Lit Review

Abstract

Safflower (*Carthamus tinctorius* L.) is an ancient *Astersceae* that is native to Northern Africa, the Middle East and India. In modern times, safflower seed oil is used as an industrial lubricant and as a base for paints and varnishes. Australian grown Safflower accounts for only 0.5% of global safflower seed production, and is primarily used as a break crop. Safflower is best suited for growing in northern areas of Australia where the climate is hot with little chance of prolonged cold weather. Safflower is a diploid that contains 12 chromosomes, with a haploid genome size of approximately 1.4 Gbp. Currently there is no publicly available safflower genome.

Vernalisation is characterised by an extended period of non-freezing cold (greater than 3 weeks). Many plant species, such as *Arabidopsis*, wheat, barley and sugar beet, have varieties that respond to a vernalisation environmental cue that trigger flower. This can be an absolute necessity for induction of flowering (i.e. *absolute* vernalisation requirement) or simply to flower early (i.e. *facultative* vernalisation requirement). Different plant species have evolved different molecular pathways for triggering the vernalisation response, but in every plant species investigated, the vernalisation response pathway is epigenetic in nature.

There are a number of different methods of characterising molecular pathways: Traditional genetics cross breed different varieties of a crop with specific traits, forward genetics induces random genetic mutations and reverse genetics interferes with specific genes. Resulting phenotypes are selected for and individual progeny pooled together and sequenced.

While Sanger Sequencing is the highest quality sequencing technology available, Next Generation Sequencing produces the most data for the most affordable price and can be used for generating *de novo* assemblies. While tools exist for assessing the quality of a *de novo* assembly, aligning high quality known transcripts or genomic regions to the assembly is the best way of determining its quality.

This project will examine the vernalisation response pathway in safflower. Expressed phenotypes produced by vernalisation will be measured and the genetic mechanisms that underpin it investigated. A draft *de novo* genome and transcriptome for safflower will also be created to support the characterisation of genes and elucidate the molecular pathways that are triggered in response to vernalisation environmental cues. By examining how safflower responds to vernalisation conditions, it is hoped that the regions in Australia where safflower can be grown will be extended into more southern regions where extended periods of cold over winter are common.

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# Abbreviations

18:1 – oleic acid (double bond between the 9th and 10th carbon)

18:2 – linoleic acid (double bond between the 9th and 10thand 12th and 13th carbons)

*Arabidopsis – Arabidopsis thaliana* (thale cress)

*B. vulgaris – Beta vulgaris* (sugar beet)

bp – base pair

*C. elegans – Caenorhabditis elegans*

Col-0 – *A. thaliana* ecotype ‘Colombia’

DAG – diacyl glyceride

ddNTP – di-deoxynucleotide triphosphate

dicot – dicotyledonous species

dNTP – deoxynucleotide triphosphate

EST – Expressed Sequence Tag

F# – the generation of progeny (#) after a population has been created by the crossing of two plant varieties

Gbp – gigabase pair (1 Gbp = 1,000,000,000 bp)

Gnt – giganucleotide (1 Gnt = 1,000,000,000 nt)

*H. vulgare – Hordeum vulgare* (barley)

HDAC – Histone deacetylase complex

kbp – kilobase pair (1 kbp = 1,000 bp)

knt – kilonucleotide (1 knt = 1,000 nt)

*Ler*-0 – *A. thaliana* ecotype *‘*Landsberg *erecta*’

M# – the generation of mutated progeny (#) after genomic mutations have been introduced to a population

Mbp – megabase pair (1 Mbp = 1,000,000 bp)

Mnt – meganucleotide (1 Mnt = 1,000,000 nt)

Monocot – monocotyledous species

NCBI - National Center for Biotechnology Information

*O. sativa – Oryza sativa* (rice)

PC – phosphatidylcholine

PCR – polymerase chain reaction

PEBP – phosphatidylethanolamine-binding protein

PHD – Plant Homeo Domain

PRC2 – Polycomb Repression Complex 2

t – tonne (metric)

*T. aestivum – Triticum aestivum* (bread wheat)

# Gene abbreviations

*AP* – APETALA

*BTC1* – BOLTING TIME CONTOL 1

*CAB* – CHLOROPHYL A/B BINDING

*CAL* – CAULIFLOWER

*CCT* – CONSTANS, CONSTANS-LIKE AND TOC

CLF *–* CURLY LEAF

*CO* – CONSTANS

*FCA –* FLOWERING TIME CONTROL PROTEIN

*FIE* – FERTILIZATION-INDEPENDENT ENDOSPERM

*FIP* – FRIGIDA INTERACTING PROTEIN

*FLA – fasciclin-like arabinogalactan*

*FLC* – FLOWERING LOCUS C

*FLD* – FLOWERING LOCUS D

*FLK* – plant specific K-homology (KH)-domain RNA-binding protein

*FPA* – FLOWERING TIME CONTROL PROTEIN

*FRI* – FRIGIDA

*FRL* – FRIGIDA-LIKE

*FT* – FLOWERING TIME

*FUL* – FRUITFUL

*FVE* – mammalian homologue of retinoblastoma-associated protein (RbAp)

*FY – A. thaliana* homologue of yeast RNA 3' processing factor (Pfs2p)

*HvCCT* – CONSTANS, CONSTANS-like and TOC (*H. vulgare)*

*LD* – LUMINODEPENDENS (or LONG DAY)

*LFY* – LEAFY

*MAF* – MADS-box AFFECTING FLOWERING

*OS2* – ODDSOC2

*PPD* – PHOTOPERIOD

*SWN* – SWINGER

*SOC1* – SUPPRESSOR OF OVEREXPRESSION OF CO1

*TOC* – TIMING OF *CAB* EXPRESSION

*TSF –* TWIN SISTER OF *FT*

*VEL –* VERNALISATION 5/VIN3-LIKE

*VRN1|2* – VERNALISATION (NB: *VRN1* and *VRN2* in cereals are different to *VRN1* and *VRN2* in *A. thaliana*)

*VIN3* – VERNALISATION INSENSITIVE 3

*Gene Abbreviations Note 1* – An abbreviation in *CAPITAL ITALICS* represents a gene or mRNA. An abbreviation in CAPITALS represents a translated protein i.e. ‘*FLC*’is the gene or mRNA, ‘FLC’ is the protein

*Gene Abbreviations Note 2* – Where a gene exists as a variant in a specific species, the gene will be prefixed with a two letter abbreviation of the species i.e. *Arabidopsis* (*At*), *Beta vulgaris* (*Bv*)

*Gene Abbreviations Note 3* – When a gene has a recessive allele, it will be indicated as lower case i.e. *FLOWERING TIME – FT* (dominant, normal) verses. *ft* (recessive)

