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1 The *Artemisia annua* FLOWERING LOCUS T Homolog 2, AaFT2, Is a
2 Key Regulator of Flowering Time

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14

Abstract

Artemisia annua is a typical short-day photoperiod (SD) and belongs to Asteraceae family. FLOWERING LOCUS T Homolog genes play important roles in regulation of flowering time. Two FT-like genes *AaFT1* and *AaFT2* were isolated from cDNA libraries constructed from leaves of *A. annua*. The gene expression analysis revealed that *AaFT1* and *AaFT2* mRNAs were expressed predominantly in leaves and could be induced by GA3. Subcellular localization results indicated that *AaFT1* and *AaFT2* proteins were both localized to the nuclei and cytoplasm. The Y2H assay results indicated that *AaFT1* and *AaFT2* could interact with a bZIP transcription factor, *AaFD*. *AaFT2* was induced by SDs condition and may play an important role in modulation of flowering. In the present study, we performed RNA interference (RNAi) experiments to inhibit the mRNA level of *AaFT2* in *A. annua* for detecting *AaFT2* gene function. Our findings suggest that inhibition of *AaFT2* may delay the flowering time and increase the accumulation of artemisinin (ART) in transgenic *A. annua*. Collectively, these results indicate that *AaFT2* is a key regulator of regulation flowering time and can be used for genetic engineering to improve artemisinin yield.

Key words

Artemisia annua; artemisinin; FT

1 Abbreviation

2 ADS, amorphadiene synthase; ALDH1, aldehyde dehydrogenase 1; ART, artemisinin; BFS,
3 β -farnesene synthase; CPS, β -caryophyllene synthase; Cb, carbenicillin; CYP71AV1, amorphadiene
4 12-hydroxylase; DBR2, artemisinic aldehyde Δ 11(13) reductase; DMADP, dimethylallyl
5 diphosphate; DHAA, dihydroartemisinic acid; FDS, farnesyl diphosphate synthase; FT, FLOWERING
6 LOCUS T; GA3, gibberellin; GAS, germacrene A synthase; HMGR, 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-CoA
7 reductase; Ka, Kanamycin; NAA, Naphthalene-1-acetic acid; 6-BA, N6-benzoyladenine; qRT-PCR,
8 quantitative real-time PCR; SD, short-day photoperiod; RNAi, RNA interference; SQS, squalene
9 synthase; Y2H, Yeast two hybrid

10

1. Introduction

Malaria is an infectious disease with more than 429 000 deaths in 2016 (World Malaria Report 2016). Artemisinin is produced by the Chinese traditional medicine plant *Artemisia annua*. The artemisinin combination therapy (ACT) was recommended by WHO to prevent parasite resistance found in some places of Cambodia (Dondorp et al., 2009). In recent years, it has been found that artemisinin has the potential to cure tuberculosis and diabetes (Li et al., 2016; Zheng et al., 2016). In addition, artemisinin may have potential as a therapeutic for the treatment of cancer (Chen et al., 2014). Therefore, there is growing concern about high-quality of artemisinin that needs to be supplied with consistently.

There are many ways to improve artemisinin content, such as overexpression of artemisinin biosynthetic pathway genes, inhibition of artemisinin biosynthesis competition branch pathway genes, transcript regulation of artemisinin biosynthesis genes and modulation of transportation of artemisinin and so on. To improve artemisinin content, three of artemisinin biosynthetic pathway genes *ADS*, *CYP71AV1* and *CPR* were co-overexpressed in *A. annua*. The contents of artemisinin in *A. annua* transgenic plant was increased to 2.4-fold when contrasted with the control plants (Lu et al., 2013). Inhibition of the artemisinin biosynthesis competition branch pathway genes germacrene synthase (*GAS*), β -farnesene synthase (*BFS*), β -caryophyllene synthase (*CPS*) and squalene synthase (*SQS*) may redirect the metabolic flux to artemisinin biosynthetic pathway and increase artemisinin content (Lv et al., 2016a). Transcription factors play important roles in regulation of gene expression in artemisinin biosynthetic pathway. A NAC transcription factor AaNAC1 in *A. annua* has been characterized that can regulate the expression of the *ADS* in vivo and increase artemisinin content (Lv et al., 2016b). Terpene transporters are

important for terpenes transfer. Transporter Pleiotropic Drug Resistance 2 (AaPDR2) from *A. annua* increases accumulation of artemisinin and DHAA in the apoplast of *N. benthamiana* leaves and has the potential for increasing artemisinin content in *A. annua* (Wang et al., 2016).

Besides the above-mentioned methods, modulation of flowering time may be a promising way to regulate biomass or improve quality. Flowering is closely related to the photoperiods. The *A. annua* is typical short-day (SD) plant induced by photoperiods and belongs to the Asteraceae (Compositae) family. Photoperiod response is very important to modulate the FLOWERING LOCUS T (FT) expression level. The FT gene encodes about 170 amino acids (aa) and belongs to phosphatidylethanolamine-binding protein (PEBP) family (Liu et al., 2016). Recently studies indicate that FT is universally conserved and synthesized in the phloem, act as a florigen in higher plants. It can be transported to the apex to play its function. Previously, it was shown that FLOWERING LOCUS T (FT) functioned as a potent factor for modulation of flowering (Abe et al. 2005; Teper-Bamnolker and Samach 2005). In Arabidopsis, FT interacted with FD, which is a basic leucine zipper (bZIP) transcription factor, to form a transcriptional complex in the shoot apical meristem (SAM) modulation of floral regulator genes such as FRUITFULL (FUL) and APETALA 1 (AP1), leading to flowering promotion (Turck et al. 2008; Huang et al. 2005). However, the expression level of FT is induced by CONSTANS (CO), which is an important protein in response to photoperiod (Valverde et al. 2004). The mRNA level of CO is regulated by a circadian clock. The CO/FT module in the Arabidopsis is considered as placed at the core of the pathway to regulate flowering in response to changes in photoperiods. previous studies indicated that the mRNA abundance of CO was regulated by GIGANTEA (GI) and FLAVIN BINDING, KELCH REPEAT, F BOX protein 1 (FKF1)(Turck et al. 2008; Sawa et al. 2007). The GI and FKF1 can form a complex, which

