



# Photoperiod trait: Insight in molecular mechanism for growth and maturity adaptation of soybean (*Glycine max*) to different latitudes

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## Abstract

Soybeans cover a vast geographical region of 53°N to 40°S latitudes, but individual genotypes have a very narrow latitudinal adaptation of ~200 km due to photoperiodic limitations. Fourteen soybean maturity groups (MG0000-X) of Northern America have genotypes adapted to very long (MG0000) to short (X) day length conditions. Photoperiod not only affects flowering but other agronomic traits also. Several maturity genes have been mapped, and 12 genes related to the photoperiodic network (*E1*, *E2*, *E3*, *E4*, *J*, *FT2a*, *FT5a*, *Tof5*, *Tof11*, *Tof12*, *Tof16* and *Tof18*) have been functionally characterized. The role of the paralogues of functionally characterized genes (*E1*Ls, *CO*s, *PRR*s, *FUL*s, *SOC*s and *FT*s) is being recently elucidated. Allelic diversity at photoperiodic loci confers latitude specific adaptation. Molecular models (common allelic combination present in an MG) have been developed for different MG using *E* genes but require refining by the addition of other functionally characterized genes to fully explain the flowering and maturity, especially in MG V to X. Three interacting modules *PHYA-E1*, *GI-CO* and miRNA-dependent have been developed to elucidate the flowering mechanism in soybean.

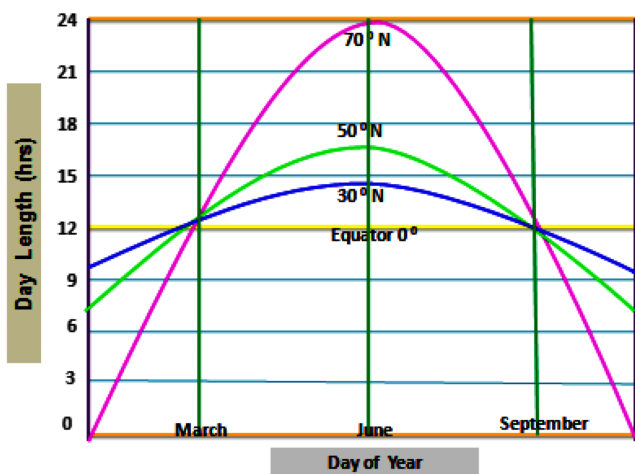
## KEYWORDS

flowering, latitudes, maturity, phenology, photoperiod, soybean

## 1 | INTRODUCTION

Optimum time for transition from vegetative to reproductive phase to produce progenies in conducive environmental conditions is crucial for survival of plants species. In response to environmental cues, photoperiodism and vernalization are major reactions in plants responsible for this switch. Induction of flowering in response to prolonged photoperiod and low temperatures (vernalization) ensures development of seed in the environment suitable for their survival (Dennis & Peacock, 2009). Garner and Allard (1920) for the first time

described that many plants flowers in response to changes in day length. They demonstrated that some plant species promote flowering when day length falls below a critical day length (short-day plants), whereas other plants accelerate flowering in response to day lengths longer than a critical day length (long-day plants). While obligate photosensitive, they do not flower till they are exposed to inductive day length, the quantitative photosensitive delay flowering. Day length is greatly affected by latitudes and seasons (Figure 1). While the day length remains constant at equator, it increases with latitudes. Although photoperiodism is a survival mechanism, yet it becomes an



**FIGURE 1** Association of day length (hours) with the day length at latitudes [Color figure can be viewed at [wileyonlinelibrary.com](http://wileyonlinelibrary.com)]

abiotic stress when plant species are introduced in new geographical area or season. For example, when genotype of a short day species from higher latitude area is introduced in short day conditions of lower latitudes, they would flower too early with little biomass and economic yield. Similarly, introduction of genotypes from lower latitude areas in higher latitudes would result in delayed flowering accompanied with excessive vegetative biomass and probable death of plants due to extreme frost conditions later in the season. Soybean is a quantitative photosensitive short day crop. Flowering in soybeans is induced after 5–7 days of exposure to the day length which is shorter than their critical day length (CDL) (Destro et al., 2001; Garner & Allard, 1920; Nogge & Fritz, 1983; Watanabe et al., 2012; Whigham & Minor, 1978). A soybean genotype flowering in 12 h/days in inductive day length conditions may take up to 16 h/days to flower under non-inductive conditions or may not flower at all (Cober & Curtis, 2003). Soybean has originated from its wild ancestor *Glycine soja* in longer photoperiodic and temperate climatic regime of China (Hymowitz, 1970). The crop has adapted from 53°N to 40°S latitudes (Fang et al., 2021). The day length variation in these latitudes varies from 12 h (equator) to 15–16 h (40–50°) during soybean growing seasons. Although soybean as a crop has adapted to such a large latitudinal zone, its individual genotypes adapt to a very narrow latitudinal band of 200 km (Scott & Aldrich, 1983). When genotypes adapted to northern region are grown in southern regions, they flower sooner with less vegetative growth and have lower yield. Conversely, genotypes of higher latitudes when grown in northern regions often flower late in the growing season and do not mature before a killing frost (Lin et al., 2021). Therefore, to solve this contradiction between early maturity and high yield in southern regions, and facilitate designing and breeding of high yielding cultivars, understanding of genetic and molecular mechanism regulating photoperiodic flowering and maturity is imperative (Luo et al., 2022).

Maturity and photoperiodic genes has been the most studied subject in soybean. This article reviews the identification of photoperiodic nature of the crop, inheritance of photosensitivity and identification

of loci governing the traits. Moreover, the review focuses on the identification of molecular markers and assigning genes to the photoperiodic loci, genes characterization, correlating multi-allelic combinations of photoperiodic genes with geographical distribution of the crop, molecular pathways and utilizing this trait in breeding programmes.

## 2 | EFFECT OF PHOTOPERIOD ON SOYBEAN PHENOLOGY

Garner and Allard (1920) were the first to demonstrate the effect of day length on soybean (*Glycine max* [L.] Merr.) flowering. Four soybean varieties, namely, 'Mandarin' (early), 'Peking' (medium), 'Tokyo' (medium) and 'Biloxi' (late), were planted at frequent intervals throughout the growing season and also grown under partially controlled conditions in Washington, DC. In early planting, these cultivars required about 25, 55, 65 and 95 days, respectively, for attaining the flowering stage. These durations were reduced to 25–35 days under artificially shortened day length in mid-summer in field and in naturally shortened days of winters in warm greenhouse. They also conducted an experiment in which these varieties were successively planted at 4–6 days duration from 16 May to 18 August. It was found that the vegetative period shortened due to reduced day length in all the varieties except Mandarin and plant heights were always greater in early sowings. In all, except the very early variety Mandarin, the effects of temperature and length of day on late spring and early summer plantings were additive, both the rising temperature and the decreasing day length favoured earlier flowering with advance of the season. In mid-summer, the average temperature seems to be near the optimum, and only the length of the day acts as a major limiting factor. After mid-summer, when the average temperature begins to fall, effect of day length and temperature on flowering becomes contrast, the former tends to hasten flowering and the latter delays it. In case of Mandarin, neither day length nor temperature was an important limiting factor in mid-summer, while in spring and early fall, temperature was the only primary factor. They concluded that the differences in behaviour of soybean varieties with respect to time of flowering are due primarily to length of day while the relatively low temperatures of late spring and early fall exercise a retarding influence on the flowering stage in both the very early and the very late plantings of all varieties.

Role of darkness in photoperiodic induction and genotypic differences for light duration for flowering were established in a number of studies (Borthwick & Parker, 1939; Hamner, 1940). Very long photoperiods (16–18 h) could also induce flowering if a dark period of 16 h is given in each cycle after photoperiods (Hamner, 1940). During 1950s and 1960s, a number of evidences suggested that floral induction is mediated by an endogenous rhythm with periods of approximately 24 h (Bunning, 1958, 1959, 1960a, 1960b; Bunsow, 1960; Hamner, 1940, 1958, 1960). Nanda and Hamner (1958) and Blaney and Hamner (1957) showed the rhythmical response of photoperiod

on floral bud initiation in soybean. They found that among the seven photoinductive cycles of 8 h of photoperiod followed by the dark period the maximum floral induction response was in 24, 48 and 72 h cycles and the least in 36 and 60 h cycles. Based on their results, they concluded that flowering response is influenced to a marked degree by some endogenous rhythm of 24 h duration and cooler temperatures affect this rhythm. It became evident that photoperiodic perception occurs primarily in leaves (Cajlachjan, 1936) and the most effective leaf on the plant for photoperiodic stimulation is the one that has most recently attained its full size (Borthwick & Parker, 1940). They demonstrated that grafting of stems, splice grafting of petioles, splice grafting of stems and bud from flowering varieties initiated and maintained flowering in non-flowering varieties (Heinze et al., 1942).