# Safflower – history and characteristics

Safflower (*Carthamus tinctorius* L.), a member of the *Asteraceae* family of flowering plants, is native to the regions of the eastern and southern Mediterranean, the Middle East and India (Knowles 1960). It has been cultivated in these regions for thousands of years, with safflower arrangements and safflower based dyes found in many archaeological sites in Egypt and Mesopotamia, including Pharaoh Tutankhamen’s tomb (Zohary & Hopf 1993). Originally, safflower was cultivated for its edible seeds and the dyes produced from its vibrant yellow and orange flowers, but because of its high oxidative stability, in modern times, safflower oil is more commonly used as a base for varnishes and oil based paints as well as an effective industrial lubricant (Işigigür et al. 1995; Gecgel et al. 2007). After the oil has been extracted from safflower seeds, the residual meal can also be used as animal feed (Knowles 1949). In 2012, the global harvest of safflower seed was 833,793 tonnes (t) (see Figure 1 below), with 65% (536,651 t) originating from Mexico (30.9%, 257,451 t), 18.2% from India (152,000 t) and 15.2% from Kazakhstan (127,200 t) (United Nations 2014). Australian produced safflower seed accounted for just over 0.5% (4,800 t) of the 2012 global production, as it is primarily grown as a ‘break crop’, to break up hard clay pans or to remove excess water from soils before the cultivation of traditional crops, such as wheat and barley (Knights 2010).

## Genetic and molecular characteristics of safflower

Safflower is a dicotyledonous plant (dicot) with a diploid genome of 12 chromosomal pairs. The approximate haploid genome size (i.e. the estimated size of 12 unpaired chromosomes) in four safflower cultivars, namely ‘Ljubljana’, ‘Uzbekistan’, ‘S-2190’ and ‘Huesca’, have been calculated as 1.34 Gbp (1 Gbp = one Gigabase pair = 1,000,000,000 base pairs), 1.38 Gbp, 1.39 Gbp and 1.40 Gbp respectively (Garnatje et al. 2006). Despite publicly available online transcriptomic and EST resources for safflower (Li et al. 2011; Li et al. 2012; Lulin et al. 2012; National Centre for Biotechnology Information 2014), currently, there is no publicly accessible genome for safflower, or indeed, any other *Asteraceae* species. However, there has been research undertaken to characterise specific metabolic pathways in specific *Asteraceae*. For example, oilseed research in safflower has allowed the characterisation of eleven members of the FATTY ACID DESATURASE 2 (FAD2) gene family, providing insight on the metabolic synthesis of fatty acids and its effect on the composition of safflower oil (Cao et al. 2013). Similarly, research to characterise the *LOSS OF PARTHENOGENESIS* (LOP) and *LOSS OF APOMEOSIS* (LOA) loci in *Hieracium* is unlocking the genetic mechanisms and regulatory pathways that underpin apomictic behaviour (Koltunow et al. 2011). While research into these pathways is quite comprehensive within the context of these specific species, there is very little molecular characterisation of pathways that exist

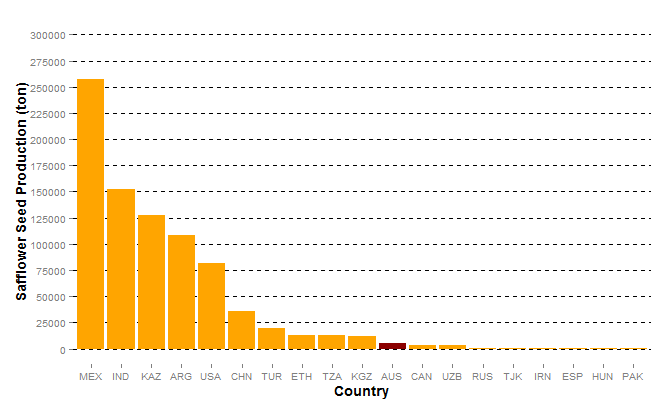


Figure 1 – Global safflower production in 2012 ordered by quantity. Australia (AUS, indicated) is ranked 11th in the world for safflower seed production at approximately 4 800 t (United Nations 2014).

across all *Asteraceae*, despite being the largest and most successful of the flowering plant families (Cronquist 1980).

## Flowering time in safflower

Of particular interest is the coordination of flowering time in safflower. This trait, if modifiable, is likely to have enormous impact on safflower’s adaptability to climate change, expand the range of environmental conditions where safflower can be cultivated, and increase total yield. Research in the late 1970s characterised both winter and spring varieties of safflower, specifically describing a low survival rate for spring safflower when planted in winter and, conversely, poor performance of winter safflower planted in the spring (Yazdi-Samadi & Zali 1979). Early research in *Arabidopsis thaliana* (*Arabidopsis*) (Johanson et al. 2000) and cereals (Yan et al. 2004) indicated that the expression of a vernalisation response phenotype is underpinned by molecular modifications in the vernalisation response pathway, and it is this response that characterises whether a variety in a species is a ‘winter’ and ‘spring’. Therefore, it is hypothesised, and this hypothesis is supported by previous research (Johnson et al. 2006), that the ‘winter hardy’ varieties of safflower will express similar molecular and anatomical phenotypes and involve molecular pathways similar to other winter and spring varieties in other dicots, such as *Arabidopsis*. However, it is important to note that while some safflower varieties progress rapidly to flowering following vernalisation, it is not a necessary environmental cue for safflower to flower, indicating that in safflower, the vernalisation response is *facultative* (Salisbury & Ross 1992).

It has been documented in model plant systems, such as *Arabidopsis*, as well as other agronomically important species, such as wheat and sugar beet, that vernalisation is related to crop yield. However, the genetic mechanism(s) of vernalisation in safflower and the effect of an extended cold treatment has not been molecularly characterised. This lack of molecular characterisation is confounded by the absence of publicly available draft genomic resources of which to draw comparisons to existing vernalisation systems.

# The Vernalisation Response

Vernalisation, and its effect on harvest time and crop yield, has been a central research focus of the plant biology community for over 150 years. Vernalisation is characterised by a prolonged (i.e. greater than three weeks) exposure to low but non-freezing temperature (Burn et al. 1993). Furthermore, in *Arabidopsis*, it has been demonstrated that the resulting time to flowering is directly proportional to the length of cold exposure (Sheldon et al. 2000). In numerous plant species, planting time has been optimised to increase the length of time the plant remains in the vegetative growth stage. For example, carrots (*Daucus carota*) store carbohydrates in the root organ during the vegetative growing period then, following a ‘wintering’ period where the plant is exposed to vernalisation conditions, transition from a vegetative growth state to reproductive, utilising this stored energy reserve for flowering and seed production (Ingram et al. 2008). While flowering is often attributed to the increased day length of spring, it is not the only environmental factor to invoke the flowering pathway. Exposure of a seedling to an extended period of cold is also responsible for triggering the early transition from the vegetative growth the flowering, largely the result of activating the molecular vernalisation pathway. Vernalisation is, therefore, an important determinant of flowering time, and flowering time is crucial to overall crop yield. Furthermore, the vernalisation response also protects delicate organs created during flowering and required for reproduction from cold damage by restricting development until after winter has passed.

