been identified to date.

These results suggest that tomatoes have a sense of time measurement and that the connection between the circadian clock and one of the output pathways, flowering, may be impaired at a certain point. Below, we show several examples of how to make an LD plant, *Arabidopsis*, day neutral (Figure 1).

The loss-of-function of an *FT* homolog in tomato (*SINGLE FLOWER TRUSS*; *SFT*) delays flowering, which indicates that *SFT* in tomato actually functions as a floral activator in a manner similar to those in other plant species such as *Arabidopsis* and rice (Lifschitz and Eshed 2006; Lifschitz *et al.* 2006). What about *GI* and *CO* homologs? Tomatoes possess *GI* and *CO*-related genes, and the *GI*-homolog shows diurnal and circadian expression patterns (Niinuma *et al.* 2007, this issue), suggesting that at least the *GI* homolog may have similar functions to those of *Arabidopsis* and rice. This possibility can be tested by analyzing both loss- and gain-of-function of the *GI* and *CO* homologs in

tomatoes.

Although the *GI*–*CO*–*FT* pathway is well conserved in *Arabidopsis*, rice, and other plant species, a unique molecule that seems to be specific to rice has also been reported. The *EARLY HEADING DATE 1 (EHD1)* encodes a B-type response regulator and plays key roles in the photoperiodic flowering of rice (Doi *et al.* 2004). The analysis of approximately 36,000 expressed sequence tags (ESTs) from the one of the tomato cultivars ‘Micro-Tom’ revealed that these ESTs included more than 10,000 unigenes, approximately 30% of which have not been found in *Arabidopsis* and rice and appear to be unique to tomato (Yamamoto *et al.* 2005). Novel players may have key roles in the control of photoperiodic flowering in tomato. The identification of the genetic network for photoperiodic flowering in tomatoes and a comparison of the genetic networks among *Arabidopsis* (LD plant), rice (SD plant), and tomato (DN plant) are important topics for future investigations. The molecular mechanisms underlying the DN flowering response in tomato have not been elucidated. EMS-mutagenesis and generation of T-DNA insertional lines of ‘Micro-Tom,’ which are currently underway in our laboratory, will be useful in determining these mechanisms.

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