All of the phenological stages are affected by photoperiod in soybean (Guthrie, 1972). Seed size is reduced in Harosoy due to longer photoperiod, but another variety 'Acme' was insensitive (Guthrie, 1972). Shorter (11:40 h) and longer (13:20 h) photoperiods produced less pods (Huxley et al., 1976). Patterson et al. (1977) reported that delay of photoinduction in 'Ransom' cultivar resulted in enhanced yield due to more axillary nodes. In determinate cultivars, photoperiod mainly affects pre-flowering phase, while in indeterminate cultivars, it affects duration of flowering and maturity (Hodges & Doraiswamy, 1979). Thomas and Raper (1976, 1978) demonstrated that photoperiod not only affects flowering but pod setting, dry matter partitioning and seed weight also. Short photoperiods given on expansion of the paired primary leaves increased pod setting in the cultivar 'Ransom' (Thomas & Raper, 1976). Morandi et al. (1988) observed the effect of photoperiod on pod lengthening and seed filling duration in addition to flowering. Han et al. (2006) found that post-flowering photoperiod not only regulates reproductive development but also affected vegetative growth. Even when flowers and pods were removed, short-day (SD) treatment promoted leaf senescence. They proposed that the regulation of photoperiod on development of soybean was effective from emergence through maturation, and the post-flowering photoperiod signals were also mediated by phytochromes similar to those before flowering. Cober et al. (1996b) demonstrated that it is not only the photoperiod but the quality of light also affects the soybean flowering. Using different types of lamps for generating 20 h long photoperiodic regime, they showed that decreased Red (R): Far-red (FR) delayed the flowering. Kantolic and Slafer (2007) showed that duration of the R3–R6 period, pod and seed number increases in response to the extension of photoperiod. Zhang et al. (2001) reported that photoperiod length and treatment duration affects soybean floral bud initiation and floral bud development in a quantitative way. The exposure to long photoperiods from R3 to R5 (beginning of seed growth) increased the duration of R3–R6 regardless of the timing of exposure (Kantolic & Slafer, 2007). The stages of development comprised in the R3–R6 phase were delayed by current as well as by previous exposure to long days (LD). A positive relationship was found between seed number and the duration of R3–R6, irrespective of the timing and length of exposure to the long photoperiod.

### 3 | IDENTIFICATION OF MATURITY LOCI IN SOYBEAN

Photoperiodic genes were initially identified as flowering and maturity loci. In soybean, 12 loci have been reported to control time to flowering and maturity: *E1* and *E2* (Bernard, 1971), *E3* (Buzzell, 1971), *E4* (Buzzell & Voldeng, 1980), *E5* (McBlain & Bernard, 1987), *E6* (Bonato & Vello, 1999), *E7* (Cober & Voldeng, 2001), *E8* (Cober et al., 2010), *E9* (Kong et al., 2014), *E10* (Samanfar et al., 2017), *E11* (Wang et al., 2019) and *J* (Ray et al., 1995). Among these genes, Xia et al. (2012) reported that *E7* is not a separate locus but an allele of *E1*. Recently, *E6* has been identified as an allele of *J* locus (Fang et al., 2021). Photoperiod directly affects *E1*, *E3* and *E4* loci which in turn interact with *E2*, *E9* and *J* for regulating flowering and maturity response. Recently, several *time of flowering* (*Tof*) loci have been reported other than earlier known *E* loci (Dong, Cheng, et al., 2021; Dong, Fang, et al., 2021; Fang et al., 2017; Kou et al., 2022; Lu et al., 2020).

Woodworth (1923) for the first time identified a gene controlling plant height and maturity and reported the dominance of tall and late forms over short and early ones. Owen (1927) and Woodworth (1932) assigned it the name of *E* locus and found its linkage with the pubescence colour on linkage group I. A number of studies on *E1* locus described its effect and sources for dominant and recessive alleles (Hanson, 1961; Haque, 1964; Johnson et al., 1960; Johnson & Bernard, 1962; Matsuura, 1933; Morse & Cartter, 1937; Van Schaik & Probst, 1958; Weiss, 1949; Woodworth & Williams, 1938). Weiss (1970) reported its linkage with pubescence colour and chlorophyll deficiency on linkage group I. Bernard (1971) identified two independent gene pairs (*E1* and *E2*) which affected time of flowering and maturity when brought in a common genetic background (Clark) by backcrossing. Distinguish *e1E2* and *E1e2* were transferred to Clark from T175 and T245, respectively. Both of these genes had co-dominance, and flowering and maturity in isolines Clark (*E1E2*) and Clark (*E1e2*) were delayed by 23 and 18 days and nine and one day, respectively. Flowering and maturity was hastened by seven and 14 days in Clark (*e1e2*), respectively. Wilcox and Schapaugh (1978) also reported 14 days of early maturity in Clark-*e2*.

Buzzell (1971) studied the inheritance of flowering time under long-day conditions in the greenhouse using natural day length extended to 20 h with cool-white fluorescent light and identified a single major gene with two alleles (*E3/e3*) to control the flowering response in a cross between sensitive (Harosoy 63) and insensitive (Blackhawk) parents. The dominant allele conferred fluorescent-sensitive delayed flowering response and later maturity in field condition. The recessive allele conferred an insensitive response and resulted in earlier maturity which was confirmed by Bernard and Weiss (1973) under field conditions. Kilen and Hartwig (1971) also found the segregation of one gene in  $F_2$ s developed from fluorescent sensitive and insensitive parents, and Bernard and Weiss (1973) suggested that this was probably the same gene that Buzzell (1971) had reported. Buzzell (1971) and Bernard (1971) confirmed this suggestion and also demonstrated that *E2* and *E3* are different loci. In 1980, Buzzell and Voldeng, using a similar experimental design as the *E3* study,

screened more varieties under 20 h incandescent light exposures, and discovered another locus, *E4*, while *e4* is observed in fluorescent insensitive varieties, and *e3e4* is found in incandescent insensitive varieties (Voldeng & Saindon, 1991).

In the classical work, Cober et al. (1996b) correlated photoperiodic response and maturity alleles (*E1*, *E3*, *E4*) using different light qualities created by using red (R) and far red (FR) lamps in Harasoy isogenic lines. They showed that decreased R:FR had maximum photoperiodic response resulting in later flowering. *E1* allele required an R:FR approximating that of natural daylight for response to long days, and it was the most sensitive locus among three loci. Since the sensing of the R:FR ratio is the function of phytochrome protein in light-grown plants and *E1*, *E3* and *E4* responded differentially to changes in light qualities, they presumed that these loci are either part of phytochrome family of genes or have some close relation with them. Indeed, *E3* and *E4* genes were later found to encode *Phytochrome A* (*GmPhyA3* and *GmPhyA2*) and discussed later in the review.

McBlain and Bernard (1987) identified a new early maturity recessive allele while transferring dense pubescence trait (*Pd1*) to Harosoy from PI 80837. The new locus was designated as *E5*, and the genetic effect of *E5* on time to flowering and maturity was similar to that of *E2*. However, in a study by Dissanayaka et al. (2016), utilizing Harasoy and Clark isolines and also in original population in which *E5* was identified, no QTL related to this locus was found, and they suggested that the earlier reported effect is probably due to interaction of alleles at *E2* loci and no separate locus exists for *E5*.

