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RESEARCH PAPER

Evolution of *FLOWERING LOCUS T-like* genes in angiosperms: a core *Lamiales*-specific diversification

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Abstract

Plant life history is determined by two transitions, germination and flowering time, in which the phosphatidylethanolamine-binding proteins (PEBPs) FLOWERING LOCUS T (FT) and TERMINAL FLOWER1 (TFL1) play key regulatory roles. Compared with the highly conserved *TFL1-like* genes, *FT-like* genes vary significantly in copy numbers in gymnosperms, and monocots within the angiosperms, while sporadic duplications can be observed in eudicots. Here, via a systematic analysis of the PEBPs in angiosperms with a special focus on 12 representative species featuring high-quality genomes in the order *Lamiales*, we identified a successive lineage-specific but systematic expansion of *FT-like* genes in the families of core *Lamiales*. The first expansion event generated *FT1-like* genes mainly via a core *Lamiales*-specific whole-genome duplication (cL-WGD), while a likely random duplication produced the *FT2-like* genes in the lineages containing *Scrophulariaceae* and the rest of the core *Lamiales*. Both *FT1-* and *FT2-like* genes were further amplified tandemly in some families. These expanded *FT-like* genes featured highly diverged expression patterns and structural variation, indicating functional diversification. Intriguingly, some core *Lamiales* contained the relict *MOTHER OF FT AND TFL1 like* 2 (*MFT2*) that probably expanded in the common ancestor of angiosperms. Our data showcase the highly dynamic lineage-specific expansion of the *FT-like* genes, and thus provide important and fresh evolutionary insights into the gene regulatory network underpinning flowering time diversity in *Lamiales* and, more generally, in angiosperms.

Keywords: Diversity, evolution, *FLOWERING LOCUST T (FT)*, core *Lamiales*, phosphatidylethanolamine-binding protein (PEBP) gene family, whole-genome duplication (WGD).

Introduction

Flowering time, the transition from vegetative to reproductive growth, is pivotal for reproductive success, and is tightly regulated by a complex interaction between endogenous developmental signals and exogenous environmental factors (Blazquez and Weigel, 2000; Michaels et al., 2005). Flowering time in the model Arabidopsis thaliana is regulated by a complicated intrinsic gene-regulatory network (GRN) containing >300 floral regulators, among which both the florigen-encoding FLOWERING LOCUS T (FT) and its antagonistic anti-florigen-encoding TERMINAL FLOWER 1 (TFL1) belong to the same phosphatidylethanolamine-binding protein (PEBP) gene family (Kardailsky et al., 1999; Turck et al., 2008; Fornara et al., 2010; Wickland and Hanzawa, 2015; Bouche et al., 2016). PEBPs are highly conserved in bacteria, animals, and plants, in which the MOTHER OF FT AND TFL1 (MFT) like genes probably serve as the evolutionary ancestor of both FT and TFL1 genes (Liu et al., 2016; Bennett and Dixon, 2021; Jin et al., 2021; Tsoy and Mushegian, 2022). In addition to flowering time regulation, MFT-like genes feature seed-specific expression and modulate seed oil/protein contents and germination via the abscisic acid (ABA) and gibberellic acid (GA) signaling pathways (Xi et al., 2010; Nakamura et al., 2011; Chen et al., 2018; Cai et al., 2023). In gymnosperms and some angiosperms, MFT-like genes seem to be duplicated independently into MFT1 and MFT2 subfamilies (Hedman et al., 2009; Bennett and Dixon, 2021). However, only some angiosperm species maintain the MFT2-like genes.

The TFL1- and FT-like genes are exclusive to seed plants including gymnosperms and angiosperms (Karlgren et al., 2011; Klintenas et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2016). In the TFL1-like lineage, TFL1, BROTHER OF FT AND TFL1 (BFT), and the CENTRORADIALIS (ATC) homologs are floral repressors in Arabidopsis (Kobayashi et al., 1999; Mimida et al., 2001; Yoo et al., 2010). The gymnosperm spruce contains one TFL1-like gene and two FT-like genes, which however do not promote flowering in Arabidopsis (Klintenas et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2016). Only in the angiosperm Arabidopsis and many other species do FT and the FT paralog, TWIN SISTER OF FT (TSF), promote flowering (Michaels et al., 2005; Yamaguchi et al., 2005), hence remaining a hot target gene in evolutionary analysis.

Current phylogenetic analyses identify a particular FT-like gene expansion into five core lineages with further duplication into 12 conserved clades in grasses or monocots (Bennett and Dixon, 2021). In dicots, duplication of FT-like genes has not been identified at family or order level, though sporadic reports on its amplifications and functional diversification can be found (Kikuchi et al., 2009; Kong et al., 2010; Huang et al., 2012; Wickland and Hanzawa, 2015; Jiang et al., 2022). Besides their essential roles in flowering time regulation, FT-like genes play essential roles in stomata movement, and tuber and bulb formation (Kinoshita et al., 2011; Gonzalez-Schain et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2013; Jing et al., 2023). Copy number variation in

FT-like genes seems to correlate tightly with domestication in crops such as rice, maize, and soybean (Danilevskaya et al., 2008; Itoh et al., 2010; Wu et al., 2017; Cai et al., 2020).

