

REVIEW ARTICLE

Open Access

Current achievements and future prospects in the genetic breeding of chrysanthemum: a review

Jiangshuo Su¹, Jiafu Jiang¹, Fei Zhang¹, Ye Liu¹, Lian Ding¹, Sumei Chen¹ and Fadi Chen¹

Abstract

Chrysanthemum (*Chrysanthemum morifolium* Ramat.) is a leading flower with applied value worldwide. Developing new chrysanthemum cultivars with novel characteristics such as new flower colors and shapes, plant architectures, flowering times, postharvest quality, and biotic and abiotic stress tolerance in a time- and cost-efficient manner is the ultimate goal for breeders. Various breeding strategies have been employed to improve the aforementioned traits, ranging from conventional techniques, including crossbreeding and mutation breeding, to a series of molecular breeding methods, including transgenic technology, genome editing, and marker-assisted selection (MAS). In addition, the recent extensive advances in high-throughput technologies, especially genomics, transcriptomics, proteomics, metabolomics, and microbiomics, which are collectively referred to as omics platforms, have led to the collection of substantial amounts of data. Integration of these omics data with phenotypic information will enable the identification of genes/pathways responsible for important traits. Several attempts have been made to use emerging molecular and omics methods with the aim of accelerating the breeding of chrysanthemum. However, applying the findings of such studies to practical chrysanthemum breeding remains a considerable challenge, primarily due to the high heterozygosity and polyploidy of the species. This review summarizes the recent achievements in conventional and modern molecular breeding methods and emerging omics technologies and discusses their future applications for improving the agronomic and horticultural characteristics of chrysanthemum.

Introduction

Chrysanthemum (*Chrysanthemum morifolium* Ramat.) belongs to the Asteraceae family and is one of the most economically important and favored floricultural crops, ranking second in the cut flower trade after rose¹. Chrysanthemum has a long history of cultivation; it was first cultivated in China as a herb in approximately the 15th century BC and was then successively introduced to Japan, Europe, and the United States². The ancestry of modern chrysanthemum is still uncertain, but the plant is thought to have emerged mainly as a result of long-term artificial selection of variants of several wild species, including *C. vestitum* ($2n = 54$), *C. indicum* ($2n = 18, 36$), *C. lavandulifolium* ($2n = 18$), *C. nankingense* ($2n = 18$), and *C. zawadskii* ($2n = 54$)^{3–5}. Cultivated chrysanthemum

is a complex hexaploid that also exhibits aneuploidy, in which chromosome numbers vary from 47 to 67^{6,7}. However, a chromosome number of 54 is the most frequent and stable conformation ($2n = 6x = 54$).

Genetic resources are crucial for all plant-breeding programs. Fortunately, rich chrysanthemum genetic resources with abundant natural phenotypic variation are available. The capitulum, a typical ornamental part of the chrysanthemum flower, is composed of two types of morphologically distinct florets. The marginal ray florets are naturally male sterile and exhibit various colors that are specific to each cultivar, while the central disc florets are hermaphroditic with drab yellow or green colors. Different combinations of floret number, petal size, and floral organ fusion lead to various flower shapes, such as the single, double, windmill, pine needle, anemone, incurve, and pompon types (Fig. 1). According to the growth habit and cultivation type, chrysanthemums are mainly classified into the traditional type, cut

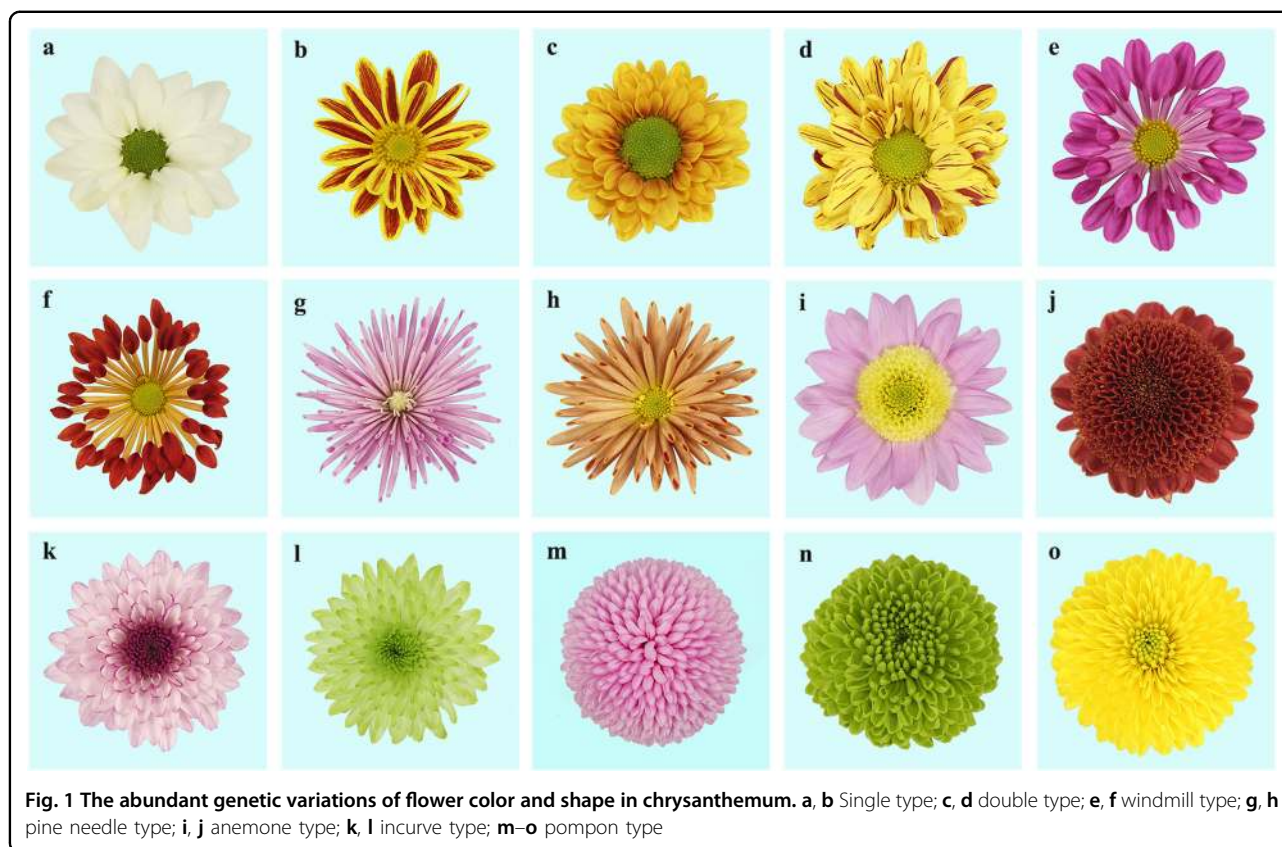
Correspondence: Fadi Chen (chenfd@njau.edu.cn)

¹State Key Laboratory of Crop Genetics and Germplasm Enhancement, Key Laboratory of Landscaping, Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Affairs, College of Horticulture, Nanjing Agricultural University, 210095 Nanjing, China

© The Author(s) 2019



Open Access This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons license, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons license, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons license and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this license, visit <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>.



chrysanthemum types (including the spray and disbud-cut types), potting type, and groundcover type^{8,9}. The species is widely cultivated for the production of cut flowers and used in gardening, potted plants, and ornamental landscaping¹⁰. Chrysanthemum flowers contain significant amounts of nutritive and biologically active components¹¹. Hence, chrysanthemums are also used in the medical, food, and beverage industries. In addition to its great economic and ornamental value, chrysanthemum holds special cultural significance. It has been honored as one of the ‘four gentlemen among flowers’, together with plum blossom, orchid, and bamboo, in Chinese classic literature, and it is included in the heraldry of the Japanese Imperial Family as an emblem of courage.

The market demands for chrysanthemum increase annually, forcing scientists and breeders to create new cultivars with novel appearances and improved stress tolerance and quality attributes. Conventional breeding approaches, including crossbreeding and mutation breeding, are the most common approaches used to develop new chrysanthemum cultivars. However, in classical approaches, breeders mainly use phenotypes to select superior progeny or mutants, a process that is often laborious and ineffective, especially for traits with significant genotype \times environment ($G \times E$) interactions^{12,13}. In addition, some desired traits, such as a blue hue, cannot

be produced by hybridization and mutation due to the limitations and drawbacks of these techniques. In recent years, transgenic molecular breeding has been extensively employed by introducing foreign genes into chrysanthemum using *Agrobacterium*-mediated transformation and biolistic transformation and has led to considerable progress in horticultural character improvement^{1,14,15}. In addition, the rapid development of DNA-based molecular marker techniques offers plant breeders a new opportunity to employ molecular marker-assisted selection (MAS) in breeding, which allows the indirect selection of target traits without regard to environmental factors or plant growth phases and shows great potential to increase the effectiveness of plant breeding^{16,17}.

In addition, the advent and improvement of next-generation sequencing (NGS) technology has accelerated the generation of multiomic data at the DNA, RNA, protein, and metabolite levels at an unprecedented rate, leading to a new era of ‘big biological data’¹⁸. Organizing and integrating these big data and linking them to particular phenotypes will contribute significantly to broadening and deepening our understanding of the molecular mechanisms and genetics of living organisms. Multiomic technologies have successfully assisted in the breeding programs of major agricultural crops^{19–21}. However, the development and application of sophisticated omic

techniques in chrysanthemum is a daunting task and has lagged behind the progress made in model plants and agricultural crops; this circumstance may be primarily due to the high heterozygosity and polyploidy of chrysanthemum or a lack of suitable genomic information. This review summarizes the merits and drawbacks of conventional breeding. We mainly focus on recent advances and challenges in the application of molecular and multiomic technologies in chrysanthemum and discuss their future prospects for accelerating breeding programs.

Conventional breeding

Crossbreeding

Chrysanthemum is a highly heterozygous plant that shows inbreeding depression and self-incompatibility; as a result, conventional crossbreeding is a powerful method for developing modern chrysanthemum cultivars. Many commercial cultivars with desirable traits, such as the Mammoth series garden chrysanthemum 'Lavender Daisy', have been developed via crossbreeding²². Moreover, many important wild species harbor a variety of favorable resistance genes that can be introduced into florist chrysanthemums via intergeneric or interspecific breeding^{1,8}. Crossbreeding is simple and effective, and the F₁ progeny derived from two parents with contrasting target traits generally exhibit a wide phenotypic variation in chrysanthemum. However, there are several factors that must be taken into consideration when crossbreeding chrysanthemum, such as the fertility of a certain cross combination, qualitative analysis of the target traits, and superior hybrid progeny selection. In addition, hybrid progeny with the desired traits often also carry other less preferred traits that require several generations for removal through backcrossing, a process that greatly increases the cost and labor associated with crossbreeding. To make better use of the crossbreeding technique in chrysanthemum, Su et al.²³ used molecular markers associated with target traits. An effective mathematical analysis method was proposed that combined the analytic hierarchy process (AHP) and gray relational analysis (GRA) to evaluate progress in breeding new early-flowering multiflora chrysanthemum cultivars and to define the flowering times of cultivated plants²⁴.

Mutation breeding

Mutation breeding is a useful strategy in vegetatively propagated ornamental plants that has been widely exploited to modify one or a few traits in an outstanding cultivar without altering its other phenotypic traits²⁵. Normally, mutations occur spontaneously, although they can be induced by physical and chemical methods. For the past 30 years, the mutation technique has successfully produced a large number of new chrysanthemum varieties that have been commercialized. For example, members of

the 'Anna' chrysanthemum series were produced from natural mutations. In addition, numerous chrysanthemum cultivars with novel traits, especially new flower colors and shapes, have been produced by X-radiation, gamma radiation, and ion-beam irradiation^{1,26,27}. More recently, microwave radiation, which is a form of electromagnetic radiation, has been used to induce genetic and phenotypic variations (novel flower shape and color, increased inflorescence diameter, and prolongation of bud coloration) in chrysanthemum²⁸. The advantage of mutation breeding is that the high heterozygosity of chrysanthemum can increase the apparent mutation rate and produce many excellent mutation types in a short period of time. However, the primary limitations of this type of breeding are that mutations occur unpredictably throughout the genome, and often, only a single change is produced. Moreover, the feasibility of mutation breeding depends on several factors, such as the selection of a suitable genotype, explant type, induction mutation method, and optimal dose²⁹. For example, plants with pink flower color are regarded as the best starting material to produce other flower colors using ionizing radiation³⁰. Thus, it is difficult to obtain a mutant with multiple desired characteristics. To overcome these disadvantages, a large mutant population, large field trials, extensive labor, and an appropriate genotype are required to obtain a promising mutant. Combining crossbreeding, which can easily generate mixtures of traits, with mutation breeding would also be helpful. In addition, chimerism may be an important phenomenon with respect to the generation of genetic variation, especially in the earlier stages of mutation-breeding programs³¹. It is presumed that most spontaneous and artificial mutants of chrysanthemum are periclinal chimeras in which the mutant genes exist in only the outermost L1 layer, which is genetically different from the others. To resolve the issue of chimerism, a combination of tissue culture and irradiation has been preliminarily shown to be the most efficient method for avoiding chimerism in chrysanthemum³². More intensive research on periclinal chimerism is needed in the future.