## History of vernalisation

The necessity of a prolonged period of cold exposure to promote flowering and crop yield performance of ‘winter’ wheat cultivars was documented as early as 1857 (Klippart 1857). This initial finding stimulated further investigated in rye and other crop species by Gassner in 1918. The term ‘vernalisation’ (from the Latin *vernum*, meaning *spring*) as coined in 1928 by Lysenko, who conducted a vast quantity of agricultural research for the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR, Soviet Union). These early studies by Lysenko and others showed that the performance and resulting yield of a number of cereal cultivars increased substantially after undergoing a period of wintering when compared to their performance when planted in spring. However, Lysenko incorrectly hypothesised that the progeny of a ‘vernalised’ cereal maintained the attributes of their vernalised parents, and therefore did not need the same exposure to wintering conditions to produce the same yields (reviewed in (Chouard 1960)). In addition, in early Australian colonies, wheat varieties transported from Europe struggled under the warmer conditions and mild winters of the Australian environment, leading to widespread hunger for the early settlers when crops failed (Macindoe & Brown 1968). Despite repeated crop failures, it was not until over 100 years later through research by Farrar that many ‘Australian’ wheat varieties were developed. Several different European wheats were used as breeding lines and were crossed using traditional breeding approaches, with progeny selected that performed best under the Australian climate (Evans 1980).

## The biology of vernalisation

<Redo the opening paragraph for this section> Flowering in plants is a complex and intricate process. In *Arabidopsis*, ,. <put something in here regarding flower formation - (Zeevaart 1976). Also check out (Corbesier et al. 2007)> Grafting was originally used to demonstrate the transmissible characteristics of vernalised shoot tissue. When a vernalised shoot tip was grafted onto non-vernalised root stock, the plant flowered as if the entire plant had been exposed to the vernalisation treatment. Conversely, when a non-vernalised shoot tip was grafted onto vernalised root stock, the opposite was observed. This observation has been corroborated in both *facultative* (where vernalisation decreases time to flowering, but is not essential for flowering), and *absolute* (where vernalisation is required to progress from vegetative growth to flowering) vernalisation sensitive species.

Contemporary research has shown that the regulatory pathways and genetic mechanisms of vernalisation are species-specific (Reeves et al. 2007). For example, vernalisation in *Arabidopsis*,and many other dicots, is centrally regulated via expression of the floral repressor *FLOWERING LOCUS C* (*FLC*), whereas cereals such as barley are regulated via expression of *VERNALISATION 2* (*VRN2*) and in beets (*Beta vulgaris* ssp. *Vulgaris*), *FLOWERING TIME 1* (*FT1*) is responsible for regulating *FLOWERING TIME 2* (*FT2*),(Pin et al. 2010). Being epigenetic in nature, the vernalisation response pathway of all vernalisation responsive plant species is mechanistically related, i.e. environmental cues can modify gene expression between varieties of the same species, which in turn can result in the expression of a different phenotype, without any alteration to the underlying DNA sequence.

## Vernalisation response in *Arabidopsis thaliana*

The MADS-box transcription factor FLC mediates the transition of *Arabidopsis,* and many other dicots, from vegetative to reproductive growth (Figure 2 below). Research has shown that both genetic and epigenetic mechanisms contribute to repressing the expression of the floral repressor *FLC* during the transition from vegetative to reproductive growth (Boss et al. 2004; Finnegan et al. 2005). When *FLC* is expressed at high levels, promoted by *FRIGIDA* (*FRI*), *FRIGIDA-LIKE 1* (*FRL1*) and *FRIGIDA-LIKE 2* (*FRL2*) (see Figure 2.1 below), FLC represses the expression of *FLOWERING TIME* (*FT*), the FT homolog *TWIN SISTER OF FT* (*TSF*), and *SUPPRESSOR OF OVEREXPRESSION OF CO1* (*SOC1*), and increased FT, TSF and SOC1 levels in turn suppress expression of *LEAFY* (*LFY*) and *APETALA1* (*AP1*), the two primary promoters of floral apical meristem growth (Amasino 2004).

Upon induction of FLC expression, the VERNALISATION 2 (*VRN2*)/Plant Homeo domain Polycomb Repression Complex 2 (PHD-PRC2) consisting of *VRN2* and PHD-PRC2 proteins, *CURLY LEAF* (*CLF*), *SWINGER* (*SWN*) and *FERTILIZATION-INDEPENDENT ENDOSPERM* (*FIE*) (Köhler & Villar 2008) is constitutively bound to the *FLC* locus. The binding of the VRN2/PHD-PRC2 complex to *FLC* maintains the locus in an open conformational shape, allowing transcriptional machinery to access the *FLC* regulatory sequence and promote *FLC* expression via H3 acetylation (De Lucia et al. 2008). During vernalisation, *VERNALISATION INSENSITIVE 3 (VIN3)* levels increase. VIN3, along with *VERNALISATION 5/VIN3-LIKE* (*VEL1*) and *VERNALISATION 5* (*VRN5*), bind to the PHD-PCR2 complex to promote histone H3 deacetylation and *VRN2*-directed methylation of H3K9 and H3K27. Methylation of the *FLC* locus closes the open conformation of *FLC*, blocking the transcription machinery from accessing *FLC* and thus repressing *FLC* expression (Finnegan & Dennis 2007). This epigenetic repression of *FLC* is stable and irreversible, ensuring the transition to a flowering state is permanent(Levy et al. 2002; Sung & Amasino 2004). Reduced FLC leads to increased expression of *SOC1* and *FT*, and increased SOC1 and FT levels in turn enhance the expression of the floral promoters *LFY* and *AP1* (see Figure 2.2 below).

The Photoperiod Pathway, also referred to as the External Coincidence Model, mediates the transition to flowering by exposure to increasing day length, and without the requirement of a vernalisation period (see Figure 2.3 below) (Hayama & Coupland 2004). Increased periods of day light promotes the expression of *CONSTANS* (*CO*), which in turn overrides the repressive effects of *FLC* via CO-mediated activation of *FT* and *SOC1* expression (Golembeski et al. 2014).

