1 Expression of flowering genes in Arabidopsis thaliana under acute and

2 chronic irradiation

³ Maryna V. Kryvokhyzha^a, Konstantin V. Krutovsky^{b,c,d,e,*}, Namik M. Rashydov^a

⁴ ^aInstitute of Cell Biology and Genetic Engineering, National Academy of Sciences of Ukraine, Kiev,

- 5 Ukraine; ^bDepartment of Forest Genetics and Forest Tree Breeding, Georg-August University of
- 6 Göttingen, Göttingen, Germany; ^cVavilov Institute of General Genetics, Russian Academy of Sciences,
- 7 Moscow, Russia; ^dGenome Research and Education Center, Siberian Federal University, Krasnoyarsk,
- 8 Russia; ^eDepartment of Ecosystem Science and Management, Texas A&M University, College Station,
- 9 TX, USA
- 10

11 *Correspondence:

- 12 Konstantin V. Krutovsky: E-mail:<u>konstantin.krutovsky@forst.uni-goettingen.de;</u> Phone: +49-(551)-339-
- 13 35-37; Fax: +49-(551)-39-83-67; ORCID: 0000-0002-8819-7084

14 ABSTRACT

15 **Purpose**: The chronic and acute irradiations have different effects on plant ontogenesis, especially during

16 the sensitive flowering phase, which plays an important role in the further seed development and could

determine seed yield. The expression of key flowering genes, *Ap1, Co, Gi, FT, FLC*, and *Leafy*, sensitive

18 to irradiation repair gene *RAD51* and proliferation gene *PCNA2* were studied in the wild type *Arabidopsis*

19 *thaliana* (Columbia ecotype) under the chronic and acute irradiations.

Materials and methods: The chronic irradiation was performed using the radioactive isotope 137 CsCl in two total doses of 3 cGy and 17 cGy, with dose-specific rate of 10^{-7} cGy/sec and 6.8×10^{-6} cGy/sec, respectively. The plants were grown under the chronic irradiation during 6 weeks from seeds until the 6.3 stage of flowering. For the acute exposure, the plants were X-ray irradiated one time at the 5.0 development stage (28 day old) by a total dose of 15 Gy with a dose rate of 89 cGy/sec.

- **Results:** After the chronic irradiation with the 3 cGy dose the irradiated plants demonstrated $8 \pm 2,8$ days earlier flowering than in the control group. However, at the 17 cGy chronic and at the 15 Gy acute doses plants showed 14 ± 3.7 and 2 ± 1.4 day later flowering, respectively. The 3 cGy chronic exposure significantly increased expression of the *Co* gene by a factor of 1.152 (1.087-1.217 95% C.I.) and decreased expression of the *FT* gene by a factor of 0.128 (0.021-0.396 95% C.I.). The 17 cGy chronic
- 30 exposure decreased expression of the *Ap1* gene by a factor of 0.872 (0.803-0.940 95% C.I.) and the *Lfy*
- 31 gene by a factor of 0.471 (0.306-0.687 95% C.I.). The 15 Gy acute exposure decreased expression of the
- 32 *Ap1* gene by a factor of 0.104 (0.074-0.144 95% C.I.) and the *PCNA2* gene by a factor of 0.346 (0.238-
- 33 0.488 95% C.I.).

Conclusions: Increased expression of the *Co* gene seems stimulated earlier flowering, and decreased expression of the *Ap1* and *Co* genes delayed blooming. The acute exposure increased expression of the

- 36 *PCNA2* gene and decreased expression of the flowering genes except *Ap1*. In this case, the flowering was
- 37 less delayed than under chronic dose of 17 cGy. Presumably, it was related to activation of DNA
- reparation processes under the 3 cGy chronic exposure and the 15 Gy acute irradiation. The *Ap1*, *Co* and
- 39 *FT* genes play an important role in flowering process under irradiation treatment.