1 is crucial for the CO/FT module to mediate the degradation of CYCLING DOF FACTOR 1 (CDF1), a
2 key CO repressor (Sawa et al. 2007).

3 Flowering is an important regulator for transition of vegetative into reproductive growth.

4 Delaying of plant growth stage or inhibition of plant flowering may increase plant biomass.

5 Previous study indicated that cutting off initiated flower stalks of *Hesperaloe funifera* may divert

6 energy to leaf production and increase fiber yields (McLaughlin 2003). In Brassica species, early

7 flowering may penalty yield or product quality. To avoid losing in yield and reducing of quality, a

8 flowering regulation gene FLC was overexpressed in Chinese cabbage (Kim et al. 2007). Extended

9 vegetative stage by delaying flowering was observed in the transgenic plants (Curtis et al. 2002).

10 In forage grass, the high-quality forage grass is non-flowering and more digestible with higher

11 feeding value. A *TFL1* gene was overexpressed in the red fescue, the transgenic plants showed

12 delayed flowering (Jensen et al. 2004). Switchgrass has been evaluated as a bioenergy crop plants.

13 To improve its biomass, the *Corncgrass1* gene (encoded a microRNA) was overexpressed in

14 switchgrass. The results indicated that the transgenic plants flowered approximately 2 to 3 wk

15 later while starch content was increased to 250% and biomass yield was enhanced to 58%–101%

16 when compared with the control (Chuck et al., 2011). Consistent with other evidence, delayed

17 flowering time enhancing biomass production had been observed in the tobacco (Salehi et al.,

18 2005).

19 Delayed flowering can increase the accumulation of primary metabolism in plant (Salehi et al.

20 2005). However, delayed flowering time affecting the secondary metabolism is still unknown and

21 needs to be elucidated in medicine plants. Therefore, in this study, we set out to isolate *AaFT1*

22 and *AaFT2* to identify the gene function in *A. annua*. The expression patterns showed *AaFT2* has

the potential to modulate flowering in *A. annua*. We show that the artemisinin accumulation is due to the alteration of the flowering time caused by inhibition of *AaFT2* expression level in transgenic *A. annua* plants.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1 Bioinformatics Analysis

The theoretical isoelectric point and molecular weight of protein *AaFT1* and *AaFT2* were calculated by the expasy (http://www.expasy.ch/tools/pi_tool.html). The neighbor-joining method of MEGA 7 was used to construct the phylogenetic tree. Bootstrap analyses were carried out using 1000 replicates.

The sequences reported in this paper have been deposited in the GenBank database with the following accession numbers: *AaFD*(MF438125), *AaFT1*(MF438126), *AaFT2*(MF438127).

2.2 Plant materials and hormonal treatments

The seeds of *A. annua* named 'Huhao 1' were collected from Shanghai in China and grown on the soil in the greenhouse with a light/dark cycle 16/8 h and light of 7500 lux at 26°C (Shen et al., 2016). Four-week-old wild type plants of *A. annua* were sprayed with 100 µM GA3 (Sigma-Aldrich) solution. Water was used as the mock treatment. Samples were analyzed at 0, 1, 2, 4, 6, 8, 12 and 24 h after the treatment.

2.3 Isolation of gene and vector construction

A full-length enriched RNA sequencing (RNA-Seq) library in our lab was constructed from developing *A. annua* seedlings (Lv et al., 2016b). The gene sequence of *AaFT1*, *AaFT2* and *AaFD* were isolated from the cDNA library in *A. annua*. All the PCR products were cloned into the pMD18T-simple vector and sequenced. The 525 bp fragment of the *AaFT1* and *AaFT2* were

1 amplified from the *AaFT1*-18T and *AaFT2*-18T and then digested with restriction enzymes HindIII
 2 and PstI, fused with T4 DNA ligase to generate new transformation vector *AaFT1*-YFP and
 3 *AaFT2*-YFP. The PCR products *AaFT1* and *AaFT2* were digested with restriction enzymes EcoRI
 4 and BamHI, fused with T4 DNA ligase to generate new transformation vectors *AaFT1*-GBKT7 and
 5 *AaFT2*-GBKT7. All the primers sequences are shown in Supplementary. DNA fragment was cloned
 6 into unique EcoRI and BamHI site from the *AaFD* gene coding sequences to generate vector
 7 constructs *AaFD*-GADT7. The first 200 bp fragment of the *AaFT2* was fused into expression vector
 8 PHELLSGATE to generate RNAi vector *AaFT2*-RNAi (Helliwell and Waterhouse, 2003).