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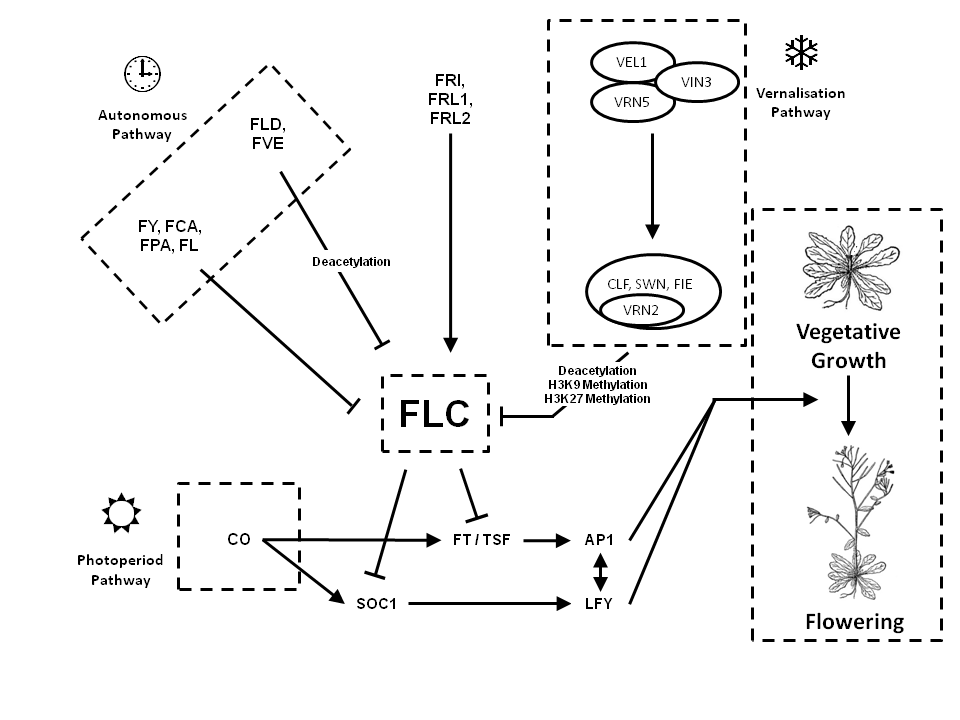


Figure 2 – The FLC regulatory pathways involved in the triggering of flowering in *Arabidopsis thaliana*:   
**1)** FRI, FRL1 and FRL2 promotes *FLC* expression (Michaels et al. 2004).  
**2)** Exposure to extended periods of cold triggers represses FLC expression via a PHD-PRC2 complex, H3K9me and H3K27me in FLC, repressing it’s expression (De Lucia et al. 2008).  
**3)** As day length increases, the photoperiod pathway is triggered, which increases CO expression and bypasses the repressive effects of FLC (Hayama & Coupland 2004; Golembeski et al. 2014).  
**4)** Flowering will eventually be initiated by the autonomous pathway. FLD and FVE deacetylate FLC and FY, FCA, FPA, and FL repress FLC expression. (Simpson 2004).

If the vernalisation or photoperiod pathways are not activated, eventually the Autonomous Pathway will trigger the transition of *Arabidopsis* to flowering*.* Two groups of transcription factors work independently to down regulate *FLC* expression. The first group, consisting of *FLOWERING LOCUS D* (*FLD*) and *WD-40 repeat-containing protein MSI4* (*FVE*), work epigenetically to deacetylate histones at the *FLC* locus. The second group, comprising of *FLOWERING TIME CONTROL PROTEIN* (*FCA*), A. thaliana *homologue of yeast RNA 3' processing factor* (*FY*), *fasciclin-like arabinogalactan* (*FLA*) and *plant specific K-homology* (*KH*)*-domain RNA-binding* (*FLK*) prematurely polyadenelate *FLC* mRNA, resulting in an inactive version of FLC (Simpson 2004).

However, while the molecular pathways for vernalisation and flowering in *Arabidopsis* are well characterised, these pathways differ substantially in other plant species.

## Vernalisation response in cereals

In monocotyledous species (monocots), such as wheat (*Triticum aestivum*), barley (*Hordeum vulgare*) and *Brachypodium distachyon* (a model monocot), the vernalisation pathway differs greatly from *Arabidopsis*. While there are many mechanisms conserved between monocots and *Arabidopsis,* such as the Photoperiod Pathway (Griffiths et al. 2003) and FT as a regulator of flowering, the most notable difference in cereals is the absence of a known homolog for AtFLC(Figure 6 below). Instead, HvVRN1 (a MADS-box transcription factor) and HvVRN2 (a zinc-finger motif with CCT domain, which in cereals is distinct from AtVRN2) (Yan et al. 2004), along with HvFT, are responsible for regulating flowering time in cereals. Before wintering, the cereal remains in a state of vegetative growth due to the presence of HvVRN2, which represses *HvFT* expression (Ream et al. 2014). The floral repressor, ODDSOC2 (OS2), also present at high levels in winter cereals prior to vernalisation, works to maintain the cereal’s vegetative growth state (Greenup et al. 2010). Once exposed to vernalisation conditions, winter barleys increase expression of *HvVRN1* via lower H3K27me3 and higher H3K4me3 levels in the *HvVRN1* locus. This opens the histone conformational shape, allowing *VRN1* expression (Oliver et al. 2009). Similar to *FLC* in *Arabidopsis*, this change is stable, but in winter barley, the shape change allows access (rather than restricting access) to the *HvVRN1* gene. Increased levels of HvVRN1 in turn repress expression of *HvVRN2.* The HvVRN2 levels promotes *HvFT* expression, triggering the transition of the winter barley to flowering (Trevaskis et al. 2006). Exposure to vernalisation conditions and the presence of HvVRN1 also stably inhibits the expression of *OS2*. The lower levels of OS2 promote the expression of *FPF1*, which in turn promotes the transition to a flowering state.

Due to its acclimatisation to tropical environments, the vernalisation response in rice (*Oryza sativa*) differs substantially to other cereals. Exposing rice to cold conditions during development, significantly warmer and for shorter periods than seen in vernalisation, damages the developing flower and seed heads, resulting in sterility and significant crop losses (Oliver et al. 2007).

## Vernalisation response in sugar beet

Sugar Beet (*Beta vulgaris*) has also evolved an alternate method of regulating flowering time based on day length and wintering. In a study of wild ‘Sea Beet’ (*B vulgaris* ssp. *Maritimavia*) populations around the coast of France, it was found that the necessity for vernalisation exposure increased proportional to the its northern latitude (Boudry et al. 2002). Recent studies have characterised the molecular mechanisms underpining the vernalisation response in beet as distinct from both *Arabidopsis* and cereals (Figure 8 below) (Pin et al. 2012). Rather than a single *FT* gene responsible for triggering flowering time controlled by FLC, as seen in *Arabidopsis*, two paralogous *FT* genes, BvFT1 and BvFT2, are central to regulation