*J* locus was identified by Ray et al. (1995) while studying the delayed flowering under short day conditions (long juvenility) in four near-isogenic pairs (NIPs). NIPs were developed using conventional juvenile and long juvenile parents (PI 159925) and were differed only at juvenility loci. A single recessive allele (*j*) from PI 159925 conferred this trait. Similarly, a single recessive locus controlling long juvenile trait was concluded by Villarroel and Kilen (2009); Tisselli (1981), Carpentieri-Pipolo et al. (2014), Yue et al. (2017), Lu et al. (2017) and Gupta et al. (2021). Bonato and Vello (1999) and Destro (1991) studied the inheritance of long juvenility in the two natural mutants (Paranagoiana and SS-1) of the cultivar ‘Parana’ and concluded that mutation occurred at the same locus and designated this locus as *E6*. In contrast to *E1*, *E2*, *E3* and *E4*, where dominant alleles conferred delayed flowering and maturity, the dominant alleles at *E6* and *J* loci hasten these responses. However recently it was confirmed that *e6* is an allele of *J* locus (Fang et al., 2021).

Cober et al. (2010) consistently detected a new maturity locus in  $F_2$ ,  $F_3$  and  $F_4$  generations of the cross of Maple Presto with its early maturing backcross derived line. They transferred this gene to Harosoy background and the isolines were nine and six days earlier in Maple Presto and Harosoy background, respectively. This gene was named as *E8*, and it added a new MG of 000 to the existing MG 00 to MG X. Although the role of this locus in photoperiodic regulation has not been revealed till now but its ability to reduce days to maturity

and to extend MG classification to MG 000, make it a candidate for the same.

Liu et al. (2007) developed RILs between determinate and early maturing TK780 (*Glycine max*), and indeterminate and late flowering and maturing *G. soja* accession Hidaka 4 and identified two QTLs for maturity on LG C2 and LG J. Kong et al. (2014) fine mapped the QTL on LG J and reported the *E9* locus with earliness being conferred by dominant allele.

Wang et al. (2019) consistently detected a QTL on chromosome 07 in a RIL population derived from a cross between Minsoy and Archer and named this locus as *E11*. Same as the *J* and *E9*, NILs for *E11* were significantly earlier in flowering and maturity than *e11* NILs.

In addition to these loci identified through classical breeding, comparative genomics of soybean with *Arabidopsis* flowering genes has shown the role of other genes like *FT2a*, *FT5a*, *GmmiR156b*, *PRR*, *FUL* in regulation of photoperiod regulated flowering (Jung et al., 2012; Kim et al., 2012; Lu et al., 2020; Sun et al., 2021; Watanabe et al., 2012). These genes and their role in photoperiodic flowering and maturity are described in gene characterization section.

## 4 | ASSOCIATING CLASSICAL PHOTOPERIODIC LOCI WITH CHROMOSOMES

Since 1990, many of the reports described the construction and integration of molecular (mostly) and classical linkage maps (Cober et al., 1996a; Keim et al., 1990; Lark et al., 1993; Mansur et al., 1996; Palmer & Hedges, 1993; Rafalski & Tingey, 1993; Shoemaker & Specht, 1995). In a major breakthrough, Cregan et al. (1999) for the first time mapped 606 SSR markers in three populations and developed a consensus set of 20 linkage groups (LG). In another classical work, Yamanaka et al. (2000, 2001) used a  $F_2$  population from the cross of Misuzudaizu and Moshidou Gong 503, in which for the first time they identified QTLs for flowering time using a RFLP (from expressed sequence tags) and SSR linkage map of 190  $F_2$  plants. These studies identified four flowering QTLs *FT1*, *FT2*, *FT3* and *FT4*. All of the 4 QTLs contributed to 88% of the total phenotypic variance for flowering. Since *E1* and T (4 cM) were linked in classical linkage maps and placed on LG C2, where *FT1* also mapped, *E1* was inferred to correspond to *FT1*. Cregan et al. (1999) positioned *E2* maturity locus on LG O which was positioned on LG 15 + 25 in Yamanaka's linkage map. Cregan et al. (1999) and Yamanaka et al. (2001) could putatively show that *E2* corresponds to *FT2*. Cober et al. (1996a) reported that *E3* is mapped at a distance of  $27.52 \pm 3.23$  cM from the growth habit locus *Dt1*. While Yamanaka et al. (2001) map the nearest marker for *FT3*, Satt373 was mapped at a distance of 37.4 cM from *Dt1* which suggested that *FT3* putatively corresponds to *E3*. Abe et al. (2003) hybridized ‘Ohyachi 2’ (*e3e3e4e4*), and the ILD-sensitive line, ‘Harosoy-e3’ (*e3e3E4E4*) and reported the segregation for *E4* with its linkage to *Enp*

TABLE 1 Details of photoperiodic genes with tagging markers

Gene ID	Orthologue	Cross combination	Location	Nearest marker	Gene function	References
E1 (Glyma06g23040)	B3 DNA binding protein and putative bipartite nuclear localization signal	Misuzudaizu × Moshidou Gong 503 (early)	Gm06; linkage group C2	Satt365, Satt557	Flowering and maturity	Bernard (1971); Watanabe et al. (2004); Xia et al. (2012)
E2 GmGla.(Glyma10_g36600)	GIGANTEA (GmGla)	Misuzudaizu (early) × Moshidou Gong 503	Gm10; linkage group O	138GA26	Flowering.	Bernard (1971); Watanabe et al. (2004); Watanabe et al. (2011)
E3 (Glyma19g41210)	Phytochrome A3(GmPhyA3)	Misuzudaizu × Moshidou Gong 503 (early)	Gm19; linkage group L	Satt229	Flowering	Buzzell (1971); Watanabe et al. (2009)
E4 (Glyma10g28170)	Phytochrome A2(GmPhyA2)	TK780 (TK) × Hidaka 4 (H4)	Gm20; linkage group I	Satt354	Flowering	Buzzell and Voldeng (1980); Liu et al. (2008)
E5		Harosoy × L64-4830	Gm10; linkage group O		Maturity	McBlain and Bernard (1987)
E6/J (Glyma04g050200.1/ Glyma04g05280)	ELF3	Paranagoiana × SS-1, Paranagoiana × (Harosoy) PGO (Paranagoiana × OT94-47)	Gm04; linkage group C1	Sat_337 and Satt396	Long juvenile	Cairo et al. (2002, 2009); Lu et al. (2017)
E7	-	-	Gm06; linkage group C2	Satt319	Maturity	Cober and Voldeng (2001); Molnar et al. (2003)
E8	GmCRY1a	-	Gm04; linkage group C1	Sat_404 and Satt136.	Maturity	Cober et al. (2010); Watanabe et al. (2012)
E9 (Glyma16_g26660)	GmFT2a	JS 93-05 × AGS 25	Gm16; linkage group J	Satt215 and Satt431, BARCOYSSR_16_1015 and BARCOYSSR_16_1017	Long juvenile	Kong et al. (2014),
E10(Glyma08g47810)	Flowering locus T (GmFT4)	OT98-17 (Maple Presto isolate) and OT02-18 (Harosoy)isoline)	Gm08; linkage group A2	Satt429, Satt538 and Satt378	Maturity	Samanfar et al. (2017)
E11 (Glyma07g48500)		Minsoy (PI27890) × Archer (PI54687)	Gm07;linkage group M	ID7079 and ID7088	Flowering	Wang et al. (2019)
Tof5	FRUITFULL (FUL)	-	Gm05; linkage group A1	GWAS	Flowering	Dong, Cheng, et al. (2021)
Tof11 & Tof12 (Glyma.U034500 & Glyma.12G073900)	PSUDO-RESPONSE REGULATOR (PRR)	Zigongdongdou × Heihe27	Gm11 & Gm12; linkage group B1 & H	GWAS	Flowering and maturity	Lu et al. (2017, 2020); Wang et al. (2020)
Tof16	LATE ELONGATED HYPOCOTYL (LHY)	-	Gm16; linkage group J	GWAS	Flowering	Dong, Fang, et al. (2021)
Tof18	SOC1	-	Gm18	GWAS	Flowering and stem node number	Kou et al. (2022)

(endopeptidase isozyme) located on LG 4. SSR markers Satt239 and Satt496 were identified as linked markers to *E4* (Abe et al., 2003). Molnar et al. (2003) used the isogenic lines for maturity in the genetic background of Harasoy, Maple Arrow and Maple Ambre and confirmed the location of *E1* and *E3* loci on C2 and L linkage groups and located *E4* and *E7* to LG I and C2, respectively.