9 2.4 Yeast two hybrid (Y2H) assay

10 The yeast strain AH109 was transformed with the constructs (containing bait vector *AaFD*-GADT7,
 11 prey vectors *AaFT1*-GBKT7 and *AaFT2*-GBKT7) by the lithium acetate method (Gietz and Schiestl,
 12 2007) and then incubated at 30°C for 4 d. Four single transformations (diluted with sterilized
 13 water) were picked out and spotted on the plates SD-Leu-Trp, SD-Leu-Trp-His and
 14 SD-Leu-Trp-His-Ade (Clontech), respectively.

15 2.5 Subcellular localization assay

16 To determine the subcellular localization of *AaFT1* and *AaFT2*, *AaFT1*-YFP and *AaFT2*-YFP fusions
 17 were introduced into *A. tumefaciens* strain EHA105 and transiently expressed in the
 18 five-month-old *N. benthamiana* leaves. After incubation of overnight at 30°C, the culture
 19 centrifugated at 6000 rpm for 8 min and diluted to an OD_{600 nm} of 0.6 in MS medium
 20 (containing 10 mM MES and 150 mM acetosyringone). Three hours later, the solution was
 21 injected into the *N. benthamiana* leaves. The *N. benthamiana* leaves were checked by confocal
 22 laser scanning microscopy after 48 hours. The *A. tumefaciens* strain EHA105 harboring vector

1 35S::PHB-YFP was taken as the negative control.

2 2.6 Transformation of *A. annua*

3 The constructs of AaFT2-RNAi was transferred into *A. tumefaciens* strain EHA105 by a
4 conventional freezing-and-melting method and the strains were used in transforming *A. annua*.

5 The leaves of 2 weeks old *A. annua* seedlings were infected by *A. tumefaciens* and then cultured
6 in the dark at 28°C for 3 day. After the dark culture, the explants were transferred into the
7 selective medium (MS0+2.5 mg L⁻¹ 6-BA+0.25mg L⁻¹ NAA +50 mg L⁻¹ Ka+250 mg L⁻¹ Cb) for 4 wk
8 (Zhang et al., 2009). The regenerated plantlets were transferred into rooting medium (1/2 MS).

9 The rooted seedlings were grown in the greenhouse for further growth.

10 2.7 Isolation of total RNA and Q-PCR analysis

11 The method of extraction of total RNA of roots, stems, leaves and buds for Q-PCR is based on
12 previous work for detection of gene expression (Lv et al., 2016b). The samples were collected
13 from five-month-old *A. annua* seedlings at afternoon. The total RNA was extracted from mature
14 leaves and then reversed transcribed into the first cDNA using One-Step PrimeScript™ RT-PCR Kit
15 (Takara, Dalian, China). The Q-PCR primers of *AaFT1* and *AaFT1* were designed by primer premier
16 5 software. To confirm the relative expression levels, the housekeeping gene *β-actin* was used as
17 the endogenous reference gene. The Q-PCR was performed by SYBR Premix Ex Taq (Tli RNaseH
18 Plus) (TaKaRa Code: DRR420A) with BioRad MJ (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA). The Q-PCR cycling
19 conditions were 95°C for 30s, 40 cycles of 95°C for 10 sec, 55°C for 30 s, 72°C for 25 s.

20 2.8 Detection of artemisinin

21 The leaves of *A. annua* were cut off and dried at 50°C in a dry oven for 24h, then grounded into
22 fine powder. The definite methods for extracting and detecting of artemisinin were referenced to

1 Zhang (Zhang et al., 2009).

2 **3. Results**

3 3.1 Molecular characterization of *AaFT1* and *AaFT2*

4 To know the characterization of the *AaFT1* and *AaFT2*, the full length cDNA clone was obtained
 5 from the *A. annua* RNA sequencing (RNA-Seq) data (Lv et al., 2016b). We used Roche-454
 6 pyrosequencing on the glandular trichomes transcriptome of *A. annua* to obtain the
 7 expressed sequence tag (EST) sequences for identifying genes. The *AaFT1* has full-length ORF
 8 while *AaFT2* has partial sequence in the EST sequences. The *AaFT2* full-length ORF was amplified
 9 by 3' RACE (SMART™ RACE cDNA Amplification Kit, Clontech, 634923, USA) according to the
 10 manuscript's instructions. The primers are 3RACE-F1 and 3RACE-F2 (Supplement). Both *AaFT1*
 11 and *AaFT2* are 525 bp in length and encode 175-aa residues. The predicted molecular mass and
 12 the calculated isoelectric point of *AaFT1* and *AaFT2* are 19.6 kDa, 6.90 and 19.7 kDa, 6.83
 13 respectively.

14 To elucidate the evolutionary relationship of *AaFT1* and *AaFT2* with other genes, a phylogenetic
 15 tree was built. The phylogenetic tree (Fig. 1A) demonstrated that *AaFT1* is closely related to
 16 *CsFTL2* (AB679271) and *AaFT2* is closely related to *CsFTL3* (AB679272) in chrysanthemum. The
 17 results indicated that both of *AaFT1*, *AaFT2* and *CsFTL2*, *CsFTL3* are derived from a common
 18 ancestor, respectively. Since *CsFTL3* is an important positive regulator in modulation of
 19 photoperiodic flowering in chrysanthemums, *AaFT2* may play a positive role in promoting
 20 flowering in *A. annua*. Previous studies indicated that all PEBP proteins have two regions with
 21 highly conserved residues, the amino acid residue Tyr85(Y) and Gln140 (Q) might play critical role
 22 in determining positive effects on flowering (Ahn et al., 2006; Hanzawa et al., 2005). All the

FT-like proteins have the residue Tyr85(Y) and Gln140 (Q) (Fig. 1B), the same as the MtFTa1 and CsFTL3, reflecting these FT-like genes might play critical roles in regulation of flowering time.

