


RESEARCH ARTICLE

Open Access



# Photoperiod response-related gene *SiCOL1* contributes to flowering in sesame

Rong Zhou<sup>1</sup>, Pan Liu<sup>1</sup>, Donghua Li<sup>1</sup>, Xiurong Zhang<sup>1\*</sup> and Xin Wei<sup>1,2\*</sup> 

## Abstract

**Background:** Sesame is a major oilseed crop which is widely cultivated all around the world. Flowering, the timing of transition from vegetative to reproductive growth, is one of the most important events in the life cycle of sesame. Sesame is a typical short-day (SD) plant and its flowering is largely affected by photoperiod. However, the flowering mechanism in sesame at the molecular level is still not very clear. Previous studies showed that the *CONSTANS* (*CO*) gene is the crucial photoperiod response gene which plays a center role in duration of the plant vegetative growth.

**Results:** In this study, the *CO-like* (*COL*) genes were identified and characterized in the sesame genome. Two homologs of the *CO* gene in the *SiCOLs*, *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2*, were recognized and comprehensively analyzed. However, sequence analysis showed that *SiCOL2* lacked one of the B-box motifs. In addition, the flowering time of the transgenic *Arabidopsis* lines with overexpressed *SiCOL2* were longer than that of *SiCOL1*, indicating that *SiCOL1* was more likely to be the potential functional homologue of *CO* in sesame. Expression analysis revealed that *SiCOL1* had high expressed levels before flowering in leaves and exhibited diurnal rhythmic expression in both SD and long-day (LD) conditions. In total, 16 haplotypes of *SiCOL1* were discovered in the sesame collections from Asia. However, the mutated haplotypes did not express under both SD and LD conditions and was regarded as a nonfunctional allele. Notably, the sesame landraces from high-latitude regions harboring nonfunctional alleles of *SiCOL1* flowered much earlier than landraces from low-latitude regions under LD condition, and adapted to the northernmost regions of sesame cultivation. The result indicated that sesame landraces from high-latitude regions might have undergone artificial selection to adapt to the LD environment.

**Conclusions:** Our results suggested that *SiCOL1* might contribute to regulation of flowering in sesame and natural variations in *SiCOL1* were probably related to the expansion of sesame cultivation to high-latitude regions. The results could be used in sesame breeding and in broadening adaptation of sesame varieties to new regions.

**Keywords:** Sesame, Photoperiod response, Flowering, Artificial selection, *CONSTANS*

## Background

Flowering, the timing of transition from vegetative to reproductive development, is one of the critical developmental steps in plants. Previous research revealed that flowering is regulated by both genotype and environmental factors such as temperature, light spectrum, light intensity and day length (photoperiod). For example, winter wheat required several weeks at low temperature, also named vernalization to flower [1]. Flowering of rice

is promoted in short photoperiod, and it is therefore regarded as a facultative SD plant [2], while flowering of *Arabidopsis thaliana* is mainly promoted by LD condition [3]. Recently, low red light to far-red light ratio was also reported to accelerate *Arabidopsis* flowering [4]. Flowering of *Phalaenopsis* is positively influenced by supplemental lighting during the inductive phase [5]. Among these environment factors that are related to plant flowering, photoperiod might be the critical signal that regulate the initiation of flowering in angiosperms since day length is a reliable indicator of the time of year for plants [6].

Flowering time is the key trait for geographical and seasonal adaptation in crops. For the worldwide cultivated

\* Correspondence: zhangxr@oilcrops.cn; xwei@shnu.edu.cn

<sup>1</sup>Key Laboratory of Biology and Genetic Improvement of Oil Crops of the Ministry of Agriculture, Oil Crops Research Institute of the Chinese Academy of Agricultural Sciences, Wuhan 430062, China

Full list of author information is available at the end of the article



crops, such as rice and soybean, the flowering time of varieties varied in a broad range and is related to yield. In a reasonable range, the late flowering, also means longer vegetative growth, contributes to the higher biomass and yield of the varieties [7, 8]. Usually, the varieties of SD plants from low latitude areas flower later than those from high latitude areas when the cultivars are planted under LD condition. To adapt the day-light conditions in different environments, the flowering time of crops would be selected during long-time breeding programs. Therefore, the flowering time and photoperiod sensitivity of crops are one of the primary improvement targets for crop breeding.

Sesame (*Sesamum indicum* L.), which belongs to the genus *Sesamum* in the family Pedaliaceae, is an important oilseed crop grown widely in various areas of the world. The harvest area of sesame has been doubled in the last four decades, and is still increasing gradually (<http://www.fao.org/faostat/>). Sesame was domesticated from wild relatives in the Indian subcontinent about 5000 years ago and it is therefore regarded as the most ancient oilseed crop [9, 10]. Nowadays, sesame is widely planted in more than 80 countries across the world, with a concentration in tropical and subtropical areas. Sesame flowering is mainly promoted by short photoperiod and is classified as a SD plant [11, 12]. The flowering time of sesame landraces ranges broadly from less than 30 d to more than 90 d [13]. However, few genetic researches of the sesame flowering have been reported and the genetic mechanism remains unknown.

The photoperiod gene, *CO*, encoding a B-box zinc-finger transcription factor, plays a central role in the photoperiod response and flowering regulation in *Arabidopsis* [3]. It acts between the circadian clock and florigen genes. The rhythmical expression of *CO* is regulated by *GI*, a circadian clock gene [14]. The peak expression of *CO* generally appears before dawn under SDs but at both afternoon and dawn under LDs [15]. Subsequently, *CO* activates expressions of the floral gene *FLOWERING LOCUS T (FT)*, and promote flowering of *Arabidopsis* in LDs. It has been shown that *CO* protein binds to the *FT* promoter [16]. In LDs, the *CO* protein accumulates to higher levels due to the stability of the GI-FKF1 complex in the light which degrades *CO* repressor *CDF1* [17]. Although *CO* was identified in the LD plant *Arabidopsis*, its homologous genes in SD plants were also found to be the key flowering regulators. *Heading date 1 (Hd1)*, the homologous gene of *CO* in rice, contributes to photoperiod measurement and photoperiod-specific regulation of *FT* [18]. In contrast to *CO*, *Hd1* appears to be a bifunctional regulator, promoting *FT* expression in SDs but repressing *FT* in LDs [19, 20]. Moreover, the homologs of *CO* have been investigated in a number of other species, such as wheat, maize, barley, cotton, rapeseed, soybean, potato, grapevine, apple and

*Pharbitis nil* through various functional genomics analyses, showing its conserved function involved in regulating plant flowering [21–30].

Previous studies showed *CO* had plenty of allelic variations, mediating photoperiod-dependent flowering time in *Arabidopsis* [31]. Among the 51 flowering time loci in *Arabidopsis*, *CO* possessed the most significantly associated single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) of flowering time [32]. Similarly, a highly degree of polymorphisms of *Hd1* were the major determinant of the variation in flowering time diversity in rice [33]. Some variations of *CO* and *Hd1* had been identified as the crucial mutations that strongly influenced flowering time in plants [34, 35]. *COL* genes were also identified from many plants [22, 23, 30, 36–40]. B-box motifs and CCT domain have been proved to be the conserved domains in *COL* genes [23, 29, 41, 42]. However, the functional variations of *CO* and *COL* genes in sesame have not been identified and investigated.

Genome sequencing and large-scale genome re-sequencing of sesame has been completed recently [13, 43–45], providing high-quality reference genome sequence and massive useful variations for the functional genomics research of sesame. In the present study, the sesame *COL* gene family was genome-wide identified and characterized from the sesame genome. Two homologous genes of *CO* in sesame, *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2*, were recognized. Functions of *SiCOL1* were confirmed by the transgenic approach, expression pattern analysis, and haplotype analysis. Evolution analysis of *SiCOL1* revealed that these genes had been selected to adapt to the photoperiod conditions in different areas. The results suggest that *SiCOL1* is an important agronomic photoperiod response gene that significantly affected flowering time, contributing to the adaption of sesame to the high-latitude regions. Our results also shed light on the potential value of *SiCOL1* in genetic improvement of sesame.

## Results

### Identification of *COL* genes in sesame

To identify the *COL* genes in sesame, the Hidden Markov Model (HMM) search was performed against the sesame protein database using the Zinc-finger B-box motif (PF00643) and CCT (*CONSTANS*, *CONSTANS-like*, *TIMING OF CAB EXPRESSION 1*) domain (PF06203). In total, 37 B-box Zinc-finger genes and 36 CCT domain-containing genes were identified in the sesame genome, respectively (Additional file 1: Table S1). The B-box Zinc-finger genes and the CCT domain-containing genes were then compared with each other and 13 genes of them were found to be the same. Therefore, the 13 genes which contained both Zinc-finger B-box motif and CCT domain were identified and named as sesame *COL* genes (Table 1). All of the

**Table 1** The *COL* gene family in sesame

Gene	Linkage group	Position	Peptide length	Exon number	Group
SIN_1003782	LG16	4,171,550–4,176,377	415	4	III
SIN_1004896 <sup>b</sup>	LG15	2,534,501–2,535,610	332	2	I
SIN_1011796	LG5	17,536,289–17,537,482	368	2	I
SIN_1012499	LG6	1,093,823–1,096,564	371	4	III
SIN_1013665	LG1	10,021,319–10,023,171	439	2	II
SIN_1017370	LG3	11,310,021–11,311,664	393	2	II
SIN_1018340	LG2	16,108,396–16,110,105	461	2	II
SIN_1019767	LG8	1,838,327–1,845,107	410	4	III
SIN_1019889 <sup>a</sup>	LG8	2,936,072–2,937,312	354	2	I
SIN_1019954	LG5	13,943,158–13,945,055	412	4	III
SIN_1020629	LG6	18,213,252–18,214,375	339	2	I
SIN_1021657	LG1	930,153–932,165	335	2	I
SIN_1023877	LG2	9,655,751–9,656,982	378	2	I

<sup>a</sup>*SiCOL1*<sup>b</sup>*SiCOL2*

*Arabidopsis* COL protein sequences were used as queries for the Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (BLAST) to identify sesame COL proteins. However, we had not identified any additional proteins containing both B-box motifs and CCT domain in the sesame genome. All B-box motif and CCT domain in the *SiCOLs* were validated by the CDD (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/cdd/>) and simple modular architecture research tool (SMART) analyses.

The *SiCOL* genes were not evenly distributed on the linkage groups (LGs) of the sesame genome: one gene on LG3, LG15 and LG16, and two genes on LG1, LG2, LG5, LG6 and LG8. The *SiCOL* proteins ranged from 332 (*SIN\_1004896*) to 461 (*SIN\_1018340*) amino acids (aa) in length, with an average length of approximately 385 aa. Moreover, no tandem duplicate genes were identified for these *SiCOLs*, although tandem duplication events had been observed in several other sesame gene families [46–48].