40 **KEYWORDS**

- 41 ionizing irradiation; flowering genes; gene expression; Arabidopsis
- 42

43 Introduction

Ionizing irradiation is a strong environmental stress factor, and biological effects of chronic and acute 44 irradiation on living organisms still need to be more studied. The effects of irradiation exposure on a cell 45 depend on the total dose and dose rate (Yamaguchi et al. 2008). Acute and chronic irradiations can 46 differently affect plant ontogenesis (Kovalchuk et al. 2007). A short exposure of an acute dose can cause 47 less damage in cells, than the same chronic dose (Kellie and Rzucidlo 2011). The acute exposure usually 48 has a targeted effect and directly causes damages (mostly breaks) in DNA molecules by both transferring 49 50 energy and generating free radicals (Kovacs and Keresztes 2002). The chronic ionizing irradiation has rather stochastic and non-targeted effects (Kovalchuk et al. 2007). It destabilizes genome, activates 51 mobile genetic elements and promotes epigenetic changes in some key genes (Ilnytskyy and Kovalchuk 52 53 2011). The impact of high doses of irradiation on the genes activity has been widely studied in plants (Hwang et al. 2016). The effects of acute exposure are more understandable than the effects of chronic 54 irradiation. However, the chronic radiation is very important factor in some environments, such as those 55 56 contaminated after the nuclear power station catastrophes in Chernobyl and Fukushima (Grodzinsky 1999, Rashydov et al. 2012), where it can remain for a long time aftermath. It is very important to study 57 chronic irradiation effects on sensitive phases of the plant ontogenesis. 58

Flowering is one of the most important and complex processes in plant development. It is highly sensitive to stress factors (Georges and Périlleux 2005) and strongly depends on several stimuli environmental signals (Castillejo and Pelaz 2008). The yield of many agricultural species depends on optimum time of flowering, flower development and seed fullness, which are under control of complex gene networks. There is a balance between flowering transmissible promoters and transmissible and nontransmissible inhibitors in the vegetative phase in plants. Excess of flowering transmissible promoters induces the generative phase of the ontogenesis in plants (Parenicova 2003). Some environmental cues such as a light (illumination) day length, temperature, amount of nutrients
and endogenous developmental signals are key factors in floral initiation (Fernando and Coupland 2012).
Some metabolic pathways are activated by endogenous signals such as hormones and an abundance of
nutrients and minerals (Castillejo and Pelaz 2008).

The correct optimum time of flowering is very important in the plant's lifespan. Plants need to accumulate nutritious for an effective reproduction during the vegetative phase (Parenicova 2003). If flowering begins too early, plants might not have enough time to accumulate a necessary amount of nutrition needed for flower development and seed maturation. Plant's production strongly depends on optimal flowering time that can be delayed under stress conditions affecting pollination and seed development. Seeds that are developing under abnormal and uncomfortable environmental conditions often have insufficient time for seed maturation before cold weather or dry periods would begin.

Arabidopsis thaliana is the most widely used plant-model species to study flowering affected by irradiation in detail (The Arabidopsis Genome Initiative 2000). In general, *Arabidopsis* is a very popular plant-model species in molecular plant biology and genetics studies due to its small genome size (1n = 5; 135 Mbp), a short generation cycle and convenient cultivating in the laboratory conditions. The entire *Arabidopsis* genome has been sequenced and is well studied. About 26,000 genes and many molecular pathways were identified in *Arabidopsis* (Pastore et al. 2011) including ~80 genes involved in flowering regulation.

To study effects of irradiation on flowering, we measured expression of the six key flowering related genes, such as *Apetala 1 (Ap1), Constants (Co), Flowering locus C (FLC), Flowering locus T (FT), Gigantia (Gi)* and *Leafy (LFY)* under irradiation and control condition. The genes *Co* and *Gi* are regulated by circadian clock and are key genes in the photoperiod flowering time pathway. The *FT* gene encodes the florigen, a "flowering hormone" or hormone-like protein responsible for controlling and/or triggering flowering in plants (Smaczniak et al. 2012). The *FT* gene is activated in the vascular tissue of leaves too.

3

90 The *FT* protein activates the *MADS-box* genes, important regulators of flower development (Jeong and
91 Clark 2005; Kaufmann et al. 2010).

92 The *FLC* is an important age-sensitive gene that suppresses flowering expression in the vegetative 93 phase. The *Ap1* and *LFY* genes promote floral meristem identity (Siriwardana and Lamb 2012).