3.2 The expression pattern characteristics of *AaFT1*, *AaFT2* and *AaFD*

To examine the different tissue specific expression patterns of the *AaFT1*, *AaFT2* and *AaFD* genes in *A. annua*, Q-PCR analysis was employed. *AaFT1*, *AaFT2* and *AaFD* mRNAs were detected in roots, stems, young leaves, mature leaves and buds. In seedlings, *AaFT1* has 15-fold expression levels in the mature leaves and 3-fold expression levels in the roots and young leaves (Fig. 2A,B). *AaFT2* was mainly expressed in mature leaves, transcript levels are very low in young leaves and roots (Fig. 2C). Therefore, *AaFT1* and *AaFT2* were mainly expressed in the mature leaves and hardly detected in the young leaves (Fig. 2B and D). *AaFD* was mainly expressed in buds and mature leaves (Fig. 2E). The transcript level of *AaFD* little was changes from leaf0 to leaf7 (Fig. 2F).

3.3 Expression patterns of *AaFT1* and *AaFT2* in *A. annua* under different light conditions and GA3 treatment

To study the effect of different light on *AaFT1* and *AaFT2* in *A. annua*, the relationship between the gene expression patterns and photoperiod conditions was investigated. The three-month-old wild type plants were treated with different light and the mature leaves were used for RNA extracting. After 10 d of growth under SD conditions, the expression level of *AaFT1* was decreased when contrasted with control (Fig. 3A). With the increase of SD length, the expression level of *AaFT1* was gradually increased. While the expression level of *AaFT2* was gradually increased and peaking at the 10 d of treatment under SD conditions (Fig. 3B). Under the treatment of long-day photoperiod conditions, the mRNA level of *AaFT1* was increased while

1 *AaFT2* transcripts level was decreased (Fig. 3C and D).

2 GA is an important plant hormone for regulation of plant flowering (Kumar et al., 2012). It can be
3 used to manipulate flowering and increase crops yield. To elucidate the relationship between FT
4 and GA3, we investigated the expression level of *AaFT1* and *AaFT2* under the treatment of GA3.
5 *AaFT2* was strongly induced by GA3 at 10-fold while *AaFT1* was induced by GA3 only 2-fold (Fig.
6 3E and F).

7 3.4 Both *AaFT1* and *AaFT2* subcellular localization of nuclei and the cytoplasm

8 To confirm the subcellular localization of the *AaFT1* and *AaFT2* proteins, *AaFT1* and *AaFT2* were
9 subcloned into YFP-PHB and then introduced into *A. tumefaciens* strain EHA105. The *A.*
10 *tumefaciens* harboring *AaFT1*-YFP and *AaFT2*-YFP constructs were infiltrated into the leaves of *N.*
11 *benthamiana*. As shown in Fig.4, confocal microscopic examination showed that both *AaFT1*-YFP
12 and *AaFT2*-YFP fusion proteins were located on the nuclear and the plasma membrane.

13 3.5 Interaction of proteins of the *AaFT1*/*AaFT2*-*AaFD* by yeast two-hybrid assays

14 The FT-FD protein complex plays an important role in the procession of floral induction (Abe et
15 al., 2005). Previous studies have shown that FT-FD protein complex positively regulates flowering
16 while TFL1–FD protein complex negatively modulates flowering in Arabidopsis (Abe et al., 2005;
17 Higuchi et al., 2013). To gain clues to the molecular basis of *AaFT1* and *AaFT2* during floral
18 induction, the interactions between *AaFT1*/*AaFT2* and *AaFD* were detected by Y2H. The yeast
19 strain AH109 co-transformed with *AaFT1*-GBKT7/*AaFT2*-GBKT7 and *AaFD*-GADT7 grew on
20 SD-Leu-Trp-His-Ade selective medium confirming that both *AaFT1* and *AaFT2* can interact with
21 *AaFD* (Fig. 5).

22 3.6 The phenotype of the transgenic plants

1 According to the results of phylogenetic tree assays and SD (floral-inductive) induction, *AaFT2*
 2 may play a crucial role in regulation of flowering. Therefore, the mRNA level of *AaFT2* was
 3 inhibited by RNAi technique. According to the expression levels of *AaFT2*, we selected six
 4 transgenic lines for further study.

5 To demonstrate whether the phenotype of the transgenic plants changed or not, the height,
 6 flower time and trichome number were observed. Compared with the control plants, all the
 7 transgenic plants were not changed significantly in the trichome number (data not show). *AaFT2*
 8 may not have direct roles in growth and trichome development in *A. annua*. However, the
 9 transgenic plants shown late flowering (Fig. 6) with different level (Fig. 7). It is indicated that
 10 *AaFT2* is involved in flowering regulation.

11 3.7 Inhibition of *AaFT2* improves artemisinin accumulation in *A. annua*

12 To detect the gene expression levels of the *AaFT2* in the transgenic plants, Q-PCR assay was
 13 employed in this study. The transcription level of *AaFT2* was suppressed by 90% in most of the
 14 transgenic plants (Fig. 8). Four-month-old plants were used for detecting the content of
 15 artemisinin. When down-regulated the *AaFT2* expression by RNAi, the content of the artemisinin
 16 was increased significantly as compared with the untransformed control, with an increase by 64%
 17 in some transgenic lines (Fig.9).