#### Phylogenetic analysis of the *SiCOL* genes

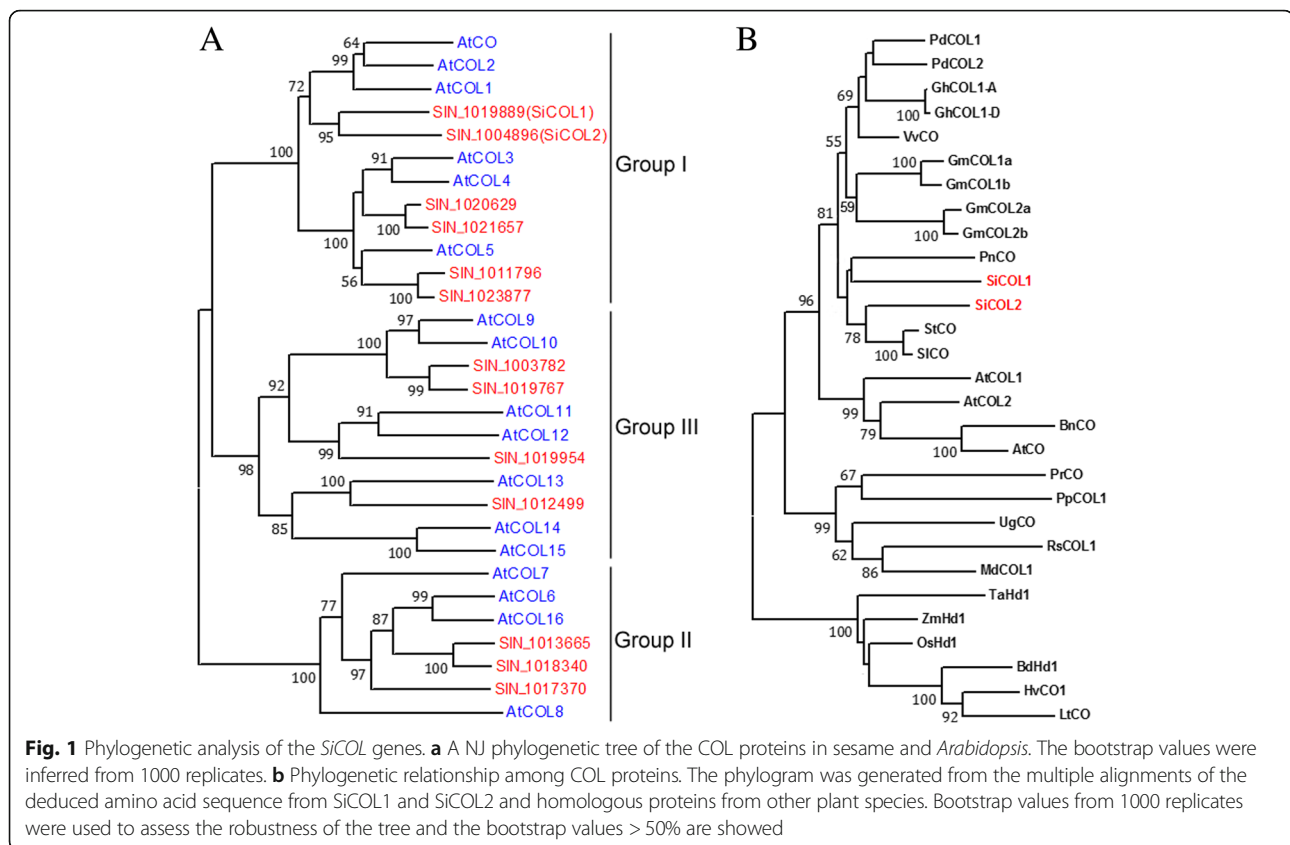
A phylogenetic tree was constructed using the neighbor-joining (NJ) method basing on multiple alignments of sesame and *Arabidopsis* COL genes (Fig. 1a). The 13 *SiCOLs* were classified into three groups (I, II, and III) and each group consisted of 6, 3, and 4 *SiCOL* proteins, respectively. Two *SiCOL* genes, *SIN\_1019889* and *SIN\_1004896* showed the closest relationship with the *Arabidopsis* CO gene. The *Arabidopsis* CO protein sequence was also used as query for the BLAST to identify the homologous genes. It showed that *SIN\_1019889* and *SIN\_1004896* were the only homologous genes of *Arabidopsis* CO gene in sesame. Thus, these two genes were referred as *SiCOL1* (*SIN\_1019889*) and *SiCOL2* (*SIN\_1004896*), respectively. We therefore concluded

that these genes might be involved in the photoperiodic regulation of sesame flowering.

Phylogenetic analysis of *SiCOL1*, *SiCOL2*, CO and CO homologous proteins in the other 19 plant species was performed. CO homologous proteins from monocots and dicots were clustered into two groups. Both *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2* proteins were divided into the dicots group. *SiCOL1* protein (GeneBank ID: XP\_011085568) displayed the highest similarity to PnCO protein (the CO protein in *Pharbitis nil*, 53% identity, AF300700) whereas it showed a 44% identity with CO protein from *Arabidopsis* (NP\_197088). *SiCOL2* protein (XP\_011099077) displayed the highest identity to SICO protein (60% identity, NP\_001233839) and StCO protein (60% identity, ARU77840), which was higher than that of *Arabidopsis* CO protein (48% identity). However, *SICO* was not involved in the control of flowering time of *Solanum lycopersicum* [49]. Previous research suggested that sesame was taxonomically close to *Utricularia gibba*, *S. lycopersicum* and *S. tuberosum* [43]. However, in this study, *UgCO* protein was not close to either *SiCOL1* or *SiCOL2* protein.

#### Conserved motifs and structure of the *SiCOL* genes

Using the *SiCOL* phylogenetic relationship data, we identified structural features of the sesame *COLs*, including conserved motifs and the locations of exons and introns (Additional file 1: Figure S1). The *SiCOL* genes of Group I and Group II had a simple gene structure -- one intron and two exons (Additional file 1: Figure S1b), while all genes in Group III had more exons and presented more complex gene structure than that of Group I and Group II. Multiple Em for Motif Elicitation (MEME) analysis confirmed the presence of the B-box



motifs and CCT domains in *SiCOL* gene sequences. All genes in Group I and Group III had two B-box motifs except *SiCOL2*, which lacked one of the B-box motifs (Additional file 1: Figure S1c).

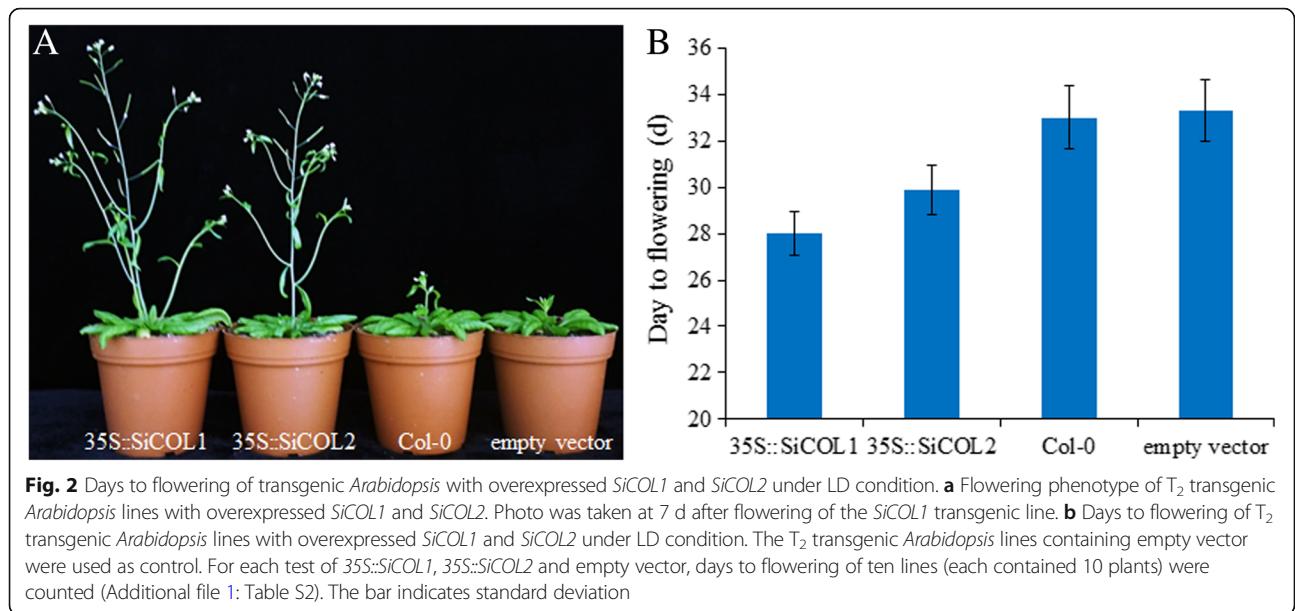
The protein sequences of *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2* were further analyzed (Additional file 1: Figure S2). The result showed that they shared high similarity in amino acid sequence (61.7%), especially in the regions of B-box 2 motif (83.7%) and CCT domain (97.7%). *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2* proteins had large differences in the B-box 1 motif region. Most amino acids of B-box 1 motif in *SiCOL2* protein were lost. Even the remaining amino acids in B-box 1 motif of *SiCOL2* protein were also quite different from that of *SiCOL1*. B-box motif plays an important role in the regulation of transcription and in mediating protein–protein interaction [50], and the missing of B-box 1 motif may cause loss of partial function of *SiCOL2*.

#### Overexpression of *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2* in *Arabidopsis*

To explore the role of *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2* in flowering, we constructed *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2* overexpression vectors, and transferred into *Arabidopsis* Col-0 lines, respectively. Ten independent T<sub>0</sub> transgenic lines were obtained for each gene. T<sub>1</sub> generation transgenic lines planted in LD condition were about

3 days earlier flowering than the wild type. T<sub>2</sub> generation plants were significantly earlier flowering (5 days of *35S::SiCOL1* on average,  $P < 0.001$ , and 3 days of *35S::SiCOL2* on average,  $P < 0.001$ ) than the wild type (Fig. 2 and Additional file 1: Table S2). It is noteworthy that the T<sub>2</sub> transgenic lines of *35S::SiCOL1* flowered earlier (2 days in average) than that of *35S::SiCOL2*. This result might be caused by the loss of B-box 1 motif in *SiCOL2* protein. Therefore, we concluded that *SiCOL2* might lose partial function of flowering regulation and *SiCOL1* was potential functional homologous gene of *CO* in sesame.

To investigate the mechanism of action of *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2* in *Arabidopsis*, we compared the expression patterns of flowering related genes *FT* in transgenic lines with wild type under LDs. Under LDs, *FT* is induced by *CO* and promotes flowering in *Arabidopsis* [51]. Comparing with the *FT* in wild type, *FT* in the transgenic lines expressed in an extremely high level (Additional file 1: Figure S3). The result suggested that *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2* promoted *Arabidopsis* flowering by inducing the expression of *FT*. Moreover, expression of *FT* in T<sub>2</sub> transgenic lines with *35S::SiCOL1* was much higher than that in the *35S::SiCOL2* transgenic lines, indicating *SiCOL1* had higher induction efficiency of *FT* expression than *SiCOL2*.

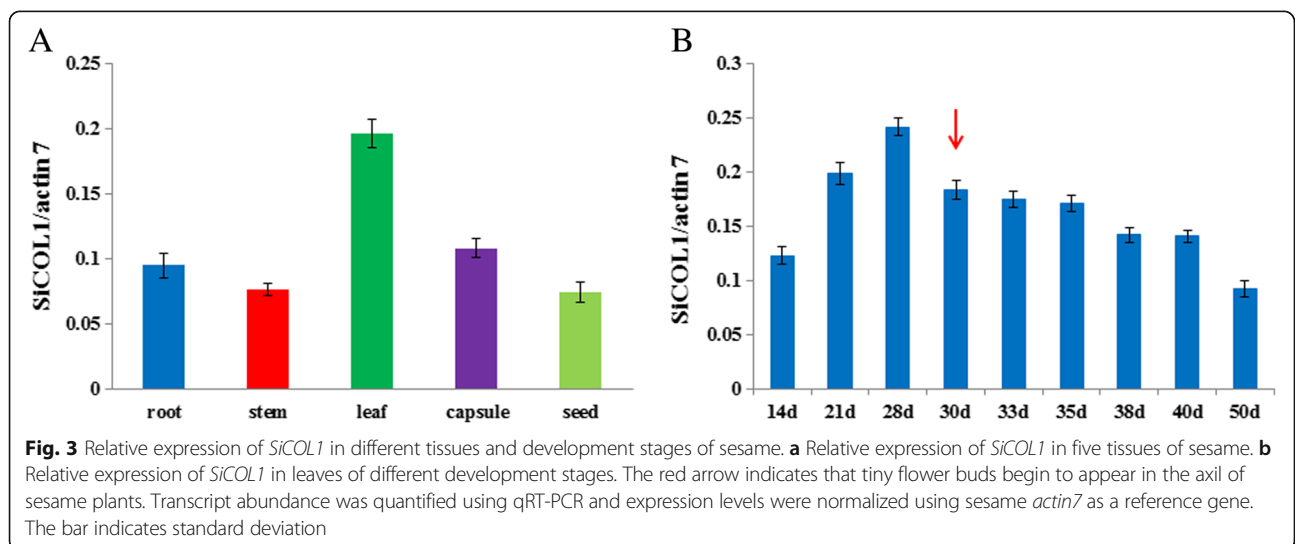


**Expression patterns of *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2***

Five different tissues of sesame were collected from the widely cultivated sesame variety ‘Zhongzhi13’, including root, stem, leaf, capsule and seed. Quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction (qRT–qPCR) was used to investigate the expression of *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2* in these tissues. The result revealed that the expression of *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2* in root, stem, capsule and seed were almost in the same level (Fig. 3a and Additional file 1: Figure S4a). However, both the expression levels of *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2* in leaf were significantly higher than that in other tissues ( $P < 0.001$ ).