The main objective of this study was to find out how chronic irradiation affects expression of the plant flowering related genes. We believe that data obtained in this study will help us better understand mechanisms of stress effect on flowering time. This study may have not only fundamental biological importance, but also important practical applications, e.g. for radionuclide contaminated sites of Chernobyl and Fukushima areas.

We hypothesized that the chronic ionizing irradiation affects the plants reproduction many times more strongly than the X-rays acute irradiation by similar doses. In addition, the factors controlling flowering genes may affect reparation and proliferation under ionizing irradiation. Therefore, we studied also how ionizing irradiation affected expression of reparation and proliferation genes *RAD51* and *PCNA2*, respectively (Corinne et al. 2015).

104

105 Materials and methods

106 **Plant cultivation**

We used *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Brassicaceae) Columbia ecotype (wild-type) in this study. The seedlings were cultivated in soil under long day illumination conditions (18 hours light and 6 hours dark) (Czechowski et al. 2004) at room temperature. The soil was disinfected by 3% Sodium permanganate solution during 24 hours. The same number of 25 plants was used in the experimental and the control groups. Seeds were disinfected by 12.5% sodium hypochlorite solution and with 70% ethanol.

112 Radiation exposure mode

As a stress factor we used acute and chronic irradiation exposures. The chronic irradiation was performed using the 137 CsCl irradiation with two total doses of 3 cGy and 17 cGy, and dose rates 10^{-7} cGy/sec and 6.8×10^{-6} cGy/sec, respectively. The plants in the experimental group were grown under chronic irradiation during 6 weeks from seeds until the 6.3 stage of flowering (Boyes et al. 2001). The plants in the control group were grown in the same conditions, but without irradiation. For the acute exposure, the seedlings in 5.0 development stage (28 days old) (Boyes et al. 2001) were irradiated by X-rays one time with an acute dose rate of 89 cGy/sec and a total dose of 15 Gy.

120 RNA isolation, cDNA synthesis, and real time quantitative PCR

RNA was extracted from the leaves of the 6 week-old plants. The same number of leaves and amount of 121 tissue (~300 mg) were collected per each plant in both experimental and control groups. The RNA 122 123 extraction was performed using the GeneJET Plant RNA Purification Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., Waltham, MA, USA). Extracted RNA was used for the *in vitro* reverse transcription 124 with the RevertAid First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., 125 126 Waltham, MA, USA). To determine the expression activity of the selected genes we used real-time quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR) method (Heid et al. 1996). To perform the RT-qPCR, we either used 127 published or designed specific PCR primers for the six flowering related genes Ap1, Co, FLC, FT, Gi and 128 129 LFY, and two sensitive to irradiation genes – the proliferation gene PCNA2 and the reparation gene RAD51 using the NCBI BLAST and primer design tools (Table 1). The SYBR Green master mix was 130 used for the RT-qPCR. The UBQ10 gene was used as an internal reference standard (Nicot et al. 2005). 131 The obtained RT-qPCR data were analysed with the REST 2009 software (Pfaffl et al. 2002). 132

133

134 135

136

[Table 1]

The 6.3 phase of flowering (Boyes et al. 2001) appear 8 ± 2.8 days earlier of the *A. thaliana* plants which irradiated at the 3 cGy chronic dose in compare of the control group. However, at the 17 cGy

Results

139	chronic and at the 15 Gy acute doses the irradiated plants showed flowering 14±3,7 or 2±1,4 days later,
140	respectively, than in the control group (Table 2).
141	
142	[Table 2]
143	
144	At the low chronic dose level of 3 cGy expression of the Co gene was increased by a factor of 1.152
145	(1.087-1.217 95% C.I.) in comparison to the non-irradiated control group plants (Table 3). However,
146	expression of the gene FT was significantly lower by a factor of 0.128 (0.021-0.396 95% C.I.). The
147	expression of the other genes did not change significantly compared to the control group.
148	At the high chronic level dose of 17cGy expression was lower for all genes compared to the control
149	group, but statistically significantly only for the Ap1 and Lfy genes, by a factor of 0.471 (0.941-1.342
150	95% C.I.) and 0.872 (0.803-0.940 95% C.I.), respectively. Expression of the other genes were not
151	significantly different from the control group plants.
152	
153	[Table 3]
154	
155	At the acute dose of 15 Gy the Ap1 and PCNA2 genes were down-regulated by a factor of 0.104
156	(0.074-0.144 95% C.I.) and 0.346 (0.238-0.488 95% C.I.), respectively, compared to the control group.
157	The expression of the Co, Gi, FLC, FT, Lfy and Rad51 genes was not differed from the control group
158	(Figure 1).
159	[Figure 1]
160	
161	Figure 2 summarized expression for all eight genes under all three different ionizing radiation
162	exposure modes.
163	[Figure 2]
	6