The order Lamiales comprises ~26 families, ~24 000 species, and ~12% of eudicot plants, and has high value in terms of economy, horticulture, and medicine, as well as morphological innovations (Tallent-Halsell and Watt, 2009; Li et al., 2021; F. Zhao et al., 2023). The snapdragon (Antirrhinum majus, Plantaginaceae) serves as a model species for understanding molecular mechanisms underlying corolla zygomorphy and other traits (Zhong and Kellogg, 2015), while Strobilanthes plants (Acanthaceae) are known for their natural indigo and traditional medicinal properties, together with the remarkable diversity in flowering time behavior (Janzen, 1976; Splitstoser et al., 2016; J.X. Zhao et al., 2023). However, very limited information is available about the flowering genes in Lamiales. Here, based on both sequences and genome syntenies, we identified a core Lamiales (including Plantaginaceae and successive families)specific expansion of FT genes into FT1- and FT2-like genes with 12 high quality genomes. The expansion of FT1 genes is tightly associated with a core Lamiales-specific whole-genome duplication (cL-WGD), while the amplification of FT2 genes seems to be random at first followed by independent tandem duplications. Both expansion events are followed by strong expression and gene structure diversification. These data are crucial for the understanding of the molecular and genetic mechanisms underlying the flowering time diversity in Lamiales, and more generally, in dicots of angiosperms.

Materials and methods

Comparative genomics and whole-genome duplication analyses

The most recent versions of genomes were used to construct orthologous gene families by OrthoFinder (v.2.0) (Emms and Kelly, 2019) (Supplementary Table S1). Mafft (v7.490) was utilized to construct multiple sequence alignments of 316 single-copy orthologs among 15 species (Katoh and Standley, 2013). RAxML software (v 8.2.12) was used to construct the maximum-likelihood tree with the PROTGAMMAAUTO model by employing sequence alignments with A. thaliana, Rosa wichuraiana, and Solanum tuberosum as outgroups (Stamatakis, 2014). The MCMCTree program of PAML (v 4.9h) was applied to estimate divergence time using protein alignments (Yang, 2007). Two calibration values were selected from the TimeTree website (http://www.timetree.org). For WGD analysis, the syntenic regions were found by MCscanX based on all-to-all BLASTP results (Wang et al., 2012). WGDI and MultiAxon Paleopolyploidy Search (MAPS) were also used to infer the occurrence of WGD (Li et al., 2018; Li and Barker, 2020; Sun et al., 2022).

Identification and analyses of the PEBP genes

To identify the PEBP genes of each Lamiales species, we retrieved the HMM model (PF01161) of the PEBP domain from the Pfam database (https://pfam.xfam.org) and searched the genome protein databases with an e-value cut-off of 1.0×e⁻⁵ using HMMER 3.1 software (Potter et al., 2018). In addition, we used protein sequences AtFT (At1g65480.1),

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AtTSF (At4g20370.1), AtTFL1 (At5g03840.1), AtBFT (At5g62040.1), and AtMFT (At1g18100.1) downloaded from TAIR (The Arabidopsis Information Resource, www.arabidopsis.org) as query sequences to blast against the local protein databases of 12 species (identities >30% and e-values $\le 1.0 \times \mathrm{e}^{-10}$) to identify putative PEBP sequences. The genes identified by both methods were considered as candidate PEBP family genes and were then verified with Pfam and the CDD database to ensure the completeness of the PEBP domain. Redundant sequences or sequences with an incomplete PEBP domain were excluded from the following analyses. For the other 98 angiosperms species, *PEBP-like* genes were identified by *BLAST* searches (e-values $\le 1 \times 10^{-3}$) against complete genomes from Phytozome (https://phytozome.jgi.doe.gov). The Pfam database was used to confirm that the target gene had a PEBP domain (e-value $\le 1 \times 10^{-10}$).

Phylogenetic clustering analyses

PEBP-like sequences from 111 angiosperm species including 12 Lamiales species were aligned using the protein sequences with the software MAFFT (Katoh and Standley, 2013) with default parameters, and were visualized and edited with Jalview (https://www.jalview.org/). Alignend amino acid sequences were toggled to nucleotide sequences for phylogenetic analyses. Both IQ-TREE (v1.6.10) and RAxML were used to construct the maximum-likelihood tree with the best-fit model (Kalyaanamoorthy et al., 2017). The best-fit model for the PEBP-like gene in Lamiales is GTR+F+R8, while the GTRGAMMAI model was used for the PEBP-like sequence from seed plants.

Gene structure, conserved protein domains, and motif analyses

The exon and intron locations of *PEBP* genes were determined by comparing the coding sequences with their genome sequences. To predict protein motifs, the MEME (Multiple Expectation Maximization for Motif) online tool (http://meme-suite.org/tools/meme) with optimum motifs set from 6 to 15 and a maximum number of 10 motifs was used. Conserved protein domains were analyzed using the NCBI CD-Search Tool (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Structure/bwrpsb/bwrpsb.cgi) with the PSSM model (maximum number of hits <500) and the *Pfam* database with an e-value <1e⁻¹⁰. The chromosome distributions of *PEBP* genes were obtained based on genome gene model annotation files. Finally, the gene structures, protein motifs, and chromosome locations were visualized using the software TBtools (Chen *et al.*, 2020).