Expression of *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2* in leaf at the different development stages (from 14 days to 50 days after seed sowing) of ‘Zhongzhi13’ was investigated. All samples were collected in the same time (8:00 am) during a day.

Generally, the flower buds of the variety ‘Zhongzhi13’ appear in approximately 30 days and ‘Zhongzhi13’ flowers at about 40 days in the growing season at Wuhan, China. The *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2* expression increased quickly from 14 to 28 days and reached the highest level in 28 days, which was the exactly time before the flower buds appeared in the axil of sesame (Fig. 3b and Additional file 1: Figure S4b). After the flower bud appeared, the expression of *SiCOL1* moderately decreased (from 30 to 40 days). Although sesame is an indeterminate inflorescence species, the expression of *SiCOL1* decreased noticeably after the plant flowered (50 days). However, the expression of *SiCOL2* slightly increased after sesame flowering. The result suggested that the expression of *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2* dynamic changed during the development of sesame floral organ.



Individuals of ‘Zhongzhi13’ were grown in the LD (14 h light) and SD (9 h light) conditions, respectively. In about 3 days before the flower buds appeared, leaves from three individuals were collected during a 24 h period under LD and SD conditions, respectively. Expressions of *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2* in the leaves under LD and SD conditions were detected. Although expression of *SiCOL2* was higher than *SiCOL1* in both LD and SD conditions, the expression patterns of these two genes were extremely similar. Both in LD and SD conditions, the expression of *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2* increased during the darkness whereas decreased under light (Fig. 4 and Additional file 1: Figure S5). The peaks of transcript level of *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2* in LD and SD conditions were both in the dawn. Under the SD condition, the lowest expression levels of *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2* were both found at 1 h before dusk. Whereas, the valleys of the transcript levels for *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2* under LD were different. Under LD condition, *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2* had the lowest expression levels in 0 am and 8 pm, respectively. Therefore, as the homolog of *CO* in sesame, *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2* exhibited significantly diurnal rhythmic expression and expressed in a high level before the flowering in leaves.

#### Haplotype variation of *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2*

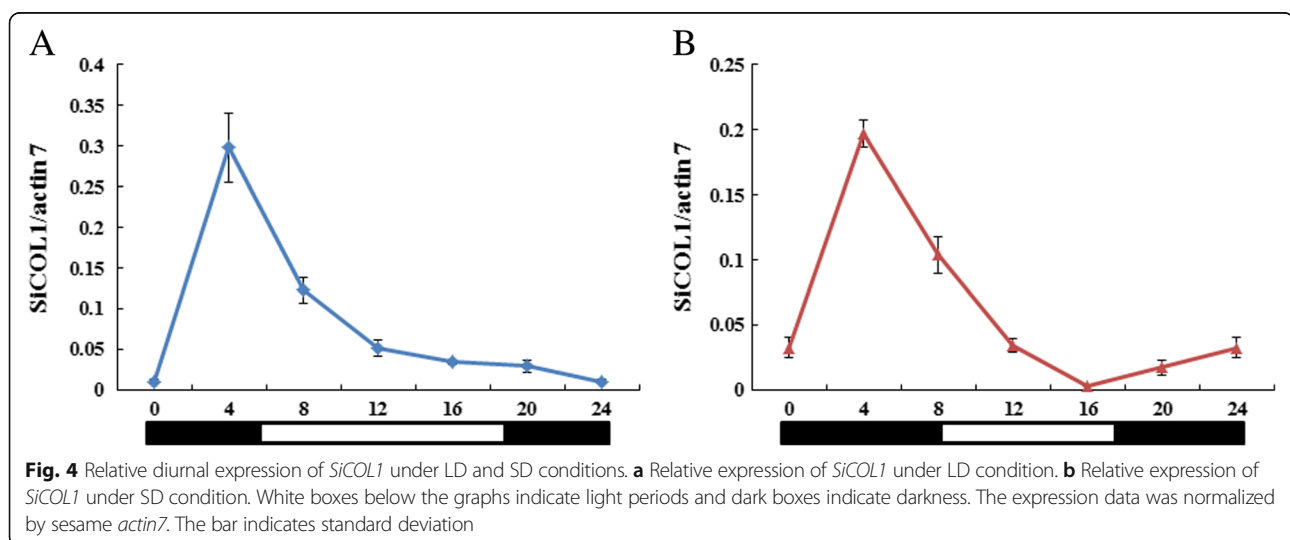
In order to analyze the haplotype variations of *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2*, SNPs of *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2* in 132 landrace genomes were obtained from the SesameHapMap database (<http://www.ncgr.ac.cn/SesameHapMap/>). These landraces were collected from South Asia, Southeast Asia, East Asia and Central Asia. These regions are the main producing regions of sesame with rich germplasm resources. Among these regions, South Asia is also the geographic origin area of sesame [9, 52]. All samples were planted in the summer of Wuhan, China

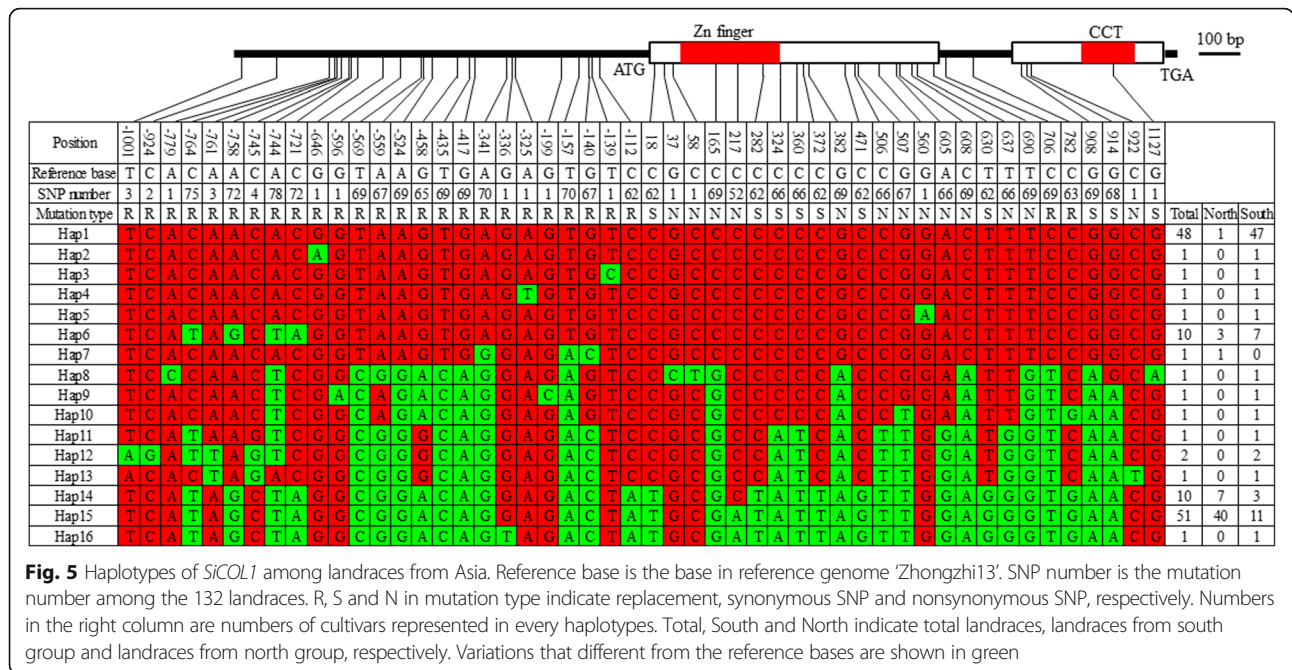
from 2015 to 2017 and their flowering dates were recorded. Previous study revealed that sesame accessions could be divided into south group and north group by the latitude 32°N [13]. In the present study, samples were also divided into south and north groups according to their geographic origin (Additional file 1: Table S3).

In total, 25, 23 and 2 SNPs were found in the promoter, coding region and intron of *SiCOL1*, respectively (Fig. 5). Among the 23 SNPs in the coding region, 13 SNPs were the synonymous mutations while the other 10 SNPs were the nonsynonymous mutations, which led to amino acid substitutions and might cause functional polymorphism of the *SiCOL1* protein. Only one SNP and three SNPs were detected in the CCT domain and Zinc-finger domain, respectively.

Based on the identified SNPs, 16 haplotypes of *SiCOL1* were detected in the tested sesame accessions. All bases in Hap1 (Haplotype 1) were the same as the reference genome ‘Zhongzhi13’ [43]. The bases in Hap1 that were different from other haplotypes ranged from 1 to 35. Six of the haplotypes (Hap2 to Hap7) were similar to Hap1 while the other nine haplotypes (Hap8 to Hap16) were quite different from Hap1. There was only one SNP in Hap 2, Hap3, Hap4 and Hap5. But in Hap 14, Hap 15 and Hap16, the different bases reached 33, 34 and 35, respectively.

The variety ‘Baizhima’ (S054 in Additional file 1: Table S3), which had the *SiCOL1* of Hap15 was selected and the expression of *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2* was investigated. *SiCOL2* showed diurnal rhythmic expression in ‘Baizhima’ under both LD and SD conditions (Additional file 1: Figure S5). However, the expression of *SiCOL1* was not detected in ‘Baizhima’ under both LD and SD conditions, suggesting that mutated *SiCOL1* did not express and might lose the function of photoperiod response in sesame flowering.





**Fig. 5** Haplotypes of *SiCOL1* among landraces from Asia. Reference base is the base in reference genome ‘Zhongzhi13’. SNP number is the mutation number among the 132 landraces. R, S and N in mutation type indicate replacement, synonymous SNP and nonsynonymous SNP, respectively. Numbers in the right column are numbers of cultivars represented in every haplotypes. Total, South and North indicate total landraces, landraces from south group and landraces from north group, respectively. Variations that different from the reference bases are shown in green

Totally, 15 SNPs were identified in *SiCOL2*, including seven SNPs in promoter, six SNPs in coding regions and two SNPs in intron (Additional file 1: Figure S6). Four SNPs in the coding regions were the nonsynonymous mutations. However, these SNPs were identified in a few samples, indicating that *SiCOL2* was more conserved than *SiCOL1*. Using the 15 SNPs, *SiCOL2* was clustered into 12 haplotypes. The haplotypes contained more than 7 accessions (5.30% of the total samples) were regarded as major haplotypes. Therefore, Hap1, Hap3 and Hap8 were identified to be the three major haplotypes. Among these haplotypes, Hap1 was the biggest haplotype, containing 65.2% of the total samples.

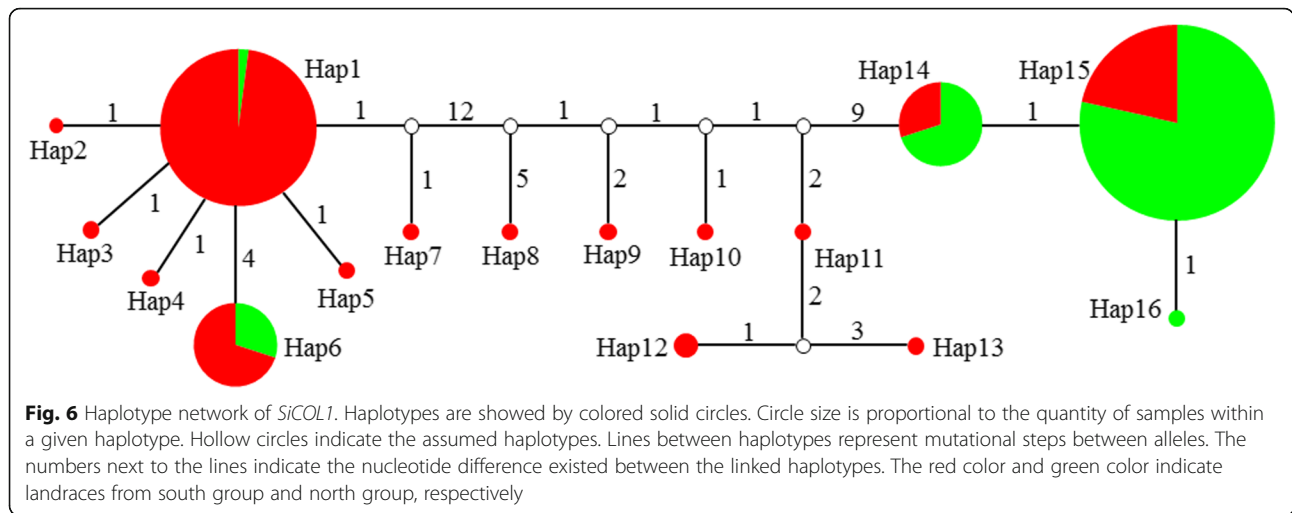
To valid the truth of the SNPs in *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2*, ten accessions were selected and sequenced. All SNPs identified in *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2* of the ten samples were the same as them in SesameHapMap. The result suggested that all SNPs of these genes were true and could be used in the haplotype analysis. However, a 6 bp deletion (from 421 bp to 426 bp) in the coding region, which resulted in an Aspartic acid and a Glutamic acid deletion in protein, was detected in Hap15 of *SiCOL1* (Additional file 1: Figure S7). Previous study showed that a 36 bp deletion in the coding region of *Hd1* was the crucial mutation that led function divergence of *Hd1* in rice [2]. This deletion might have potential influence of gene function in the Hap15 of *SiCOL1*.