164 **Discussion**

Our results revealed that the chronic, as well as acute irradiations affected activity of the flowering, 165 reparation and proliferation genes. The literature data demonstrated that high doses of acute irradiation 166 (100 and 200 Gy) delayed flowering in plants and changed the expression of some genes (Hwang et al. 167 2016). The recent studies showed that the irradiation sensitive genes were associated with photosystem, 168 phenols, ribo-nucleoside-diphosphate reductase, and with the C2H2 zinc finger family functions in plants 169 treated by 100 Gy at the reproductive stage. The flowering genes were down-regulated under the high 170 171 acute irradiation doses of 800 Gy (Hwang et al. 2016). The expression levels of the Co, Ap1 and LFY transcription factors also responded to the low doses of the chronic and acute irradiation in our research. 172

The chronic doses affected flowering genes expression more than the acute doses in our study. Previous studies also showed that chronic irradiation affected genes expression and had the different effect on flowering time. Flowering was observed earlier under chronic irradiation than under acute treatment in Kovalchuk et al. (2007). However, we showed that chronic irradiation with 5 times higher dose (3 vs. 17 cGy) affected differently the flowering time (Table 2) and expression of the flowering genes (Figure 1). The chronic irradiation with the 17 cGy total dose had more pronounced effect than with the 15 Gy acute irradiation dose (Figure 1).

Our data showed that different doses of irradiation caused different effects on expression of several flowering genes. Some genes may be more sensitive to environmental factors than others. Our results showed that the *Co*, *Ap1* and *PCNA2* genes were the most sensitive to ionizing irradiation. The *Co* and *FT* genes are involved in the photoperiodic pathway, and they function as circadian signals (Figure 2). The sensitivity of the *Co* and *Ap1* genes to the ionizing irradiation probably provided evidence for their participation in stress-regulation of flowering time.

186 We demonstrated in our study that radiation exposure is a strong stress factor that affects both 187 flowering time and expression of some important flowering, repair and proliferative genes. The recent studies had also shown that stress factors could cause early or late flowering (Takeno 2012). Stress induced earlier flowering was caused also by low temperature, nitrate stress and low nutrients (Marín et al. 2011).

We found that different doses of exposure caused different effect on flowering term. The low chronic dose of 3 cGy stimulated 8 days earlier flowering, but the high chronic irradiation at 17 cGy and the acute irradiation at 15 Gy doses delayed flowering for 14 and 2 days, respectively (Figure 1).

194 Under the low chronic irradiation (3 cGy) an increase of the reparation process leads to the cell fission 195 being not activated, and with an increase of the dose up to 17 cGy the reparation is reduced. Therefore, 196 the dwarfs, plants with shorter heights, increased second peak of flowering and underdeveloped habitus 197 could be observed in an environment contaminated with radionuclides, such as plants growing in the Chernobyl zone (Rashydov et al. 2012). At the acute irradiation of 15 Gy, even with the unchanged level 198 199 of the reparation process, the activation of the PCNA2 gene was observed, which indicates restoration of damaged plant via repopulation recovery from unaffected intact cells. The obtained data revealed that the 200 201 chronic irradiation significantly differed from the acute irradiation by affecting both flowering genes as well as cell proliferation genes. 202

We observed that under the low chronic dose of 3 cGy the up-regulated expression of the flowering gene *Co* accompanied by the 8 days earlier flowering. Opposite, under the high chronic dose of 17 cGy several genes were down-regulated and accompanied by significantly later flowering. The 15 Gy acute exposure dose decreased expression of the *PCNA2*. In this case, the flowering delay was less than at the 17 cGy chronic irradiation dose. Presumably, it can be explained by activation of the DNA reparation processes under both the 3 cGy chronic and the 15 Gy acute irradiation exposures. We guess that the *Ap1* and *Co* genes play even more important role in flowering under stress conditions.