18 4. Discussion

19 Flowering time is regulated by many kinds of signaling pathways, including photoperiod,
 20 temperature, plant age, gibberellins, shading, and other factors (Song et al., 2013). These
 21 signaling pathways are integrated to modulate the transcript level of a major floral regulator FT,
 22 which is able to bind to FD and promote flowering (Wigge, 2011). Changes plant flowering time is

very important to seed production (Liu et al., 2017). At the same time, increase of the vegetative growth time may important to the biomass production (Murphy et al., 2014). Previous studies suggest that FT plays important roles in regulation of flowering time (Oda et al., 2012). In this study, we investigated the biology function of *AaFT2* in *A. annua* by knocking down the mRNA levels of *AaFT2*.

4.1 Identification of FT genes in *A. annua*

The mRNA of *LsFT*, a paralog of FT, was isolated and identified to play important roles in the induction of flowering in lettuce (Fukuda et al., 2011). A recent study indicates that sunflower carries at least four additional FT paralogs (Blackman et al., 2010). In *A. annua*, two FT genes encoded 175-aa residues with highly conserved amino acid residue Tyr85(Y) and Gln140 (Q) were cloned from the mature leaves (Fig.1B). Phylogenetic tree analysis indicated that both *AaFT1* and *AaFT2* were clustered into the composite family (Fig.1A). The gene expression level of *AaFT2* was induced by SDs, suggesting that *AaFT2* might play a key role in modulation of flowering.

4.2 *AaFT2* induces flowering in *A. annua*

FT is the important gene of the photoperiod pathway to promote flowering in plants (Abe et al., 2005). Inhibition of the transcription level of *AaFT2*, the flowering time was delayed by 5-29 days in transgenic plants (Fig.7). The results are consistent with previous evidences that repression of FT may play a decisive role in modulation of flowering time (Lazakis et al., 2011). However, *AaFT2* could not rescue *Arabidopsis ft-1* mutant (data did not shown). It is indicated that the functions of FT paralogs are diversifications in plants (Oda et al., 2012).

The mRNA level of *AaFT2* in transgenic plants was found to be inversely proportional to the artemisinin content (Fig.9). Results indicate that the expression level of *AaFT2* was connected

1 with the artemisinin content. However, the expression levels observed for *AaFT2* were not always
 2 correlated with delayed flowering time according to the RNAi-21 and RNAi-38 transgenic lines
 3 (Fig.8, 9). *CsFTL3* is a positive inducer of flowering in chrysanthemum. Previous reports have
 4 suggested that high *CsFTL3* transcript levels did not perform the early flowering phenotype,
 5 indicated that the mRNA expression levels may depend on post-transcriptional control (Oda et al.
 6 2012).

7 However, gene expression levels were not always correlated with artemisinin content according
 8 to the RNAi-38 transgenic line (Fig.7, 8). There may be caused by some unknown reasons. The
 9 relative expression of *AaFT2* in RNAi-13 transgenic lines was the lowest while no significant
 10 change in the growth period and the content of artemisinin. The reason may be that
 11 post-transcriptional regulation modulates the protein production of *AaFT2*, leading to RNAi-13
 12 transgenic lines did not change in the growth period and artemisinin content.

13 4.3 *AaFT2* interacted with FD to regulate flowering time

14 FT is a major component of florigen signal transduction pathway for accelerating flowering and it
 15 mRNA levels can be modulated by various factors. Many transcriptional repressors, such as
 16 TEMPRANILLO 1(TEM1), FLOWERING LOCUS C (FLC) and PHYTOCHROME INTERACTING FACTOR4
 17 (PIF4), all can regulate FT by binding to its promoter specially (Kumar et al., 2012). The
 18 phytohormone gibberellin 3 (GA3) plays important role in regulation of flowering. GA3
 19 application enhances *AaFT2* expression level about 10-fold (Fig. 3F), these results are consistent
 20 with previous work in *Arabidopsis* (Hisamatsu and King, 2008). The reason for GA3 induces
 21 flowering is probably that GA3 indirectly regulation of PIF4 protein activity causes PIF4 to activate
 22 FT (Kumar et al., 2012).

1 FT interaction with FD is involved in the regulation of floral by transcriptional activation of
 2 *APETALA1*, which determines the flower organ (sepal and petal) development in *Arabidopsis* (Abe
 3 et al., 2005). Consistent with previous work, FT interacts with the transcription factor FD in *A.*
 4 *annua* (Fig. 5). But we did not find a significant difference about flower organ between transgenic
 5 group and control in *A. annua* (Fig. 6).

6 4.4 Delay in flowering time and increase in accumulation of artemisinin

7 Previously, light plays important role in improving artemisinin yield (Wang et al., 2001). Increase
 8 the time of illumination may affect sesquiterpene and triterpene biosynthesis (Korth et al., 2000).
 9 To strengthen illumination, an *Arabidopsis* blue light receptor gene *CRY1* was overexpressed in *A.*
 10 *annua* and artemisinin accumulation was enhanced (Hong et al., 2009). Therefore, delay in
 11 flowering is an effective way to prolong vegetative growth and increases artemisinin
 12 accumulation.

13 Consistent with previous work, our study has shown that transgenic plants are late flowering for
 14 5-29 days when compared with the non-transformed plants (Fig. 7). There is a positive correlation
 15 between late-flowering and artemisinin content (Fig.S1). However, it is indicated that there may
 16 be no direct linkage between flowering and artemisinin biosynthesis in *A. annua* (Wang et al.,
 17 2007). The reason may be that late flowering improves the availability of total solar radiation.
 18 Firstly, delayed flowering (greater solar radiation is available) may promote vegetative growth and
 19 accumulate much substrate (such as pyruvic acid, acetyl-CoA and glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate)
 20 for producing artemisinin. Secondly, delayed flowering time may increase the amount of 1O_2
 21 (produced by UV radiation), which is the activator for modulation of artemisinin biosynthesis
 22 (Zeng et al., 2011).