Molecular breeding

Transgenic breeding

Transgenic technology can be used to transfer genes to a host plant from any source and to repress or enhance gene expression in a programmable manner. Compared with conventional breeding strategies, the transgenic method possesses greater prospective potential for producing innovative phenotypes. Transgenic ornamental plants are becoming beneficial for both growers and consumers due to their novel appearances and enhanced stress tolerance without presenting food safety concerns, in contrast to fruits and vegetables³¹. Transgenic technology has become an important means of breeding new

chrysanthemum cultivars and has led to great achievements related to floral attributes, plant architecture, postharvest flower longevity, and biotic and abiotic stress tolerance, as reviewed by Teixeira da Silva et al.¹ and Cheng et al.³³ Hence, this review describes only the most recent reports of several useful traits that have been introduced into chrysanthemum.

Abiotic and biotic stress tolerance

The industrialization of chrysanthemum is limited by several abiotic and biotic stresses, including drought, salt, extreme temperature, and insect pests, and the development of new cultivars with increased tolerance has always been a goal of breeders. Li et al.³⁴ observed that overexpressing *CmHSEA4* increased the salt tolerance of chrysanthemum by limiting Na⁺ accumulation and maintaining the K⁺ concentration, and this tendency was consistent with that observed for the ion transporters *CmSOS1* and *CmHKT2*. The chrysanthemum WRKY transcription factor (TF) genes have been implicated in different cellular processes involved in stress responses such as salt^{35–37}, drought^{38,39}, disease⁴⁰, and aphid resistance⁴¹. Du et al.⁴² cloned and functionally characterized *CmDREB6*, which was classified into the DREB A-6 subgroup, and found that overexpression of *CmDREB6* increased the heat tolerance of chrysanthemum by affecting genes involved in the heat-shock response and reactive oxygen species (ROS) homeostasis. Qi et al.⁴³ isolated the chrysanthemum gene *CmCPL1*, which encodes RNAPII CTD phosphatase-like 1, and showed that overexpression or knockdown of *CmCPL1* increased or decreased the heat tolerance of chrysanthemum, respectively. Overexpression of the *C. lavandulifolium* gene *CICBF1* in the chrysanthemum cv. 'White Snow' improved its salt and drought tolerance⁴⁴.

Plant growth and development

Growth and development, especially floral organ development, are important characteristics of flowering plants. Floret number and petal size define flower shape in chrysanthemum. Six *CmCYC*₂ genes specifically expressed in the petals of ray florets were identified in *C. lavandulifolium* by Huang et al.⁴⁵ Overexpression of *CmCYC*_{2c} significantly increased flower number and the length of ray florets but was insufficient to completely change the flower shape, indicating that flower shape might be a complex trait with polygenic inheritance in chrysanthemum. The TCP gene family plays a significant role in plant growth and development. Wang et al.⁴⁶ isolated *CmTCP20*, which belongs to the PCF group in Class I of the TCP TF family, from chrysanthemum and found that it may be responsible for petal elongation growth. The root system is the main organ through which plants absorb water and nutrients. Sun et al.⁴⁷ observed

that overexpression of *CmANRI*, a MADS-box TF gene, promoted adventitious root and lateral root development in chrysanthemum. Further study indicated that *CmANRI* function directly regulates the auxin transport gene *CmPIN2*. The ability to manipulate plant architecture increases the ornamental value, and hence, the marketability of a commercial species. Shoot branching directly determines plant architecture and is a key determinant of plant shape that can improve plants' capacity to adapt to environmental stresses. Enhancement of branching is possible by introducing *IPT1*⁴⁸, *D14*⁴⁹ and *D27*⁵⁰ were found to play diverse roles in the regulation of shoot branching affected by hormonal and environmental factors in chrysanthemum, and Nie et al.⁵¹ isolated *CmERF053* from chrysanthemum, which was found to possess the new function of regulating shoot branching and lateral root development, in addition to affecting drought resistance.

Flowering time

Flowering time is the main determinant of successful commercial plants, and the development of early-flowering cultivars helps meet consumers' needs by allowing plants to bear more flowers or be produced in sufficient numbers for the celebration of particular festivals. Yang et al.⁵² created transgenic RNA interference (RNAi)-suppressed chrysanthemum plants that flowered ~20 d earlier than *Cm-BBX24*-overexpressing and wild plants under long-day conditions. The transgenic *Cm-BBX24* plants also responded to salt and drought stresses, possibly due to changes in gibberellic acid (GA) biosynthesis. The mechanisms by which plant age regulates flowering remain incompletely understood. Wei et al.⁵³ showed that age-dependent regulation of SPL TFs by *miR156* influences flowering by controlling *CmNF-YB8* expression in chrysanthemum. More recently, overexpression of *CmERF110* in transgenic Arabidopsis accelerated flowering by ~7 d compared with non-transgenic plants⁵⁴. Moreover, several flowering-time-related genes, such as *TFL*^{55,56}, *FTL*⁵⁷, *CPD* and *GA20*⁵⁸, *MET1*⁵⁹, and their homologs, have been isolated from chrysanthemum.

Flower color

Flower color is a major objective of ornamental plant breeding due to its strong influence on consumer choice. Although diverse flower colors have been observed in chrysanthemum during its long history of cultivation, violet and blue colors are lacking due to a deficiency in flavonoid 3'5'-hydroxylase (F3'5'H) activity⁶⁰. F3'5'H is a key enzyme for delphinidin biosynthesis in most blue-hued flowers. In the past, transgenic chrysanthemums with a violet ray-petal color were produced by expressing a heterologous F3'5'H gene under the control of

ray-petal-specific promoters^{61,62}. However, several internal and external factors, such as vacuolar pH, metal ions, and coexisting colorless compounds, also affect the formation of blue pigments or flowers. More recently, Noda et al.⁶³ successfully generated true blue chrysanthemum flowers by introducing *CtA3'5'GT*, encoding UDP-glucose:anthocyanin 3',5'-O-glucosyltransferase from *Clitoria ternatea*, and *CamF3'5'H*, encoding F3'5'H from *Campanula medium*. The delphinidin-based anthocyanins synthesized in the ray petals of the transgenic plants were glycosylated at the 3'5' positions and displayed bluer color via intermolecular association with flavone glucosides.

Genome editing

Recently, genome editing has been used as a vital tool for functional genomics and biotechnology research and has become available as a precision-breeding approach for modifying traits in plant species⁶⁴. Genome-editing techniques theoretically allow researchers to introduce mutations into any targeted genomic sequence, and mutations in genome-edited plants are heritable. To date, a few reports have demonstrated successful genome editing for flower color in ornamental plants^{65,66} by using the CRISPR/Cas9 method. However, the introduction of mutations into polyploids, especially in nonmodel species, is rather difficult due to the double-strand breaks and repair events that occur independently. Moreover, the possibility of a mutation occurring decreases with the increase in target site number in polyploids⁶⁷. Kishi-Kaboshi et al.⁶⁸ first attempted to use multicopy transgenes instead of endogenous genes as targets for genome editing in chrysanthemum. The resultant transgenic chrysanthemum possessed over five copies of the yellowish-green fluorescent protein gene (*CpYGFP*) from *Chiridius poppei*, allowing the visualization of gene-editing progress. Two single-guide RNAs (sgRNAs) were used to target different positions in the *CpYGFP* gene, and transgenic lines with mutated *CpYGFP* genes were acquired, showing that axillary buds and callus regeneration contribute to mutation. The researchers suggested that by introducing an expression cassette that encodes Cas9 and sgRNA, complete gene mutations could be obtained through continuous culture or cuttings in chrysanthemum. These findings shed light on chrysanthemum genome editing and provide breeders with new tools for precise breeding.

Remarks on transgenic breeding

Overall, several useful traits have been introduced into chrysanthemum by transgenic technology, and the production of transgenic plants has great potential to reduce production costs and improve stress resistance, flower quality, and hence, the commercial value of chrysanthemum. The development of new cultivars with excellent

comprehensive characteristics is a major target of chrysanthemum-breeding programs. However, most of the relevant published reports involve single-gene transfer and lack appropriate conversion systems. Hence, establishing effective transformation systems for more receptor plants, improving conversion efficiency, and realizing multigene cotransformation are three major challenges in chrysanthemum transgenic breeding. The modern horticultural industry is beginning to take safe production seriously; although no food safety problems are associated with transgenic ornamentals, they may impact the environment, and transgenic technology is strictly limited, and thus, difficult to exploit by breeders in many countries⁵⁵. Therefore, the development and utilization of environmentally friendly production systems to improve the safety of chrysanthemum molecular breeding will be a focus of future transgenic technology research. Genome-editing technology is a precision-breeding strategy regardless of legal concerns, but additional techniques are required for isolating target genes and generating plants with multiple target mutations in polyploid chrysanthemum⁶⁸.

Marker-assisted selection

The MAS breeding of ornamental plants is relatively new. Several molecular marker types ranging from conventional gel-based random amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD), amplified fragment length polymorphism (AFLP), sequence-related amplified polymorphism (SRAP), and simple sequence repeat (SSR) markers to more current sequence-based single-nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) markers have been applied to identify markers that are significantly associated with target traits in chrysanthemum. The recent progress of genetic studies based on molecular markers in chrysanthemum is summarized in Table 1.

Linkage maps and QTL mapping

A linkage map provides a basis for the identification of genomic regions related to traits of interest and the necessary infrastructure for MAS breeding^{69,70}. Quantitative trait locus (QTL) mapping is a conventional tool for identifying the genes that control a trait, and it is useful for genome-wide scanning for QTL detection based on a linkage map in plants⁷¹. Constructing a genetic linkage map is more difficult in polyploids than in diploids due to the unknown linkage phases of the marker alleles in the former; thus, linkage map construction in polyploids requires specialized methods⁷². Although earlier cytological studies revealed polysomic inheritance in chrysanthemum, cultivated chrysanthemums have long been assumed to exhibit disomic inheritance because of their presumed multispecies origin and the occurrence of bivalent chromosomal pairing^{72,73}. Generally, linkage

Table 1 Recent published genetic analyses in chrysanthemum

Population	Population size	Marker type	Marker number	Study objective	Methodology	Reference
'Yuhualuoying' × 'Aoyunhanxiao'	142	RAPD, ISSR, and AFLP	336	Linkage map construction	Map construction	74
'Yuhualuoying' × 'Aoyunhanxiao'	142	SRAP	675	Inflorescence traits	QTL mapping	75
'Yuhualuoying' × 'Aoyunhanxiao'	142	SRAP	675	Plant architectural traits	QTL mapping	76
'Yuhualuoying' × 'Aoyunhanxiao'	142	SRAP	675	Leaf traits	QTL mapping	77
'Yuhualuoying' × 'Aoyunhanxiao'	142	SRAP	346	Flowering time	One-way ANOVA	78
'Yuhualuoying' × 'Aoyunhanxiao'	142	SRAP	675	Flowering time	QTL mapping	79
'Han 2' × 'Nannong Gongfen'	133	SRAP, SSR, and SCoT	262	Aphid resistance	One-way ANOVA, QTL mapping, and BSA	80
'QX145' × 'Nannongyinshan'	92	SRAP and SSR	234	Branching traits	QTL mapping	81
'QX053' × 'Nanong Jingyan'	160	SRAP, SSR, and SCoT	497	Inflorescence traits	One-way ANOVA and QTL mapping	82
'Nannong Xuefeng' × 'Monalisa'	162	SRAP and SSR	502	Waterlogging tolerance	QTL mapping	83
'Kitam' × 'Relinda'	86/160	AFLP	1000/327	Branching traits	Candidate gene-based association study/one-way ANOVA, and BSA	101
'Puma White' × 'Dancer'	94	AFLP	1779	White rust	BSA	106
Natural population	159	SRAP, SSR, and SCoT	707	Plant architecture and inflorescence	GWAS	95
Natural population	100	SRAP, SSR, and SCoT	707	Waterlogging tolerance	GWAS	96
Natural population	80	SRAP, SSR, and SCoT	707	Aphid resistance	GWAS	97
Natural population	159	SRAP, SSR, and SCoT	707	Drought tolerance	GWAS	98
DB36451×DB39287	406	SNP	183,000	Flowering time and inflorescence traits	QTL mapping	92
Natural population	199	SNP	92,830	Cultivated type and inflorescence traits	GWAS	9
Natural population	88	SNP	92,811	Waterlogging tolerance	GWAS	99
Natural population	107	SNP	92,617	Inflorescence traits	GWAS	100

maps in chrysanthemum are most efficiently constructed according to the 'double pseudotestcross' mapping strategy in an F_1 population. The first preliminary linkage map of chrysanthemum was produced by Zhang et al.⁷⁴ from a biparental cross using a combination of RAPD, AFLP, and inter simple sequence repeat (ISSR) markers. Their study failed to produce a referenceable integrated map, and only six pairs of homologous linkage groups (LGs) based on

the common intercross markers of the two parental maps were identified. Furthermore, the authors constructed other maps for the same population using SRAP markers, with an average map distance of 6.9 cM for the female map and 6.6 cM for the male map⁷⁵. Subsequently, the SRAP-based maps were used to detect QTLs for inflorescence-related traits⁷⁵, plant architectural traits⁷⁶, leaf traits⁷⁷, and flowering time and duration^{78,79}. In the

past 5 years, several F_1 mapping populations have been generated with the aim of genetically localizing different horticultural traits, i.e., aphid resistance⁸⁰, branching traits⁸¹, traits related to anemone-type flowers⁸², and waterlogging tolerance⁸³, by linkage map construction and QTL mapping. These studies identified molecular markers associated with the selected characters, preliminarily screened excellent progeny, and provided important basic genetic resources for chrysanthemum-breeding programs. However, the reported linkage maps are not integrated and are mainly based on traditional gel-based SRAP, RAPD, ISSR, AFLP, and SSR markers, which present a low density and are difficult to transfer between laboratories. Although several major-effect QTLs have been detected for these traits, it is currently difficult to identify the chromosomal locations of these QTLs and to validate these QTLs in other populations; therefore, it is impossible to find the genes underlying the desired traits.