The effects of irradiation exposure are similar to other abiotic stress factors, such as UV-B/C irradiation, drought, and heat (Llorens et al. 2015). The stress-induced flowering pathway is as important for plant adaptation as photoperiodic and vernalization pathways (Takeno 2012).

8

The early flowering of *A. thaliana* in response to drought stress, UV-C and pathogens (for example, *Fusarium oxysporum* infection) was demonstrated recently (Takeno 2016). We observed that the low dose of 3 cGy irradiation exposure also promotes early flowering in the *A. thaliana* plants. Published studies have shown also that the gene *FT* could be involved in stress-induced flowering (Takeno 2012). However, we did not observe the increasing expression of the *FT* gene in earlier blooming (King at al. 2008). The photoperiodic *Co* gene was up-regulated and followed by flowering acceleration. Our study showed that effects of the 17 cGy chronic and 15 Gy acute irradiations were similar to the UV-B effect.

The 17 cGy chronic and 15 Gy acute exposure doses delayed flowering. The flowering genes except the *Ap1* gene were down-regulated in chronic irradiation and the 15 Gy acute dose exposure. However, flowering was delayed only for 2 days after the 15 Gy acute irradiation dose.

Some abiotic stress factors, such as cold, osmotic stress and salinity can also delay flowering 223 224 (Srinivasan et al. 1999; Kotula et al. 2015). Cold temperatures induced degradation of the CO protein via an ubiquitin/proteasome pathway (Jung et al. 2012). The pathogen infection together with heat, drought 225 and salinity stresses can change normal flowering time in Arabidopsis plant by interfering with the 226 photoperiodic pathway (Kazan and Lyons 2016). Salt affected expression of the FT gene at the 227 transcriptional and post-transcriptional levels (Li et al. 2007). Salt stress also promoted degradation of the 228 GI protein through an unknown ubiquitin/proteasome pathway and negatively affected the Co gene 229 expression (Melgar et al. 2012). Drought stress also effectively delayed flowering up to four weeks in 230 some plant species, such as orange (Riboni et al. 2014). This phenomenon negatively affects harvesting 231 232 and causes harvest productivity losses.

Our study showed that photoperiodic pathway was affected by the ionizing irradiation. Increased expression of the *Co* and *Gi* genes stimulated earlier flowering, and decreased expression of the *Ap1* gene caused delay of blooming at the 17 cGy chronic and 15 Gy acute doses.

However, mechanism of irradiation effects on blooming is still not clearly understood. High level doses more than 1 kGy caused destructive processes in plant cells (Kovacs and Keresztes 2002).

9

However, medium intensity 0.1-0.4 kGy gamma exposure can also delay germination process and decrease lifespan of plants (Marcu et al. 2013). It is necessary to mention that based on our data the low chronic and acute doses affected also signal transduction genes.

Blooming is sensitive to elevated UV-B, which affects both flowering phenology and flower production. Increasing of UV-B exposure delayed blooming and reduced flower production (Sampson and Cane 1999).

244 It is known that the ionizing irradiation leads to producing free radicals and ions in biological tissues 245 (Riley 1994). Free radicals can damage or modify key cell components, proteins or ferments and 246 hormones, which are included in important physiological and biochemical processes in a plant 247 ontogenesis. However, morphological, structural, and functional changes depend on the strength and duration of gamma exposure doses (Marcu et al. 2013). Our data showed that the chronic exposure with a 248 249 high dose of 17 cGy and the acute irradiation dose of 15 Gy had similar effects (Figure 3). The low chronic dose of 3 cCy had opposite effect than the high-level chronic irradiation (17cGy) one. After 250 251 analysis of low and high chronic doses and acute irradiation effects on flowering and reparations genes we have to notice that there was no correlation between expression levels of flowering genes and the 252 253 repair gene RAD51.