***PPD1***

***CO***

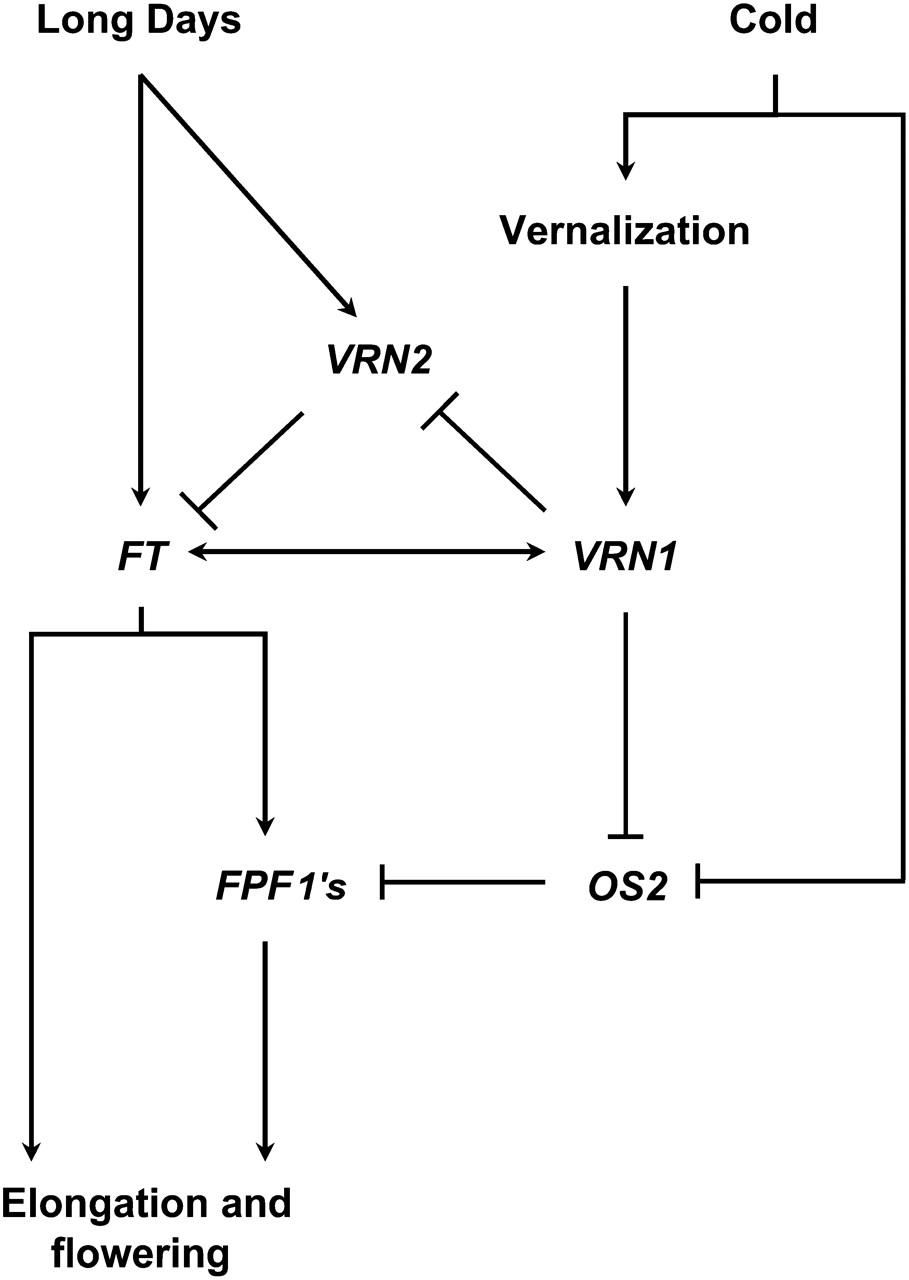


Figure 3 – Vernalisation gene regulatory pathway involved in triggering flowering in winter cereals. While the vernalisation response is different, response to day length cues contains similarities with *A. thaliana* (Modified from (Greenup et al. 2010) and (Trevaskis et al. 2007))

of flowering, controlled by *BOLTING TIME CONTOL 1* (*BvBTC1*). In biannual sugar beet, <more info describing the recessive allele in sugar beet). While *B. vulgaris* contains a number of genes consistent with the Photoperiod Pathway in *Arabidopsis*, due to the many similarities between sugar beet and *Arabidopsis* within the context of coordination of flowering time (Abou-Elwafa et al. 2011), further investigations into the mechanisms underlying vernalisation and flowering time in sugar beet have not been conducted in this review.

## Vernalisation response in other *Asteraceae*

While much research has been undertaken with regards to the vernalisation response in *Arabidopsis*, cereals and sugar beet, current research regarding the vernalisation response in safflower, and indeed, other members of the *Asteraceae* family is relatively scarce. Early research in lettuce (*Lactuca sativa*) observed that germinated seeds that were vernalised prior to planting responded by bolting up to four weeks earlier unvernalised seeds (Gray 1942; Warne 1947; Rappapport et al. 1956). Later studies indicated that, similar to *Arabidopsis*, given the correct daylight exposure, lettuce bolts to flowering without the need for vernalisation, indicating a *facultative* vernalisation response in vernalisation sensitive lettuce species (Waycott 1995). However, all of this research focuses on the expressed phenotype and does not examine anything at the genetic level.

Chicory (*Cichorium intybus*), is an *Asteraceae* with an absolute vernalisation requirement. It has been demonstrated that when exposed to vernalisation conditions, chicory expresses CiFL1, a MADS-box transcription factor with significant sequence homology to AtFLC (Périlleux et al. 2013). To further confirm this similarity, when CiFL1 was transformed into *Arabidopsis* and over expressed, these mutants showed a significant delay in onset of flowering, regardless of vernalisation exposure, indicating similar molecular pathway effect between CiFL1 and AtFLC.

As mentioned above, the limited availability of genetic resources for safflower and the *Asteraceae* make characterisation of molecular pathways and mechanisms in these species challenging. As further resources become available and are annotated, the mechanisms by which vernalisation (and other factors) affects flowering time will be better understood.

## Determining factors affecting vernalisation

There are a number of differing and redundant pathways in *Arabidopsis*, cereals and *B. Vulgaris* that can trigger flowering. While a mutation in the vernalisation pathway in a *facultative* vernalisation sensitive species may not necessarily stop the transition from vegetative growth to flowering, it will certainly prevent flowering in an *absolute* vernalisation sensitive species. For example, a mutation that removes the *CO* regulators may cause the plant to lose the requirement for lengthening light as a flowering trigger. This results in a fast transition to flowering regardless of the plant’s existing requirement for vernalisation. Recent *Arabidopsis* research indicates that higher levels of a diacyl glyceride (DAG) comprising of phosphatidylcholine (PC) and oleic acid (18:1) in the shoot apical meristem accelerates the transition to flowering, and vice versa (Nakamura et al. 2014). This research also shows other DAGs containing PC bind to *FT*. This indicates that the levels of certain specific lipids in plant tissues may be another factor that contributes to the triggering of flowering in *Arabidopsis*. However, further research is required to determine exactly how lipid levels in plant tissues affect the vernalisation response in *Arabidopsis* and other plant species.

While safflower, *Arabidopsis* and *B. vulgaris* are all dicots, there are so many divergences in the molecular pathways between *Arabidopsis* and *B. vulgare* and the vernalisation response, it is plausible that there are a number of factors in safflower, possibly even across the *Asteraceae* as a family, that set them apart from other dicots in the context of vernalisation. These confounding factors will impact the identification and elucidation of genes critical in the vernalisation response, especially when comparing vernalisation sensitive and vernalisation resistant safflower varieties.