As shown in Fig. 6, a network of all haplotypes was constructed. The haplotype number of landraces from south group (15) was much more than that of north group (5), suggesting that *SiCOL1* had highly polymorphisms in the landraces of south group. There were four

haplotypes contained landraces from both south and north group: Hap1, Hap6, Hap14 and Hap15. These four haplotypes were also the largest haplotypes in number, containing 90.2% (119 of 132 landraces) of the samples. The landraces belonging to south group were concentrated in Hap 1 and Hap6 (54 of 80 landraces), while most of the landraces from north group were in Hap14 and Hap15 (47 of 52 landraces).

The landraces from India presented in Hap1, Hap5, Hap6, Hap8, Hap9, Hap11, Hap12 and Hap13, indicating a high genetic diversity of *SiCOL1* in India sesame landraces. If we take all landraces from South Asia (India, Bangladesh, Pakistan and Nepal) into account, more haplotypes could be found, including Hap4, Hap7, Hap10, Hap 15 and Hap16. Therefore, landraces from South Asia could be found in 13 haplotypes totally. For Southeast Asia, East Asia and Central Asia, the haplotypes of landraces from these regions were Hap7, Hap5 and Hap2, respectively. The haplotypes of landraces from South Asia were much more than haplotypes including landraces from other regions, suggesting that South Asia was the genetic diversity center of *SiCOL1*. This observation is consistent with previous suggestion that crop cultivars from the geographic origin areas tend to have higher genetic diversity [53, 54].

A network of all *SiCOL2* haplotypes was also constructed (Additional file 1: Figure S8). Landraces from south group and north group were detected in twelve and five haplotypes, respectively. In the network of *SiCOL1*, two major haplotypes, Hap14 and Hap15 were dominated by the landraces from north group. However, landraces from south group were more than that from

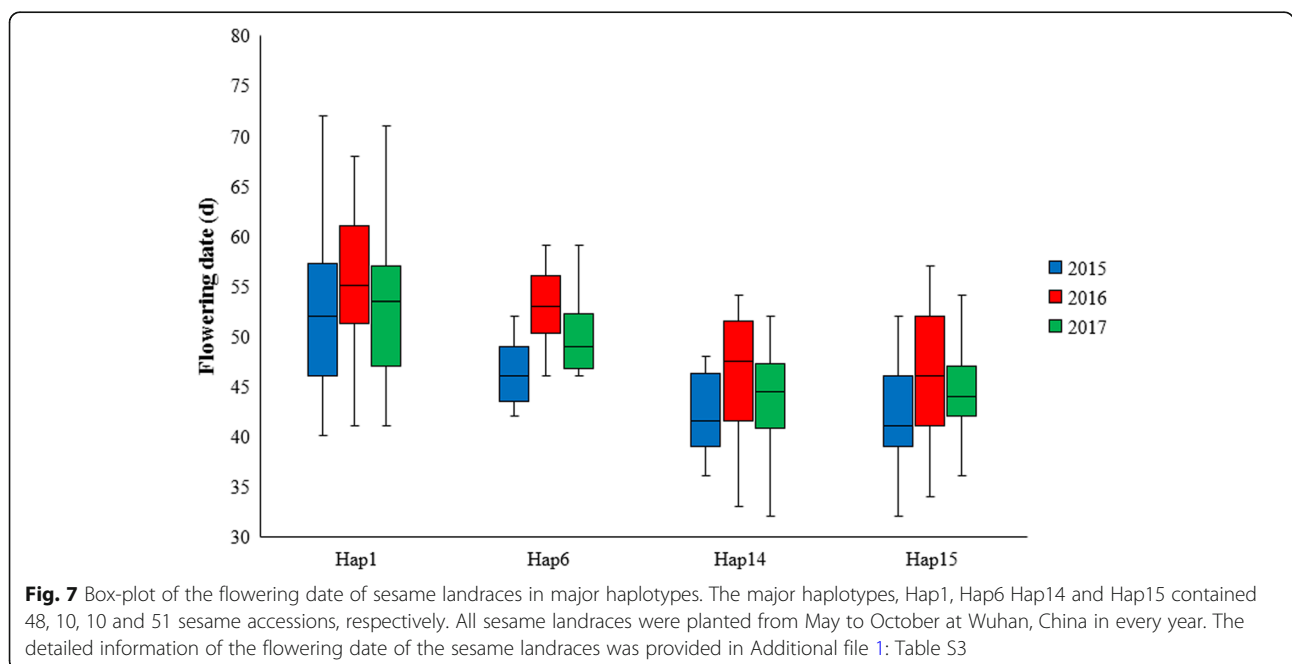


north group in all major haplotypes of *SiCOL2* (Hap1, Hap3 and Hap8).

***SiCOL1* haplotypes were related to sesame flowering**

The flowering date of the 132 landraces from 2015 to 2017 in Wuhan, China (114°33' E, 30°34' N) was recorded and analyzed to further examine the relationship between *SiCOL1* haplotypes and sesame flowering (Additional file 1: Table S3). The day light in the summer of Wuhan is a standard LD, sustaining from 13 h to 14.5 h. Under LDs, sesame landraces from north group flowering obviously earlier than that from south group. The box-plot showed the flowering date of landraces in Hap1, Hap 6, Hap14 and Hap15 from 2015 to 2017 (Fig. 7). As we described previously, Hap1 and Hap6 mainly contained sesame accessions

from south group, while Hap14 and Hap15 included most sesame accessions from north group. Days to flowering time of the samples in Hap1 and Hap6 were significant more than that in Hap14 and Hap15 (Mann-Whitney test,  $P < 10^{-9}$ ). Taking flowering time in 2016 for example, the average flowering date of accessions in Hap1, Hap6, Hap14 and Hap15 was 58.5, 53, 46.2 and 46.3 d, respectively. The Pearson correlation coefficient was used to test the correlation between *SiCOL1* haplotypes and flowering date. Significant correlations were identified in all 3 years: 2015 ( $R^2 = 0.32$ ,  $R = 0.56$ ,  $P = 3.10 \times 10^{-11}$ ), 2016 ( $R^2 = 0.28$ ,  $R = 0.53$ ,  $P = 5.38 \times 10^{-10}$ ) and 2017 ( $R^2 = 0.30$ ,  $R = 0.55$ ,  $P = 7.80 \times 10^{-11}$ ). The results suggested that *SiCOL1* variations were strongly related to the flowering time of sesame.





### Geographic distribution of *SiCOL1* haplotype

Comparing to Hap1 of *SiCOL1*, Hap15 had one 6 bp deletion in the coding region (Additional file 1: Figure S7) and many SNPs in the promoter as well as coding regions (Fig. 5). In addition, Hap15 did not express under both LD and SD conditions. Therefore, Hap15 of *SiCOL1* was regarded as nonfunctional allele. Based on the similarity of haplotypes, we divided the 16 haplotypes of *SiCOL1* into two groups, south haplotypes with functional alleles and north haplotypes with nonfunctional alleles. The south haplotypes included Hap1 to Hap7 while the north haplotypes contained Hap 8 to Hap 16. To investigate the relationship between the geographic origin and haplotypes of the sesame landraces, a map of Asia was downloaded from Wikimedia Commons ([http://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/Main\\_Page](http://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/Main_Page)) and the distribution information of *SiCOL1* haplotypes was showed in the map (Fig. 8). The map clearly showed that south haplotypes mainly existed in the south of 32°N while north haplotypes were concentrated in the north of 32°N. For the 13 countries, the proportion of the north haplotypes ranged from 0 (Nepal and Afghanistan) to 100% (Japan and Uzbekistan).

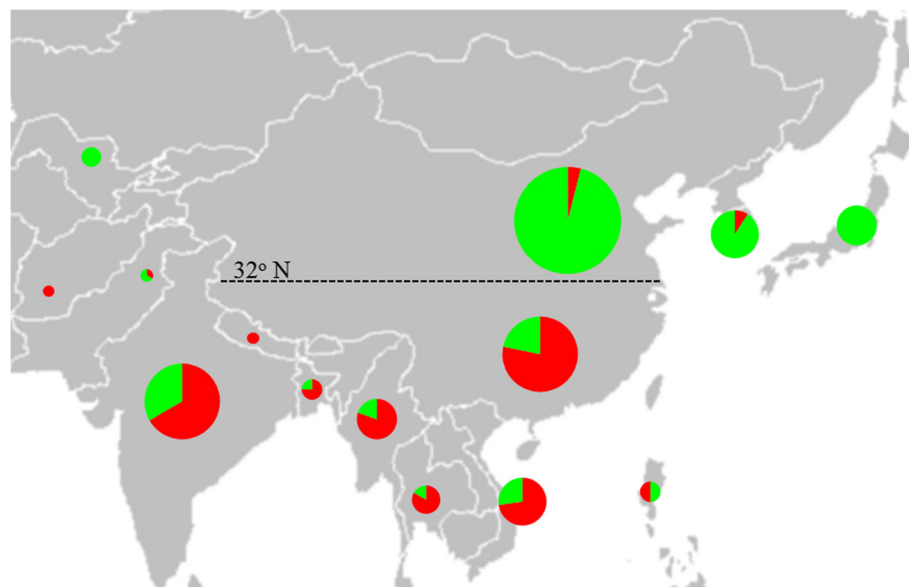
Since alleles contained in north haplotypes all were non-functional and very few landraces in the north haplotypes were from the geographic origin center of sesame, north haplotypes were regarded as the domesticated haplotypes of *SiCOL1*. The frequency of domesticated alleles is an indicator of artificial selection, so the proportion of the

north haplotypes was used to examine the domestication and spread of sesame. North haplotypes were in the minority of Southern Asia, Southeast Asia and South China, but they were the dominant haplotypes in Northern China, Northeast Asia and Central Asia. Therefore, the result suggested that *SiCOL1* had been strongly selected and might be the important domesticated gene that contributed to the spread of sesame from low-latitude regions to high-latitude regions.

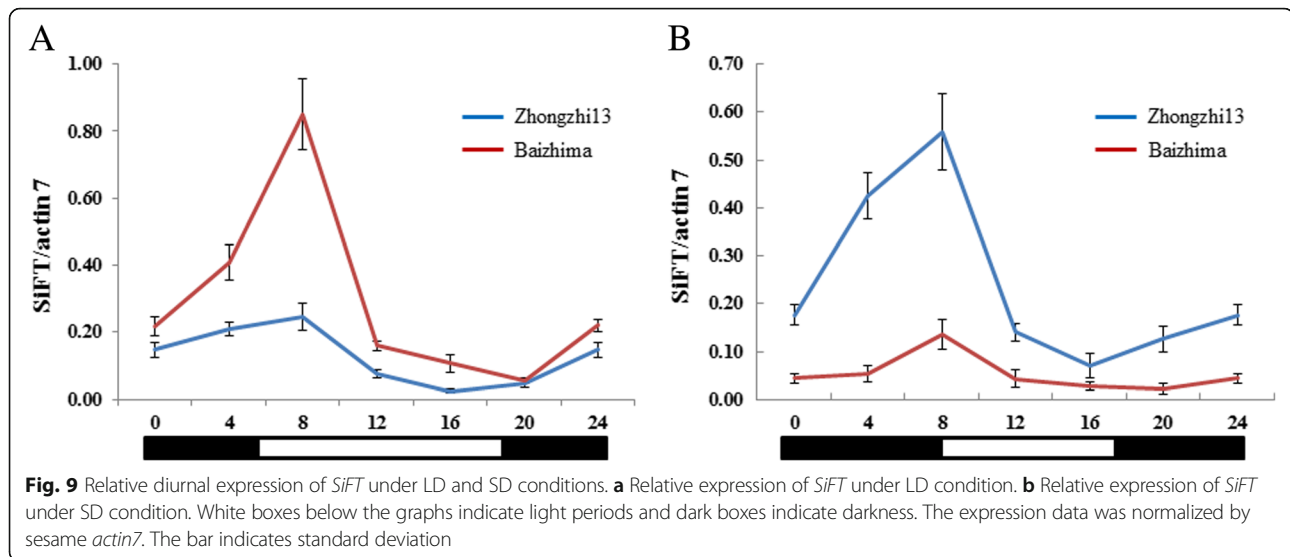
### Expression patterns of *SiFT* in two varieties with different *SiCOL1* haplotypes

The homolog of *FT* in sesame, *SiFT* (*SIN\_1009320*), was identified by BLAST [55]. Expression of *SiFT* was detected in ‘Zhongzhi13’ (with *SiCOL1* of Hap1) and ‘Baizhima’ (with *SiCOL1* of Hap15) under LD and SD conditions. The diurnal rhythmic expression pattern of *SiFT* was quite similar to that of *SiCOL1* under both LD and SD conditions (Fig. 9), indicating that the expression of *SiFT* might be induced by *SiCOL1*. Although the expression pattern of *SiFT* in ‘Zhongzhi13’ and ‘Baizhima’ was similar, the expression level of *SiFT* in these two varieties was quite different under both LD and SD conditions. These significantly variant expression levels of *SiFT* in ‘Zhongzhi13’ and ‘Baizhima’ might result from the non-expression of *SiCOL1* in ‘Baizhima’.