Duplication and synteny analyses

To identify the synteny of *PEBP* family genes among species, synteny analysis was conducted by performing all-to-all BLASTP comparisons between the genomes of *Lamiales* species and the selected reference plant. Additionally, self-blast was performed by comparing protein-coding genes against their respective genomes using BLASTP. BLASTP hits with e-values <1e⁻¹⁰ were utilized as input for MCScanX (Multiple Collinearity Scan toolkit) to identify potential collinear blocks within and between genomes of different species (Wang *et al.*, 2012). Based on the self-blast results, the duplicate_gene_classifier function was used to predict the *PEBP* duplication type and collinearity according to protocols described in the pipeline manuals. The phylogenetically clustered gene sets were defined as syntenic only when a minimum of five genes were collinear.

cis-Motif analyses

To investigate the conservation of the *cis*-regulatory model of *FT* genes across different clades, the 2 kb upstream region of the start codon (ATG) was extracted and sequences were submitted the to PlantCARE (http://

bioinformatics.psb.ugent.be/webtools/plantcare/html/) for prediction of *cis*-regulator elements.

Expression analyses

Reference genomes, gene model annotation files, and RNA-seq data for root, and two stages of stem and leaf were taken from a previous report (Xu et al., 2020). The RNA reads were aligned to S. cusia genomes with HISAT2 (Kim et al., 2019). Then the TPM (transcripts per kilobase million) of each gene was calculated based on the length of the gene and read counts mapped to this gene.

Sample collection, RNA extraction, and RT-qPCR analysis

Sample of S. cusia were collected in June 2023 in Kunming Botanical Garden (KBG), Kunming Institute of Botany, Chinese Academy of Sciences (KIB, CAS). Young leaves, mature leaves, root, shoot apical meristems (SAMs), and stems with three biological replicates were collected and immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen for RNA extraction and reverse transcription followed by quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR) assays. The OminiPlant RNA Kit (DNase I) (CW2598S; Cwbio, Beijing, China) was used for extraction of total RNA. NovoScript® Plus All-in-one 1st Strand cDNA Synthesis SuperMix (gDNA Purge) (E047-01; Novoprotein, Shanghai, China) was used for reverse transcription. The quantitative PCRs were performed with NovoStart®SYBR qPCR SuperMix Plus (E096-01; Novoprotein, Shanghai, China) on a QuantStudioTM 7 Flex Real-Time PCR System (ThermoFisher). ScuPP2A (EVM0021025) was used to normalize FT-like gene expression in S. cusia, while ScuACT2 (EVM0028367) was used to validate the reproducibility of FT expression. The relative expression levels were calculated following the procedures previously described (Hu et al., 2014;Yu et al., 2023). Primers of the five FT-like sequences were designed using TBtools (Chen et al., 2020) and optimized with a trial test.

Results

PEBP gene evolution in angiosperms

In this study, we obtained 777 PEBP sequences from 117 species (covering six gymnosperms and all major eudicot groups including 18 monocot species) with genomes sequenced (Supplementary Table S2). A phylogenetic clustering revealed that, besides the known duplications in monocots, FT expansions were readily identified in Fabales, Malvales, Lamiales, and Sapindales, agreeing with previous reports (Fig. 1; Supplementary Fig. S1; Supplementary Table S2) (Nishikawa et al., 2007; Klintenas et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2016; Wu et al., 2017; Bennett and Dixon, 2021; Jiang et al., 2022). For the MFT genes, consistent with previous analyses (Hedman et al., 2009; Bennett and Dixon, 2021), two distinct clades (MFT1- and MFT2-like) were identified in the basal and some of the core eudicots.

Next, we focused on 12 species in the order of *Lamiales* (Fig. 2A; Supplementary Table S1). With Arabidopsis (*Brassicales*), rose (*Rosales*), and potato (*Solanales*) as outgroups, a phylogenetic clustering grouped the 104 *PEBP-like* genes into three major lineages, the *MFT*-, the *TCB*-, and the *FT-like* genes (Fig. 2A; Supplementary Fig. S2; Supplementary Table S3), agreeing well with the high conservation of these lineages in