# Mapping of pathways and genome characterisation

## Traditional crossing methods

One of the fundamental methods of characterising a genome is through cross breeding. A plant with specific expressed phenotype or marker is crossed with another variety and the progeny selected for this trait. The resulting progeny can then be sequenced, either individually or as a pool, with the resulting sequenced reads mapped to a reference and identified as expressing or lacking the this trait. A specific example of a crossing methodology used for genetic mapping is a Multiparent Advanced Generation Inter-Cross (MAGIC) population. Markers are identified in an organism and a number of parents are crossed. The resulting progeny are crossed within the population over a number of generations until a very specific set of traits are expressed. These progeny are sequenced along with the parents and the traits traced back to parental varieties. This method has been successfully used for genetic mapping of markers in wheat (Huang et al. 2012)

## Characterisation using forward genetics

Forward genetics induces random mutations to the genome, as either single point or clustered, via chemical or radiation exposure to express phenotypes (see Figure 4a below) (Page & Grossniklaus 2002). In diploid plants, when a germinated seed is mutated (the M1 parent), it contains random bud differing mutations on each genome in each cell. Therefore, these heterozygous mutations will not express any phenotype resulting from the mutation because there is an unmutated locus present which will function normally. However, should these mutations be passed to the gametes and the plant produces seed via crossing, they will be replicated in both chromosomal copies of the genome. If the mutation is located in a transcribed or regulatory locus, it may interference with normal metabolic function and express a phenotype. In each generation of mutated plants (M2, M3, M4 etc), assuming no new genetic material is introduced, these mutations remain and phenotypes continue to be expressed (Sikora et al. 2011). DNA sampled from plants expressing a specific phenotype are pooled together for sequencing, with resulting reads mapped against a normal reference. Mutated regions causing the mutation will be indicated, whereas unrelated mutations will appear as noise (see Figure 5 below). The greater the number of different mutant phenotypes in the pool, the clearer and stronger the signal is to indicate regions controlling expression of that phenotype. Because reads and mutations are mapped to specific regions of the genome, forward genetics allows mapping traits and characterisation of a genome without necessarily needing to have *a priori* knowledge of the function of that region. However, a high quality *de novo* genome, or at the very least, a quality reference of the region of interest, is required for forward genetics to be a useful and applicable approach to characterise a species.

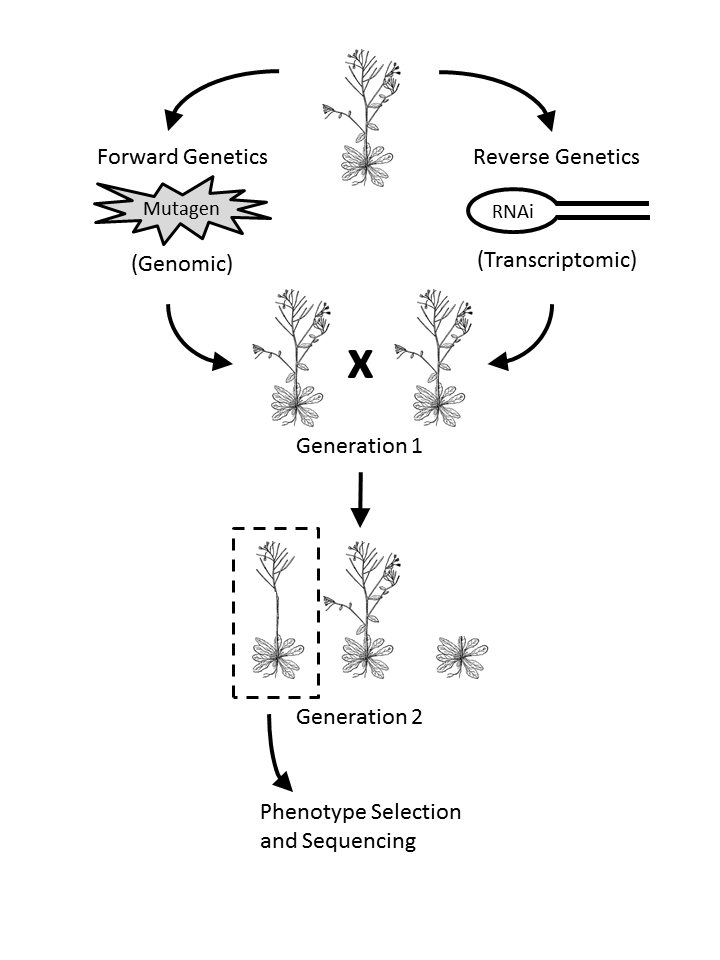


Figure 4 – Forward and reverse genetics. Forward genetics involves random mutation of the genome with a chemical or radiation mutagen. Reverse genetics involves interference of a particular transcript, for example, with an RNAi construct. In both, mutation phenotyoes are generally not seen in the first generation, In subsequent generations, phenotypes are selected, sequenced and mapped against a reference.

## Characterisation using reverse genetics

Another approach for examining the underlying molecular mechanisms of a species is reverse genetics. This process examines the phenotypical effect when these genes are manipulated to either eliminate them or modifying them to make the resulting gene unusable in the system. An is using an RNAi construct to manipulate an existing metabolic pathway. In *Nicotiana benthamiana*, the composition of the leaf oil was altered by silencing FATTY ACID DESATURASE2 (NbFAD2) and introducing two *Arabidopsis* genes, acyl-CoA:diacylglycerol acyltransferase 1 (AtDGAT1) and FATTY ACID ELONGASE 1 (AtFAE1) (Naim et al. 2012). The drawback of using an RNAi construct for reverse genetics is the requirement for *a priori* knowledge of expressed transcripts in the system, as well as the need to create knockout constructs to successfully silence the gene being investigated. However, with the cost of sequencing having decreased substantially in the last decade, creating useful *de novo* transcriptomes is now much easier and cheaper, providing a wealth of candidate genes to examine with reverse genetics.

# Sequencing Methodologies

The availability of genomic and transcriptomic resources has advanced biological research in leaps and bounds. Since the 1970s, genetic resources have allowed the elucidation of genes and transcription factors involved in not only vernalisation, but almost every major metabolic pathway in plants, animals and microbes. Advancements in sequencing technology has exponentially increased the quantity and quality of sequencing data acquired from a sample and is available in a fraction of the time and at a far lower cost.