High-density linkage maps constructed with many DNA markers provide insights into the chromosomal composition of plants, which are important for techniques used in genetic studies and breeding programs such as MAS, QTL mapping, and map-based gene cloning⁸⁴. Currently, advanced high-throughput genotyping technology offers an opportunity to develop large-scale sequenced SNP markers and construct high-density genetic maps in ornamentals such as sunflower⁸⁵ and the Chinese endemic *Dendrobium*⁸⁶. These SNPs are mostly biallelic and can therefore distinguish only two alleles; however, there are allele dosage effects at a single locus in polyploids. Tetraploid rose is the species in which the mode of inheritance has been the most investigated and presents the highest-density map construction among polyploid ornamental species by far^{87,88}. Koning-Boucoiran et al. speculated that the characteristics of tetraploid rose are more in line with tetrasomic inheritance or a mixture of both modes of inheritance than with disomic inheritance according to the segregation patterns of molecular markers in a tetraploid-mapping population of 184 genotypes⁸⁹. Bourke et al. found that partial preferential chromosome pairing is genotype dependent in tetraploid rose and confirmed the inferred differences in pairing behavior between chromosomes by examining repulsion-phase linkage estimates⁹⁰. Recently, convincing evidence for the hexasomic inheritance of cultivated chrysanthemums was provided based on the analysis of a 183-k SNP genotyping array generated from RNA sequencing data, and the authors noted that chrysanthemums were more likely to be autohexaploid than allohexaploid⁹¹. Based on SNPs and this assumption, Van Geest et al.⁹² published the first integrated ultradense linkage map of a biparental population, including 406 hexaploid individuals, using polypmapR, which was developed for the genetic linkage analysis of outcrossing autopolyploids, i.e., triploids,

tetraploids, and hexaploids, based on marker dosage. This map contained nine chromosomal LGs and covered 752.1 cM, with an average of 3368 markers per LG. Based on the linkage map, several QTLs controlling flower color, flowering time, ray floret number, and disc floret degreening were identified through multiallelic QTL analyses. This research is a critical step forward for linkage analysis in chrysanthemum. However, whether cultivated chrysanthemum is an allopolyploid or autopolyploid remains controversial. Only by answering these questions can researchers choose appropriate mapping strategies and software tools. A lack of complete genome information remains the largest bottleneck, making further fine mapping almost impossible.

Genome-wide association mapping

Genome-wide association studies (GWASs) are another effective approach for connecting phenotypes with genotypes in plants when information on population structure and linkage disequilibrium is available⁹³. Successful examples of GWASs in crop species have been recently reviewed⁹⁴. In the case of chrysanthemum, GWASs have been used to explore inheritance patterns and identify favorable alleles for several ornamental characteristics and resistance traits, including plant architecture traits and inflorescence traits⁹⁵, waterlogging tolerance⁹⁶, aphid resistance⁹⁷, and drought tolerance⁹⁸, based on 707 conventional gel-based SRAP, start codon-targeted (SCoT), and SSR marker loci. These studies successfully identified several favorable alleles associated with the traits of interest and screened elite germplasm resources as potential donors for chrysanthemum breeding. However, little information about the genome or transcriptome of chrysanthemum is available due to the limited number of markers, low marker reliability, high cost, and high labor intensity associated with the currently used conventional marker types. Nevertheless, the advent of NGS technologies has created new opportunities for high-throughput marker development and more efficient marker screens in unsequenced species. Chong et al.⁹ first attempted to develop SNP markers utilizing specific length-amplified fragment sequencing (SLAF-seq) technology in a panel of 199 chrysanthemum accessions and detected 97 SNPs associated with important horticultural traits via a GWAS. Furthermore, six candidate genes harboring seven of the 97 associated SNPs were predicted by aligning the SLAF sequences to the chrysanthemum transcriptome database. This study represents a large breakthrough in integrating phenotypic and genetic data toward the discovery of candidate genes in chrysanthemum. Several candidate genes related to waterlogging tolerance and inflorescence-related traits were recently identified based on the above-mentioned SNP sets in a similar way^{99,100}. Using another method, Klie et al.¹⁰¹ were able to identify 11 markers

significantly associated with four strigolactone pathway genes regulating shoot branching in chrysanthemum by utilizing the candidate gene approach, which also provided insight into some potential candidate genes.

Notably, markers should be technically simple enough to be effectively applied in the selection of superior progeny, in contrast to those used in a research laboratory¹². Su et al.⁹⁹ transferred a major SNP locus that cosegregated with waterlogging tolerance in chrysanthemum into a superior PCR-based derived cleaved amplified polymorphism sequence (dCAPS) marker with a moderately high accuracy of 78.9%, which was then verified in 52 cultivars or progeny. Chong et al.¹⁰⁰ developed two dCAPS markers correlated with flowering time and capitulum diameter in chrysanthemum. These dCAPS markers present potential value for practical application in chrysanthemum MAS breeding. SNPs can also be converted to other available markers, such as high-resolution melting (HRM)¹⁰² and kompetitive allele-specific (KASP)¹⁰³ markers, and be used for amplicon sequencing¹⁰⁴ in polyploid plants. These technologies will provide new and powerful tools for future chrysanthemum breeding.

Bulked segregant analysis

The bulked segregant analysis (BSA) strategy proposed by Michelmore enables researchers to simply and quickly identify markers, specific genes, or genomic regions associated with a target trait using two DNA bulks consisting of individuals exhibiting contrasting extreme phenotypes¹⁰⁵. In chrysanthemum, several studies on different horticultural traits have used BSA methods. Wang et al.⁸⁰ detected two SSR markers linked to aphid resistance; Klie et al.¹⁰¹ found two AFLP markers showing significant allele frequency differences in bulks with a low or high degree of shoot branching; Sang et al.¹⁰⁶ identified one AFLP marker linked to white rust and converted it into a SCAR marker, which was further verified in a pseudo-F₁ testcross and had the potential to be used to select white-rust-resistant plants in chrysanthemum-breeding programs. Recently, several studies have reported that combining the BSA strategy with high-throughput sequencing technology provides a new opportunity to accelerate the screening of candidate genes associated with important traits in ornamental plants¹⁰⁷. However, the NGS-assisted BSA approach is usually applied to species in which genome information is available at least for closely related plant species. Recently, a modification of BSA that couples RNA-seq with BSA, termed bulked segregant RNA-seq (BSR-seq), was proposed to allow the correlation of gene expression and markers with phenotypes¹⁰⁸. BSR-seq combines the superior features of RNA-seq and BSA and enables the establishment of a reference sequence by *de novo*

transcriptome assembly for variation calling in nonmodel organisms; this technique has been successfully applied in species with complex genomes such as wheat^{109,110} and peony¹¹¹.

Remarks on MAS

MAS is an effective tool in modern plant breeding. However, the successful application of MAS in practical breeding thus far has been limited to simple traits with monogenic or oligogenic inheritance in crops such as rice, soybean, and maize¹¹². The application of MAS has several technical and logistical prerequisites, such as marker type involved, the inheritance schema of the target traits, the number of target genes in genomic regions, and their distance from the flanking markers¹¹³. Although various DNA markers are now routinely used in basic quantitative genetic studies of chrysanthemum, comparatively few practical applications of these molecular markers in the genetic improvement of horticultural traits have been reported. The main problems lie in the slow process of MAS in chrysanthemum: (1) the population sizes and marker numbers are too small for accurate high-resolution mapping, especially in linkage analysis; (2) the detected QTLs are mostly minor-effect and environment-specific QTLs with no validation, which are not robust enough for selecting phenotypes and performing positional gene cloning; (3) it is difficult to determine the location in the genome of these detected associations or candidate genes due to the lack of complete genome information; (4) all QTL mapping and BSA studies are currently based on F₁ populations. The construction of permanent populations such as doubled haploids (DHs), near-isogenic lines (NILs), or recombinant inbred lines (RILs) in heterozygous chrysanthemum is not possible, making the genetic dissection and fine mapping of traits difficult.

To overcome these hurdles, a large population should be used in future studies to trace recombination events. Large-scale, high-throughput, low-cost SNPs are already available in chrysanthemums due to advances in NGS technology. However, the quantity and quality of phenotyping are becoming important determinants of the accuracy of genetic mapping, and thus, of the power of the resultant MAS, particularly for complex quantitative traits, because breeders must continue phenotypic evaluation and selection of the lines during the process of breeding. Plants exhibit considerable changes in gene expression during different developmental stages and when exposed to a range of environmental stresses¹¹⁴. Hence, the collection of phenotypic data at different stages for dynamic mapping is also an essential prerequisite to achieve breeding goals. Therefore, high-throughput phenotyping techniques for the collection of precise phenotypic data are urgently needed. In addition,

closer cooperation is needed between breeders and molecular geneticists to effectively convert the markers from the laboratory to the field.

Omic technologies

Genomics

Genomic research has a vast capacity to accelerate the breeding process and presents applications for genetic improvement such as MAS and gene pyramiding. The genomic information of cultivated chrysanthemum has not been reported, mainly due to its unknown origin, heterozygosity, extremely large genome size (9.4 Gb, http://www.etnobiocf.cat/gsad_v2/), and high repeat content. Early on, bacterial artificial chromosome (BAC) libraries were widely used for whole-genome sequencing (WGS). However, this approach consisted of a laborious process of constructing a physical map composed of many BAC clones¹⁶. The *de novo* assembly of large genomes with large numbers of repetitive sequences and a high degree of heterozygosity based on second-generation sequencing platforms remains a challenge due to insufficient read length¹¹⁵. However, the emergence of third-generation sequencing platform technologies represented by single-molecule real-time sequencing (SMRT-seq) technology from the Pacific Biosciences (PacBio) platform and nanopore single-molecule sequencing technology from Oxford Nanopore designed to generate long reads, along with the rapid development of bioinformatics, has greatly accelerated sequence assembly and enabled the generation of high-quality assemblies¹¹⁶. Recently, the genome sequences of several Asteraceae species, including *Cynara scolymus* L. ($2n = 2x = 34$; 1.08 Gb)¹¹⁷, *Helianthus annuus* L. ($2n = 2x = 34$; 3.6 Gb)¹¹⁸, *Lactuca sativa* L. ($2n = 2x = 18$; 2.38 Gb)¹¹⁹, and *Artemisia annua* ($2n = 2x = 18$; 1.74 Gb)¹²⁰, have been revealed due to advances in sequencing technologies. More recently, the genome information of two diploid *Chrysanthemum* species, *C. nankingense*¹²¹ and *C. seticuspe*¹²², which are potential progenitors or model species of domesticated chrysanthemums, was published. The genome assembly of *C. nankingense* using 105.2 Gb of Oxford Nanopore long-read data combined with 362.3 Gb of Illumina short reads, representing ~82% of the estimated genome size, yielded 24,051 sequence contigs with a total size of 2.53 Gb and an N50 of 130.7 kb. A total of 56,870 protein-coding genes were identified, with 69.6% of the assembly annotated as repetitive elements. This research showed that *C. nankingense* genome evolution was driven by bursts of repetitive element expansion and whole-genome duplication (WGD) events. In addition, the expansion of gene families by duplication events may lead directly to variation in the ornamental and medicinal characteristics of chrysanthemum. The genome assembly of *C. seticuspe* using the Illumina sequencing platform produced 2.72 Gb

of sequences consisting of 354,212 scaffolds with an N50 length of 44.7 kb, covering ~89.0% of the estimated genome size. Based on the assembled genome, a total of 71,057 protein-coding genes were recovered, and a CEN-like gene potentially related to flowering was newly identified. SNP identification and annotation performed by mapping the transcriptome data of six chrysanthemum varieties onto the *C. seticuspe* genome demonstrated that the *C. seticuspe* genome is applicable to genetic analysis in cultivated chrysanthemums. The published genome sequence information of the two diploid chrysanthemums will undoubtedly offer new resources and guidance for elucidating the origin and evolution of cultivated chrysanthemums. In addition, the emergence and constant improvement of Hi-C technology provide an opportunity to assemble the genomes of complex species at the chromosome level, making it a promising prospect for the future WGS of cultivated chrysanthemum.