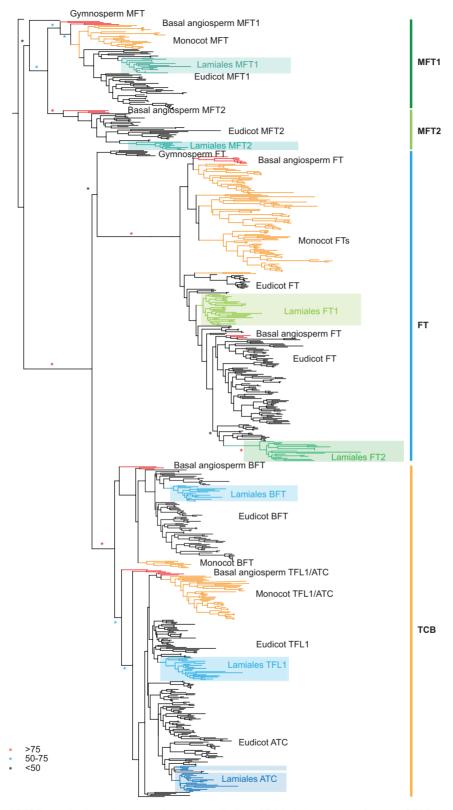


Fig. 1. Evolutionary pattern of PEBP proteins in angiosperms. A maximum-likelihood (ML) phylogeny based on 720 PEBP genes in 111 angiosperm plants with MFT genes of Ginkgo bloba as the outgroup. Bootstrap values are shown with red (≥75%), blue (between 50% and 75%), and black (<50%) asterisks for major lineages. Colored shading marks the Lamiales MFT1s (dark moderate cyan), MFT2s (dark cyan), FT1s (strong green), FT2s (dark lime green), BFT (bright blue), TFL1 (pure blue), and ATC (strong blue), and the lineages with colored lines show the genes from gymnosperms (pure red), basal angiosperms (dark moderate orange), and monocots (pure orange), respectively.

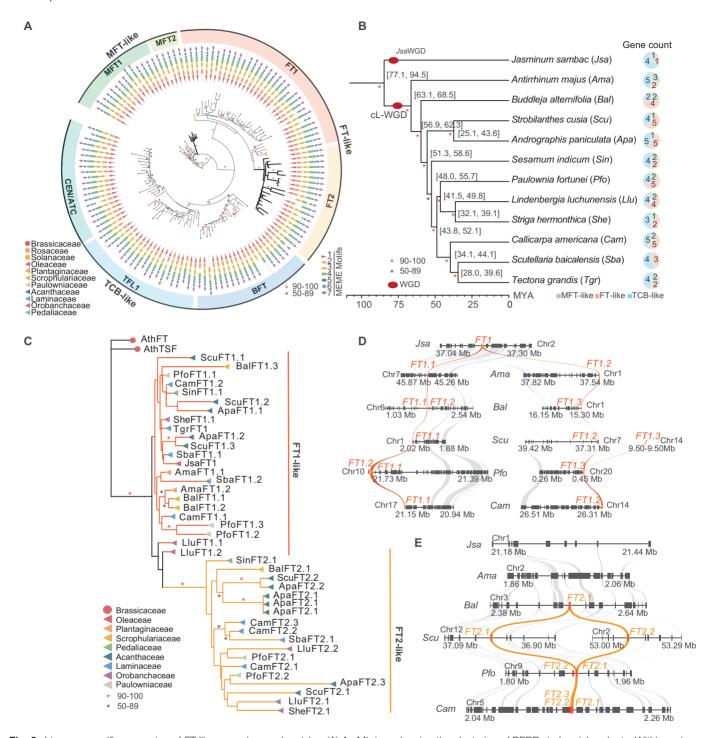


Fig. 2. Lineage-specific expansion of FT-like genes in core Lamiales. (A) An ML tree showing the clustering of PEBPs in Lamiales plants. Within major clades (MFT-, FT-, and TCB-like), the Lamiales feature two specific branches (MFT2 and FT2) but share five (MFT1, FT1, BFT, TFL1, and CEN/ATC) with Arabidopsis. A schematic representation drawn to scale of conserved protein motifs is shown next to each gene. (B) Evolutionary trajectory of 12 Lamiales species shown with an ML tree based on 316 single-copy orthologous genes using three outgroup species (not shown here). Red circles mark the Jasminum-specific (JsaWGD) and core Lamiales- (including species from Antirrhinum majus in Plantaginaceae and species of other families) specific cL-WGD events, respectively. Estimated divergence times at 95% probability are shown along each node. PEBP gene counts for each clade (MFT genes in light green, FT genes in light red, and TCB genes in light blue) are given in the right-hand panel. (C) Phylogenetic clustering of the FTs in Lamiales. (D) Collinearity relationships of the FT1-like genes in Jsa, Ama, Bal, Scu, Pfo, and Cam. (E) Microsynteny pattern for FT2 genes in six Lamiales species. Note that, despite the good synteny of surrounding regions, no sign of FT2-like genes is detected in Ama and Jsa. In (A–C), asterisks in red (≥90%) and black (between 50% and 89%) mark the bootstrap support values. In (D) and (E), some species may randomly or tandemly duplicate their FT genes.

angiosperms (Fig. 1). We detected six PEBP genes in Jasminum sambac (Isa) and the obligate parasite Striga hermonthica (She) (Qiu et al., 2022), while we identified 12 genes in Andrographis paniculate (Apa), Paulownia fortunei (Pfo), and Callicarpa americana (Cam) (Fig. 2B). A further analysis for conserved MEME motifs identified seven motifs (1-7) ranging from 15 to 50 amino acids in all lineages, with the numbers of exon ranging from two to seven (CXN00020111 and CXN00025255 in Apa) and most of the genes featuring four (Fig. 2A; Supplementary Table S4). Synteny analyses showed good collinearity for each sub-branch gene among six species, while no synteny was detected between the expanded branch (FT2- and MFT2like) and the conserved branch (FT1- and MFT1-like) (Figs 2C-E, 3). In general, Lamiales plants featured a highly variable number of PEBP genes with special expansions in FT (FT1 and FT2) and MFT (MFT1 and MFT2) genes.