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20 21 **Figure legends**

22 **Fig.1.** Cloning of FT-like genes from *A. annua*. (A) Phylogenetic tree based on the nucleic acid

1 sequences of the PEBP gene family. The tree was constructed by the Neighbor-Joining method.

2 (B) Partial amino acid alignment of PEBP proteins. Asterisks showing Tyr85(Y) and Gln140(Q) residues
3 are conserved in PEBP family.

4 **Fig.2.** Expression patterns of *AaFT1*, *AaFT2* and *AaFD* in different tissues of *A. annua*. Expression
5 patterns of *AaFT1* (A), *AaFT2* (C) and *AaFD* (E) in B (Buds), YL (young leaves), ML (mature leaves), S
6 (stems), R (roots), *AaFT1* (B), *AaFT2* (D) and *AaFD* (F) in L0 (leaf0), L1(leaf1), L2 (leaf2), L3 (leaf3), L4
7 (leaf4), L5 (leaf5), L6 (leaf6) and L7 (leaf7). QRT-PCR was employed to determine the expression level.
8 Error bars are SE (n= 3).

9 **Fig.3.** Expression patterns of *AaFT1* and *AaFT2* were induced by SD, LD conditions or GA3 treatments.
10 *AaFT1* (A) and *AaFT2* (B) under SD treatment, *AaFT1* (C) and *AaFT2* (D) under LD treatment, *AaFT1* (E)
11 and *AaFT2* (F) under GA3 treatment. Error bars are SE (n= 3).

12 **Fig.4.** Subcellular localization of *AaFT1* and *AaFT2* was tested in tobacco epidermal cells. The
13 constructed vectors 35S::*AaFT1*-YFP and 35S::*AaFT2*-YFP were induced into tobacco (*Nicotiana*
14 *benthamiana*) epidermal cells by infiltration.

15 **Fig.5.** *AaFT1* and *AaFT2* Physically Interact with *AaFD*. Yeast two-hybrid assays examining the
16 interactions between *AaFT1*, *AaFT2* and *AaFD* proteins. Yeast expressing empty vector GADT7 and
17 GBKT7 were used as negative controls.

18 **Fig.6.** The phenotypes of transgenic *A. annua*. (A) The amplificatory picture of flower buds of the WT *A.*
19 *annua*. (B) Delayed flowering of transgenic *A. annua*.

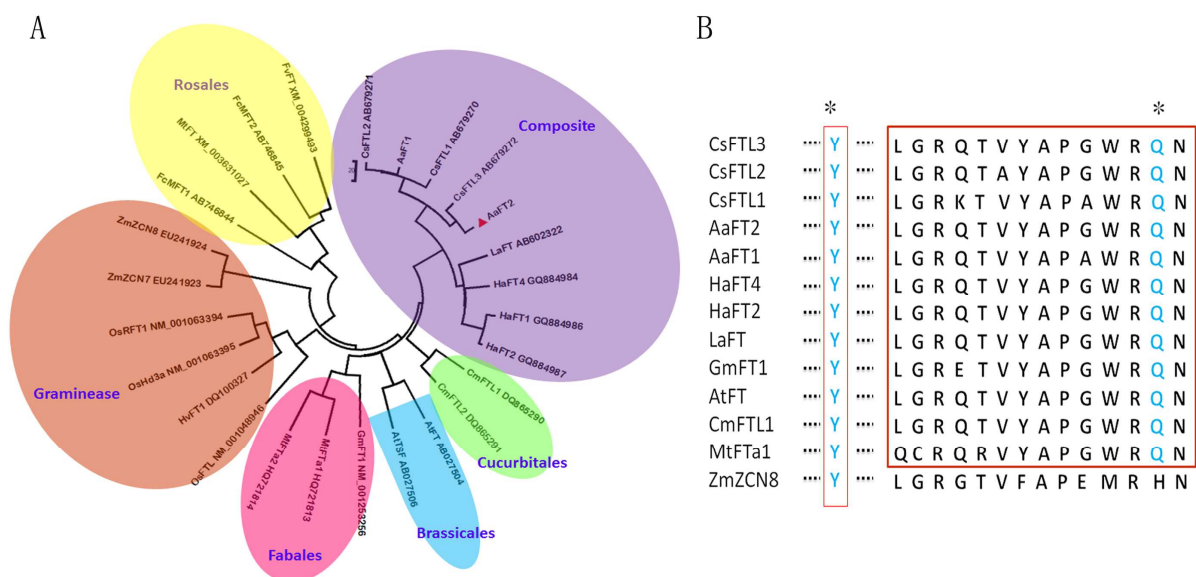
20 **Fig.7.** Delayed flowering time in transgenic plants.