Transcriptomics

Transcriptomics is the study of the transcriptome, specifically characterizing and quantifying the complete set of RNAs present in a specific organ, tissue, or cell in a given organism using high-throughput methods¹²³. In contrast to the static entities in the genome, the transcriptome is dynamic in its expression. Recently, the continual refinement of mRNA sequencing (RNA-seq) and *de novo* sequencing and assembly technology has allowed an increasing number of laboratories to characterize the transcriptomes of nonmodel species with large genomes. Moreover, several public data repositories now make it possible to exchange transcriptome data among research communities. In chrysanthemum, transcriptome sequencing is considered an effective method for elucidating the gene regulation mechanisms and networks controlling various complex biological processes and performing comparative transcriptomics studies (Table 2). In addition, the massive quantity of transcript sequences, including differentially expressed genes (DEGs), available for diverse genotypes can considerably aid in discovering interesting genes and developing a vast number of SSR and SNP markers. This in turn has propelled the large-scale mining and evaluation of novel functional allelic variation diversity levels for transgenic breeding and MAS applications.

Plant growth and development

Plant growth and development is a complicated hierarchical system that is dynamically controlled by a network composed of various genes. Flowering is a complex developmental process in plants during which morphological and physiological changes affecting several external and internal factors occur¹²⁴. By performing RNA-seq, Wang et al.¹²⁵ identified several unigenes related to

Table 2 Recent published transcriptomic studies in chrysanthemum

Category	Material	Plant organ/ developmental stage	Study objective	Methodology	Reference
Plant growth and development	<i>C. lavandulifolium</i>	Leaves in seedling and visible bud stage	Flowering	RNA-seq	125
	'Fenditan'	Vegetative buds, floral buds, and buds	Flower development	RNA-seq	126
	'Jinba'	Whorl petals at four developmental stages	Petal growth	RNA-seq	127
Stress resistance	'Fall Color'	Leaves and roots	Drought stress	RNA-seq	128
	'Jinba'	Leaves and roots	Salt stress	RNA-seq	129
	'Jinba'	Seedlings	Cold stress	RNA-seq	130
	<i>C. nankingense</i>	Leaf	Heat stress	RNA-seq	131
	'Nannongxuefeng', 'Qinglu'	Roots	Waterlogging stress	RNA-seq	132
	'Nannongxunzhang'	Leaf	Aphid stress	miRNAs	134
	'Zaoyihong'	Leaf	Disease	RNA-seq	135
	'Shinm'	Leaf	RNA viruses	Microarray	136
Secondary metabolism	'C029', 'C008'	Leaf	White rust	RNA-seq	137
	'Purple Reagan'	Ray florets at five developmental stages	Anthocyanin biosynthesis	RNA-seq	143
	'Feeling White', 'Feeling Green', and 'Feeling Green Dark'	Ray florets	Chlorophyll metabolism in petal	Microarray	144
	'Chuju'	Flowers at four developmental stages	Flavonoid biosynthesis	RNA-seq	145

photoperiod, vernalization, gibberellin, and autonomous pathways that exhibited dramatically different expression levels between the seedling stage and the visible bud stage in *C. lavandulifolium*. Many TF genes, such as MIKC type, YABBY, and SBP, were selected as candidate genes for flowering in chrysanthemums. Petal size directly determines the appreciation value of chrysanthemum¹²⁶. Wang et al.¹²⁷ performed an RNA-seq analysis by collecting data at different petal development stages in the chrysanthemum cv. 'Jinba' and identified MADS, TCP, and bHLH as the three primary types of TFs associated with flower development. Further studies showed that *TCP4* and *TCP9* may function as positive regulators of chrysanthemum petal growth. Novel flower shape is of great importance for marketing in ornamental plants. A comparative transcriptome analysis between the florets and leaves revealed several key DEGs involved in flower development, flower organ differentiation, and anthocyanin biosynthesis¹²⁶.

Stress resistance

Mining crucial genetic resources controlling resistance characters will greatly contribute to breeding programs. Transcriptome-sequencing technology has been widely

used for the identification of major regulatory genes and gene networks controlling responses to several abiotic stresses (i.e., drought¹²⁸, salt¹²⁹, cold¹³⁰, heat¹³¹, and waterlogging¹³²). MicroRNAs (miRNAs), which are ~22 nt in size, are the most abundant class of endogenous noncoding small RNAs (smRNAs) in plants and play important roles in plant biological processes¹³³. Chrysanthemums are easily attacked by aphids throughout the growing season, seriously affecting their growth and ornamental value. Xia et al.¹³⁴ quantified the abundance of miRNAs induced by aphid infestation in chrysanthemum leaves and identified miR159a, miR160a, and miR393a as the most likely miRNAs to respond to aphid infestation in chrysanthemum. In addition, pathogens such as viruses, viroids, fungi, and phytoplasma seriously reduce the production of chrysanthemums. Transcriptome-sequencing technology has also been used to examine disease resistance to chrysanthemum black spot disease¹³⁵, several viral diseases¹³⁶, and white-rust disease¹³⁷. However, all the reported transcriptome studies of chrysanthemum have been based on microarray or second-generation sequencing platforms producing reads with lengths of <400 bp. Due to this read length

limitation, more chimeras are produced in the process of transcript assembly, and complete transcript information cannot be accurately obtained; this problem greatly reduces the accuracy of quantitative expression, alternative splicing, and gene fusion studies. The PacBio SMRT-seq technology platform has introduced powerful new tools to help solve this problem. Although the longer SMRT-seq reads are less accurate, they can be modified by more accurate data from second-generation sequencing^{116,138}. Recently, Zhao et al.¹³⁹ performed a comparative transcriptome study of salt stress using RNA-seq and SMRT-seq to improve the quality and accuracy of the results. As a result, many DEGs associated with signal transduction, the biofilm system, the antioxidant system, and the osmotic regulation system, such as MAPK, ACOT, SOD, CAT, PMP, and P5CR, were identified. The responses of plants to stresses and the acquisition of stress resistance are regulated by a complex system of interacting signals and are susceptible to some environmental factors. Although a wide range of genes or TFs involved in different signaling pathway responses to stresses have been identified with transcriptome-sequencing technology in chrysanthemum, these studies were specific to a particular stress, and thus, contribute less to a comprehensive understanding of this complex system. Therefore, designing a rational set of experiments to investigate common genes or pathway responses to multiple stresses would provide breeders with an opportunity to improve the synthetic resistance of chrysanthemum by developing gene-specific molecular markers or pursuing transgenic breeding.

Secondary metabolism

Plants can synthesize various low-molecular-weight organic compounds, termed secondary metabolites, which generally possess attractive biological activities and are useful as pharmaceuticals, flavorings, fragrances, and insecticides¹⁴⁰. Therefore, secondary metabolites are important targets for breeding programs, and their biosynthetic pathways are a topic of study. Flower color is determined by several metabolites including anthocyanins, carotenoids, and chlorophylls and influences the commercial value of chrysanthemum cultivars¹⁴¹. Light is a major external factor affecting anthocyanin biosynthesis¹⁴². Five libraries were designed for transcriptomic analyses to investigate the molecular mechanisms of light-induced anthocyanin biosynthesis, and the results revealed three *CmMYB* genes and one *CmbHLH* gene as primary TFs that might regulate anthocyanin biosynthesis under light conditions¹⁴³. Recently, increasing numbers of green-flowered chrysanthemum cultivars have appeared on the flower market and have been greatly admired by their purchasers. Chlorophyll accumulation is the main determinant of the green flower color, and the chlorophyll

content decreases as petal development progresses¹⁴⁴. The expression levels of chlorophyll-related genes in white- and green-flowered chrysanthemum cultivars were compared by Ohmiya et al.¹⁴⁴ using microarray analyses. Among these genes, *STAY GREEN* (*SRG*), which encodes Mg dechelatase, a key enzyme controlling chlorophyll degradation, showed markedly higher levels in petals. Chrysanthemums have also been used in teas after special processing throughout history, and the development of new tea cultivars with improved medicinal and nutritional quality is a new direction for chrysanthemum breeding. Yue et al.¹⁴⁵ performed a transcriptome analysis of 'Chuju' chrysanthemum, a well-known medicinal species. A MYB-bHLH-WD40 (MBW) complex was found to tightly regulate flavonoid biosynthesis along with flower development. A coexpression network analysis indicated that different members of the MBW complex might be subject to different positive or negative regulatory mechanisms. Several regulatory and structural candidate genes possibly involved in flavonoid biosynthesis were detected and characterized, and these genes will provide valuable genetic resources for studies of nutrition improvement and transgenic breeding in chrysanthemum.

Proteomics

Proteomic approaches have been successfully used in several sequenced plants, such as rice and *Arabidopsis*, to study diverse bioprocesses and environmental adaptations^{146,147}. Ornamental chrysanthemums are traditionally cultivated by vegetative stem cutting, after which regeneration occurs via adventitious roots; therefore, the investigation of the molecular mechanisms underlying adventitious root formation is of particular significance in chrysanthemum breeding. Using the classical two-dimensional electrophoresis (2-DE) method, Liu et al.¹⁴⁸ successfully identified 69 differentially accumulated protein spots between cut chrysanthemum bases of different ages. Most of the detected proteins were linked to carbohydrates, photosynthesis, energy metabolism, and cell structure, and the auxin-induced proteins PCNT115 and CmACO were tightly correlated with adventitious root formation, as supported by western blot experiments. A comparative proteomic analysis of post-harvest medicinal chrysanthemum flowers under normal or UV-B radiation conditions allowed the detection of 43 differentially accumulated protein spots, some of which were identified as participating in photosynthesis, respiration, and defense¹⁴⁹. The primary drawbacks of 2-DE are its low repeatability and resolution. To overcome these limitations, novel protein identification and quantification techniques with high accuracy, such as the isobaric tags for relative and absolute quantitation (iTRAQ) method and mass spectrometry (MS), have been developed¹⁵⁰.

A comparative proteomic analysis was performed using two contrasting chrysanthemum varieties that were either subjected to 6 h of heat stress or not using iTRAQ combined with tandem MS and multidimensional liquid chromatography technology¹⁵¹. The research identified 250 differentially expressed proteins, 43 of which were involved in photosynthesis, metabolic processes, oxidation-reduction processes, and transport. Subsequently, iTRAQ was successfully applied in proteomic studies of embryo abortion^{152,153} and pollen abortion in chrysanthemum¹⁵⁴. Although several protein-related studies have been published for chrysanthemum, the number lags far behind that for model plants and is significantly lower than the number of transcriptomics studies.

Metabolomics

Metabolomics is a postgenomic technology that seeks to provide a comprehensive profile of all the metabolites (estimated to be at least 200,000) present in a typical plant and represents an important branch of systems biology¹⁵⁵. Miyazawa and Hisama¹⁵⁶ isolated and identified the antimutagenic metabolites in the flower heads of chrysanthemum by electron-impact (EI)-MS, infrared (IR) spectroscopy, and nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectrometry. The analysis concluded that the flavonoids acetin, apigenin, and luteolin were primary compounds in chrysanthemum and may be potent biological antimutagens that are useful as cancer chemopreventive agents. A standardized profiling method, liquid chromatography-diode array detection-electrospray ionization/MS (LC-DAD-ESI/MS), was used to successfully detect some flavonoids and caffeic acid derivatives in the flowers of chrysanthemum, clarifying the biological activity of chrysanthemum and its human health benefits¹¹. Liu et al.¹⁵⁷ proposed a green method for the characterization and quantitation of chrysanthemum metabolites by pressurized hot-water extraction coupled with high-performance LC (HPLC)/UV radiation. Chrysanthemum is a typical short-day plant with photoperiod-induced flowering. Kjaer et al.¹⁵⁸ reported a larger leaf area of chrysanthemum plants under long-day conditions than under short-day conditions and short-day conditions with irregular night interruption conditions. Further research indicated that photoperiodic variation changed the leaf metabolic profile, but only carbohydrates, citrate, and some amino acids showed a shift in the diurnal pattern. Flowers produce various particular metabolites, such as fragrant volatiles, to attract pollinators, initiate or inhibit signaling cascades, and protect against herbivores or pathogens¹⁵⁹. The types of metabolites vary among different species, and even different genotypes of a certain species may exhibit a wide range of these substances¹⁶⁰.