FT1 gene expansion correlates with a core Lamialesspecific whole-genome duplication

Fourty-one FT-like genes present in the 12 Lamiales genomes could be easily clustered into two groups: FT1- and FT2-like genes (Fig. 2C). All 12 species featured at least one FT1-like in I. sambac (IsaFT1; Oleaceae) and a maximum of three in B. alternifolia (BalFT1.1, BalFT1.2, and BalFT1.3; Plantaginaceae) and S. cucia (ScuFT1.1, ScuFT1.2, and ScuFT1.3; Acanthaceae) (Fig. 2B, C; Supplementary Table S5). A gene collinearity analysis revealed a high level of synteny at the FT1-like loci between Isa and the other five species (Ama, Bal, Scu, Pfo, and Cam), while no synteny could be identified between any FT1- and FT2-like genes (Supplementary Figs S3, S4).

WGDs are known to affect genome sizes, chromosomes numbers, and gene copy numbers in Lamiales, though whether Lamiales share a common WGD remains unresolved (Lyko and Wicke, 2021; Xu et al., 2022). Intriguingly, our detailed paleopolypoid analyses using a stable phylogeny framework revealed that besides the known gamma (γ) whole-genome triplication (WGT) in the common ancestor of core eudicots, a specific WGD in the common ancestor resulting in core Lamiales (cL-WGD) but after speciation from J. sambac was observed (Fig. 2B; Supplementary Fig. S5). Furthermore, all synteny blocks surrounding FT1-like genes co-localized within the cL-WGD blocks; thus the cL-WGD might have underlain the expansion of the FT1-like genes (Supplementary Fig. S6; Supplementary Table S5). Interestingly, FT1-like genes were additionally and tandemly duplicated in Bal and Pfo (Fig. 2D; Supplementary Table S5).

FT2 gene expansion differs from that of FT1 genes

The origin and duplication pattern for FT2-like genes differed from those of the FT1-like genes. Except for Jsa and Ama, which diverged early from the ancestors leading to Lamiales (Fig. 2), the other 10 species had at least one FT2-like gene

(Fig. 2C). Besides the fact that Apa and Scu had five and two copies of FT2-like genes located on different chromosomes, respectively, all FT2-like genes featured high levels of synteny among species (Fig. 2E; Supplementary Fig. S3). However, no synteny could be observed between any FT1- and FT2-like genes (Supplementary Fig. S4). Furthermore, several FT2like expansions via additional independent tandem duplications were observed in Apa, Pfo, Llu, and Cam (Supplementary Fig. S7; Supplementary Table S5). It seems that the FT2-like gene on chromosome 5 of Cam is tandemly duplicated three times (Supplementary Fig. S7). These data suggest that FT2like genes might have been duplicated independently first in the common ancestor before the split of Scrophulariaceae and other core Lamiales plants, and followed by additional independent tandem duplications in some lineages. This differs significantly from both the MFT2-like genes, which were very probably relict due to their high sequence similarity to the basal angiosperms (Fig. 3) (Hedman et al., 2009; Bennett and Dixon, 2021), and the TCB genes, which were probably duplicated via WGD-mediated events (Supplementary Figs S8, S9). Finally, a detailed synteny analysis did not detect any gene collinearity between the FT2-like genes in core Lamiales and the duplicated FT genes in soybean and monocots (Supplementary Fig. S10), again suggesting an independent expansion in these species.

Relict nature of MFT2-like genes in Lamiales

Consistent with previous reports (Hedman et al., 2009; Bennett and Dixon, 2021), we identified two groups of MFT-like genes in Lamiales (MFT1- and MFT2-like; Fig. 3A). A sequence alignment revealed that MFT2 featured identical amino acid changes in the conserved PEBP domain, suggesting that the these MFT2 genes might have undergone the same replication or experienced highly similar selection pressure (Fig. 3B). Interestingly, Lamiales MFT2 genes were phylogenetically clustered with the MFT2 genes from two basal angiosperms, Nymphaea colorata (Nco) and Amborella trichopoda (Atr) and those from eudicot plants. A synteny analysis detected no collinearity between the MFT1- and MFT2-like genes, while a weak synteny for both MFT1-like and MFT2-like genes could be identified between species within the Lamiales (Fig. 3C, D). Intriguingly, there was a strong gene collinearity between Ama and the two basal angiosperms. A further synteny analysis of the AmaMFT2-harboring segment in the Sin genome identified another DNA segment with high sequence collinearity on chromosome 12 but without SinMFT2 (Supplementary Fig. S11), an indication that, via an unknown mechanism, SinMFT2 might have translocated from chromosome 8 to 12. Additionally, six, among the 12 Lamiales species, independently had MFT2, suggesting that the maintenance of MFT2 genes was very probably random in Lamiales. Hence, in contrast to the fact that every species has maintained the MFT1-like genes, some Lamiales have specifically lost the angiosperm-specific