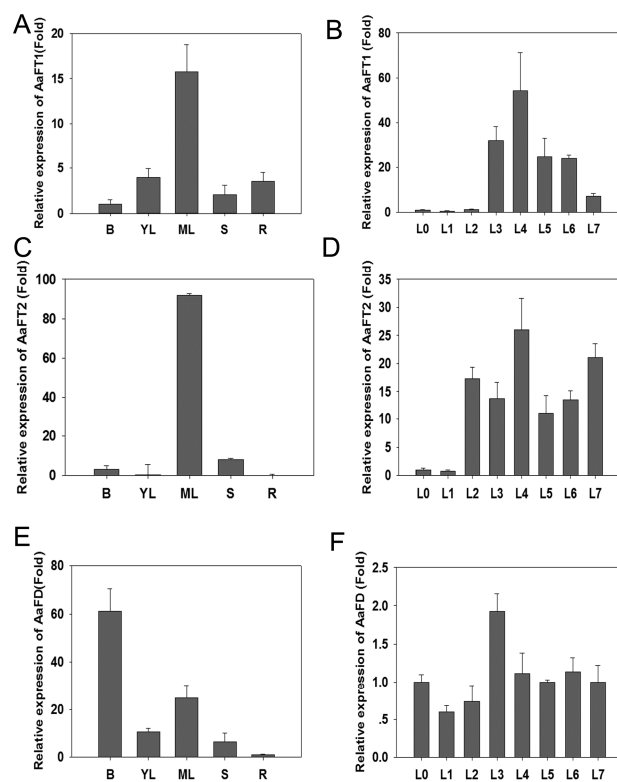
21 **Fig.8.** The expression levels of *AaFT2* in the transgenic plants were determined by qRT-PCR analysis.
22 Error bars are SE (n= 3).

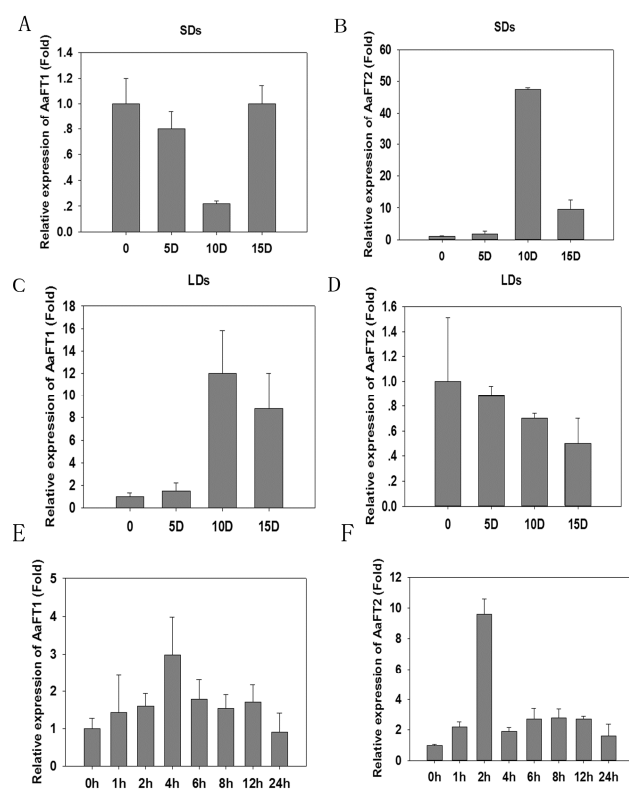
1 **Fig.9.** The content of artemisinin (ART) was determined in transgenic plants. Each sample was
2 measured by HPLC for the ART. Data represent means $\pm$ SE from three replicates. Statistical
3 significance is determined by Student's t-test (**, $P < 0.01$; *, $P < 0.05$). Asterisks indicate the
4 difference between CK and transgenic *A. annua* plants.

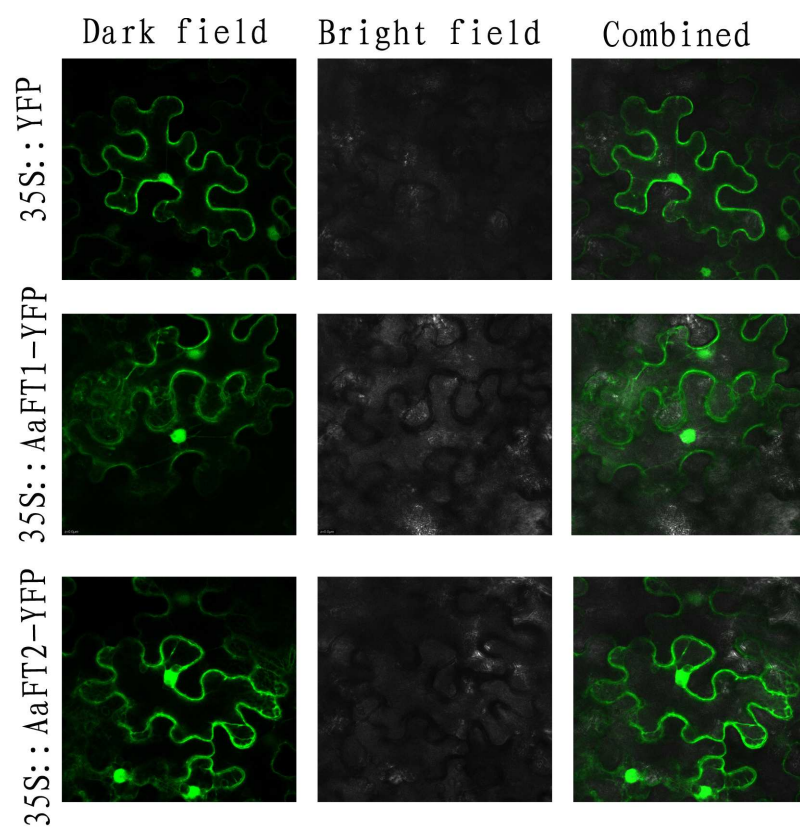
5 **Fig.S1.** The relationship between the delayed time and the artemisinin content. The Y-axis is delayed
6 time and the x-axis is artemisinin content.