254

[Figure 3]

255

256 **Conclusions**

We studied effects of chronic and acute irradiation doses on expression of six key flowering genes in *A. thaliana* and revealed that trends in the changes of the flowering genes expression under the stress were closely associated with the transduction signal system through the blooming metabolic pathways.

Our results showed that the chronic irradiation at the high level of dose (17 cGy) delayed blooming by an order of magnitude less than the acute irradiation dose at 15 Gy. Meanwhile the low chronic dose of 3 cCy had the opposite effect, and acceleration of flowering was observed in this case. The low and high chronic irradiation doses significantly affected the flowering genes *Ap1*, *Co* and *LFY*, but changes in their expression level did not correlate with expression of the reparation gene *RAD51*. The data revealed that effectiveness of a chronic irradiation severe differed from acute irradiation by affecting flowering genes activity as well as expression of the cell proliferation gene *PCNA2* in the *A. thaliana* plants.

267

268 Acknowledgements

269 This study was supported by the Seventh Framework Program of the European Union under Marie Curie

270 Action "International Research Staff Exchange Scheme" (FP7-PEOPLE-2013-IRSES), project ID:

271 612587 «Plant DNA tolerance».

272

273 Disclosure statement

274 The authors report no conflict of interest. The authors alone are responsible for the content and writing of the paper.

275

276 **References**

- Boyes DC, Zayed AM, Ascenzi R, McCaskill AJ, Hoffman NE, Davis KR, Gorlach J. 2001. Growth
 stage-based phenotypic analysis of *Arabidopsis*: A model for high throughput functional genomics in
 plants. *The Plant Cell*. 13(7):1499–1510. doi:10.1105/tpc.13.7.1499.
- Castillejo C, Pelaz S. 2008. The balance between CONSTANS and TEMPRANILLO activities
 determines FT expression to trigger flowering. *Current Biology*. 18(17):1338–1343.
 doi:10.1016/j.cub.2008.07.075.
- Corinne S, Li D, Kovalchuk O, Kovalchuk I. 2015. Development-dependent expression of DNA repair
 genes and epigenetic regulators in *Arabidopsis* plants exposed to ionizing radiation. *Radiation Research.* 183(2): 219–232. doi:10.1667/RR13840.1.

Czechowski T, Rajendra P, Stitt BM, Scheible WR, Udvardi MK. 2004. Real-time RT-PCR profiling of
 over 1400 *Arabidopsis* transcription factors: Unprecedented sensitivity reveals novel root-and shoot specific genes. *Plant Journal*. 38(2):366–379. doi:10.1111/j.1365-313X.2004.02051.x.

Fernando A, Coupland G. 2012. The genetic basis of flowering responses to seasonal cues. *Nature Reviews Genetics*. 13(9):627–639. doi:10.1038/nrg3291.