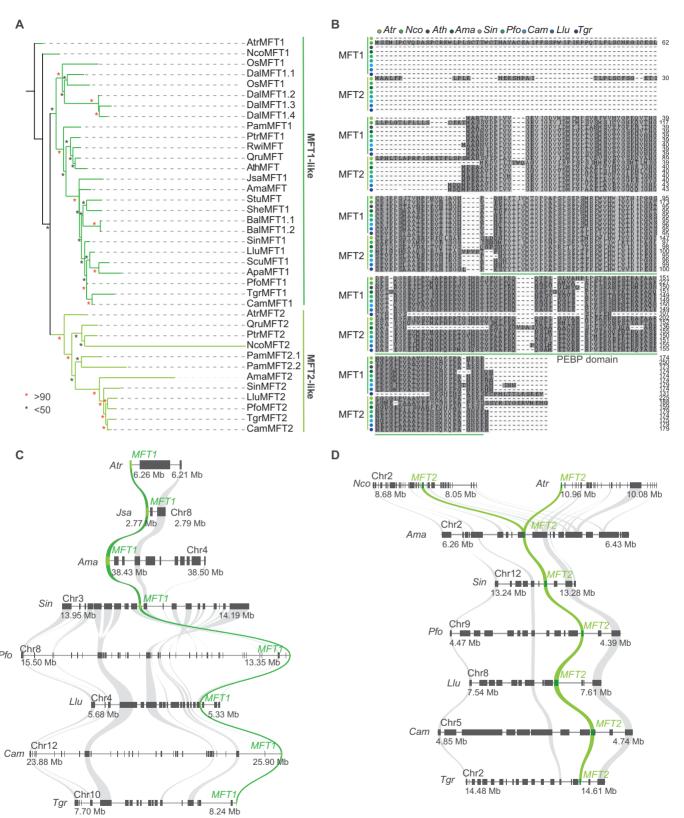


Fig. 3. Evolutionary pattern of *MFT-like* genes in core *Lamiales*. (A) A phylogeny indicated the *MFT2* duplication in basal angiosperms and some *Lamiales* plants. (B) Protein sequence alignments of MFT1- and MFT2-likes. (C) Microsynteny relationships for *MFT1* blocks between *Amborella trichopoda* (*Atr*) and the seven *Lamiales* species. (D) Collinearity relationships of the *MFT2-like* genes in two basal angiosperms and six *Lamiales* species.

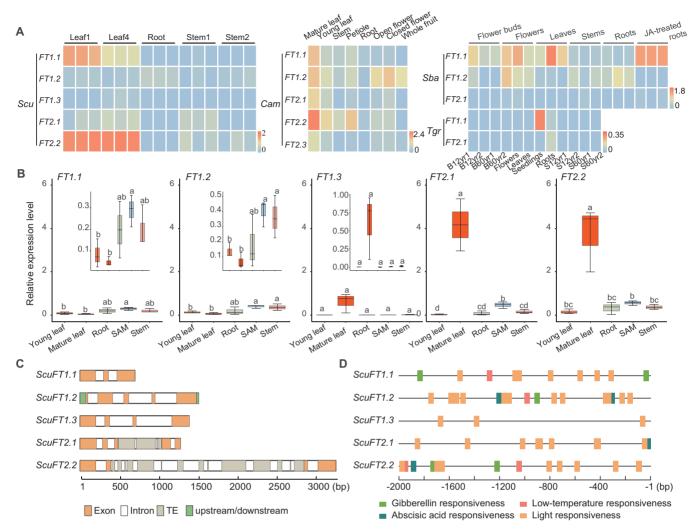


Fig. 4. High diversification in gene expression and structures for FT genes. (A) FT1- and FT2-like genes exhibit a highly diversified expression pattern. The normalized expression data for Cam, Sba, and Tgr are from previous reports (see the Materials and methods). (B) RT-qPCR assay confirms the highly diversified expression of the ScFT genes in five types of tissues. Data normalized to ScuPP2A are shown here, while the results referenced to ScuACT2 are included in Supplementary Fig. S11. Error bars mark the SD of three biological replicates collected from at least three plants grown under natural conditions. Letters show the significant differences tested with ANOVA, P<0.05. (C) Gene structure and TE insertion patterns for FT genes in S. cusia. Boxes in orange, white, gray, and green show the exons, introns, TEs, and up-/downstream untranslated regions, respectively. (D) Distribution of conserved cis-motifs related to responses to gibberellins (green), abscisic acid (dark green), light (orange), and low temperature (pink) within the 2 kb promoter regions upstream of the translational start site in the five ScFT genes.

MFT2-like genes, a pattern reported in a previous study (Bennett and Dixon, 2021).

High variation in expression and gene structures followed FT gene expansion

Gene duplication followed by variations in gene expression and even gene structure changes in promoters and exons-introns is not rare in either model or non-model species (Blackman, 2013; Mao et al., 2016). To examine whether the FT-like gene expansion was followed by variation in gene expression, we explored S. cusia (Nees) Kuntze (Scu), an important herb and one of the main natural indigo sources (Ballard, 2007; Gu et al., 2014).