A long juvenile (LJ) accession PI159925, which showed delayed flowering in short day condition was used to map LJ locus *J* between the SSR markers Sat\_337 and Satt396 on chromosome 04 (Cairo et al., 2009; Lu et al., 2017). Yue et al. (2017) used a RIL population developed from the cross Zhonghuang 24 (Conventional juvenile) x Huaxia 3 (LJ) for mapping the LJ trait and identified a QTL on chromosome 04 (LG C1) to which *J* locus was previously mapped. A new locus for delayed flowering *E6*, was mapped near *J* locus (Lu et al., 2017), which was later confirmed as an allele of *J* (Fang et al., 2021; Nissan et al., 2021). Against *E6* and *J*, which have been identified by involving LJ and conventional juvenile parents, another flowering locus *E9* was mapped to LG J between Satt215 and Satt431, through QTL analysis of early flowering trait (Kong et al., 2014). Cober et al. (2010) mapped *E8* between Sat\_404 and Satt136 on chromosome C1, and Samanfar et al. (2017) mapped *E10* on LG A2 near SSR markers Satt429, Satt538 and Satt378. Wang et al. (2019) mapped *E11* on chromosome 7 in a RIL population derived from a cross between Minsoy and Archer. Through fine mapping they delimited the QTL region to 40.1 kb between BARCSOYSSR\_16\_1015 and BARCSOYSSR\_16\_1017 markers (Tables 1 and 2).

## 5 | CHARACTERIZATION OF GENES INVOLVED IN PHOTOPERIODIC REGULATORY PATHWAY

### 5.1 | *E1*, *E1La* and *E1Lb* genes

The major flowering locus *E1* (*FT1*) was located on LG C2 (Yamanaka et al., 2000, 2001, and Yamanaka et al. (2005) fine mapped this locus using novel strategy of residual heterozygous lines (RHL) developed using Misuzudaizu and Moshidou Gong 503 as parents. Through fine mapping, *FT1* was narrowed down between satt365 and GM169 separated with recombination distance of 1.5 cM. Using positional cloning in population derived from crossing two *E1* NILs, Harasoy-*E1* (*E1e2E3E4e5*) and Harasoy-*e1* (*e1e2E3E4e5*), Xia et al. (2012) delimited the *E1* locus to 17.4 Kb region and identified *E1* as an intron free gene. The *E1* encodes a putative transcription factor which contains a putative bipartite nuclear localization signal and a region distantly related to B3 domain. They demonstrated that *E1* expression was significantly suppressed under short-day conditions and showed a bimodal diurnal pattern under long-day conditions, suggesting its response to photoperiod and its dominant effect induced by long-day length. Xia et al. (2021) demonstrated that the main effect of *E1* is to delay flowering under long day condition through negative regulation of *GmFT2a* and *GmFT5a*, two homologues of *FLOWERING LOCUS T* that promote flowering in Arabidopsis (discussed below). *E1* genes have four allelic forms, out of these two are, that is, *e1-nl* (lack 130 kbp region harbouring the entire gene) and *e1-fs* (single base

Gene name	Gene ID	Sequence (in bp)	Number of exons	Amino acid encode
<i>E1</i>	Glyma06 g23040	.525/447 bp	1 Start-20007207 End-20007654	149 aa
<i>E2</i>	Glyma10 g36600	22.5/21,357 bp	14 Start-44716808 End-44738165	1178 aa
<i>E3</i>	Glyma19g41210	10.1/8,957 bp	4 Start-47511095 End-47520052	1131 aa
<i>E4</i>	Glyma10g28170	5.5/4,655 bp	4 Start-36963843 End-36968498	1131 aa
<i>E6</i>	Glyma04g05280	4,383 bp	4 Start-4026874 End-4031257	715 aa
<i>E9</i>	Glyma16 g26660	4,964 bp	4 Start-31109999 End-31114963	177 aa
<i>E10</i>	Glyma08g47810	1,720 bp	4 Start-46606934 End-46608654	176 aa

**TABLE 2** Photoperiodic genes with gene ID, exons and amino acid encode

deletion that cause a frameshift mutation that generates a premature stop codon). The conventional dominant allele *E1* differs from recessive allele *e1* (now designated as *e1-as*) which has single amino acid substitution in the putative nuclear localization signal that suppresses the nuclear localization of the protein. Two paralogs of *E1*, *E1La* and *E1Lb*, are present in soybean (Xia et al., 2012; Xu et al., 2015). The expression patterns of these two genes are also similar to that of *E1* under both long and short day conditions. Like *E1*, both genes function as inhibitors of flowering (Xu et al., 2015). Zhu et al. (2019) identified a novel non-functional allele of *E1-Lb* in the Far-Eastern Russian soybean cultivar 'Zeika' (ZE) and supported the findings of Xu et al. (2015). A missense mutation in the *E1La* gene which led to the change of lysine to glutamate at position 82 (*e1la:k82E*) in 15 *G. soja* and two *G. max* accessions (Dietz et al., 2021). They also identified S34R missense mutation in the *E1Lb* gene of two *G. soja* accessions and *e1lb:Del* variant in 'Williams 82' fast neutron mutant lines. It was demonstrated that in the background of *e1-as*, the lines fixed for *e1la:K82E* and *e1lb:Del* had 4–5 days of early flowering as compared to the reference alleles *e1-as* and *E1La*. *e1la:K82E* and *e1lb:Del* alleles had the maturity hastening effect of 24 and nine days, respectively.

## 5.2 | E2 gene

Watanabe et al. (2011) used RIL population derived from two varieties, Misuzudaizu (Mi) and Moshidou Gong 503 (Mo) and identified RIL 6–8 which was heterozygous at *FT2* locus. From this RIL, they identified two NIL: 6–8-*FT2* and *-ft2* and found that flowering time difference between these two NILs was highly significant. Using these NILs, they could restrict *FT2* to 94 Kbp regions on Gm10, where nine annotated genes (*Glyma10g36580–36,670*) were predicted. One of these genes, *Glyma10g36600*, with a high level of similarity with the *G1* (*Gigantea*) gene, was considered a strong candidate for the *FT2* locus, since the loss of function of *G1* is known to cause drastic changes in the flowering phenotype of other plant species (Fowler et al., 1999; Hecht et al., 2007). They could isolate two *G1* genes (*GmGla* & *GmGlb*) from the RNA sample extracted from leaves of NILs 6–8-*FT2*. *GmG1* genes isolated from the Mo late-flowering allele (*GmGla-Mo* and *GmGlb-Mo*) were found to encode proteins consisting of 1,170 and 1,168 amino acids, respectively. The coding sequence of *GmGla* was extended to a 20-kbp genomic region and contained 14 exons. Compared to *GmGla-Mo*, the Misuzudaizu early-flowering allele, *GmGla-Mi*, showed four single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in its coding sequence. One of these SNPs, detected in 10th exon, introduced a premature stop codon mutation that led to a truncated 521 amino acid *G1* protein in the *GmGla-Mi* allele. This stop codon mutation was considered a candidate for a functional nucleotide polymorphism in *GmGla*. They showed that *e2/e2* genotype caused early flowering by inducing the expression of the soybean florigen gene homologue, *GmFT2a*, while the effect of the *E2* allele on flowering under different environments was stable.

## 5.3 | E3 gene

Watanabe et al. (2009) used RHL strategy to identify *E3* gene in the same population that was used for identifying *FT1*, *FT2* and *FT3* QTLs (Yamanaka et al., 2000, 2001). The plants from RIL heterogeneous for this region, designated as RHL1-146, generated NILs1-146-*FT3* and *-ft3* from their progeny. By fine mapping, they could identify a physical region carrying *FT3* locus which contained 11 genes. Based on the suggestion of Yamanaka et al. (2001) that maturity locus *E3* is identical to *FT3*, and Cober et al. (1996b) that *E3* gene shows a larger effect under fluorescent light and has some relation with photoreceptor, one of the gene highly similar to that encoding phytochrome A was considered to be the gene responsible for the *FT3* locus. Using RACE, full length sequence of *Phytochrome A* gene was obtained and named as *GmPhyA3*. *GmPhyA3* obtained from Misuzudaizu (*FT3*) was found to encode a protein composed of 1130 amino acids. A BLAST search found that *GmPhyA3-Mi* displayed normal features of phytochrome A, including a chromophore-attached domain, two PAS domains, and a histidine kinase domain as conserved domains. However, *GmPhyA3* obtained from Moshidou (*ft3*) carried a large insertion in the fourth intron and one single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) for a non-synonymous amino acid substitution in the third exon. Three dysfunctional alleles of *E3*, *e3-ns*, *e3-fs* and *e3-tr* were reported by Xu et al. (2013). In which allele with deletion mutation in *E3-tr* that lacks the three regions of the gene including exon 4, *E3-fs* is a frame-shift mutation that introduces a stop codon in exon 1, and *e3-ns* is a nonsense mutation in which a single nucleotide substitution in exon 3 creates a stop codon in place of a codon encoding glutamine.