The peak of *SiFT* expression appeared later than that of *SiCOL1*. This phenomenon was in line with the homologue genes, *Hd3a* and *Hd1*, in the SD plant rice.



**Fig. 8** *SiCOL1* protein type distribution among countries in Asia. Red solid circles indicate *SiCOL1* protein types from Hap1 to Hap7, while the green solid circles represent *SiCOL1* protein types from Hap8 to Hap16. The size of the circles is proportional to the quantity of sesame landraces. The latitude 32°N is indicated by dotted line. The original map was downloaded and adapted from "<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:BlankMap-Asia.png>" (Bytebear at the English language Wikipedia). This original map is licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution-Share Alike 3.0 Unported license, which allows us to share and adapt for free with proper attribution



Although *Hd1* had the expression peak in dark, *Hd3a* had the highest expression level after dawn under both LD and SD conditions [56].

## Discussion

### *SiCOL1* might be involved in the photoperiod response and contributing to flowering

Photoperiod pathway is one of the crucial regulation factors of high plant flowering [57]. *CO*, one of the first identified plant photoperiod gene, plays an important role in the photoperiod response and flowering regulation of *Arabidopsis* [3]. The *CO* homolog of sesame has not been identified and the flowering mechanism of sesame largely remains unknown. In this study, molecular function, gene expression and sequence variations of the *CO* homolog in sesame, *SiCOL1*, were comprehensively analyzed.

Phylogenetic analysis showed *SiCOL1* was one of the most similar genes of *CO* in sesame. Overexpression of *SiCOL1* in the transgenic *Arabidopsis* lines significantly promoted flowering of *Arabidopsis* under LD condition. Both under LD and SD conditions, *SiCOL1* showed diurnal rhythmic expression and had the peak expression at the dawn. Compared with the *SiCOL1* expression in root, stem, capsule and seed, *SiCOL1* had a higher expression level in leaf. The expression pattern of *SiCOL1* was extremely similar to that of *AtCO1* and *AtCOL2* [58]. Although *AtCOL1* and *AtCOL2* doesn't have major role in the control of flowering in *Arabidopsis*, homologous genes with similar dawn expression peaks have been shown to control *FT* expression and flowering time in other species including soybean and strawberry [59, 60]. The diurnal rhythmic expression pattern of *SiFT* was similar to that of *SiCOL1*, indicating that *SiCOL1* might induce the expression of *SiFT*. In

'Zhongzhi13', *SiFT* had a higher expression level under SD condition than that under LD condition. It was consistent with the early flowering of 'Zhongzhi13' under SD condition. By analyzing the days to flowering of 132 landraces, we found that the north haplotypes of *SiCOL1* harboring nonfunctional alleles flowered much earlier than that of other landraces under LD condition. In the variety 'Baizhima', which had Hap15 of *SiCOL1*, *SiFT* had a high expression level under LD condition. Therefore, the early flowering of sesame landraces, which had the nonfunctional haplotypes of *SiCOL1*, might result from the highly expression of *SiFT* under LD conditions. Since *SiCOL1* did not express in these landraces, we concluded that *SiCOL1* might repressed the expression of *SiFT* under LD condition. *Hd1* functions in the promotion of rice flowering under SD condition and in inhibition under LD condition [2]. We speculated that *SiCOL1* might have similar function of *Hd1* in the photoperiod response and contributing to flowering. Because the transgenic approach of sesame had not been invented, it is hard to perform the transgenic experiments to validate the function of *SiCOL1* in sesame. This will be addressed in future studies.

Besides *SiCOL1*, there were 12 other *SiCOL* genes that were identified from sesame genome. Function of these genes had not been reported yet. In the last decades, *COL* gene family has been studied in several plants [22, 23, 30, 36–39, 41]. In *Arabidopsis*, 17 *COL* genes were identified totally. Due to the differences of B-box motifs and introns, the *AtCOLs* were divided into three groups [41], Group I contained *CO* and *COL1* to *COL5* with two B-box motifs and one intron. Group II includes *COL6* to *COL8* and *COL16* with one B-box motif and one intron. Group III incorporates *COL9* to *COL15* with two B-box motifs and three

introns [23]. Similar result had been recognized in sesame *COL* genes. However, *SiCOL2* which belonged to Group I lacked B-box 1 motif, indicating the possible divergence of *SiCOLs* and *AtCOLs*. Previous studies showed that *Arabidopsis COL* genes not only regulated flowering time, but also participated in plant architecture, development, and stresses tolerance [61–64]. The *SiCOLs* might be also involved in diverse molecular and genetic processes of sesame.

#### ***SiCOL1* rather than *SiCOL2* is more likely to be the functional homologous gene of *CO* in sesame**

Phylogenetic analysis of *SiCOL1*, *SiCOL2*, *CO* and *CO* homologues of 19 plant species showed *SiCOL1* was close to *PnCO*, whereas *SiCOL2* was close to *SiCO* and *StCO*. Previous study showed that *PnCO* could promote flowering of *P. nil* [25], a typical SD plant. However, there is no evidence shows that *SiCO* can regulate flowering of *Solanum lycopersicum* [49], a day-neutral plant. Comparison of *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2* protein sequences and motifs revealed differences in the Zinc-finger domain that could be the underlying reason for differences in function. When we overexpressed *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2* into *Arabidopsis*, the flowering time promoted by *SiCOL2* was less than *SiCOL1*. In addition, the expression pattern of *SiCOL2* was different from that of *SiFT* in the variety ‘Baizhima’ (Additional file 1: Figure S5). These results suggested that *SiCOL1* rather than *SiCOL2* was more likely to be the functional *CO* homologous gene in sesame.

Much fewer SNPs were detected in the coding region (6 SNPs) and domains (2 SNPs) of *SiCOL2* than that of *SiCOL1* (Additional file 1: Figure S6). Two SNPs were detected in the B-box motif and CCT domain of *SiCOL2*. But only one was nonsynonymous SNP and few of the landraces contained this mutation in *SiCOL2*. Totally, there were 12 haplotypes of *SiCOL2* and most sesame accessions were concentrated in Hap1, Hap3, Hap5 and Hap8 (Additional file 1: Figure S8). The *SiCOL2* haplotype network showed that the major haplotypes had an extremely close relationship and landraces from south and north group were mixed in the haplotypes. The results indicated that variations of *SiCOL2* might not affect the flowering of sesame and *SiCOL2* had not been significantly selected.

Genome research uncovered an independent whole genome duplication (WGD) event in sesame genome at approximately  $71 \pm 19$  million years ago [43]. The paralogs, *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2*, may be the duplicated genes. Functional divergence of these paralogs might result from the loss of B-box 1 motif in *SiCOL2*. Redundant genes resulting from WGD are thought to be lost or acquire new functions [65]. *SiCOL2* might lose its gene function after WGD.

#### **Artificial selection of *SiCOL1* might have contributed to sesame spread to a wide range of latitudes**

Gene sequence analysis of *SiCOL1* revealed that two nonsynonymous mutations which caused amino acid residues replacement were in the Zinc-finger domain. In addition, one 6 bp deletion in the coding region was detected in the haplotypes harboring this mutation. The amino acid residues replacement in Zinc-finger domain, the 6 bp deletion, and multiple SNPs in the coding regions as well as promoter might result in the loss of function of *SiCOL1*. Landraces which contained these mutations mainly distributed in high-latitude regions and flowered early in LD conditions. In contrast, most landraces from low-latitude regions, especially South Asia, which was the domestication center of sesame, did not have these mutations and flowered late in LD conditions. Photoperiod genes in the wild relatives of crops, such as rice, maize and soybean are generally functional and photoperiod genes tend to be selected during the crop spread [66–68]. Therefore, the functional *SiCOL1* in the samples from South Asia was more likely to be the ancestral haplotypes. Further haplotype analysis of *SiCOL1* in the Asia sesame collections revealed that the landraces from north group containing nonfunctional *SiCOL1* alleles distributed across Northern China, Northeast Asia and Central Asia. Northeast Asia is in the northern-limit regions of sesame, with more than 15 h mean day length during the short growing season. Almost all sesame landraces in Northeast Asia had a few haplotypes with nonfunctional mutations and flowered early under LD condition. The haplotypes of landraces from Northeast Asia was significantly less than that from South Asia. Additionally, the landraces from Northeast Asia harbored nonfunctional haplotypes of *SiCOL1*. The results suggested *SiCOL1* in the landraces from Northeast Asia might undergo positive selection or strong domestication and *SiCOL1* played a significant role in sesame adaptation to high-latitude regions by reducing photoperiod sensitivity. Domestication and selection on *SiCOL1* might be one of the critical events that contribute to adapt sesame to different cultivation areas and cropping seasons, resulting in sesame from a local crop in India to the global oilseed crop.

Several studies of the rice photoperiod genes have reported that selection of the flowering genes mainly contributed to the expansion of rice from tropical and subtropical areas to temperate areas, resulting in rice changing from a regional plant to a worldwide plant [33, 69–71]. Domestication of the photoperiod genes, such as *Hd1*, *Ehd1*, *Hd3a*, *Ghd7*, *Ghd8*, and *DTH2*, caused function loss and decreased the photoperiod sensitivity, leading to early-heading phenotypes. The artificial selection and domestication of rice flowering genes successfully extended the northern-limit regions

of rice cultivation. In this study, similar phenomenon was observed in the sesame photoperiod gene *SiCOL1*. Artificial selection and domestication of *SiCOL1* might contribute the early flowering of nonfunctional haplotypes and involved in the spread of sesame from low-latitude area (South Asia) to high-latitude areas (Northeast Asia and Central Asia). Since the function of different haplotypes had not been completely demonstrated by the sesame transformation approach, and there was weak population structure in the sesame landraces [13], this conclusion still need more evidences to support.

To date, more than 700 quantitative trait loci (QTLs) and 30 photoperiod genes had been identified in rice [72]. Natural variations that related to rice flowering were found in 14 genes. In the present study, we found that some extremely early-heading landraces contained nonfunctional alleles of *SiCOL1*. For example, landraces containing the *SiCOL1* of a nonfunctional haplotype (Hap14) flowers at 43.6 d in average under LD condition. But the accession 'Baizhima' (S049 in Additional file 1: Table S3) from Northeast China (125°8' E, 45°51' N), which also harboring *SiCOL1* of Hap14, flowers quite earlier ( $30.7 \pm 1.3$  d) than other accessions. These finding suggested that sesame domestication in the northernmost regions might have been achieved by artificial selection of *SiCOL1*, as well as domestication in other photoperiod genes. Furthermore experiments needed to be carried out to recognize these photoperiod genes in sesame.