An effective multicomponent quantification fingerprinting method combining HPLC, DAD, and ESI tandem/MS (HPLC-DAD-ESI/MS) was established and shown to simultaneously determine several caffeoylquinic acid derivatives and flavonoids in chrysanthemum cultivars¹⁶¹. The qualitative and quantitative analysis of the major volatile compounds produced by flowers among different chrysanthemum materials determined by gas chromatography (GC)-MS showed that monoterpenoids and oxygenated monoterpenoids were the major organic components¹⁶², and that more abundant volatiles could be identified in chrysanthemum cultivars than in wild plants. Developing new cultivars with a long vase life and long storability is challenging for chrysanthemum breeders. van Geest et al.¹⁶³ were able to show metabolic profile differences under carbohydrate starvation using NMR spectroscopy and high-performance anion-exchange chromatography (HPAEC), revealing that the camphor, phenylpropanoid, and flavonoid contents of the plants were responsible for the genotype-specific profiles, but the carbohydrate contents could not explain all the variation in degreening sensitivity. A metabolomic strategy based on combined headspace-GC-MS (HSGC-MS) and ultra-HPLC (UHPLC)-MS data sets was first proposed by Zhang et al.¹⁶⁴ to analyze the volatile and nonvolatile substances present in chrysanthemum, respectively. More recently, a number of differential primary metabolite profiles were identified in the leaves and roots of wild-type and transgenic *CmPht1;2* plants, revealing that overexpression of *CmPht1;2* might improve low-phosphorus stress via metabolic adaptation in chrysanthemum¹⁶⁵.

Overall, the metabolome is influenced by genotype, tissue, developmental stage, and the plant's ecological habitat. Metabolomics is an important extended omics layer that can provide chemical evidence allowing us to understand the phenomena occurring in cells or tissues under certain conditions¹⁸. Currently, metabolome profiling can be used to evaluate metabolic phenotypes and to identify metabolite QTLs (mQTLs) in segregating or natural populations, which contributes to the breeding of traits associated with the production of functionally useful metabolites in crops. To date, several fairly mature technologies or sophisticated combinations of these tools have been employed in metabolomic analyses of chrysanthemum and have generated very large amounts of data. However, no studies of mQTLs have been reported. Therefore, developing specific software to improve the capacity to recognize different metabolites and combining the identified metabolites with genetic studies whose results can be utilized in actual chrysanthemum-breeding programs are the main challenges faced by researchers in related fields.

Microbiomics

Microbiomics is a discipline that applies omics technologies to plant microbial communities. The rhizosphere microbiome, which includes bacterial and fungal communities, directly affects plant immunity, pathogen abundance, nutrient acquisition, and stress tolerance, among other characteristics. Plants live in association with diverse microorganisms, and plant-microbe interactions harbor a vast capacity to change invasive growth characteristics^{166,167}. The study of plant microbiomes depends on both laboratory culture techniques and species identification based on PCR amplification followed by sequencing, microarray analysis, terminal restriction fragment length polymorphism (TRFLP) analysis, or various electrophoretic procedures, including denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis (DGGE) and temperature gradient gel electrophoresis (TGGE)¹⁶⁸. The abundance and diversity of many bacterial and fungal communities have been investigated via DGGE in chrysanthemum^{169,170}. As observed for most crop species, the production of chrysanthemum is decreasing dramatically because of serious obstacles to continuous cropping. Chrysanthemums are easily infected by *Fusarium* wilt, which is regarded as the most serious soil-borne facultative pathogen, in long-term monoculture¹⁷¹. Control of this disease is currently achieved with chemical fungicides and soil fumigation, but these measures might negatively influence the environment and soil ecosystem. A biological control method was proposed by Liu et al.¹⁷² in which chlamydospores of *Phanerochaete chrysosporium* were inoculated into the chrysanthemum rhizosphere to reduce this continuous-cropping obstacle by changing the microbial community, phenolic acid content, and enzyme activity. In addition, Cipriano and Freitas¹⁷³ demonstrated that two *Pseudomonas putida* strains can be used as beneficial microorganisms and present great potential to safely and effectively promote plant growth and flowering under field conditions. Several publications have shown the usefulness of NGS technologies for revealing microorganisms that live in association with plants^{174,175}. However, there has been little research on the microbiomes of ornamental species, including chrysanthemum, using NGS.

Conclusions and perspectives

Problems associated with molecular breeding in chrysanthemum

Although substantial progress has been made in transgenic breeding and MAS technologies for horticultural trait improvement in chrysanthemum, as mentioned in this review, many technical and scientific challenges that prevent the application of these technologies in actual breeding programs remain. First, the horticultural industry is paying attention to improved safety of products and environmental protection. To achieve these goals and

remain competitive, further technical innovations and scientific transgenic plant safety evaluation systems are needed to bring transgenic chrysanthemums to the market. Furthermore, the application of new gene-editing technologies, such as the use of the CRISPR/Cas9 system, zinc finger nucleases (ZFNs), and transcription activator-like effector nucleases (TALENs), has enormous potential to benefit the ornamental horticulture industry by supporting targeted genomic modifications. However, the development of specific experimental and analytical methods for polyploids is urgently required. The rapid development of molecular marker technology, especially the availability of large-scale SNPs, is a revolutionary change for chrysanthemum. Diploid genome sequences can be used as references for genetic and genomic analysis in polyploid species. Currently, the release of the genomes of the two diploids, *C. nankingense* and *C. seticuspe*, as reference plants, is shedding light on the complex nature of the hexaploid-cultivated chrysanthemum. Hence, the development sequence-based markers such as SNPs, InDels, and structural variants (SVs) that can be used for linkage and association-mapping studies in a large population is becoming possible. However, to achieve this goal, the genetic relations between the two diploids and cultivated chrysanthemums should first be investigated to guarantee a sufficient mapping ratio. Moreover, developing 'breeder-friendly' markers that could reduce the cost and time of high-throughput genotyping while lowering error rates will certainly allow the screening of allele composition to be incorporated into breeding programs, for example, through the use of gel-free KASP markers or the conversion of nonbreeder-friendly markers to other types of 'breeder-friendly' markers (e.g., RFLP to STS, RAPD to SCAR).

Multiomic integration facilitates the understanding of biological systems

As the development of NGS technologies and the emergence of multiple omics platforms and technical innovations allow the constant production of a wealth of genomic, transcriptomic, proteomic, metabolomic, and microbiomic data, we are clearly approaching the era of 'big biological data'. In recent years, breakthroughs have been made in the application of these omics technologies in chrysanthemum, but such applications are still in their infancy, lagging far behind those for model plants and some crop plants, and they are used mainly in transcriptomic studies. As the preceding overview of this process shows, the lack of full-genome sequences is undoubtedly the foremost limitation to scientific studies of chrysanthemum. The generation of the full-genome sequences of the two diploid *Chrysanthemum* species is expected to contribute to the identification of genes of interest and the future genome assembly of cultivated

chrysanthemum. However, bioinformatics tools and algorithms that can be used to obtain reliable genome sequences represent the most urgent problem. Moreover, phenotyping large populations across developmental stages and in response to environmental variables is now the most challenging task of the breeding process¹⁷⁶. The introduction of phenomics offers the possibility of revealing the genetic mechanisms underlying some previously intractable scientific problems in detail by using recently developed advanced sensors, cameras, computers, robotics, and machine vision and image analysis tools¹⁷⁷. Integrating and interpreting this global information composed of different hierarchical multiomic data sets in a synthetic manner will help provide a

comprehensive understanding of the dynamic molecular regulatory mechanisms and gene networks that are active in plants¹⁷⁸. Multiomic integration is expected to accelerate the plant-breeding process. To date, only a few attempts have been made to combine transcriptomic and proteomic data in chrysanthemum^{152–154}. Thus, developing cost-effective high-throughput phenotyping platforms, establishing sustainable and integrative omics data management systems, developing bioinformatics tools and more efficient algorithms, and building specialized databases that are accessible on the Internet to satisfy the ever-increasing needs for data size and analysis are of great urgency for both researchers and breeders of chrysanthemum.

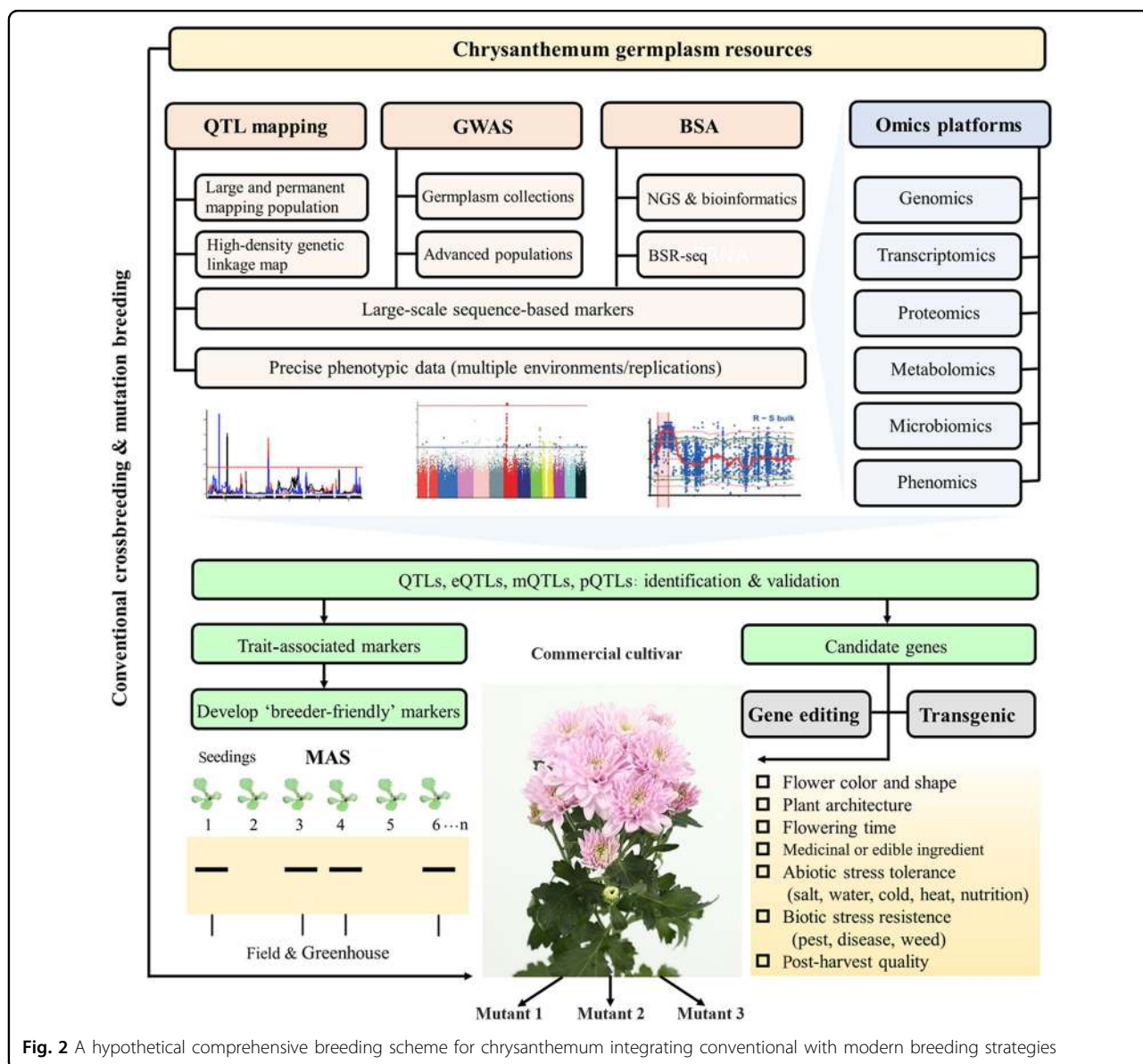


Fig. 2 A hypothetical comprehensive breeding scheme for chrysanthemum integrating conventional with modern breeding strategies

Prospects of chrysanthemum breeding

With the rising demand for chrysanthemum, the development of new attractive cultivars with comprehensive resistance to various environmental stresses is urgently needed. Molecular and omics methods are expected to expedite the breeding process compared with conventional methods, which remain the mainstay of practical breeding programs for hexaploid chrysanthemum. The integration of genomic and other omics data with genetic and phenotypic data contributes to the identification of genes/pathways associated with important traits¹⁷⁹. In view of the respective advantages and bottlenecks of these breeding strategies, as discussed above, we propose a comprehensive chrysanthemum-breeding scheme, which is shown in Fig. 2. Selecting suitable parents or populations with desired traits from the abundant germplasm resources of chrysanthemum, which are the materials used for genetic studies, is the fundamental basis of breeding programs. Large-scale sequence-based markers, such as SNPs and InDels, and precise phenotypic data could be easily obtained through multiomic technologies and provide a crucial basis for the application of GWAS and QTL-mapping analysis to locate genes of interest and linkage markers associated with the target traits. The validated QTLs/markers could be used directly or transformed into ‘breeder-friendly’ markers to be effectively used in MAS, expediting the breeding process. Notably, transcript, protein, and metabolite profiles may serve as phenotypic information in linkage-mapping populations or natural populations to detect loci controlling their expression levels; such analyses are known as eQTL/eGWAS, pQTL/pGWAS, and mQTL/mGWAS, respectively. These methods have been used for several species with continuous improvement^{179–182}. Moreover, the key candidate genes identified by genetic studies or omics methods could be utilized through transgenic or gene-editing technologies. Finally, if a genotype is ready to become a commercial cultivar, a novel flower color and shape, similar to other desired traits, could be easily generated through mutation breeding. Overall, the exploration of feasible methods for employing these new technologies is still in the initial stage for chrysanthemum. Despite the restrictions discussed in this article, the combination of modern breeding strategies with conventional methods would clearly be a superior approach for improving major horticultural characteristics, incorporating multiple characters into a single cultivar and expanding the usage of chrysanthemum in the floriculture industry.