## 5.4 | E4 gene

Gene underlying *E4* was identified as *GmPhyA2*, a homologue of *phytochrome A* (Liu et al., 2008). At the recessive *E4* locus, insertion of a Ty1/copia-like retrotransposon in the exon 1 of the *GmphyA2* gene resulted in dysfunction of this gene (Liu et al., 2008). Tsubokura et al. (2013) identified four (*e4-kam*, *e4-oto*, *e4-tsu* and *e4-kes*) recessive alleles of *E4*. Both, *E4* and *E3*, have homeologs in the soybean genome, which are named as *GmPhyA2* and *GmPhyA3*, respectively.

## 5.5 | E10 gene

Using genetic stocks and protein–protein interaction (PPI) analysis approach, Samanfar et al. (2017) characterized gene underlying *E10*. Candidate gene prediction and PPI identified that *FT4*, also known as *FTL8*, has the most interacting partners known to be involved in flowering and maturity. By PPI interaction, sequence analysis, SNP analysis and 2D-mRNA structure analysis, *FT4* was proposed as most probable candidate for *E10* (Samanfar et al., 2017).

## 5.6 | *FT2a (E9) and FT5a genes*

Flowering locus T (*FT*) gene family synthesizes a flowering compound 'Florigen' in leaf tissues which is transported to the shoot apex for floral initiation. A number of studies have reported that the overexpression of *FT* orthologs induces very early flowering in dicots and monocots (Hayama et al., 2007; Hsu et al., 2006; Kojima et al., 2002; Lifschitz et al., 2006; Yan et al., 2006), and florigen has been shown as essential for flowering with conserved functions among unrelated species. Based on the sequence similarity with *Arabidopsis* *FT* genes, Kong et al. (2010) identified 10 *FT* homologues arranged in five pairs (*FT1a* and *FT1b*, *FT2a* and *FT2b*, *FT3a* and *FT3b*, *FT5a* and *FT5b*, and *FT4* and *FT6*) in different homologous chromosomal regions in soybean. *GmFT2a* and *GmFT5a* showed diurnal expression in short day but not in long day condition. These genes were highly up and down regulated under short- and long-day conditions, respectively, by the two *PHYA* genes (*E3* and *E4*). The double-mutant soybean line (*e3/e4*) expressed *GmFT2a* and *GmFT5a* at high level under LD and flowered slightly earlier under LD than the wild type (*E3/E4*) grown under SD. Pot transfer experiments, involving the transfer of 10 short day grown plants to long day conditions, demonstrated no noticeable expression of *FT2a* but only a gradual reduction in expression of *FT5a* which remained conserved at a low level. The differential expression pattern of *FT2a* and *FT5a* suggests for a strict photoperiodic control of *FT2a*, but the involvement of some other mechanism also for *FT5a*. *FT2a* has been found to induce and maintain flowering in a model variety ('Zigongdongdou') for studying flowering reversion (Sun et al., 2011). Differential expression pattern of these two genes contribute to the adaptation of soybean to a wide range of photoperiodic environments. CRISPR/cas9 mutation work (Cai et al., 2018, 2019) supports the photoperiodic regulation by *FT2a* as the mutants flowered late under natural conditions (summer). Among other *FT* genes, *FT1a* inhibits flowering (Liu et al., 2018); *GmFT3a*, *GmFT4* and *GmFT6* do not have any relations with flowering, and *FT1b*, *FT2b*, *FT3b* (Su et al., 2022) and *FT5b* have some haplotypes associated with flowering and maturity (Jiang et al., 2019). Su et al. (2022) reported that there were no significant differences observed in flowering time among wild-type, *FT3b* overexpressors and mutant *ft3b* in long or short day conditions. However, the flowering genes *GmFUL1* (*a*, *b*), *GmAP1d* and *GmLFY1* were down-regulated in *ft3b* plants and the floral inducers genes *GmFT5a* and *GmFT5b* were highly expressed. It concluded that the redundant role of *FT3b* in flowering regulated that may be compensated by other *FT* homologues in soybean.

## 5.7 | *Tof5 gene*

*FRUITFULL* (*FUL*) genes act downstream in flowering pathway genes and are known to have major roles in reproductive transition, floral meristem identity and floral organ identity (Jia et al., 2015). Four homologues of *FUL* were identified in soybean and expression analysis revealed that *GmFULa* was expressed in the floral meristem, floral organs and their primordia; trifoliolate leaves; and the inflorescence

meristem, with the expression induced by SD and inhibited by LD (Jia et al., 2015). In contrast, Yue, Sun, et al. (2021) found one haplotype of the soybean homologue *GmFULa* (*GmFULa-H02*) dominant in cultivated soybeans and transgenic overexpression of *GmFULa* enhanced vegetative growth with more biomass accumulation but without affecting the plant height or changing the flowering and maturity. However, the expression studies revealed that *GmFULc* on chromosome 05 was induced by short days (SD) and promote flowering by inducing *FT*, *SOC1* and *LFY* (Sun et al., 2021). A *Time of Flowering 5* (*Tof5*) was also identified by genome wide association analysis of flowering time in higher latitudes on chromosome 05 (Dong, Cheng, et al., 2021). Candidate gene analysis identified that *Tof5* encodes a homologue of *FUL*. Flowering gene *E1* suppress *FUL* transcription by binding to its promoter, whereas *FUL* physically associates with *FT2a* and *FT5a* to upregulate their expression resulting in promotion of flowering under long days. Four haplotypes were identified for *Tof5*, of which *Tof5<sup>H1</sup>*, a gain of function mutation, was under strong artificial selection and contributed to domestication of soybean in high latitudes (Dong, Cheng, et al., 2021).

## 5.8 | *Tof11&Tof12 genes*

Fang et al. (2017) and Lu et al. (2020) identified two QTLs through genome wide association studies (GWAS) on chromosome 11 and 12 in panels of 809 and 424 accessions. In addition to GWAS studies bi-parental studies of Li et al. (2019), Lu et al. (2015, 2020) also identified two loci in these regions. These loci have been referred as *Tof11* and *Tof12* loci. In addition, *Glyma.12G073900* was the likely candidate gene underlying *qFT12-2* in a population of 308 RILs derived from a cross late flowering Zigongdongdou (ZGDD) and an early flowering Heihe27 (HH27) (Wang et al., 2020). Lu et al. (2020) refined the genomic locations of *Tof11* and *Tof12* in *F<sub>6</sub>* heterozygous inbred populations and reported them to putatively encode PSUDO-RESPONSE REGULATOR (PRR) proteins. Both of these genes encoded the full length proteins in H3 but not in Harasoy, and these results correlated with the late flowering and maturity to dominant allele of H3. Their results indicated that *PRR3a* and *PRR3b* are the genes responsible for *Tof11* and *Tof12* loci, and these genes are functionally independent. Lu et al. (2017, 2020) reported that *Tof11* and *Tof12* were detected only in sub-populations carrying functional *E1* allele and not in *E1<sup>nl</sup>* which implied the action of these genes through *E1*. The overexpression of *Tof11* and *Tof12* resulted in increased *E1* expression and reduced *FT2a* and *FT5a* expression. Expression studies of *E3/E4* NILs have demonstrated that these genes are partly under the control of two photoreceptors (Lu et al., 2020). In *Arabidopsis*, PRR proteins associate with the CCT binding motif CACGTG in promoter of two key circadian clock genes, *LATE HYPOCOTYL* (*LHY*) and *CIRCADIAN CLOCK ASSOCIATED 1* (*CCA1*) to reduce their expression (Nakamichi et al., 2012). Soybean genome has four *LHY/CCA1* homologues (*LHY1a*, *LHY1b*, *LHY2a* and *LHY2b*) which all have CCT promoter motifs and show lower transcript level in *Tof11* and *Tof12* line (Lu et al., 2020). The physical association of *Tof11* and *Tof12* with the