## Sanger sequencing

In 1975, Sanger and Coulson developed one of the first sequencing techniques, the ‘chain termination’ method, colloquially called ‘Sanger Sequencing’ (Sanger & Coulson 1975). It involves cloning a sequence of interest, genomic or transcriptomic, in four separate Polymerase Chain Reactions (PCRs), each containing a single type of di-deoxynucleotide triphosphate (ddNTP). During elongation, if the polymerase binds a ddNTP to the nucleotide chain instead of a deoxynucleotide triphosphate (dNTP), the absence of a 3'-hydroxyl group on the ddNTP prevents another dNTP or ddNTP from bonding. When electrophoresed over polyacrylamide gel and fluoresced, the result is a number of varying length bands in each column of the gel corresponding to the order of nucleotides. Many significant genomes have been constructed using Sanger Sequencing, including *Caenorhabditis elegans* (*C. elegans*), *Arabidopsis* (Arabidopsis Genome Initiative 2000)and the human genome (The C. Elegans Sequencing Consortium 1998; Arabidopsis Genome Initiative 2000; International Human Genome Sequencing Consortium 2004). The disadvantages of Sanger sequencing is the time and cost involved. The human genome (approximately 3.4 Gbp, diploid) cost approximately USD $13 billion dollars and took hundreds of labs across the world thirteen years to complete, at a cost of around $4 per nucleotide (International Human Genome Sequencing Consortium 2004). In comparison, today the cost of data generated by a single lane of an Illumina HiSeq 2500 sequencer is approximately $0.05 per million nucleotides (Wetterstrand 2014). While Sanger Sequencing is the oldest, most time consuming and expensive method of sequencing per nucleotide, it is still considered the highest quality of sequencing available.

## Expressed sequence tags (ESTs)

Expressed Sequence Tags are short cDNA fragments between 200 bp and 800 bp in length representing an mRNA transcript. They are created by randomly cloning and sequencing transcripts in a sample using PCR. The result is an ‘expression profile’, a unique set of genes expressed in a tissue type or environmental condition, of which each sequence within the set uniquely identifies the gene expressed. These expression profiles can be compared to identify differentially expressed genes e.g. diseased and healthy tissue (Rezvani et al. 2000). One limitation with ESTs is the need for *a priori* knowledge of transcripts to characterise genes. A novel EST is difficult to identify if there is no sequence homology against a known transcript, i.e. a transcript will be known to be expressed without necessarily knowing its function. Another limitation is that identification of rare transcripts, such as those found in the human brain, can be difficult without the use of unique primer sets. These rare transcripts require either *a priori* knowledge of the transcript (Adams et al. 1991) or additional molecular techniques. If a rare transcript and an abundant transcript both contain the same PCR primers, the probability of the primers binding to the rare transcript is low. The high signal produced by the transcript makes it difficult to detect expression of the rare transcript.

Newer Next Generation Sequencing (NGS) technologies surpass ESTs with regard to the quantity of data produced and the accuracy of the resulting expression analysis. However, because ESTs are directly cloned from extracted mRNA and do not require assembly of fragments via algorithm, EST libraries often complement *de novo* assemblies to verify the quality and accuracy of an assembly.

## Microarrays

Microarrays are constructed by binding millions of oligonucleotide fragments to a glass slide either by photochemistry (Fodor et al. 1993) or technology similar to an inkjet printer (Allain et al. 2001). The type of array is determined by its use: RNA fragments represent key genes, tissues or sets of genes for medical diagnostics; genomic locations to observe nucleotide polymorphisms; methylation arrays (CHiP-on-chip) to examine gene regulation and methylation; or sets of tiling arrays for sequencing whole genomes. Each microarray is limited to 6.5 million oligonucleotides on its surface, restricting their application to specific medical diagnostics, use in characterising small genomes such as bacteria, smaller transcriptomes or sets of common transcripts. Sets of microarrays can be used to sequence smaller eukaryotic genomes such as *Arabidopsis*. Like ESTs, the requirement for *a priori* knowledge of oligonucleotides for microarray construction and analysis decreases their efficacy for discovering *de novo* or low count transcripts. As a result, similar related species may be used as an adjunct, though mixed results have been observed with this approach (Buckley 2007).

## Next generation sequencing

In the last 15 years, Next Generation Sequencing(NGS) has expanded the quantity and quality of information available to levels never before seen in less time and at an ever decreasing cost (see Figure 5 below).

Illumina Paired End (PE) sequencing is one of the most widespread sequencing technologies used today. It takes a DNA sample (or cDNA sample, synthesised from RNA) and randomly fragments it. These fragments are filtered by length, oligonucleotide adaptors ligated to each end of the fragment and the entire fragment amplified. These lengths of double stranded cDNA are denatured and hybridised to complementary adaptor oligonucleotides and the complementary sequence synthesised. These are then denatured again, but on annealing, the other end of the fragment hybridises to the surface oligonucleotide, forming a bridge. Once this bridge is formed, multiple cycles of denaturing and hybridisation form free strands that can then be sequenced (Bentley et al. 2008). A single lane on an Illumina HiSeq 2500 sequencer produces between 240 and 300 million reads of 100 bp length (approximately 24 Gnt to 30 Gnt) in under 48 hours . Even on the lower end Illumina MiSeq which costs around a third of the initial infrastructure cost of a HiSeq, 20 million reads of 75 bp length (approximately 1.5 Gnt) can be produced in around the same time (Quail et al. 2012).

Mate Pair sequencing is an Illumina protocol which is used to improve a genomic DNA assembly by not producing long reads, but instead produces pairs of reads with an insert length of several thousand nucleotides (Illumina 2012). While this sequencing methodology is unsuitable for transcriptomic samples, it is well suited for scaffolding contigs from a *de novo* genomic assembly together and orienting them in relation to one another (see section 4.5 below - ‘Creating a *de novo* assembly’). In general, the error rates for PE Illumina sequencing is quite low, with a reported error

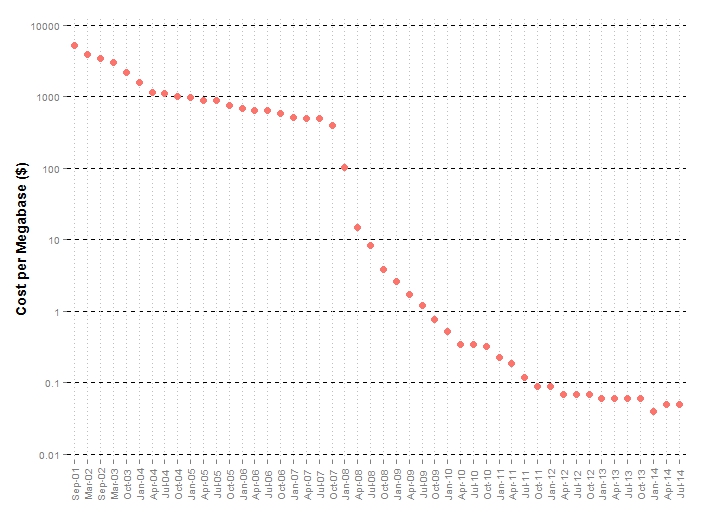


Figure 5 – Sequencing cost per megabase (1 Mbp = 1,000,000 bp) between September 2001 and July 2014 (Wetterstrand 2014)

rate of 0.26% for the HiSeq (that is, approximately 1 error in every 385 nt) and 0.8% for the MiSeq (1 error in every 125 nt) (Quail et al. 2012).