*SiCOL1* identified in this research could be used in the sesame improvement and molecular breeding. Because of the simple and efficient of sesame artificial hybridization, any favorable allele of *SiCOL1* in landraces can easily be transferred to commercial varieties for adapting to different light conditions. The gene editing technology, CRISPR/Cas9, had been successfully used in the editing of tomato flowering gene *SELF PRUNING 5G*, causing 2 weeks earlier flowering [73]. Using the CRISPR/Cas9 method on editing of photoperiod genes, such as *SiCOL1*, geographical range of sesame could be extended. Sesame might be grown in latitudes more northerly than currently possible, which could also bring more plantings per growing season and thus higher yield of sesame.

## Conclusions

Flowering and photoperiod sensitivity are fundamental traits that determine sesame, an important oilseed crop, adaptation to a wide range of geographic environments. Whereas the flowering mechanism of sesame is still not clear. In the present study, we identified sesame *COL* gene family and focused on functional analysis of the *CO* homologous gene, *SiCOL1*. Phylogenetic analysis and sequence comparison revealed that *SiCOL1* might be the homolog of the *CO* gene in

sesame. Overexpression of the *SiCOL1* in transgenic *Arabidopsis* significantly promoted flowering of *Arabidopsis* under LD conditions. Expression analysis revealed that *SiCOL1* had highly expressed levels in leaf before flowering and exhibited a diurnal rhythmic expression under both SD and LD conditions. Moreover, *SiCOL1* might induce the expression of *SiFT* under both SD and LD conditions. In the Asia sesame collections, different haplotype alleles of *SiCOL1* were found. However, the mutated haplotype (Hap15) of *SiCOL1* did not express under both SD and LD conditions. The similar haplotypes of Hap15 were regarded as nonfunctional alleles of *SiCOL1*. Notably, the sesame varieties from high-latitude regions harboring nonfunctional alleles of *SiCOL1* flowered extremely early, and were adapted to the northernmost regions of sesame cultivation. The results suggested that *SiCOL1* was the potential functional homolog of *CO* and haplotype variations of *SiCOL1* enables sesame to adapt to different day-lengths characteristic of different latitudes. Moreover, the domestication and artificial selection of *SiCOL1* might have contributed to the spread of sesame from low-latitude regions to high-latitude regions. Our results could be useful in both understanding the flowering mechanism and the molecular breeding of sesame.

## Methods

### Identification of the *COL* gene family in sesame

All sesame protein sequences were obtained from the sesame genome database (<http://ocri-genomics.org/Sinbase/>) [74]. The *Arabidopsis thaliana AtCOL* gene sequences were downloaded from TAIR (<https://www.arabidopsis.org/>). The HMM profile for the Zinc-finger B-box domain (PF00643) and CCT domain (PF06203) were downloaded from the PFAM protein families database (<http://pfam.xfam.org>) [75] and used to identify *COL* genes from the sesame genome with HMMER 3.0 [76]. BLAST analysis with all the *Arabidopsis COLs* was used to check the predicted *COLs* from the sesame database [55]. The CDD (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/cdd/>) [77] and the simple modular architecture research tool (SMART) [78] were used to validate all the potential sesame *COL* genes identified by HMM and BLAST if they contained the B-box motifs and CCT domains.

### Phylogenetic and sequence analyses of the *COL* gene family in sesame

Clustal X 2.0 [79] was used to align the aa sequences of the sesame and *Arabidopsis COL* proteins. A unrooted NJ phylogenetic tree [80] of these genes was constructed by MEGA 6.0 [81]. The nodes of the NJ tree were evaluated by bootstrap analysis for 1000 replicates. Branches with less than 50% bootstrap values were collapsed.

Twenty eight protein sequences of *CO* and *Hd1* homologs in plant species were download from NCBI, including *AtCO* (*A. thaliana*, X94937), *AtCOL1* (AED92215), *AtCOL2* (AEE73800), *BnCO* (*Brassica napus*, AY290868), *BdHd1* (*Brachypodium distachyon*, XP\_003563958), *GhCOL1-A* (*Gossypium hirsutum*, ASA69414), *GhCOL1-D* (ASA69421), *GmCOL1a* (*Glycine max*, NP\_001235828/ Glyma.08G255200.1, the gene ID in *G. max* genome Wm82.a2.v1), *GmCOL1b* (NP\_001235843/Glyma.18G278100.1), *GmCOL2a* (XP\_003541197/Glyma.13G050300.1), *GmCOL2b* (NP\_001278944/Glyma.19G039000.1), *HvCO1* (*Hordeum vulgare*, AF490468), *LtCO* (*Lolium temulentum*, AY553297), *MdCOL1* (*Malus domestica*, AAC99309), *OsHd1* (*Oryza sativa*, AB041838), *PdCOL1* (*Populus deltoids*, AAS00054), *PdCOL2* (AAS00055), *PnCO* (*P. nil*, AF300700), *PpCOL1* (*Physcomitrella patens*, BAD89084), *PrCO* (*Pinus radiata*, AF001136), *RsCOL1* (*Raphanus sativus*, AF052690), *SiCOL1* (*S. indicum*, XP\_011085568), *SiCOL2* (*S. indicum*, XP\_011099077), *SiCO* (*S. lycopersicum*, NP\_001233839), *StCO* (*S. tuberosum*, ARU77840), *TaHd1* (*Triticum aestivum*, AB094490), *VvCO* (*Vitis vinifera*, CBI16899), *ZmHd1* (*Zea mays*, ABW82153). Another *CO* homolog, *UgCO* (Scf02496.g25887.t1) was identified by BLAST with *AtCO* from the genome of *U. gibba* [82], which had taxonomically close relationship with sesame. Phylogenetic tree of *CO* and 21 *CO* homologs, including *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2*, was constructed by NJ method, with the 1000 replications bootstrap analysis.

The conserved motifs in the full-length *COL* proteins were identified using the MEME program (<http://alternate.meme-suite.org/tools/meme>) [83]. The parameters employed in the analysis were as follows: maximum number of motifs = 3; optimum width of motifs = 15–60. The exon/intron structures of the *SiCOL* genes were determined by comparing their predicted coding sequence (CDS) with genomic sequences using the gene structure display server web-based bioinformatics tool (<http://gsds.cbi.pku.edu.cn/>) [84].

### Plant samples and treatments

The photoperiod-sensitive sesame variety ‘Zhongzhi13’ was selected and used for the gene expression analysis. It is widely cultivated in China and has been used in the genome sequencing of the sesame [43]. The materials were planted in summer of 2015 at Wuhan, China (114°33′ E, 30°34′ N). At the flowering stage, the roots, stems, leaves, capsules and developing seeds were collected from three plants of the variety ‘Zhongzhi13’ from 8:00 to 9:00 am during the day. After collection, these organs were immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at – 80 °C prior to further analysis. Leaves at 10 development stage of the variety ‘Zhognzhi13’ were collected, including 7, 14, 21, 28, 30, 32, 36, 38, 40 and 50 d. These leaves were collected at 8:00 am every time using the described method previously.

For the LD and SD treatments, sesame plants of ‘Zhongzhi13’ and ‘Baizhima’ (S054 in Additional file 1: Table S3) were firstly planted in pots at natural light condition for 1 week. Then the LD and SD treatment plants were planted under LD (14 h light from 5:00 to 17:00, 10 h darkness) and SD (9 h light from 8:00 to 17:00, 15 h darkness) conditions, respectively. Leaf samples from at least three sesame plants were collected every 4 h during a 24 h period (at 0:00, 4:00, 8:00, 12:00, 16:00 and 20:00 every day) at the last week before flowering. The leaves were frozen in liquid nitrogen and total RNA was isolated immediately.

Totally, 132 sesame landraces from 13 counties in South Asia, Southeast Asia, East Asia and Central Asia were selected from sesame core-collections and planted in summer of Wuhan, China from 2015 to 2017 (Additional file 1: Table S3). The flowering date of each landrace was recorded. All the sesame samples were provided by the Oil Crops Research Institute, Chinese Academy of Agricultural Sciences, Wuhan, China.

### Overexpression of *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2* in transgenic *Arabidopsis*

The binary vector pBI121 was digested by restriction enzymes *Sma* I and *Sac* I. We combined the amplified cDNA of *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2* with the linear vector pBI121 using one step cloning kit (ClonExpress, Vazyme), and then transformed it into *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*. *Arabidopsis* was then transformed by the floral dip method [85]. Plasmid isolation was performed using the Plasmid DNA mini kit (Omega). The nucleotide sequencing was determined by Tsingke Company (Wuhan, China). The analysis of nucleotide sequence was done by the BioEdit [86] and DNASTAR Lasergene (<http://www.dnastar.com/t-dnastar-lasergene.aspx>).

Kanamycin-resistant transgenic *Arabidopsis* T<sub>0</sub> plants were regenerated, allowed to self-fertilize and T<sub>1</sub> seeds were sown on medium containing kanamycin. Ten independently transformed kanamycin-resistant lines were self-fertilized and T<sub>2</sub> seed collected from each individual. Then ten individuals of T<sub>2</sub> generation were grown in LD condition (22 °C, 14 h photoperiod). Flowering time was measured as the number of days from sowing to the appearance of flower buds in the center of the plant rosette. In about 1 week before flowering, leaves of T<sub>2</sub> lines were collected from the wild type *Arabidopsis* and individuals with overexpressed *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2*.

### Expression analysis

Total mRNA was extracted using the RNA extraction kit EASYspin Plus Plant RNA Kit (Aidlab Biotechnologies, Beijing, China) according to the manufacturer’s instructions. The RNA was reverse-transcribed into cDNA using the iScript cDNA Synthesis kit (Bio-Rad, Hercules,

USA). The quantitative real-time PCR (qRT-PCR) experiments were performed with gene-specific primers in the reaction system of SYBR Green Supermix (Bio-rad, USA) on the CFX384 Real-Time System (Bio-Rad) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The qRT-PCR assay was performed in triplicate with independent individuals and the *actin* (*At3g18780*) and sesame *actin7* gene (*SIN\_1006268*) were used as internal controls for *Arabidopsis* and sesame genes, respectively. The expression data of *SiCOL1*, *SiCOL2*, *SiFT* (*SIN\_1009320*) and *FT* were quantified by the  $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$  method [87]. qRT-PCR primers used for sesame and transgenic *Arabidopsis* were listed in Additional file 1: Table S4. All primers were synthesized by Tsingke Company (Wuhan, China).

### Haplotype and network analyses

SNPs of *SiCOL1* in 132 landrace genomes were selected and downloaded from the SesameHapMap database (<http://www.ncgr.ac.cn/SesameHapMap/>) [13]. The *SiCOL1* sequence regions included coding region, promoter and intron. These 132 landraces were selected from 13 Asian countries, containing Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Burma, China, India, Japan, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, South Korea, Thailand, Uzbekistan, and Vietnam. Haplotypes of *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2* in these landraces were generated by DNASP version 6.0 [88].

Ten accessions of the landraces were selected and their *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2* genes were sequenced. The information of the accessions was available at Additional file 1: Table S3. There were two haplotypes of *SiCOL1* in these accessions -- Hap1 (S012, S016, S060, S062 and S075) and Hap15 (S050, S053, S054, S057 and S115 was Hap15). There were five haplotypes of *SiCOL2* in these accessions. The haplotype of *SiCOL2* in S050, S053, S057, S060 and S062 was Hap1. The haplotypes of *SiCOL2* in S012, S016, S054, S075 and S112 included Hap2, Hap3, Hap4 and Hap8. SNPs and Indels of these genes in the accessions were identified by aligning with ClustalX 2.0 [79]. Primers used in the PCR were provided in Additional file 1: Table S4.

The haplotype networks of *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2* were constructed by mutational steps with NETWORK 4.6 [89]. The networks represented the genetic distance of DNA sequences or alleles and were mainly consist of circles of different sizes and colors as well as lines that linked the circles. The circle size was proportional to the number of samples within a given haplotype, and the lines between the haplotypes represented mutational steps between the alleles.

The distribution of *SiCOL1* haplotypes was showed in a map of Asia. The original map was downloaded and adapted from "<https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:BlankMap-Asia.png>" (Bytebear at the English language Wikipedia). This original map is licensed

under the Creative Commons Attribution-Share Alike 3.0 Unported license, which allows us to share and adapt for free with proper attribution. *SiCOL1* haplotypes was indicated by different colors. The size of the circles was proportional to the number of sesame landraces.