- Georges B, Périlleux C 2005. A physiological overview of the genetics of flowering time control. *Plant Biotechnology Journal.* 3(1):3–16. doi:10.1111/j.1467-7652.2004.00114.x.
- Grodzinsky D. 1999. General situation of the radiological consequences of the Chernobyl accident in
 Ukraine, 18–28. http://www.rri.kyoto-u.ac.jp/NSRG/reports/kr21/kr21pdf/Grodzinsky.pdf.
- Heid CA, Stevens J, Livak KJ, Williams PM. 1996. Real-time quantitative PCR. *Genome Research*.
 6(10):986–994. doi:10.1101/gr.6.10.986.
- Hwang SG, Kim DS, Kim JB, Hwang JE, Park HM, Kim JH, Jang CS. 2016. Transcriptome analysis of
 reproductive-stage *Arabidopsis* plants exposed gamma-ray irradiation at various doses. *International Journal of Radiation Biology*. 92(8):451-465. doi:10.1080/09553002.2016.1178865.
- Ilnytskyy Y, Kovalchuk O. 2011. Non-targeted radiation effects-an epigenetic connection. *Mutation Research*. 714(1–2):113-125. doi:10.1016/j.mrfmmm.2011.06.014.
- Jeong S, Clark SE. 2005. Photoperiod regulates flower meristem development in *Arabidopsis thaliana*.
 Genetics. 169(2): 907–915. doi:10.1534/genetics.104.033357.
- Jung JH, Seo PJ, Park CM. 2012. The E3 ubiquitin ligase HOS1 regulates *Arabidopsis* flowering by
 mediating CONSTANS degradation under cold stress. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*.
 287(52):43277-43287. doi:10.1074/jbc.M112.394338.
- Kaufmann K, Pajoro A, Angenent GC. 2010. Regulation of transcription in plants: Mechanisms
 controlling developmental switches. *Nature Reviews Genetics*. 11(12):830–842.
 doi:10.1038/nrg2885.
- Kazan K, Lyons R. 2016. The link between flowering time and stress tolerance. *Journal of Experimental Botany*. 67(1):47–60. doi:10.1093/jxb/erv441.
- Kellie BR., Rzucidlo E. 2011. Acute and chronic radiation injury. *Journal of Vascular Surgery*. 53(1
 suppl.):15S–21S. doi:10.1016/j.jvs.2010.06.175.
- King RW, Tamotsu H, Goldschmidt EE, Blundell C. 2008. The nature of floral signals in *Arabidopsis*. I.
 Photosynthesis and a far-red photoresponse independently regulate flowering by increasing
 expression of FLOWERING LOCUS T (FT). *Journal of Experimental Botany*. 59(14):3811–3820.
 doi:10.1093/jxb/ern231.
- Kotula L, Hammad K, Quealy J, Turner NC, Vadez V, Siddique KHM, Clode PL, Colmer TD. 2015. Salt
 sensitivity in chickpea (*Cicer arietinum L.*): Ions in reproductive tissues and yield components in
 contrasting genotypes. *Plant Cell Env.* 38(8):1565-1577. doi:10.1111/pce.12506.
- Kovacs E, Keresztes A. 2002. Effect of gamma and UV-B/C radiation on plant cells. *Micron.* 33(2):199–
 210. doi:10.1016/S0968-4328(01)00012-9.
- Kovalchuk I, Molinier J, Youli Y, Arkhipov A, Kovalchuk O. 2007. Transcriptome analysis reveals
 fundamental differences in plant response to acute and chronic exposure to ionizing radiation.
 Mutation Research. 624(1):101–113. doi:10.1016/j.mrfmmm.2007.04.009.