Acknowledgements

This study was financially supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (31700620, 31701959), the Modern Agricultural Industry Technology System of Jiangsu Province (JATS[2018]278), the National Science

Fund for Distinguished Young Scholars (31425022), the Fundamental Research Funds for the Central Universities (KJQN201812, KJQN201815), and a project funded by the Priority Academic Program Development of Jiangsu Higher Education Institutions.

Author contributions

F.C. planned the outline of the review. J.S. collected the available literature and completed the first draft of the paper. F.C., J.J., and F.Z. critically reviewed and improved the paper. Y.L. and L.D. compiled the tables and corrected the references. S.C. read the paper and made constructive suggestions. All authors approved the final paper.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Received: 4 May 2019 Revised: 11 August 2019 Accepted: 14 August 2019

Published online: 01 October 2019

References

- Teixeira da Silva, J. A. et al. Chrysanthemum biotechnology: Quo vadis? *Crit. Rev. Plant Sci.* **32**, 21–52 (2013).
- Anderson, N. O. *Flower Breeding And Genetics: Issues, Challenges And Opportunities For The 21st Century*. (Springer Science & Business Media, 2006).
- Chen, F., Chen, P. & Li, H. Genome analysis and their phylogenetic relationships of several wild species of *Dendranthema* in China. *Acta Hortic. Sin.* **23**, 67–72 (1996).
- Dai, S., Chen, J. & Li, W. Application of RAPD analysis in the study on the origin of Chinese cultivated chrysanthemum. *Acta Bot. Sin.* **40**, 1053–1059 (1998).
- Liu, P., Wan, Q., Guo, Y., Yang, J. & Rao, G. Phylogeny of the genus *Chrysanthemum* L.: evidence from single-copy nuclear gene and chloroplast DNA sequences. *PLoS One* **7**, e48970 (2012).
- Dowrick, G. J. The chromosomes of Chrysanthemum, Ilgarden varieties. *Heredity* **7**, 59–72 (1953).
- Roxas, N. J., Tashiro, Y., Miyazaki, S., Isshiki, S. & Takeshita, A. Meiosis and pollen fertility in Higo chrysanthemum (*Dendranthema × grandiflorum* (Ramat.) Kitam. *J. Jpn Soc. Hortic. Sci.* **64**, 161–168 (1995).
- Spaargaren, J. & van Geest, G. in *Ornamental Crops*, Vol. 11 (eds Van Huylbroeck, J.) Ch.14 (Springer, Cham, 2018).
- Chong, X. et al. A SNP-enabled assessment of genetic diversity, evolutionary relationships and the identification of candidate genes in chrysanthemum. *Genome Biol. Evol.* **8**, 3661–3671 (2016).
- Anderson, N. O. in *Flower Breeding and Genetics* p. 389–437 (Springer, 2007).
- Lin, L. & Hamly, J. M. Identification of the phenolic components of chrysanthemum flower (*Chrysanthemum morifolium* Ramat). *Food Chem.* **120**, 319–326 (2010).
- Ibitoye, D. & Akin-Idowu, P. Marker-assisted-selection (MAS): a fast track to increase genetic gain in horticultural crop breeding. *Afr. J. Biotechnol.* **10**, 11333–11339 (2011).
- Madhusudhana, R. in *Breeding Sorghum for Diverse End Uses* (eds Aruna, C. et al.) Ch. 6 (Woodhead Publishing, 2019).
- Azadi, P., Bagheri, H., Nalouisi, A. M., Nazari, F. & Chandler, S. F. Current status and biotechnological advances in genetic engineering of ornamental plants. *Biotechnol. Adv.* **34**, 1073–1090 (2016).
- Noman, A. et al. Biotechnological advancements for improving floral attributes in ornamental plants. *Front. Plant Sci.* **8**, 530 (2017).
- Das, G., Patra, J. K. & Baek, K. H. Insight into MAS: a molecular tool for development of stress resistant and quality of rice through gene stacking. *Front. Plant Sci.* **8**, 985 (2017).
- Wijerathna, Y. Marker assisted selection: biotechnology tool for rice molecular breeding. *Adv. Crop Sci. Technol.* **3**, 187 (2015).
- Choi, H. K. Translational genomics and multi-omics integrated approaches as a useful strategy for crop breeding. *Genes Genom.* **41**, 133–146 (2019).
- Bohra, A., Jha, U. C., & Kumar, S. in *Biofortification of Food Crops* (eds Singh U. et al.) (Springer, New Delhi, 2016).
- Dossa, K. et al. The emerging oilseed crop *Sesamum indicum* enters the “Omics” era. *Front. Plant Sci.* **8**, 1154 (2017).

21. Bhat, J. A. et al. in *Pulse Improvement* (eds Wani S. & Jain M.) Ch. 2 (Springer, Cham, 2018).
22. Anderson, N. O. et al. Mammoth™ series garden chrysanthemum 'Lavender Daisy'. *HortScience* **49**, 1600–1604 (2014).
23. Su, J. et al. Combining ability, heterosis, genetic distance and their inter-correlations for waterlogging tolerance traits in chrysanthemum. *Euphytica* **213**, 42 (2017).
24. Zhang, M., Huang, H., Wang, Q. & Dai, S. Cross breeding new cultivars of early-flowering multiflora chrysanthemum based on mathematical analysis. *HortScience* **53**, 421–426 (2018).
25. Ibrahim, R., Ahmad, Z., Salleh, S., Hassan, A. A., & Ariffin, S. in *Ornamental Crops*, Vol. 11 (eds Van Huylbroeck, J.) Ch.11 (Springer, Cham, 2018).
26. Soliman, T. M. et al. Isolation of flower color and shape mutations by gamma radiation of *Chrysanthemum morifolium* Ramat cv. Youka. *Euphytica* **199**, 317–324 (2014).
27. Okamura, M., Hase, Y., Furusawa, Y. & Tanaka, A. Tissue-dependent somational mutation frequencies and spectra enhanced by ion beam irradiation in chrysanthemum. *Euphytica* **202**, 333–343 (2015).
28. Miller, N. & Kulus, D. Microwave treatment can induce chrysanthemum phenotypic and genetic changes. *Sci. Hortic.* **227**, 223–233 (2018).
29. Kharkwal, M. C., Pandey, R. N. & Pawar, S. E. Mutation breeding for crop improvement. in *Plant Breeding*, (eds Jain, H. K. & Kharkwal, M. C.) Ch. 26, 601–645 (Springer, Dordrecht, 2004).
30. Nagatomi, S., Miyahira, E., Degi, K. Combined effect of gamma irradiation methods in vitro explant sources on mutation induction of flower colour in *Chrysanthemum morifolium* Ramat. *Gamma feild symposia* (1997).
31. Chandler, S. F. & Sanchez, C. Genetic modification; the development of transgenic ornamental plant varieties. *Plant Biotechnol. J.* **10**, 891–903 (2012).
32. Yamaguchi, H. et al. Effects of ion beam irradiation on mutation induction and nuclear DNA content in chrysanthemum. *Breed. Sci.* **60**, 398–404 (2010).
33. Cheng, L., Wei, Q., Imtiaz, M., Gao, J. & Hong, B. Advances in application of transgenic breeding technology in the traits improvement of chrysanthemum. *Acta Hortic. Sin.* **40**, 1813–1825 (2013).
34. Li, F. et al. Chrysanthemum *CmHSA4* gene positively regulates salt stress tolerance in transgenic chrysanthemum. *Plant Biotechnol. J.* **16**, 1311–1321 (2018).
35. Li, P. et al. Chrysanthemum WRKY gene *CmWRKY17* negatively regulates salt stress tolerance in transgenic chrysanthemum and Arabidopsis plants. *Plant Cell Rep.* **34**, 1365–1378 (2015).
36. Liang, Q. et al. Chrysanthemum WRKY gene *DgWRKY5* enhances tolerance to salt stress in transgenic chrysanthemum. *Sci. Rep.* **7**, 4799 (2017).
37. Wang, K. et al. Overexpression of *DgWRKY4* enhances salt tolerance in chrysanthemum seedlings. *Front. Plant Sci.* **8**, 1592 (2017).
38. Jaffar, M. et al. Involvement of *CmWRKY10* in drought tolerance of chrysanthemum through the ABA-signaling pathway. *Int. J. Mol. Sci.* **17**, 693 (2016).
39. Fan, Q. et al. *CmWRKY1* enhances the dehydration tolerance of chrysanthemum through the regulation of ABA-associated genes. *PLoS ONE* **11**, e0150572 (2016).
40. Fan, Q. et al. *CmWRKY15* facilitates *Alternaria tenuissima* infection of chrysanthemum. *PLoS ONE* **10**, e0143349 (2015).
41. Li, P. et al. The over-expression of a chrysanthemum WRKY transcription factor enhances aphid resistance. *Plant Physiol. Biochem.* **95**, 26–34 (2015).
42. Du, X. et al. Over-expression of chrysanthemum *CmDREB6* enhanced tolerance of chrysanthemum to heat stress. *BMC Plant Biol.* **18**, 178 (2018).
43. Qi, Y. et al. The over-expression of a chrysanthemum gene encoding an RNA polymerase II CTD phosphatase-like 1 enzyme enhances tolerance to heat stress. *Hortic. Res.* **5**, 37 (2018).
44. Gao, W. et al. Overexpression of *Chrysanthemum lavandulifolium* *CICBF1* in *Chrysanthemum morifolium* 'White Snow' improves the level of salinity and drought tolerance. *Plant Physiol. Biochem.* **124**, 50–58 (2018).
45. Huang, D. et al. Identification and characterization of *CYC*-like genes in regulation of ray floret development in *Chrysanthemum morifolium*. *Front. Plant Sci.* **7**, 1633 (2016).
46. Wang, J. et al. The *CmTCP20* gene regulates petal elongation growth in *Chrysanthemum morifolium*. *Plant Sci.* **280**, 248–257 (2019).
47. Sun, C. et al. The *MADS* transcription factor *CmANR1* positively modulates root system development by directly regulating *CmPIN2* in chrysanthemum. *Hortic. Res.* **5**, 52 (2018).
48. Ishak, A., Dong, L., Rong, H., Zhang, S. & Zhao, L. Isolation and functional analysis of the regulation of branching by isopentenyl transferase gene *CmIPT1* in *Chrysanthemum morifolium* cv. 'Jinba'. *Am. J. Mol. Biol.* **8**, 92 (2018).
49. Wen, C. et al. Roles of *DgD14* in regulation of shoot branching in chrysanthemum (*Dendranthema grandiflorum* 'Jinba'). *Plant Physiol. Biochem.* **96**, 241–253 (2015).
50. Wen, C. et al. Physiological controls of chrysanthemum *DgD27* gene expression in regulation of shoot branching. *Plant Cell Rep.* **35**, 1053–1070 (2016).
51. Nie, J. et al. The AP2/ERF transcription factor *CmERF053* of chrysanthemum positively regulates shoot branching, lateral root, and drought tolerance. *Plant Cell Rep.* **37**, 1049–1060 (2018).
52. Yang, Y. et al. A zinc finger protein regulates flowering time and abiotic stress tolerance in chrysanthemum by modulating gibberellin biosynthesis. *Plant Cell* **26**, 2038–2054 (2014).
53. Wei, Q. et al. Control of chrysanthemum flowering through integration with an aging pathway. *Nat. Commun.* **8**, 829 (2017).
54. Xing, X. et al. The constitutive expression of a chrysanthemum ERF transcription factor influences flowering time in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. *Mol. Biotechnol.* **61**, 20–31 (2019).
55. Gao, Y. et al. Characterization of TEMINAL FLOWER1 homologs *CmTFL1c* gene from *Chrysanthemum morifolium*. *Plant Mol. Biol.* **99**, 1–15 (2019).
56. Higuchi, Y. & Hisamatsu, T. *CSTFL1*, a constitutive local repressor of flowering, modulates floral initiation by antagonising florigen complex activity in chrysanthemum. *Plant Sci.* **237**, 1–7 (2015).
57. Mao, Y. et al. Functional analysis of alternative splicing of the FLOWERING LOCUS T orthologous gene in *Chrysanthemum morifolium*. *Hortic. Res.* **3**, 16058 (2016).
58. Xie, Q., Chen, G., Liu, Q., Zhu, Z. & Hu, Z. Dual silencing of *DmCPD* and *DmGA20ox* genes generates a novel miniature and delayed-flowering *Dendranthema morifolium* variety. *Mol. Breed.* **35**, 67 (2015).
59. Li, S. et al. Effects of the silencing of *CmMET1* by RNA interference in chrysanthemum (*Chrysanthemum morifolium*). *Plant Biotechnol. Rep.* **13**, 63–72 (2019).
60. Seitz, C. et al. Cloning, functional identification and sequence analysis of flavonoid 3'-hydroxylase and flavonoid 3',5'-hydroxylase cDNAs reveals independent evolution of flavonoid 3',5'-hydroxylase in the Asteraceae family. *Plant Mol. Biol.* **61**, 365–381 (2006).
61. Noda, N. et al. Genetic engineering of novel bluer-colored chrysanthemums produced by accumulation of delphinidin-based anthocyanins. *Plant Cell Physiol.* **54**, 1684–1695 (2013).
62. Brugliera, F. et al. Violet/blue chrysanthemums—metabolic engineering of the anthocyanin biosynthetic pathway results in novel petal colors. *Plant Cell Physiol.* **54**, 1696–1710 (2013).
63. Noda, N. et al. Generation of blue chrysanthemums by anthocyanin B-ring hydroxylation and glucosylation and its coloration mechanism. *Sci. Adv.* **3**, e1602785 (2017).
64. Ma, X., Zhu, Q., Chen, Y. & Liu, Y. CRISPR/Cas9 platforms for genome editing in plants: developments and applications. *Mol. Plant* **9**, 961–974 (2016).
65. Watanabe, K. et al. CRISPR/Cas9-mediated mutagenesis of the *dihydroflavonol-4-reductase-B* (DFR-B) locus in the Japanese morning glory *Ipomoea (Pharbitis) nil*. *Sci. Rep.* **7**, 10028 (2017).
66. Watanabe, K., Oda-Yamamizo, C., Sage-Ono, K., Ohmiya, A. & Ono, M. Alteration of flower colour in *Ipomoea nil* through CRISPR/Cas9-mediated mutagenesis of carotenoid cleavage dioxygenase 4. *Transgenic Res.* **27**, 25–38 (2018).
67. Kishi-Kaboshi, M., Aida, R. & Sasaki, K. Genome engineering in ornamental plants: current status and future prospects. *Plant Physiol. Biochem.* **131**, 47–52 (2018).
68. Kishi-Kaboshi, M., Aida, R. & Sasaki, K. Generation of gene-edited *Chrysanthemum morifolium* using multycopy transgenes as targets and markers. *Plant Cell Physiol.* **58**, 216–226 (2017).
69. Peace, C. P. DNA-informed breeding of rosaceous crops: promises, progress and prospects. *Hortic. Res.* **4**, 17006 (2017).
70. Comings, D. E. & MacMurray, J. P. Molecular heterosis: a review. *Mol. Genet. Metab.* **71**, 19–31 (2000).
71. Maliepaard, C., Jansen, J. & Van Ooijen, J. Linkage analysis in a full-sib family of an outbreeding plant species: overview and consequences for applications. *Genet. Res.* **70**, 237–250 (1997).