### Additional file

**Additional file 1: Figure S1.** Phylogenetic relationships and structures of SiCOL proteins. **Figure S2.** Comparison of SiCOL1, SiCOL2 and CO protein sequences. **Figure S3.** Relative expression of *FT* in leaves of T<sub>2</sub> transgenic *Arabidopsis* lines with overexpressed *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2*. **Figure S4.** Relative expression of *SiCOL2* in different tissues and development stages of sesame. **Figure S5.** Relative diurnal expression of *SiCOL2* under LD and SD conditions. **Figure S6.** Nucleotide changes in the coding region of *SiCOL2* among cultivated sesame. **Figure S7.** Sequences of *SiCOL1* in ten sesame landraces. **Figure S8.** Haplotype network of *SiCOL2*. **Table S1.** Information of B-box gene family and CCT-containing gene family in sesame genome. **Table S2.** Days to flowering of *Arabidopsis* samples. **Table S3.** Information of the sesame landraces from Asia used in the present study. **Table S4.** Primers used in the qRT-PCR. (PDF 634 kb)

### Abbreviations

Aa: Amino acid; BLAST: Basic local alignment search tool; CCT: CONSTANS, CONSTANS-like, TIMING OF CAB EXPRESSION 1; CDD: Conserved domain database; COL: CONSTANS-like; FT: FLOWERING LOCUS T; GSDS: Gene structure display server; HMM: Hidden Markov model; LD: Long day; LGs: Linkage groups; MEME: Multiple Em for Motif Elicitation; NJ: Neighbor-joining; qRT-PCR: quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction; QTLs: Quantitative trait loci; SD: Short day; SMART: Simple modular architecture research tool; SNP: Single nucleotide polymorphism; WGD: Whole genome duplication

### Acknowledgements

We are grateful to Prof. Xuehui Huang from Shanghai Normal University for the help of language editing. We thank Ms. Lixia Huang, Ms. Yiting Wu, Ms. Yuan Li and Ms. Yuan Gao from Oil Crops Research Institute of the Chinese Academy of Agricultural Sciences for their help in the experiments.

### Funding

This work was funded by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (31671282), Technology Innovation Project of the Chinese Academy of Agricultural Sciences (CAAS-ASTIP-2013-OCRI), Shanghai Engineering Research Center of Plant Germplasm Resources (17DZ2252700), and Hubei Chenguang Talented Youth Development Foundation to XW.

### Availability of data and materials

The datasets supporting the conclusions of this article are included within the article and its additional files; Sesame genome sequence in this article is offered in the sesame genome database (<http://ocri-genomics.org/Sinbase/>); The protein sequences of CO and CO homologs can be found from NCBI (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/>); The SNPs of *SiCOL1* and *SiCOL2* are available at SesameHapMap (<http://www.ncgr.ac.cn/SesameHapMap/>); The *Arabidopsis thaliana* gene sequences in this article were downloaded from TAIR (<https://www.arabidopsis.org/>). All plant materials were selected from sesame germplasm provided by the Oil Crops Research Institute, Chinese Academy of Agricultural Sciences, Wuhan, China.

### Authors' contributions

XW and ZX conceived and designed the experiments. RZ, PL and DL performed the experiments. XW, RZ and PL analyzed the data. XW and RZ wrote the manuscript. All authors have read and approved the final manuscript.

### Ethics approval and consent to participate

Not applicable.

**Consent for publication**

Not applicable.

**Competing interests**

The authors declare that they have no competing interest.

**Publisher's Note**

Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

**Author details**

<sup>1</sup>Key Laboratory of Biology and Genetic Improvement of Oil Crops of the Ministry of Agriculture, Oil Crops Research Institute of the Chinese Academy of Agricultural Sciences, Wuhan 430062, China. <sup>2</sup>College of Life Sciences, Shanghai Normal University, Shanghai 200234, China.

Received: 3 August 2018 Accepted: 30 November 2018

Published online: 10 December 2018

**References**

- Yan L, Loukoianov A, Tranquilli G, Helguera M, Fahima T, Dubcovsky J. Positional cloning of the wheat vernalization gene *VRN1*. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2003;100(10):6263–8.
- Yano M, Katayose Y, Ashikari M, Yamanouchi U, Monna L, Fuse T, Baba T, Yamamoto K, Umehara Y, Nagamura Y. Hd1, a major photoperiod sensitivity quantitative trait locus in rice, is closely related to the *Arabidopsis* flowering time gene *CONSTANS*. *Plant Cell*. 2000;12(12):2473–84.
- Putterill J, Robson F, Lee K, Simon R, Coupland G. The *CONSTANS* gene of *Arabidopsis* promotes flowering and encodes a protein showing similarities to zinc-finger transcription factors. *Cell*. 1995;80(6):847–57.
- Halliday KJ, Koornneef M, Whitelam GC. *Phytochrome B* and at least one other phytochrome mediate the accelerated flowering response of *Arabidopsis thaliana* L. to low red/far-red ratio. *Plant Physiol*. 1994; 104(4):1311–5.
- Paradiso R, De Pascale S. Effects of plant size, temperature, and light intensity on flowering of *Phalaenopsis* hybrids in Mediterranean greenhouses. *Sci World J*. 2014;2014:420807.
- Jackson SD. Plant responses to photoperiod. *New Phytol*. 2009;181(3):517–31.
- Schiessl S, Iniguez-Luy F, Qian W, Snowdon RJ. Diverse regulatory factors associate with flowering time and yield responses in winter-type *Brassica napus*. *BMC Genomics*. 2015;16:737.
- Sun X, Cahill J, Van Hautegeem T, Feys K, Whipple C, Novak O, Delbare S, Versteede C, Demuyck K, De Block J, et al. Altered expression of maize *PLASTOCHRON1* enhances biomass and seed yield by extending cell division duration. *Nat Commun*. 2017;8:14752.
- Bedigian D. Evolution of sesame revisited: domestication, diversity and prospects. *Genet Resour Crop Ev*. 2003;50(7):779–87.
- Fuller DQ. Further evidence on the prehistory of sesame. *Asian Agri History*. 2003;7(2):127–37.
- Kumazaki T, Yamada Y, Karaya S, Tokumitsu T, Hirano T, Yasumoto S, Katsuta M, Michiyama H. Effects of day length and air temperature on stem growth and flowering in sesame. *Plant Prod Sci*. 2008;11(2):178–83.
- Sinha SK, Tomar DPS, Deshmukh PS. Photoperiodic response and yield potential of *sesamum* genotypes. *Indian J Genet Plant Breed*. 1973;33:293–6.
- Wei X, Liu K, Zhang Y, Feng Q, Wang L, Zhao Y, Li D, Zhao Q, Zhu X, Zhu X, et al. Genetic discovery for oil production and quality in sesame. *Nat Commun*. 2015;6:8609.
- Park DH, Somers DE, Kim YS, Choy YH, Lim HK, Soh MS, Kim HJ, Kay SA, Nam HG. Control of circadian rhythms and photoperiodic flowering by the *Arabidopsis* *GIGANTEA* gene. *Science*. 1999;285(5433):1579–82.
- Suarez-Lopez P, Wheatley K, Robson F, Onouchi H, Valverde F, Coupland G. *CONSTANS* mediates between the circadian clock and the control of flowering in *Arabidopsis*. *Nature*. 2001;410(6832):1116–20.
- Tiwari SB, Shen Y, Chang HC, Hou YL, Harris A, Ma SF, McPartland M, Hymus GJ, Adam L, Marion C, et al. The flowering time regulator *CONSTANS* is recruited to the *FLOWERING LOCUS T* promoter via a unique cis-element. *New Phytol*. 2010;187(1):57–66.
- Song YH, Shim JS, Kinmonth-Schultz HA, Imaizumi T. Photoperiodic flowering: time measurement mechanisms in leaves. *Annu Rev Plant Biol*. 2015;66:441–64.
- Brambilla V, Fornara F. Molecular control of flowering in response to day length in rice. *J Integr Plant Biol*. 2013;55(5):410–8.
- Izawa T, Oikawa T, Sugiyama N, Tanisaka T, Yano M, Shimamoto K. Phytochrome mediates the external light signal to repress *FT* orthologs in photoperiodic flowering of rice. *Genes Dev*. 2002;16(15):2006–20.
- Kojima S, Takahashi Y, Kobayashi Y, Monna L, Sasaki T, Araki T, Yano M. *Hd3a*, a rice ortholog of the *Arabidopsis* *FT* gene, promotes transition to flowering downstream of *Hd1* under short-day conditions. *Plant Cell Physiol*. 2002;43(10):1096–105.
- Almada R, Cabrera N, Casaretto JA, Ruiz-Lara S, Villanueva EG. *VvCO* and *VvCOL1*, two *CONSTANS* homologous genes, are regulated during flower induction and dormancy in grapevine buds. *Plant Cell Rep*. 2009;28(8): 1193–203.
- Cai D, Liu H, Sang N, Huang X. Identification and characterization of *CONSTANS-like* (*COL*) gene family in upland cotton (*Gossypium hirsutum* L.). *PLoS One*. 2017;12(6):e0179038.
- Griffiths S, Dunford RP, Coupland G, Laurie DA. The evolution of *CONSTANS*-like gene families in barley, rice, and *Arabidopsis*. *Plant Physiol*. 2003;131(4):1855–67.
- Jeong DH, Sung SK, An G. Molecular cloning and characterization of constans-like cDNA clones of the Fuji apple. *J Plant Biol*. 1999;42(1):23–31.
- Liu J, Yu J, McIntosh L, Kende H, Zeevaert JA. Isolation of a *CONSTANS* ortholog from *Pharbitis nil* and its role in flowering. *Plant Physiol*. 2001; 125(4):1821–30.
- Martinez-Garcia JF, Virgos-Soler A, Prat S. Control of photoperiod-regulated tuberization in potato by the *Arabidopsis* flowering-time gene *CONSTANS*. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2002;99(23):15211–6.
- Miller TA, Muslin EH, Dorweiler JE. A maize *CONSTANS*-like gene, *conz1*, exhibits distinct diurnal expression patterns in varied photoperiods. *Planta*. 2008;227(6):1377–88.
- Nemoto Y, Kisaka M, Fuse T, Yano M, Ogihara Y. Characterization and functional analysis of three wheat genes with homology to the *CONSTANS* flowering time gene in transgenic rice. *Plant J*. 2003;36(1):82–93.
- Robert LS, Robson F, Sharpe A, Lydiate D, Coupland G. Conserved structure and function of the *Arabidopsis* flowering time gene *CONSTANS* in *Brassica napus*. *Plant Mol Biol*. 1998;37(5):763–72.
- Wu FQ, Price BW, Haider W, Seufferheld G, Nelson R, Hanzawa Y. Functional and evolutionary characterization of the *CONSTANS* gene family in short-day photoperiodic flowering in soybean. *PLoS One*. 2014;9(1):e85754.
- Rosas U, Mei Y, Xie Q, Banta JA, Zhou RW, Seufferheld G, Gerard S, Chou L, Bhambhra N, Parks JD, et al. Variation in *Arabidopsis* flowering time associated with cis-regulatory variation in *CONSTANS*. *Nat Commun*. 2014;5:3651.
- Ehrenreich IM, Hanzawa Y, Chou L, Roe JL, Kover PX, Purugganan MD. Candidate gene association mapping of *Arabidopsis* flowering time. *Genetics*. 2009;183(1):325–35.
- Takahashi Y, Teshima KM, Yokoi S, Innan H, Shimamoto K. Variations in Hd1 proteins, Hd3a promoters, and Ehd1 expression levels contribute to diversity of flowering time in cultivated rice. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2009;106(11):4555–60.
- Fujino K, Wu J, Sekiguchi H, Ito T, Izawa T, Matsumoto T. Multiple introgression events surrounding the *Hd1* flowering-time gene in cultivated rice, *Oryza sativa* L. *Mol Gen Genomics*. 2010;284(2):137–46.
- Wei X, Qiao W, Yuan N, Chen Y, Wang R, Cao L, Zhang W, Yang Q, Zeng H. Domestication and association analysis of Hd1 in Chinese mini-core collections of rice. *Genet Resour Crop Evol*. 2014;61(1):121–42.
- Chia TYP, Muller A, Jung C, Mutasa-Gottgens ES. Sugar beet contains a large *CONSTANS-LIKE* gene family including a CO homologue that is independent of the early-bolting (B) gene locus. *J Exp Bot*. 2008;59(10):2735–48.
- Chou ML, Shih MC, Chan MT, Liao SY, Hsu CT, Huang YT, Chen JJ, Liao DC, Wu FH, Lin CS. Global transcriptome analysis and identification of a *CONSTANS-like* gene family in the orchid *Erycina pusilla*. *Planta*. 2013; 237(6):1425–41.
- Fu J, Yang L, Dai S. Identification and characterization of the *CONSTANS-like* gene family in the short-day plant *Chrysanthemum lavandulifolium*. *Mol Gen Genomics*. 2015;290(3):1039–54.
- Song N, Xu Z, Wang J, Qin Q, Jiang H, Si W, Li X. Genome-wide analysis of maize *CONSTANS-LIKE* gene family and expression profiling under light/dark and abscisic acid treatment. *Gene*. 2018;673:1–11.
- Zobell O, Coupland G, Reiss B. The family of *CONSTANS-like* genes in *Physcomitrella patens*. *Plant Biol*. 2005;7(3):266–75.