7 **Supplement.** The primers used in the study.

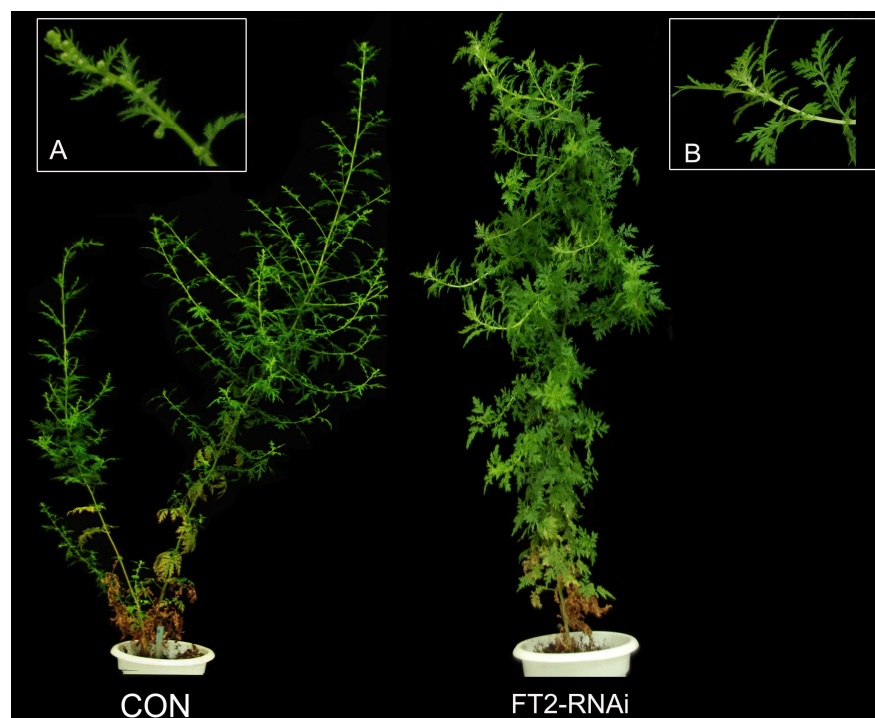


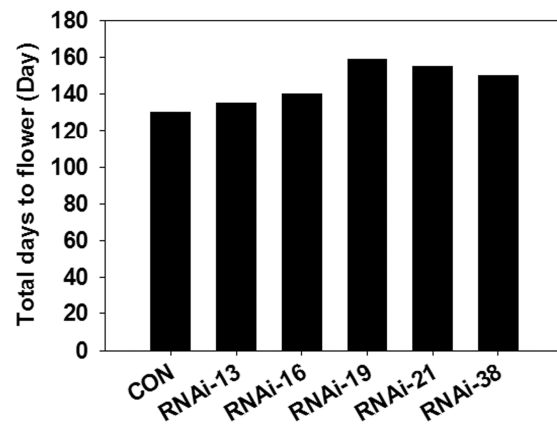


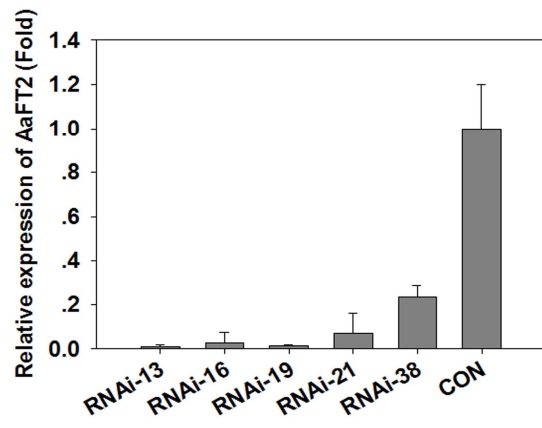


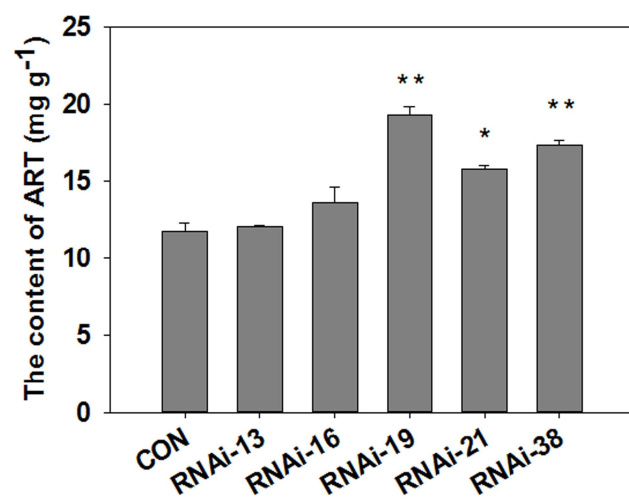


BD	AD	SD-T-L	SD-T-L-H	SD-T-L-H-A
AaFT1	AaFD			
AaFT2	AaFD			
AaFT1	AD			
AaFT2	AD			









Highlights

- 1 *AaFT1* was inhibited by short days (SDs) (floral-inductive) while *AaFT2* was induced under SDs
- 2 Inhibition of *AaFT2* delayed flowering time
- 3 Inhibition of *AaFT2* accumulated artemisinin (ART)

ZL conducted transgenic plant seedlings analysis in *Artemisia annua*. L, LZ assayed gene expression and Y2H in *Artemisia annua*. L, LC, FZ and KT were responsible for project design, and all authors contributed to writing the manuscript.