This species features perennial polycarpic flowering behavior, while its sister species S. biocullata Y.F. Deng & J.R.I. Wood shows perennial monocarpic mass flowering (Deng et al., 2010; F. Zhao et al., 2023). S. cusia had three FT1-like genes (FT1.1, FT1.2, and FT1.3) and two FT2-like genes (FT2.1 and FT2.2) (Fig. 4A–D). As expected, these five FT genes indeed featured highly diversified expression in the five tissues examined (Xu et al., 2020). ScuFT2.2 showed the highest expression in both young and old leaves, while ScuFT1.1 was expressed at a relatively high level in young leaves followed by in old leaves (Fig. 4A). The other FT genes were barely detected or had very low expression in all five tissues, indicating a strong expression variation following the expansion. To verify this expression

diversity, we collected five types of tissues and performed gene expression analyses with RT-qPCR with both ScuPP2A and ScuACT2 as the references (Supplementary Table S6). Indeed, these ScFT genes featured highly variable and tissue-specific expression (Fig. 4B; Supplementary Fig. S12). An additional exploration of gene expression in other species also confirmed this pattern (Fig. 4A).

ScuFT genes featured significant sequence variation in both coding and non-coding regions (Fig. 4C, D). Substantial amino acid changes were present between the two groups of FTs especially within the conserved PEBP domain, but both featured the Arabidopsis Y85, a position distinguishing the FT/TFL1 functions (Supplementary Figs S13, S14) (Hanzawa et al., 2005; Ahn et al., 2006). However, FT1 genes differed significantly in exon 4 from FT2 genes in segment B that encodes an external P-loop essential for functional activity (Ahn et al., 2006). Additionally, FT2s showed a moderate variation in the conserved domain, where the interaction with 14-3-3 bridge proteins occurred, and in the 'LYN triad' motif that distinguishes FT from the TFL1 in Arabidopsis (Taoka et al., 2011; Li et al., 2015).

Intriguingly, ScuFT1.2 and ScuFT2.1 had five exons, while the other three copies featured four exons, like the Arabidopsis FT (Fig. 4C). Furthermore, various types of transposable elements (TEs) were present in introns of both ScuFT2 genes (Fig. 4C; Supplementary Table S7). However, the presence of enriched TEs seemed not to be specific for FT2-like genes, as several FT1-like genes (SbaFT1, SinFT1.1, and PfoFT1) also featured different types of TEs.

The expression variation was accompanied by changes in sequences and cis-motifs within the 2 kb promoter region of these ScFT genes (Fig. 4D). The ScuFT1.3 promoter contained three light-responsive elements, while that of ScuFT2.2 featured the most enriched elements responding to all four types of phytohormones together with two low-temperatureresponsive and nine light-related elements. Like ScuFT2.2, ScuFT1.2 had two elements related to ABA, indicating that both genes might respond to fluctuation in water availability, an environmental factor probably limiting the natural distribution of Strobilanthes as most species in this genera live neighbouring streams (Hu et al., 2011). However, whether these elements play essential roles in expression variation awaits further functional testing.

Discussion

Due to their essential roles in regulation of flowering time and other developmental processes, PEBP gene expansions are not really rare. Gymnosperms have two FT-like and one TFL1-like group, but both FT- and TFL1-like genes in spruce act as flowering repressors in A. thaliana (Karlgren et al., 2011; Klintenas et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2016). In agreement with a recent report (Bennett and Dixon, 2021), our detailed phylogenetic clustering revealed that FT-like genes are significantly expanded in major lineages of monocots, especially in grasses (Fig. 1). In Lamiales of the eudicots, two successive expansion events generating the FT1- and FT2-like clades seem to involve independent mechanisms (Figs 1, 2, 5).

The first expansion into FT1-like genes occurred in the common ancestor leading to core Lamiales and was very probably due to the cL-WGD as all these FT1-like genes shared rather good collinearity and the duplicated FT1 genes colocalized within the genomic segments retained following the cL-WGD (Fig. 2). This type of expansion happens frequently, as seen in both Fabales and some species of Brassicales in angiosperms and in gymnosperms (Fig. 1) (Wang et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2016; Panchy et al., 2016; Li et al., 2023). Accompanying the FT1-like gene expansions, both ATC- and BFT-like genes were co-expanded in core Lamiales (Fig. 5).

The second FT2-like gene expansion differed from that of the FT1-like genes. This event was observed in lineages including Scrophulariaceae and the rest of the core Lamiales, but not in the Plantaginaceae (Figs 2, 5). FT2-like genes shared no synteny to either FT1 genes of Lamiales or other angiosperm FT genes, an indication of random duplication, though the exact mechanisms needs further analysis. However, all FT2-like genes shared high levels of genome synteny, indicating that the generation of FT2-like genes might be via one event present in the common ancestor after the split of Plantaginaceae from core Lamiales and inherited since then. Of course, random duplication of FT genes is not really rare, as a similar Rosoidae-specific expansion has been observed in rose and its relatives (Jiang et al., 2022).