promoters of *LHY* genes was demonstrated through chromatin immune-precipitation-PCR assays and electrophoretic mobility shift assays. The functional significance of this association was demonstrated in a CRISPR-Cas9 quadruple knock down mutant (*lhy1a*, *lhy1b*, *lhy2a*, *lhy2b*) in Harosoy background. This mutant significantly delayed the flowering, relieved the transcriptional suppression of *E1* and reduced the expression of *FT2a* and *FT5a*. *LHY* was found to influence the expression by binding with AATATC motif in *E1* promoter. All of these experiments elucidated a new model for regulation of flowering in which *E3* and *E4* promote *Tof11* and *Tof12* expression whose proteins associate with the promoter of *LHY* genes and suppress their expression. The role of *LHY* proteins is to bind to the promoter of *E1* to suppress its transcription and in turn relieve the transcriptional suppression of two key soybean *FT* homologues. Lu et al. (2020) also proposed the key role of *Tof11* and *Tof12* in domestication of soybean. They hypothesized that *tof12* got incorporated first in domesticated soybean and reduced the flowering and maturity period and later *tof11* was selected in the background of *tof12* for development of very early maturing soybeans.

### 5.9 | *Tof16* gene

*Tof16* was identified by genome wide association analysis of flowering time under natural SD conditions in accessions of lower latitudes (Dong, Fang, et al., 2021). Fine mapping and candidate gene analysis identified that *Tof16* is encoding a *LATE ELONGATED HYPOCOTYL* (*LHY*) gene. *Tof16* (*LHY1a*) directly binds to *E1* promoter and suppresses its expression, thereby relieving *FT2a* and *FT5a*. The soybean genome contains four *LHY/CCA1* homologues (*LHY1a*, *LHY1b*, *LHY2a*, and *LHY2b*) (Lu et al., 2020). Loss-of-function mutations of *LHY1a* in the Harosoy background showed significantly later flowering and maturity and improved overall grain yield relative to Harosoy (Dong, Fang, et al., 2021). Multiple mutant analyses showed that mutant combination *lhy1a/1b/2b* showed best plant architecture and higher yield under natural SD conditions. Four loss of function alleles were identified for *Tof16*, which were independently originated and selected in two important soybean growing areas of the tropics (Brazil and India).

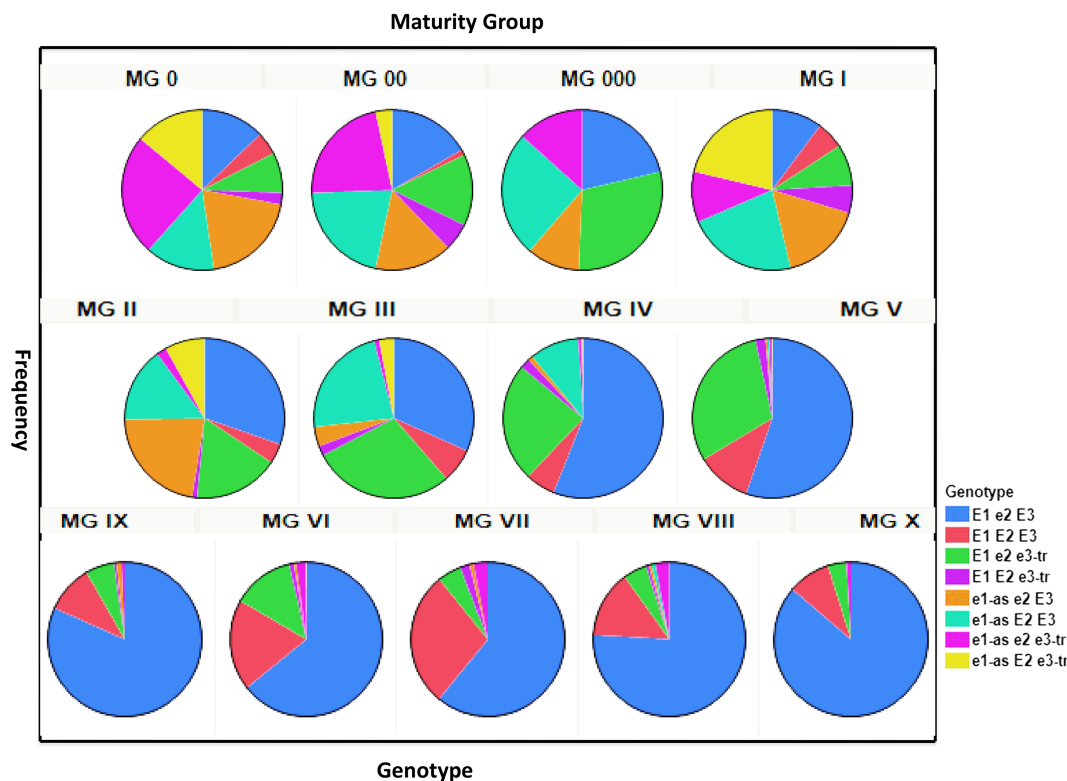
### 5.10 | *Tof18* gene

A new flowering locus, *Tof18* was identified by resequencing and genome wide association analysis of flowering time under natural LD conditions in 349 soybean accessions (Kou et al., 2022). Candidate gene analysis of *Tof18* identified a *SOC1* homologue with conditions early flowering and lesser stem node number in LD as well as SD conditions. Of the two *SOC1* homologues present in soybean, *SOC1a* at *Tof18*, had shown stronger effect on time of flowering and stem node number compared to *SOC1b* (Kou et al., 2022). Double mutants of *SOC1a* and *SOC1b* showed stronger functional effect than either of the single mutants. Haplotype analysis revealed that *Tof18*<sup>G</sup> allele of

haplotype H2 have high frequency in genotypes of high latitude regions whereas *Tof18*<sup>A</sup> allele have higher frequency in genotypes of lower latitudes suggesting the role of *Tof18* in latitudinal adaptation of cultivated soybean. *SOC1a* and *SOC1b* bind directly to promoters of *FT2a* and *FT5a* and upregulates their expression in leaves and promotes flowering. *SOC1s* also regulates expression of several flowering associated genes in shoot apex and leaves (Kou et al., 2022). *SOC1a* and *SOC1b* physically interact with *Dt2* and the *SOC1s-Dt2* complex represses *Dt1* expression by binding to its promoter and thereby fine tune stem node number.

## 6 | MOLECULAR MATURITY MODELS

Considering the allelic variability of only nine characterized photoperiodic and maturity genes and their paralogs (*E1*, *E2*, *E3*, *E4*, *J*, *E9*, *FT5a*, *E1La* and *E1Lb*), there would be 211 diverse genotypic combinations for latitude specific maturity. Identification of suitable combination for specific niches for maximizing yield potential (molecular model) would help breeders develop highly adapted varieties in less time. A number of studies have reported the screening of varieties and germplasm of different maturity groups for *E1*, *E2*, *E3* and *E4* genes, and it was found that within the same MG a number of *E* gene combinations were present (Abugalieva et al., 2016; Jiang et al., 2014; Kurasch et al., 2017; Langewisch et al., 2014; Langewisch et al., 2017; Lu et al., 2015; Miladinović et al., 2018; Tsubokura et al., 2013, 2014; Valliyodan et al., 2016; Zhai et al., 2014). For example, Langewisch et al. (2017) predicted different frequencies of *E* gene combinations in 17,762 accessions using SoySNP50K (Figure 2). They conceptualized the idea of 'molecular maturity group' for the most common *E* genotype present in the MG. Based on their study they could provide the molecular model for MG 0-V as *e1-ase2 e3* for MG 0; *e1-as e2 e3*, *e1-as e2 E3* for MG 1; *e1-as e2 E3*, *e1-as E2e3* for MG II; *e1-as E2 E3* for MG III & IV and *E1 E2 E3* for MG V. Kurasch et al. (2017) evaluated 75 European cultivars from five early maturity groups (000 – II) at 22 locations in 10 countries across Europe and reported several haplotypes for the allelic variants at the *E1*, *E2*, *E3*, *E4* genes with each *E* haplotype comprising cultivars from different MGs. Screening of soybean genotypes and local varieties collected from high latitude cold region of Russia, northern part of Northeast China and the far-eastern region of Russia with reference to maturity group reference soybeans of MGs MG000, MG00, and MG0 identified varieties which matured even earlier than MG 000 and a new maturity group MG 0000 was proposed (Jia et al., 2014). Few studies have been conducted in soybeans of lower latitudes. Dos Santos et al. (2016) resequenced 28 Brazilian cultivars adapted to lower latitudes (5–8°S) and found six with dominant *E1*, *E2*, *E3* and *E4* alleles, nine with *e3* allele, two with *e1-as* allele and none with *e4* allele. So the molecular model, that is, the most popular genotypic group for whole India is *E1E2E3E4*. However, this molecular model is insufficient to describe the maturity differences in different zones of India. The discovery of new maturity loci *Tof5*, *Tof11*, *Tof12*, *Tof16*,