- Li K, Youning W, Chunyu H, Wensheng Z, Huizhen J, Xia L. 2007. GA signaling and CO/FT regulatory
 module mediate salt-induced late flowering in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. *Plant Growth Regulation*.
 53(3):195–206. doi:10.1007/s10725-007-9218-7.
- Llorens L, Badenes-Pérez FR, Julkunen-Tiitto R, Christian Z, Fereres A, Jansen MAK. 2015. The role of
 UV-B radiation in plant sexual reproduction. *Perspectives in Plant Ecology, Evolution and Systematics*. 17(3):243-254. doi:10.1016/j.ppees.2015.03.001.
- Marcu D, Damian G, Cosma C, Cristea V. 2013. Gamma radiation effects on seed germination, growth
 and pigment content, and ESR study of induced free radicals in maize (*Zea mays*). *Journal of Biological Physics*. 39(4):625–634. doi:10.1007/s10867-013-9322-z.
- Marín I, Castro IL, Bartetzko L, Searle I, Coupland G, Stitt M, Osuna D. 2011. Nitrate regulates floral
 induction in *Arabidopsis*, acting independently of light, gibberellin and autonomous pathways.
 Planta. 233(3):539–552. doi:10.1007/s00425-010-1316-5.
- Melgar JC, Albrigo LG, Syvertsen JP. 2012. Winter drought stress can delay flowering and avoid
 immature fruit loss during late-season mechanical harvesting of 'Valencia' oranges. *Acta Horticulturae*. 965:55–60.
- Nicot N, Hausman JF, Hoffmann L, Evers D. 2005. Housekeeping gene selection for Real-time RT-PCR
 normalization in potato during biotic and abiotic stress. *Journal of Experimental Botany*.
 56(421):2907–2914. doi:10.1093/jxb/eri285.
- Parenicova L, 2003. Molecular and phylogenetic analyses of the complete MADS-box transcription factor
 family in *Arabidopsis*: New openings to the MADS world. *The Plant Cell Online*. 15(7):1538–1551.
 doi:10.1105/tpc.011544.
- Pastore JJ, Limpuangthip A, Yamaguchi N, Wu MF, Sang Y, Han SK, Malaspina L, Chavdaroff N,
 Yamaguchi A, Wagner D. 2011. LATE MERISTEM IDENTITY2 acts together with LEAFY to
 activate APETALA1. *Development*. 138(15):3189-3198. doi:10.1242/dev.063073.
- Pfaffl MW, Horgan GW, Dempfle L. 2002. Relative expression software tool (REST) for group-wise
 comparison and statistical analysis of relative expression results in real-time PCR. *Nucleic Acids Research.* 30(9):e36. doi:10.1093/nar/30.9.e36.
- Rashydov N, Kliuchnikov O, Seniuk O. et al. 2012. Radiobiological characterization environment around
 object "Shelter". Chapter 7 in Nuclear Power Plant, edit. by Soon Heung Chang, p. 231-279.
- Riboni M, Test AR, Galbiati M, Tonelli C, Conti L. 2014. Environmental stress and flowering time: The
 photoperiodic connection. *Plant Signaling & Behavior*. 9:1–5. doi:10.4161/psb.29036.
- Riley PA. 1994. Free radicals in biology: Oxidative stress and the effects of ionizing radiation.
 International Journal of Radiation Biology. 65(1):27–33. doi:10.1080/09553009414550041.
- Sampson BJ, Cane JH. 1999. Impact of enhanced ultraviolet-B radiation on flower, pollen, and nectar
 production. *American Journal of Botany*. 86(1):108–114. doi:10.2307/2656959.
- Siriwardana NS, Lamb RS. 2012. The poetry of reproduction: The role of LEAFY in *Arabidopsis thaliana* flower formation. *International Journal of Developmental Biology*. 56(4):207–221.
 doi:10.1387/ijdb.113450ns.

364 365 366	Smaczniak C., Immink RGH, Angenent GC, Kaufmann K. 2012. Developmental and evolutionary diversity of plant MADS-domain factors: Insights from recent studies. <i>Development</i> . 139(17):3081– 3098. doi:10.1242/dev.074674.
367 368 369	Srinivasan A, Saxena NP, Johansen C. 1999. Cold tolerance during early reproductive growth of chickpea (<i>Cicer arietinum L.</i>): Genetic variation in gamete development and function. <i>Field Crops Research</i> . 60(3):209–222. doi:10.1016/S0378-4290(98)00126-9.
370 371	Takeno K. 2012. Stress-induced flowering. In <i>Abiotic Stress Responses in Plants: Metabolism, Productivity and Sustainability</i> , 331–345. doi:10.1007/9781461406341_17.
372 373	Takeno K. 2016. Stress-induced flowering: The third category of flowering response. <i>Journal of Experimental Botany</i> . 67(17):4925–4934. doi:10.1093/jxb/erw272.
374 375	The Arabidopsis genome initiative. 2000. Analysis of the genome sequence of the flowering plant Arabidopsis thaliana. Nature. 408(6814):796–815. doi:10.1038/35048692.
376 377 378	Yamaguchi H, Akemi S, Konosuke D, Toshikazu M. 2008. Effects of dose and dose rate of gamma ray irradiation on mutation induction and nuclear DNA content in <i>Chrysanthemum</i> . <i>Breeding Science</i> . 58:331–335. doi:10.1270/Jsbbs.58.331.
379	
380	
381	Figure legend
382	Figure 1. Gene expression of the six flowering genes and the RAD51, PCNA2 genes in A. thaliana under
383	all three different ionizing irradiation exposure modes.
384	
385	Figure 2. The scheme of the relations between studied genes and their role in determining of generative
386	phase.
387	
388	Figure 3. Relationships between the flowering time and the flowering gene expression activity in A.
389	thaliana under three different ionizing irradiation exposure modes.