41. Robson F, Costa MM, Hepworth SR, Vizir I, Pineiro M, Reeves PH, Putterill J, Coupland G. Functional importance of conserved domains in the flowering-time gene *CONSTANS* demonstrated by analysis of mutant alleles and transgenic plants. *Plant J*. 2001;28(6):619–31.
42. Khanna R, Kronmiller B, Maszle DR, Coupland G, Holm M, Mizuno T, Wu SH. The *Arabidopsis* B-box zinc finger family. *Plant Cell*. 2009;21(11):3416–20.
43. Wang L, Yu S, Tong C, Zhao Y, Liu Y, Song C, Zhang Y, Zhang X, Wang Y, Hua W, et al. Genome sequencing of the high oil crop sesame provides insight into oil biosynthesis. *Genome Biol*. 2014;15(2):R39.
44. Wei X, Zhu X, Yu J, Wang L, Zhang Y, Li D, Zhou R, Zhang X. Identification of sesame genomic variations from genome comparison of landrace and variety. *Front Plant Sci*. 2016;7:1169.
45. Zhang HY, Miao HM, Wang L, Qu LB, Liu HY, Wang Q, Yue MW. Genome sequencing of the important oilseed crop *Sesamum indicum* L. *Genome Biol*. 2013;14(1):401.
46. Li D, Liu P, Yu J, Wang L, Dossa K, Zhang Y, Zhou R, Wei X, Zhang X. Genome-wide analysis of *WRKY* gene family in the sesame genome and identification of the *WRKY* genes involved in responses to abiotic stresses. *BMC Plant Biol*. 2017;17(1):152.
47. Wang YY, Zhang YJ, Zhou R, Dossa K, Yu JY, Li DH, Liu AL, Mmadi MA, Zhang XR, You J. Identification and characterization of the bZIP transcription factor family and its expression in response to abiotic stresses in sesame. *PLoS One*. 2018;13(7):e0200850.
48. Yu J, Wang L, Guo H, Liao B, King G, Zhang X. Genome evolutionary dynamics followed by diversifying selection explains the complexity of the *Sesamum indicum* genome. *BMC Genomics*. 2017;18(1):257.
49. Ben-Naim O, Eshed R, Parnis A, Teper-Bamnolker P, Shalit A, Coupland G, Samach A, Lifschitz E. The CCAAT binding factor can mediate interactions between *CONSTANS*-like proteins and DNA. *Plant J*. 2006;46(3):462–76.
50. Gangappa SN, Botto JF. The BBX family of plant transcription factors. *Trends Plant Sci*. 2014;19(7):460–70.
51. Kardailsky I, Shukla VK, Ahn JH, Dagenais N, Christensen SK, Nguyen JT, Chory J, Harrison MJ, Weigel D. Activation tagging of the floral inducer *FT*. *Science*. 1999;286(5446):1962–5.
52. Bedigian D. Characterization of sesame (*Sesamum indicum* L.) germplasm: a critique. *Genet Resour Crop Ev*. 2010;57(5):641–7.
53. Huang XH, Kurata N, Wei XH, Wang ZX, Wang A, Zhao Q, Zhao Y, Liu KY, Lu HY, Li WJ, et al. A map of rice genome variation reveals the origin of cultivated rice. *Nature*. 2012;490(7421):497.
54. Hyten DL, Song Q, Zhu Y, Choi IY, Nelson RL, Costa JM, Specht JE, Shoemaker RC, Cregan PB. Impacts of genetic bottlenecks on soybean genome diversity. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2006;103(45):16666–71.
55. Altschul SF, Madden TL, Schaffer AA, Zhang J, Zhang Z, Miller W, Lipman DJ. Gapped BLAST and PSI-BLAST: a new generation of protein database search programs. *Nucleic Acids Res*. 1997;25(17):3389–402.
56. Hayama R, Yokoi S, Tamaki S, Yano M, Shimamoto K. Adaptation of photoperiodic control pathways produces short-day flowering in rice. *Nature*. 2003;422(6933):719–22.
57. Kameda Y. Genetic regulation of time to flower in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. *Annu Rev Plant Biol*. 2004;55:521–35.
58. Ledger S, Strayer C, Ashton F, Kay SA, Putterill J. Analysis of the function of two circadian-regulated *CONSTANS*-LIKE genes. *Plant J*. 2001;26(1):15–22.
59. Cao D, Li Y, Lu SJ, Wang JL, Nan HY, Li XM, Shi DN, Fang C, Zhai H, Yuan XH, et al. *GmCOL1a* and *GmCOL1b* function as flowering repressors in soybean under long-day conditions. *Plant Cell Physiol*. 2015;56(12):2409–22.
60. Kurokura T, Samad S, Koskela E, Mouhu K, Hytonen T. *Fragaria vesca* *CONSTANS* controls photoperiodic flowering and vegetative development. *J Exp Bot*. 2017;68(17):4839–50.
61. Datta S, Hettiarachchi GHCM, Deng XW, Holm M. *Arabidopsis* *CONSTANS*-LIKE3 is a positive regulator of red light signaling and root growth. *Plant Cell*. 2006;18(1):70–84.
62. Min JH, Chung JS, Lee KH, Kim CS. The *CONSTANS*-like 4 transcription factor, *AtCOL4*, positively regulates abiotic stress tolerance through an abscisic acid-dependent manner in *Arabidopsis*. *J Integr Plant Biol*. 2015;57(3):313–24.
63. Ordóñez-Herrera N, Trimborn L, Menje M, Henschel M, Robbers L, Kaufholdt D, Hansch R, Adrian J, Ponnu J, Hoecker U. The transcription factor *COL12* is a substrate of the COP1/SPA E3 ligase and regulates flowering time and plant architecture. *Plant Physiol*. 2018;176(2):1327–40.
64. Tripathi P, Carvallo M, Hamilton EE, Preuss S, Kay SA. *Arabidopsis* *B-BOX32* interacts with *CONSTANS*-LIKE3 to regulate flowering. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2017;114(1):172–7.
65. Inoue J, Sato Y, Sinclair R, Tsukamoto K, Nishida M. Rapid genome reshaping by multiple-gene loss after whole-genome duplication in teleost fish suggested by mathematical modeling. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2015; 112(48):14918–23.
66. Hung HY, Shannon LM, Tian F, Bradbury PJ, Chen C, Flint-Garcia SA, McMullen MD, Ware D, Buckler ES, Doebley JF, et al. *ZmCCT* and the genetic basis of day-length adaptation underlying the postdomestication spread of maize. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2012;109(28):E1913–21.
67. Liu H, Li Q, Xing Y. Genes contributing to domestication of rice seed traits and its global expansion. *Genes*. 2018;9(10).
68. Zhang SR, Wang H, Wang Z, Ren Y, Niu L, Liu J, Liu B. Photoperiodism dynamics during the domestication and improvement of soybean. *Sci China Life Sci*. 2017;60(12):1416–27.
69. Wei X, Xu J, Guo H, Jiang L, Chen S, Yu C, Zhou Z, Hu P, Zhai H, Wan J. *DTH8* suppresses flowering in rice, influencing plant height and yield potential simultaneously. *Plant Physiol*. 2010;153(4):1747–58.
70. Wu W, Zheng XM, Lu G, Zhong Z, Gao H, Chen L, Wu C, Wang HJ, Wang Q, Zhou K, et al. Association of functional nucleotide polymorphisms at *DTH2* with the northward expansion of rice cultivation in Asia. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2013;110(8):2775–80.
71. Xue W, Xing Y, Weng X, Zhao Y, Tang W, Wang L, Zhou H, Yu S, Xu C, Li X, et al. Natural variation in *Ghd7* is an important regulator of heading date and yield potential in rice. *Nat Genet*. 2008;40(6):761–7.
72. Hori K, Matsubara K, Yano M. Genetic control of flowering time in rice: integration of Mendelian genetics and genomics. *Theor Appl Genet*. 2016; 129(12):2241–52.
73. Soyk S, Muller NA, Park SJ, Schmalenbach I, Jiang K, Hayama R, Zhang L, Van Eck J, Jimenez-Gomez JM, Lippman ZB. Variation in the flowering gene *SELF PRUNING 5G* promotes day-neutrality and early yield in tomato. *Nat Genet*. 2017;49(1):162–8.
74. Wang L, Yu J, Li D, Zhang X. Sinbase: an integrated database to study genomics, genetics and comparative genomics in *Sesamum indicum*. *Plant Cell Physiol*. 2015;56(1):e2.
75. Finn RD, Coghill P, Eberhardt RY, Eddy SR, Mistry J, Mitchell AL, Potter SC, Punta M, Qureshi M, Sangrador-Vegas A, et al. The Pfam protein families database: towards a more sustainable future. *Nucleic Acids Res*. 2016;44(D1):D279–85.
76. Finn RD, Clements J, Eddy SR. HMMER web server: interactive sequence similarity searching. *Nucleic Acids Res*. 2011;39(Web Server issue):W29–37.
77. Marchler-Bauer A, Derbyshire MK, Gonzales NR, Lu S, Chitsaz F, Geer LY, Geer RC, He J, Gwadz M, Hurwitz DJ, et al. CDD: NCBI's conserved domain database. *Nucleic Acids Res*. 2015;43(Database issue):D222–6.
78. Letunic I, Bork P. 20 years of the SMART protein domain annotation resource. *Nucleic Acids Res*. 2018;46(D1):D493–6.
79. Larkin MA, Blackshields G, Brown NP, Chenna R, McGettigan PA, McWilliam H, Valentin F, Wallace IM, Willm A, Lopez R, et al. Clustal W and Clustal X version 2.0. *Bioinformatics*. 2007;23(21):2947–8.
80. Saitou N, Nei M. The neighbor-joining method: a new method for reconstructing phylogenetic trees. *Mol Biol Evol*. 1987;4(4):406–25.
81. Tamura K, Stecher G, Peterson D, Filipski A, Kumar S. MEGA6: molecular evolutionary genetics analysis version 6.0. *Mol Biol Evol*. 2013;30(12):2725–9.
82. Ibarra-Laclette E, Lyons E, Hernandez-Guzman G, Perez-Torres CA, Carretero-Paulet L, Chang TH, Lan T, Welch AJ, Juarez MJ, Simpson J, et al. Architecture and evolution of a minute plant genome. *Nature*. 2013; 498(7452):94–8.
83. Bailey TL, Boden M, Buske FA, Frith M, Grant CE, Clementi L, Ren J, Li WW, Noble WS. MEME SUITE: tools for motif discovery and searching. *Nucleic Acids Res*. 2009;37(Web Server):W202–8.
84. Hu B, Jin J, Guo AY, Zhang H, Luo J, Gao G. GSDS 2.0: an upgraded gene feature visualization server. *Bioinformatics*. 2015;31(8):1296–7.
85. Clough SJ, Bent AF. Floral dip: a simplified method for agrobacterium-mediated transformation of *Arabidopsis thaliana*. *Plant J*. 1998;16(6):735–43.
86. Hall TA. BioEdit: a user-friendly biological sequence alignment editor and analysis program for windows 95/98/NT. *Nucleic Acids Symp*. 1999;41:95–8.
87. Livak KJ, Schmittgen TD. Analysis of relative gene expression data using real-time quantitative PCR and the  $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$  method. *Methods*. 2001;25(4):402–8.
88. Rozas J, Ferrer-Mata A, Sanchez-DelBarrio JC, Guirao-Rico S, Librado P, Ramos-Onsins SE, Sanchez-Gracia A. DnaSP 6: DNA sequence polymorphism analysis of large data sets. *Mol Biol Evol*. 2017;34(12):3299–302.
89. Bandelt HJ, Forster P, Rohl A. Median-joining networks for inferring intraspecific phylogenies. *Mol Biol Evol*. 1999;16(1):37–48.