**FIGURE 2** Frequency of early maturity alleles across different maturity groups (Langewisch et al., 2017) [Color figure can be viewed at [wileyonlinelibrary.com](http://wileyonlinelibrary.com)]

*Tof18*, *E1La* and *E1Lb* will be helpful in elucidating molecular models for different maturity groups and latitudinal adaptation.

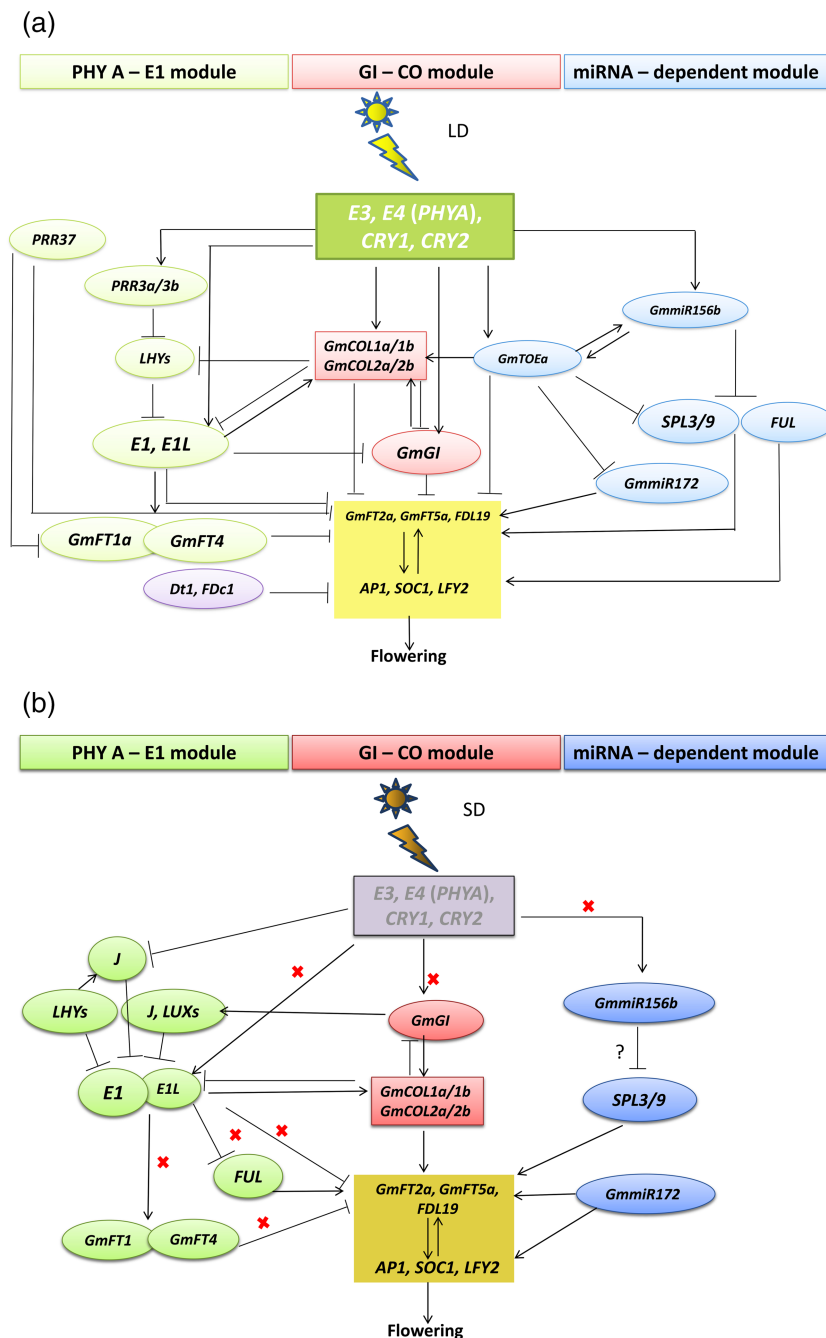
## 7 | PHOTOPERIODIC GENE INTERACTION MODULES IN LONG DAYS AND SHORT DAYS

Regulation of flowering and maturity is mediated by three interacting modules *PHYA-E1*, *GI-CO* and *miRNA*-dependent modules (Cao et al., 2017) and a fourth model connecting the *PHYA-E1*, *GI-CO* models has recently been described (Lu et al., 2020). In these pathways *PHYA-E1* module plays a central role, as *E3* and *E4* are major sensors of photoperiod and *E1* is central hub integrating light and circadian clock signals of flowering regulation pathway (Lin et al., 2021). A putative model for photoperiod regulation of flowering in soybean is given in (Figure 3a,b). Light signals in leaves are perceived by multiple photoreceptors which include *E3*, *E4* and *GmCRY1a* (Liu et al., 2008; Watanabe et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2008). Light induced by phytochrome A proteins *GmPhyA2* and *GmPhyA3* upregulates *E1* and *E1L* expression, which in turn suppress the expression of *GmFT2a* and *GmFT5a* (Cao, Li, Lu, et al., 2015; Kong et al., 2010; Xia et al., 2012). This *E1* mediated repression of *GmFT2a* and *GmFT5a* in turn delayed reproductive phase transition. The repressive effects of *E1* on two *FT* genes and resulting delay in flowering may be also partially supported by the induction of the inhibitory *FT* genes, *GmFT1a* and *GmFT4* (Zhai et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2018). The *E1* and *E1L* genes show a diurnal expression pattern, with peaks in the early morning and late

afternoon under LDs, but their expression is abolished under SDs and in the *e3/e3 e4/e4* genotypes (Xia et al., 2012; Xu et al., 2015; Zhai et al., 2014). Co-silencing of *E1* and *E1La/b* in an extremely late maturing genotype (MG VIII) resulted in super early flowering phenotype (MG 000) which can be grown at higher latitudes (Liu et al., 2022). Expression of flowering promoter *GmFT2a/GmFT5a* was significantly higher while expression of flowering inhibitor *GmFT4* was low in these transgenic lines.