Following the copy number expansion, both FT1 and FT2 genes featured significant sequence, gene structure, cis-motif, and gene expression variation, a pattern which has been frequently reported for both PEBP and other genes (Fig. 4) (Liu et al., 2016; Jiang et al., 2022; Niu et al., 2022). Our analyses demonstrated a strong diversity in the five FT genes during different developmental stages and in different tissues of S. cusia and several other species examined, and this was accompanied occasionally by variation in both gene structure and *cis*-motifs, and hence very probably represents functional differentiation (Mao et al., 2016). However, these raise the questions of which FT encodes the real florigen and what the other FT genes do. In contrast to the ScuFT1 genes, the relatively high expression of both ScuFT2 genes in mature leaves seems to be consistent with the pattern for Arabidopsis florigen-encoding FT, and thus might act as potential florigen(s) in S. cusia. It is noteworthy that, except position Y85 of AthFT, ScuFT2s differ from ScuFT1s in the key motifs of all important domains (Supplementary Figs S13, S14), hence whether they act as the real florigen needs further experimental assays.

In general, both cL-WGD and random events are likely to underlie the PEBP gene expansions in Lamailes, while tandem duplications additionally enrich this diversity. Though yet to be verified further, some evidence has shown that FT can be

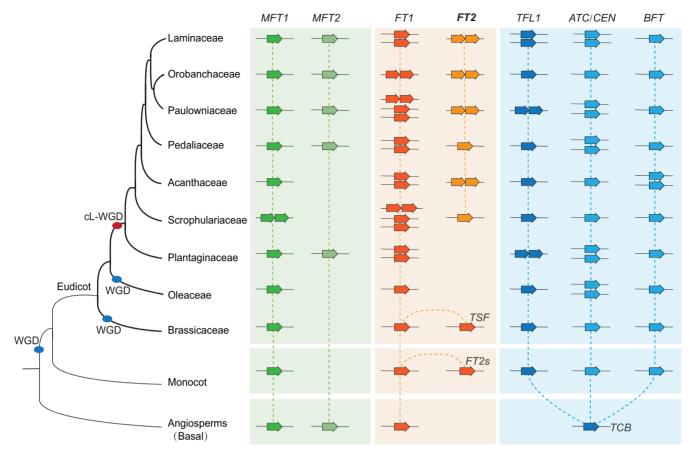


Fig. 5. A hypothetic model for the evolution of PEBP genes in angiosperms with a focus on Lamiales. Genes exhibiting conserved synteny are represented by colored arrows and connected by vertical dotted lines. Two horizontal arrows indicate genes expanded via tandem duplication, while two vertical arrows mark genes expanded due to WGDs and a single arrow shows no expansion. The red filled circle labels the cL-WGD event, while blue filled circles indicate known WGD events in Brassicaceae and all angiosperms.

induced by low temperatures, consequently promoting outof-season flowering in Olea europaea (Haberman et al., 2017). Therefore these variations including the cis-motifs in promoters of different FT genes clearly constitute a molecular basis for the high diversification of Lamiales plants and their adaptation to the ever-changing environment.

Supplementary data

The following supplementary data are available at *IXB* online. Table S1. The genome data used in this study.

Table S2. PEBP-like sequences identified in this study.

Table S3. Identified conserved protein domains using the NCBI CD-Search Tool.

Table S4. Detailed information of PEBP-like genes in Lamiales genomes.

Table S5. PEBP-like genes and their duplication types predicted with MCScanX in 12 Lamiales genomes.

Table S6. Primers used in this study.

Table S7. Statistics of TE distribution within PEBP genes of six Lamiales species.

Fig. S1. A maximum-likelihood (ML) phylogeny based on 777 PEBP genes in 117 species with MFT genes from Ginkgo bloba as outgroups.

Fig. S2. Distribution of the syntenic PEBP-like genes in 12 Lamiales species.

Fig. S3. Macro- and microsynten between Isa and other Lamiales plants.

Fig. S4. Synteny of PEBP-like genes in Paulownia fortunei (Pfo) and Callicarpa americana (Cam).

Fig. S5. Whole-genome duplication (WGD) analysis for Lamiales.

Fig. S6. WGD-derived and tandem duplications play key roles in PEBP gene expansion.

Fig. S7. Tandem duplication drives expansion of FT2-like genes in core Lamiales.

Fig. S8. Evolutionary pattern for the TCB-like clade.

Fig. S9. BFT genes expand in Acanthaceae.

Fig. S10. Synteny for FT2 blocks between the Lamiales species and species from Caryophyllales, Fabales, and monocots.

Fig. S11. Synteny for MFT2 blocks between Antirrhinum majus (Ama) and Sesamum indicum (Sin).

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Fig. S12. RT-qPCR assay with *ScuAct2* as a reference confirms the highly diversified expression of the *ScFT* genes in five different tissue types.

Fig. S13. Protein sequence alignments with structural features annotated for the conserved position Arabidopsis Y85 in exon 2, 14–3–3 interaction surfaces (in two parts, a and b), the P-loop motif, and the 'LYN triad'.

Fig. S14. Alignments of the FT1s and FT2s identify conserved motifs.

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Author contributions

J-YH, D-ZL, and YD: conceptualization and coordination of the project; J-XZ and SW: data analysis and visualization; JW: performing the RT-qPCR analysis with the help of J-XZ; J-YH and J-XZ: writing the paper with help from all other authors. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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Data availability

Relevant data can be found within the paper and are available at BlueOmics: http://blueomics.iflora.cn/.

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