Another sequencing technology is the ‘Pacific Biosciences’ (PacBio) “Single Polymerase Molecule” sequencing. Rather than hybridising short fragments of DNA samples with adaptors, PacBio technology sequences long strands of single stranded DNA. A DNA polymerase is bound to a well where a fluorescent detector is located. As the DNA polymerase incorporates tagged dNTPs during elongation, the well fluoresces at a frequency corresponding to the bound nucleotide. This is then read by the detector and the nucleotide recorded (Eid et al. 2009). This allows far longer reads to be sequences, with average PacBio reads extending around 8 kbp in length, with some extending to over 40 kbp. However, the primary disadvantage of PacBio sequencing is the cost of sequencing, with a PacBio , at approximately reads have an error rate of 12.86% (approximately 1 in every 7 nt), far in excess of the error rates seen in Illumina sequencing (Quail et al. 2012)

NGS technology is constantly being updated and revolutionised. The Moleculo sequencing system, which also boasts the ability to sequence a single molecule of DNA, which is of benefit for instances when the quantity of sample to be sequenced is very low (Kuleshov et al. 2014).

## Creating a *de novo* assembly

While the cost of creating next generation sequencing information is significantly less than it was 15 years ago, only a fraction of the organisms on Earth have had their genome sequenced. Those sequenced include model organisms such as *C. elegans*, *Drosophila melanogaster* (fruit fly) (Adams et al. 2000), *Arabidopsis*, as well as other important species, such as the endangered Giant Panda (Li et al. 2010) and the platypus (Warren et al. 2008). The oldest and most common method of creating a *de novo* genome is overlapping short reads to create contigs of consensus nucleotides (Peltola et al. 1984; Huang & Madan 1999; Li et al. 2008). This method can be effective, because each read must be compared with every other to find the best possible match. While subsequence ‘seeds’ can be samples from a short read to find initial candidate overlaps to extend, these algorithms tend to scale quadratically. Therefore, without some way of filtering out unsuitable or duplicate reads, running the algorithm to create a *de novo* assembly soon becomes prohibitively time consuming.

An alternate method proposed for *de novo* assembly is the creation of *De Brujin* graphs from short reads (see Figure 6 below). Each short read is broken down into a set of “k-mers”, smaller subsequences of the short reads, and *De Brijun* graph created, which describes how to proceed from one k-mer to the next. Graphs from each read are then collapsed into larger graphs, combining identical subgraph regions and thereby extending the length of the reconstructed sequence until eventually, complete contigs are built. (Pevzner et al. 2001). This methodology is far more computationally efficient when compared to the traditional overlapping method and also allows better assembly of repeat regions. Algorithms that are based around the *De Brujin* method include Velvet (Zerbino & Birney 2008), ABySS (Simpson et al. 2009), SOAPDeNovo2 (Luo et al. 2012) and BioKanga (unpublished, http://sourceforge.net/projects/biokanga/).

The source data that used for a *de novo* assembly affects the quality of the resulting assembly. In any sequencing experiment, not just *de novo* assembly, filtering out reads that contain low quality scores, lengths of ambiguous nucleotides (Ns) or substantial contamination from adaptors can decrease the time it takes for an algorithm to run simply as fewer reads are processed. A common approach for producing a useful assembly, especially when assembling a *de novo* genome, or any assembly where long contigs are important, is to combine a number of different technologies in a multi-step approach (see figure X below). Short paired end reads (e.g. Illumina 100 bp paired end reads) are first assembled into contigs, using either *de brujin* or an overlap approach. Next, paired end mate pair reads are used to

NB: Insert picture of Traversing a Eulerian/*de brujin* graph here

Figure 6 -

‘scaffold’ contigs together, i.e. bringing contigs together that are separated by a distance greater than the short read insert length. This orients contigs in relation to one another across a known distance, allowing gaps of a known length to be produced. These ambiguous regions can then be explored by using complementary primers at the known region and oriented to extend the cloned sequence across into the unknown region.

Recently, long, error prone PacBio reads have complemented *de novo* assemblies constructed from Illumina short paired end and mate pair reads to improve the length and quality of the resulting assembly. The PacBio reads bring together assembled short read contigs that cannot be brought together with mate pair scaffolding. They also can eliminate misassembled and chimeric contigs as a result of the assembly algorithm incorrectly merging two disparate sequence segments into a single consensus contig. In turn, the high quality short read assemblies are used to correct errors in the PacBio reads. (Bashir et al. 2012; Utturkar et al. 2014)

The problem of *de novo* assembly is so computationally complex and biologically important that ‘Assemblathons’ are now organised. These allow bioinformaticians and software developers to bring together assemblers and other tools and compare algorithm efficiency and *de novo* assembly performance on reads generated from a known reference (Earl et al. 2011; Bradnam et al. 2013).

## Assessing the quality of a *de novo* assembly

Regardless of whether a *de novo* assembly is genomic or transcriptomic, having no reference with which to make a comparison makes assessing the quality of a *de novo* assembly challenging. A number of techniques have had varying degrees of success addressing this problem. The ‘N50’ value for an assembly is calculated by sorting assembly contigs in descending order and identifying the length of the contig containing 50% of the nucleotides of the entire sorted assembly (Paszkiewicz & Studholme 2010). This provides a metric where the quality of a *de novo* assembly can be assessed at a glance. However, the N50 does not provide insight regarding potential misassembly or chimeric contigs produced by the assembly algorithm (Salzberg & Yorke 2005). As the N50 is represented as a single number, assemblies that contain a few large contigs and numerous small ones are frequently misrepresented as being a good quality assembly. Therefore, the N50 must not be taken as a single point of truth in an assembly, but simply as an attribute of the assembly to be used alongside others.

The most effective way to assess a transcriptome is to align good quality *a priori* sequences, such as transcripts that have been sequenced by Sanger techniques or ESTs, against the *de novo* assembly. The longer and more numerous the alignments, the better the quality of the assembly. Where reference sequences do not exist, the Core Eukaryotic Genes Mapping Approach (CEGMA) can be used instead. Aligning these 248 most common eukaryotic transcripts against the *de novo* genome can indicate assembly quality. The higher number and score of alignments of *de novo* contigs against the conserved genes, the better the quality of the assembly (Parra et al. 2007).

# Aims of this research project:

The primary aim of this research project is to investigate how vernalisation results in phenotypic variation in safflower through the examination of vernalisation sensitive and insensitive cultivars*.* A number of methods will be utilised to achieve this outcome. One is *in silico* resources will be generated and analysed, with a goal for a draft *de novo* genome and transcriptome creates that, includes differential expression profiles within different cultivars, plant phenotypes and tissues. *In silico* putative transcripts differentially expressed in vernalised safflower tissues will be analysed to determine their candidature as vernalisation genes, as well as genes originating from other plant species sharing sequences similar to the *de novo* transcripts. The *in silico* candidate genes will be verified or refuted using molecular biology techniques. The results of this research will influence traditional breeding techniques and the genetic manipulation of safflower cultivars with the goal of diversifying the regions of Australia where safflower can be grown.

REDO!

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