72. Roxas, N. J., Tashiro, Y., Miyazaki, S., Isshiki, S. & Takeshita, A. Meiosis and pollen fertility in Higo chrysanthemum (*Dendranthemax grandiflorum* (Ramat.) Kitam. *J. Jpn Soc. Hortic. Sci.* **64**, 161–168 (1995).
73. Gupta, R. C., Bala, S., Sharma, S. & Kapoor, M. Cytomorphological studies in some species of *Chrysanthemum* L. (Asteraceae). *Chromosome Bot.* **8**, 69–74 (2013).
74. Zhang, F., Chen, S., Chen, F., Fang, W. & Li, F. A preliminary genetic linkage map of chrysanthemum (*Chrysanthemum morifolium*) cultivars using RAPD, ISSR and AFLP markers. *Sci. Hortic.* **125**, 422–428 (2010).
75. Zhang, F. et al. SRAP-based mapping and QTL detection for inflorescence-related traits in chrysanthemum (*Dendranthema morifolium*). *Mol. Breed.* **27**, 11–23 (2011).
76. Zhang, F., Jiang, J., Chen, S., Chen, F. & Fang, W. Mapping single-locus and epistatic quantitative trait loci for plant architectural traits in chrysanthemum. *Mol. Breed.* **30**, 1027–1036 (2012).
77. Zhang, F., Jiang, J., Chen, S., Chen, F. & Fang, W. Detection of quantitative trait loci for leaf traits in chrysanthemum. *J. Hortic. Sci. Biotechnol.* **87**, 613–618 (2012).
78. Zhang, F. et al. Genetic analysis and associated SRAP markers for flowering traits of chrysanthemum (*Chrysanthemum morifolium*). *Euphytica* **177**, 15–24 (2011).
79. Zhang, F. et al. Genetic mapping of quantitative trait loci underlying flowering time in chrysanthemum (*Chrysanthemum morifolium*). *PLoS ONE* **8**, e83023 (2013).
80. Wang, C. et al. Inheritance and molecular markers for aphid (*Macrosiphoniella sanbourni*) resistance in chrysanthemum (*Chrysanthemum morifolium* Ramat.). *Sci. Hortic.* **180**, 220–226 (2014).
81. Peng, H. et al. Identification of quantitative trait loci for branching traits of spray cut chrysanthemum. *Euphytica* **202**, 385–392 (2015).
82. Tang, H. Genetic analysis for inflorescence traits and construction of corresponding quantitative trait loci in anemone type chrysanthemum. *Nanjing Agricultural University* (2014).
83. Su, J. et al. Dynamic and epistatic QTL mapping reveals the complex genetic architecture of waterlogging tolerance in chrysanthemum. *PLANTA* **247**, 899–924 (2018).
84. Yagi, M. Recent progress in whole genome sequencing, high-density linkage maps, and genomic databases of ornamental plants. *Breed. Sci.* **68**, 17080 (2018).
85. Zhou, F. et al. Construction of a high-density genetic linkage map and QTL mapping of oleic acid content and three agronomic traits in sunflower (*Helianthus annuus* L.) using specific-locus amplified fragment sequencing (SLAF-seq). *Breed. Sci.* **68**, 18051 (2018).
86. Lu, J. et al. High-density genetic map construction and stem total polysaccharide content-related QTL exploration for Chinese endemic *Dendrobium* (Orchidaceae). *Front. Plant Sci.* **9**, 398 (2018).
87. Yu, C. et al. Filling gaps with construction of a genetic linkage map in tetraploid roses. *Front. Plant Sci.* **5**, 796 (2015).
88. Vukosavljev, M. et al. High-density SNP-based genetic maps for the parents of an outcrossed and a selfed tetraploid garden rose cross, inferred from admixed progeny using the 68k rose SNP array. *Hortic. Res.* **3**, 16052 (2016).
89. Koning-Boucoiran, C. F. S. et al. The mode of inheritance in tetraploid cut roses. *Theor. Appl. Genet.* **125**, 591–607 (2012).
90. Bourke, P. M. et al. Partial preferential chromosome pairing is genotype dependent in tetraploid rose. *Plant J.* **90**, 330–343 (2017).
91. van Geest, G. et al. Conclusive evidence for hexasomic inheritance in chrysanthemum based on analysis of a 183 k SNP array. *BMC Genom.* **18**, 585 (2017).
92. van Geest, G. et al. An ultra-dense integrated linkage map for hexaploid chrysanthemum enables multi-allelic QTL analysis. *Theor. Appl. Genet.* **130**, 2527–2541 (2017).
93. Thornsberrry, J. M. et al. *Dwarf8* polymorphisms associate with variation in flowering time. *Nat. Genet.* **28**, 286 (2001).
94. Challa, S., & Neelapu, N. R. in *Biochemical, Physiological and Molecular Avenues for Combating Abiotic Stress Tolerance in Plants* (eds Wani, S. H.) Ch. 9 (Academic Press, 2018).
95. Li, P. et al. Genetic diversity, population structure and association analysis in cut chrysanthemum (*Chrysanthemum morifolium* Ramat.). *Mol. Genet. Genom.* **291**, 1117–1125 (2016).
96. Su, J. et al. Genetic variation and association mapping of waterlogging tolerance in chrysanthemum. *PLANTA* **244**, 1241–1252 (2016).
97. Fu, X. et al. Genetic variation and association mapping of aphid (*Macrosiphoniella sanbourni*) resistance in chrysanthemum (*Chrysanthemum morifolium* Ramat.). *Euphytica* **214**, 21 (2018).
98. Li, P. et al. Association analysis of drought tolerance in cut chrysanthemum (*Chrysanthemum morifolium* Ramat.) at seedling stage. *3 Biotech* **8**, 1–9 (2018).
99. Su, J. et al. Genome-wide association study identifies favorable SNP alleles and candidate genes for waterlogging tolerance in chrysanthemums. *Hortic. Res.* **6**, 21 (2019).
100. Chong, X. et al. Identification of favorable SNP alleles and candidate genes responsible for inflorescence-related traits via GWAS in chrysanthemum. *Plant Mol. Biol.* **99**, 407–420 (2019).
101. Klie, M., Menz, I., Linde, M. & Debener, T. Strigolactone pathway genes and plant architecture: association analysis and QTL detection for horticultural traits in chrysanthemum. *Mol. Genet. Genom.* **291**, 957–969 (2016).
102. Zhang, J. et al. Genome-wide discovery of DNA polymorphisms in mei (*Prunus mume* Sieb. et Zucc.), an ornamental woody plant, with contrasting tree architecture and their functional relevance for weeping trait. *Plant Mol. Biol. Report.* **35**, 37–46 (2017).
103. Hibrand Saint-Oyant, L. et al. A high-quality genome sequence of *Rosa chinensis* to elucidate ornamental traits. *Nat. Plants* **4**, 473–484 (2018).
104. Campbell, N. R., Harmon, S. A. & Narum, S. R. Genotyping-in-Thousands by sequencing (GT-seq): a cost effective SNP genotyping method based on custom amplicon sequencing. *Mol. Ecol. Resour.* **15**, 855–867 (2015).
105. Win, K. T., Vegas, J., Zhang, C., Song, K. & Lee, S. QTL mapping for downy mildew resistance in cucumber via bulked segregant analysis using next-generation sequencing and conventional methods. *Theor. Appl. Genet.* **130**, 199–211 (2017).
106. Sang. Inheritance analysis and marker development of white rust resistance in chrysanthemum. *Seoul National University Graduate School* (2016).
107. Smulders, M. J., & Arens, P. in *Ornamental Crops*, Vol. 11 (eds Van Huylensbroeck, J.) Ch.9 (Springer, Cham, 2018).
108. Liu, S., Yeh, C. T., Tang, H. M., Nettleton, D. & Schnable, P. S. Gene mapping via bulked segregant RNA-Seq (BSR-Seq). *PLoS ONE* **7**, e36406 (2012).
109. Wu, P. et al. Development of molecular markers linked to powdery mildew resistance gene *Pm4b* by combining SNP discovery from transcriptome sequencing data with bulked segregant analysis (BSR-Seq) in wheat. *Front. Plant Sci.* **9**, 95 (2018).
110. Li, M. et al. Mapping a leaf senescence gene *els1* by BSR-Seq in common wheat. *Crop J.* **6**, 236–243 (2018).
111. Hou, X. et al. Screening of genes related to early and late flowering in tree peony based on bulked segregant RNA sequencing and verification by quantitative real-time PCR. *Molecules* **23**, 689 (2018).
112. Wani, S. H. et al. in *Biotechnologies of Crop Improvement*, Vol.3 (eds Gosal S. & Wani S.) Ch.11 (Springer, Cham, 2018).
113. Perumalsamy, S. et al. Functional marker-assisted selection for bacterial leaf blight resistance genes in rice (*Oryza sativa* L.). *Plant Breed.* **129**, 400–406 (2010).
114. Xu, Y. & Crouch, J. H. Marker-assisted selection in plant breeding: from publications to practice. *Crop Sci.* **48**, 391–407 (2008).
115. Kajitani, R. et al. Efficient de novo assembly of highly heterozygous genomes from whole-genome shotgun short reads. *Genome Res.* **24**, 1384–1395 (2014).
116. Zhu, C., Li, X. & Zheng, J. Transcriptome profiling using Illumina-and SMRT-based RNA-seq of hot pepper for in-depth understanding of genes involved in CMV infection. *Gene* **666**, 123–133 (2018).
117. Scaglione, D. et al. The genome sequence of the outbreeding globe artichoke constructed *de novo* incorporating a phase-aware low-pass sequencing strategy of F₁ progeny. *Sci. Rep.* **6**, 19427 (2016).
118. Badouin, H. et al. The sunflower genome provides insights into oil metabolism, flowering and Asterid evolution. *Nature* **546**, 148 (2017).
119. Reyes-Chin-Wo, S. et al. Genome assembly with in vitro proximity ligation data and whole-genome triplication in lettuce. *Nat. Commun.* **8**, 14953 (2017).
120. Shen, Q. et al. The genome of *Artemisia annua* provides insight into the evolution of Asteraceae family and artemisinin biosynthesis. *Mol. Plant* **11**, 776–788 (2018).
121. Song, C. et al. The *Chrysanthemum nankingense* genome provides insights into the evolution and diversification of chrysanthemum flowers and medicinal traits. *Mol. Plant* **11**, 1482–1491 (2018).