In Arabidopsis, *CONSTANS* (*CO*) is a key integrator in the induction of *FT* gene expression (Suárez-López et al., 2001), where light signalling pathways and the circadian clock pathway co-ordinate the control of *CO* activity to induce *FT* (Song et al., 2013). Comparative expression analyses for NILs for *E1-E4* under LDs reveal that *E2* (*GmGI*) expression is up-regulated by *E3* and *E4*, but down-regulated by *E1* (Cao, Li, Lu, et al., 2015). In soybean genome, 26 *CONSTANS*-like (*COL*) genes were predicted, of which two pairs of homeologous genes, *GmCOL1a/1b* and *GmCOL2a/2b*, have high sequence similarity to Arabidopsis *CO* (Wu et al., 2014). Khan et al. (2022) studied natural variation in 21 *CO* family genes (*GmCOLs*) from soybean in 128 varieties covering 14 known maturity groups (MG 0000-MG X from earliest to latest maturity), which revealed mutation in 15 genes. Eight *CO* genes (*GmCOL1/3/4/8/13/15/16/19*) were associated with early flowering and maturity. The expression of *GmCOL1a* and *GmCOL1b* is induced by darkness, inhibited by light, and peaks at dawn, whereas *GmCOL2a* and *GmCOL2b* are expressed at much lower levels and peak both at dawn and in the late afternoon or at dusk (Cao, Li, Lu, et al., 2015; Fan et al., 2014). The overexpression of *GmCOL1a* delays

**FIGURE 3** (a) Model for interaction between photoperiodic genes in long days; (b) model for interaction between photoperiodic genes in short day [Color figure can be viewed at [wileyonlinelibrary.com](http://wileyonlinelibrary.com)]



flowering by down-regulating the expression of *GmFT2a* and *GmFT5a* under LD conditions, but upregulates both under SD conditions and induce flowering (Cao, Li, Lu, et al., 2015). *E1*- overexpressing plants showed higher expression of *GmCOL1a* than in the wild type, suggesting that *E1* and *GmCOL1a* influence each other's expression and may function as part of a negative feedback loop (Cao, Li, Lu, et al., 2015). Under short day conditions at lower latitudes *J* (*GmELF3*) and *E9* (*GmFT2a*) genes play an important role. The *J* gene encodes an *ELF3* ortholog that binds to *E1* promoter and represses its expression under SD. *E1* repression is released from this inhibition in cultivars with loss-of-function *j* alleles, allowing *E1* to repress *FT* genes and delay flowering and maturation, resulting in higher yield and biomass (Lu

et al., 2017). The *E3* and *E4* suppress expression of *J* under SD (Lu et al., 2017), indicating that the action of *PHYA* genes is not restricted to LD conditions.

Several circadian clock homologues have been identified and linked to flowering in soybean, including *GmGla*, *GmELF3*, *GmPRR3a*, *GmPRR3b*, and *GmLHY* orthologs (Li et al., 2019; Lu et al., 2017, 2020; Watanabe et al., 2011). A new module correlating *PHYA*-*E1*, *GI*-*CO* pathways has recently been elucidated (Lu et al., 2020). In this module, circadian clock gene *LHYs* is down regulated by *Tof11* and *Tof12* genes. *LHY* interacts with the promoter of *E1* suppressing its expression and promotes flowering through relieving of *FT2a* and *FT5a* (Dong, Fang, et al., 2021; Li et al., 2020). *LHY/CCA1* has been

shown to induce expression of *ELF3* (*J*) by binding directly to its promoter region (Li et al., 2020). *LUX1* and *LUX2*, the two homologues of *LUX* in soybean, physically interact with *J* to form evening complex to repress *E1* expression and relieving *FT2a* and *FT5a*, leading to early flowering under short days (Bu et al., 2021). There is also interaction among *Dt1*, *FT5a*, a bZIP transcription factor *FDC1* and *APATELLA 1* (*AP1*) to regulate reproductive phase transition (Yue, Li, et al., 2021). *FDC1-Dt1* complex binds to *AP1* promoter and represses its expression. To promote *AP1* expression, *FT5a* competes with *Dt1* for binding with *FDC1.AP1* in turn, binds to *Dt1* promoter and suppresses its expression thereby maintaining a regulatory pathway, which balances flowering and growth habit.

Role of *miRNA156* in regulation of transition from the juvenile to the adult phase of shoot development has been shown in *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Guo et al., 2017). Cao, Li, Wang, et al. (2015) overexpressed *miR156b* in soybean and observed delayed flowering under long day conditions but not in short days. The overexpression of *GmmiR156b* down-regulates *GmmiR172*, but up-regulates *GmTOE4a*, a soybean orthologue of *TARGET OF EAT1* (*TOE1*), and regulation of both, *GmmiR156b* and *GmTOE4a*, is mediated by *E1-E4* (Cao, Li, Wang, et al., 2015). Zhao et al. (2015) showed that *GmTOE4a* overexpression up-regulates expression of *GmmiR156b* in both the leaves and shoot apices, but down-regulates expression of *GmmiR172* and *GmSPL* genes in shoot apices.

Recently, Li et al. (2022) reported that a *calcium-dependent protein kinase* (*GmCDPK38*) coordinates flowering time regulation and insect resistance, first time revealing a relationship between flowering time and insect resistance. Late flowering haplotype (Hap2) containing soybeans were more resistant to the common cutworm (*Spodopteralitura fabricius*) than those of Hap3. Moreover, it was observed that Hap2 was abundant in soybeans of low latitudes with a higher frequency in cultivars than in wild soybeans, while Hap3 was widely selected at high latitude soybeans (Li et al., 2022). This report hints at a new dimension to gene interaction modules for flowering time as well as biotic stress resistance pathway genes.

## 8 | IMPLICATIONS OF IDENTIFIED MOLECULAR PATHWAYS ON SOYBEAN BREEDING IN INDIA

In India and South East Asia the soybean cultivation is monsoon dependent and short-duration varieties (70–85 days) are required to escape terminal drought. In higher latitudes recessive photoperiodic alleles (*e1/e2/e3/e4*) confer photo insensitivity for adaptation in higher latitude but information is lacking for allelic maturity model for lower latitude countries. Tripathi et al. (2021) found that out of 101 Indian soybean varieties, 86 were photosensitive and had dominant alleles at ‘E loci’. Four insensitive genotypic classes *e1-as/E2/E3/E4*, *E1/e2/e3/E4*, *E1/e2/E3/E4* and *E1/E2/e3/E4* were observed in 1, 1, 2 and 15 varieties, respectively. Similar to the presence of recessive *e3* allele in most of the Indian photo insensitive cultivars Brazilian lower latitude cultivars also have the same allele in maximum number

of cultivars (dos Santos et al., 2016). Correlating the allelic status of cultivars with their breeder seed production in India for 35 years could infer an adaptive role of photo insensitivity to short rain fed growing conditions. The weighted mean contribution of the photosensitive class (*E1E2E3E4*; 380 Q/year) was far less than that of photo insensitive class (648 Q/year). This study established that although photo insensitivity is essential for perpetuation of crop in higher latitudes, it has helped soybean to adapt to rain fed, short growing and sub-tropical conditions of lower latitudes by conferring earliness. Photo insensitive cultivars introduced in Australia had reduced seed yield due to precocious flowering and poor vegetative growth (James & Lawn, 2011). James and Lawn (2011) introduced long juvenility traits in soybean varieties (‘Charleston’, ‘Sprite 87’) and breeding lines (HC78-676BC and HC87-603) of higher latitude (>38°N) and could identify tall, semi-determinate high yielding lines with up to 7.0 tons of yield surpassing the yield potential (2 tons) of local cultivar. Based on current understanding of the molecular pathways, *FT2a*, *J*, *LHYs* and *SOCs* are prime targets for genome editing and haplotype based breeding for the development of high yielding cultivars in lower latitudes.

## 9 | CONCLUDING REMARKS AND PERSPECTIVES

The advancement in understanding of photoperiod mediated latitudinal adaptation in soybean has come a long way through agronomic, genetic, physiological and molecular research. Using advanced tools of genomics research, we have now better understanding of major loci and their allelic variation which mediate the latitudinal adaptation of the soybean crop. Recent studies have identified molecular basis of these loci, their interaction with each other and integration of different molecular pathways leading to elucidation of mechanism of latitudinal adaptation. Comparative and functional genomics studies identified function and effect of various flowering gene homologues. Although the mechanism of photoperiod flowering is more clear under long days as compared to short days, still several gaps are there to understand interaction among different protein coding and miRNA genes under different photoperiod conditions. Also members of flowering associated genes families act through feedback mechanism and varying dosage, making it difficult to ascertain their exact role. The present molecular maturity models based on *E1*, *E2*, *E3* and *E4* genes are insufficient to describe photoperiodic variation in genotypes of lower latitudes and other genes like *E9*, *E10J*, *Tof5*, *Tof11*, *Tof12*, *Tof16*, *Tof18*, *E1La* and *E1Lb* need to be incorporated in maturity models. Current understanding of the allelic effect of *E9*, *J*, *Tof16* and *Tof18* and their combinations will be helpful in designing and breeding of high yielding cultivars for lower latitudes.

### CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be constructed as a potential conflict of interest.

## AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

S.G. conceived the study, prepared initial draft of manuscript and approved the final version. All authors contributed to different sections of the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final version of the manuscript.

## DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

Some or all data included in the study are available online or from the corresponding author by request.

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