122. Hirakawa, H. et al. *De novo* whole-genome assembly in *Chrysanthemum seticospe*, a model species of Chrysanthemums, and its application to genetic and gene discovery analysis. *DNA Res.* **26**, 195–203 (2019).
123. Wang, Z., Gerstein, M. & Snyder, M. RNA-Seq: a revolutionary tool for transcriptomics. *Nat. Rev. Genet.* **10**, 57 (2009).
124. Amasino, R. Seasonal and developmental timing of flowering. *Plant J.* **61**, 1001–1013 (2010).
125. Wang, Y. et al. Construction and *de novo* characterization of a transcriptome of *Chrysanthemum lavandulifolium*: analysis of gene expression patterns in floral bud emergence. *Plant Cell Tiss. Organ* **116**, 297–309 (2014).
126. Liu, H. et al. Whole-transcriptome analysis of differentially expressed genes in the vegetative buds, floral buds and buds of *Chrysanthemum morifolium*. *PLoS ONE* **10**, e0128009 (2015).
127. Wang, J. et al. Transcriptomic and hormone analyses reveal mechanisms underlying petal elongation in *Chrysanthemum morifolium* 'Jinba'. *Plant Mol. Biol.* **93**, 593–606 (2017).
128. Xu, Y. et al. Transcriptome sequencing and whole genome expression profiling of chrysanthemum under dehydration stress. *BMC Genom.* **14**, 662 (2013).
129. Cheng, P. et al. The chrysanthemum leaf and root transcript profiling in response to salinity stress. *Gene* **674**, 161–169 (2018).
130. Wang, K. et al. Transcriptome analysis of chrysanthemum (*Dendranthema grandiflorum*) in response to low temperature stress. *BMC Genom.* **19**, 319 (2018).
131. Sun, J. et al. Identification of differentially expressed genes in *Chrysanthemum nankingense* (Asteraceae) under heat stress by RNA Seq. *Gene* **552**, 59–66 (2014).
132. Zhao, N. et al. Comparative transcriptome analysis of waterlogging-sensitive and waterlogging-tolerant *Chrysanthemum morifolium* cultivars under waterlogging stress and reoxygenation conditions. *Int. J. Mol. Sci.* **19**, 1455 (2018).
133. Sun, G. MicroRNAs and their diverse functions in plants. *Plant Mol. Biol.* **80**, 17–36 (2012).
134. Xia, X. et al. MicroRNA expression profile during aphid feeding in chrysanthemum (*Chrysanthemum morifolium*). *PLoS ONE* **10**, e0143720 (2015).
135. Li, H. et al. RNA-Seq derived identification of differential transcription in the chrysanthemum leaf following inoculation with *Alternaria tenuissima*. *BMC Genom.* **15**, 9 (2014).
136. Choi, H. et al. Comparative analysis of chrysanthemum transcriptome in response to three RNA viruses: *Cucumber mosaic virus*, *Tomato spotted wilt virus* and *Potato virus X*. *Plant Mol. Biol.* **88**, 233–248 (2015).
137. Lu, D. et al. Transcriptome analysis of chrysanthemum in responses to white rust. *Sci. Hortic.* **233**, 421–430 (2018).
138. Abdel-Ghany, S. E. et al. A survey of the sorghum transcriptome using single-molecule long reads. *Nat. Commun.* **7**, 11706 (2016).
139. Zhao, Q. et al. Transcriptome comparative analysis of salt stress responsiveness in chrysanthemum (*Dendranthema grandiflorum*) roots by Illumina- and single-molecule real-time-based RNA sequencing. *DNA Cell Biol.* **37**, 1016–1030 (2018).
140. Goossens, A. et al. A functional genomics approach toward the understanding of secondary metabolism in plant cells. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA* **100**, 8595–8600 (2003).
141. Ohmiya, A. Molecular mechanisms underlying the diverse array of petal colors in chrysanthemum flowers. *Breed. Sci.* **68**, 17075 (2018).
142. Albert, N. W. et al. Light-induced vegetative anthocyanin pigmentation in *Petunia*. *J. Exp. Bot.* **60**, 2191–2202 (2009).
143. Hong, Y., Tang, X., Huang, H., Zhang, Y. & Dai, S. Transcriptomic analyses reveal species-specific light-induced anthocyanin biosynthesis in chrysanthemum. *BMC Genom.* **16**, 202 (2015).
144. Ohmiya, A. et al. Transcriptome analysis in petals and leaves of chrysanthemums with different chlorophyll levels. *BMC Plant Biol.* **17**, 202 (2017).
145. Yue, J. et al. Transcriptome analysis of differentially expressed unigenes involved in flavonoid biosynthesis during flower development of *Chrysanthemum morifolium* 'Chujiu'. *Sci. Rep.* **8**, 13414 (2018).
146. Barkla, B. J. et al. Elucidation of salt stress defense and tolerance mechanisms of crop plants using proteomics—current achievements and perspectives. *Proteomics* **13**, 1885–1900 (2013).
147. Vanderschuren, H., Lentz, E., Zainuddin, I. & Gruijssem, W. Proteomics of model and crop plant species: status, current limitations and strategic advances for crop improvement. *J. Proteom.* **93**, 5–19 (2013).
148. Liu, R. et al. Proteomic changes in the base of chrysanthemum cuttings during adventitious root formation. *BMC Genom.* **14**, 919 (2013).
149. Yao, X. et al. Biochemical traits and proteomic changes in postharvest flowers of medicinal chrysanthemum exposed to enhanced UV-B radiation. *J. Photochem. Photobiol. B* **149**, 272–279 (2015).
150. Evans, C. et al. An insight into iTRAQ: where do we stand now? *Anal. Bioanal. Chem.* **404**, 1011–1027 (2012).
151. Zhang, Y., Sun, M. & Zhang, Q. Proteomic analysis of the heat stress response in leaves of two contrasting chrysanthemum varieties. *Plant Omics* **7**, 229 (2014).
152. Zhang, F. et al. Chromosome doubling to overcome the chrysanthemum cross barrier based on insight from analysis reveals mechanisms of embryo abortion during chrysanthemum cross breeding. *Sci. Rep.* **4**, 6536 (2014).
153. Zhang, F. et al. Chromosome doubling to overcome the chrysanthemum cross barrier based on insight from transcriptomic and proteomic analyses. *BMC Genom.* **17**, 585 (2016).
154. Wang, F. et al. Cellular and molecular characteristics of pollen abortion in chrysanthemum cv. Kingfisher. *Plant Mol. Biol.* **98**, 233–247 (2018).
155. Fiehn, O. in *Functional Genomics* (eds Town, C.) Ch.1 (Springer, Dordrecht, 2002).
156. Miyazawa, M. & Hisama, M. Antimutagenic activity of flavonoids from *Chrysanthemum morifolium*. *Biosci. Biotechnol. Biochem.* **67**, 2091–2099 (2003).
157. Liu, F., Ong, E. S. & Li, S. F. Y. A green and effective approach for characterisation and quality control of *Chrysanthemum* by pressurized hot water extraction in combination with HPLC with UV absorbance detection. *Food Chem.* **141**, 1807–1813 (2013).
158. Kjaer, K. H. et al. Photoperiodic variations induce shifts in the leaf metabolic profile of *Chrysanthemum morifolium*. *Funct. Plant Biol.* **41**, 1310–1322 (2014).
159. Dudareva, N., Klempien, A., Muhlemann, J. K. & Kaplan, I. Biosynthesis, function and metabolic engineering of plant volatile organic compounds. *New Phytol.* **198**, 16–32 (2013).
160. Zvi, M. M. B. et al. *PAP1* transcription factor enhances production of phenylpropanoid and terpenoid scent compounds in rose flowers. *New Phytol.* **195**, 335–345 (2012).
161. Xie, Y. et al. Comparative evaluation of cultivars of *Chrysanthemum morifolium* flowers by HPLC-DAD-ESI/MS analysis and antiallergic assay. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* **60**, 12574–12583 (2012).
162. Sun, H. et al. Identification of floral scent in chrysanthemum cultivars and wild relatives by gas chromatography-mass spectrometry. *Molecules* **20**, 5346–5359 (2015).
163. van Geest, G. et al. Genotypic differences in metabolomic changes during storage induced-degreening of chrysanthemum disk florets. *Postharvest Biol. Technol.* **115**, 48–59 (2016).
164. Zhang, L., Wang, L., Shi, Z., Li, P. & Li, H. A metabolomic strategy based on integrating headspace gas chromatography-mass spectrometry and liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry to differentiate the five cultivars of *Chrysanthemum* flower. *RSC Adv.* **8**, 9074–9082 (2018).
165. Liu, C. et al. Overexpression of phosphate transporter gene *CmPht1;2* facilitated pi uptake and alternated the metabolic profiles of chrysanthemum under phosphate deficiency. *Front. Plant Sci.* **9**, 686 (2018).
166. Coats, V. C. & Rumpho, M. E. The rhizosphere microbiota of plant invaders: an overview of recent advances in the microbiomics of invasive plants. *Front. Microbiol.* **5**, 368 (2014).
167. Toju, H. et al. Core microbiomes for sustainable agroecosystems. *Nat. Plants* **4**, 247–257 (2018).
168. Witzel, K. et al. Recent progress in the use of 'omics technologies in brassicaceous vegetables. *Front. Plant Sci.* **6**, 244 (2015).
169. Duineveld, B. M., Kowalchuk, G. A., Keijzer, A., van Elsas, J. D. & van Veen, J. A. Analysis of bacterial communities in the rhizosphere of chrysanthemum via denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis of PCR-amplified 16S rRNA as well as DNA fragments coding for 16S rRNA. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* **67**, 172–178 (2001).
170. Song, A. et al. The abundance and diversity of soil fungi in continuously monocropped chrysanthemum. *Scientific World J.* **2013**, 632920 (2013).
171. Farias, M. F. & Saad, J. C. C. Growth and quality of *Chrysanthemum* produced in greenhouse. *Hortic. Bras.* **23**, 740–742 (2005).
172. Liu, L. et al. Improvement in continuous cropping of cut chrysanthemum by phanerochaete chrysosporium. *Pak. J. Bot.* **48**, 1453–1457 (2016).
173. Cipriano, M. A. & Freitas, S. S. Effect of *Pseudomonas putida* on chrysanthemum growth under greenhouse and field conditions. *Afr. J. Agric. Res.* **13**, 302–310 (2018).
174. de Campos, S. B. et al. Changes in root bacterial communities associated to two different development stages of canola (*Brassica napus* L. var *oleifera*)

- evaluated through next-generation sequencing technology. *Microb. Ecol.* **65**, 593–601 (2013).
175. Knief, C. Analysis of plant microbe interactions in the era of next generation sequencing technologies. *Front. Plant Sci.* **5**, 216 (2014).
 176. Houle, D., Govindaraju, D. R. & Omholt, S. Phenomics: the next challenge. *Nat. Rev. Genet.* **11**, 855 (2010).
 177. Spalding, E. P. & Miller, N. D. Image analysis is driving a renaissance in growth measurement. *Curr. Opin. Plant Biol.* **16**, 100–104 (2013).
 178. Sacco, A., Ruggieri, V., Molisso, M. & Barone, A. 'Omics' approaches in tomato aimed at identifying candidate genes for ascorbic acid accumulation in the fruit. *Afr. J. Biotechnol.* **12**, 6791–6800 (2013).
 179. Langridge, P. & Fleury, D. Making the most of 'omics' for crop breeding. *Trends Biotechnol.* **29**, 33–40 (2011).
 180. Zhu, Z. et al. Integration of summary data from GWAS and eQTL studies predicts complex trait gene targets. *Nat. Genet.* **48**, 481 (2016).
 181. Gu, Y. et al. Identification of potential mechanism and hub genes for neuropathic pain by expression-based genome-wide association study. *J. Cell. Biochem.* **120**, 4912–4923 (2019).
 182. Fang, C. & Luo, J. Metabolic GWAS-based dissection of genetic bases underlying the diversity of plant metabolism. *Plant J.* **97**, 91–100 (2019).