1 **LETTER**

2 Underground gibberellin activity: differential gibberellin response in

- **3 tomato shoots and roots**
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14 Summary

15 GAs (Gibberellins) are growth-promoting hormones that regulate organ growth, mainly

via cell elongation. Contradicting reports leave an open question of whether GA is asimportant for root elongation as it is for stem elongation.

Here we have addressed this question focusing on tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum*)
primary-root elongation. We used a combination of physiological, molecular and
genetic approaches to tackle this question.

Tomato has three GA receptors; GID1a, GID1b1 and GID1b2. The loss of all three receptors, strongly suppressed stem elongation and leaf expansion, but had a relatively minor effect on primary root elongation. The effect of GA on cell elongation and geneexpression was much weaker in roots, than in shoots, reaching saturation at lower hormone concentrations. Our results imply that this differential response to GA in shoots and roots is caused by the lower expression of the dominant GA receptor GID1a in roots.

We show that the differential activity of GA between shoots and roots affects root-toshoot ratio, and speculate that this evolved as an adaptive mechanism to changing environments. 31 Plant organ growth is governed and modified by developmental programs and environmental cues. In most cases, these changes are mediated by the activity of 32 phytohormones (Bradford and Trewaves, 1994; Verma et al., 2016). GAs 33 (Gibberellins) are growth promoting hormones that regulate many developmental 34 processes, including organ growth and elongation (Davière and Achard., 2013). GA 35 affects elongation by promoting cell division and expansion (Ubeda-Thomas et al., 36 2009). The nuclear DELLA proteins inhibit all GA-elongating responses (Locascio et 37 al., 2013) and GA binding to the GID1 (GIBBERELLIN-INSENSITIVE DWARF1) 38 39 receptor leads to DELLA degradation and activation of growth (Ueguchi-Tanaka et al., 2005; Ueguchi-Tanaka et al., 2007). 40

While GA plays a central role in stem elongation (Sun and Gubler, 2004), its general 41 significance for root elongation is less clear, with numerous conflicting reports (Torrey, 42 1976; Feldman, 1984; Phinney, 1984; Tanimoto, 2005; Tanimoto and Hirano, 2013). It 43 44 is well established that Arabidopsis (Arabidopsis thaliana) root elongation depends on GA. Several studies demonstrate the central role of GA in Arabidopsis primary root 45 46 elongation (Achard et al., 2009; Ubeda-Tomás et al., 2008; Ubeda-Tomás et al., 2009; Rizza et al., 2017). The Arabidopsis GA deficient mutant gal-3 exhibits shorter 47 48 primary root, which is rescued by GA application or loss of DELLA activity (Fu and Harberd, 2003). Ubeda-Tomás et al. (2008) showed that inhibiting GA signaling 49 50 specifically in the endodermis of Arabidopsis roots is sufficient to disrupt root elongation, indicating that the endodermis is the key site for GA action in the regulation 51 of root elongation. This was supported by Shani et al. (2013) that found the 52 accumulation of exogenous bioactive tagged-GAs in the endodermis of the elongation 53 54 zone. Rizza et al., (2017) showed that endogenous bioactive GA levels correlate with cell length in Arabidopsis roots. Tanimoto and Hirano (2013) suggest that roots are very 55 sensitive to GA and therefore respond to extremely low GA concentrations. For 56 instance, while root elongation of the gal-3 Arabidopsis mutant was strongly induced 57 by low concentration of GA₄ (10⁻¹⁰ M), this treatment had no effect on leaf expansion 58 (Arizumii et al., 2008). 59

In other plant species however, the role of GA in root elongation is indistinct; while Whaley and Kephart (1957) show that GA application to maize (*Zea mays*) promotes root elongation, Svensson (1972) reported that the hormone has no effect on maize root growth. Similarly, Butcher and Street (1960) show that elevating GA concentrations progressively promote tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum*) root elongation, whereas Tognoni *et al.* (1966), showed that application of GA inhibits tomato root elongation in a concentration-dependent manner. Recent work by Fonouni-Farde *et al.*, (2019) showed that GA-treated *Medicago truncatula* plants display shorter primary roots compared to untreated plants, and treatments with the GA-biosynthesis inhibitor Paclobutrazole (PAC) increased root length. These suggest that in Medicago GA inhibits root elongation.

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Here we used GA tomato mutants to study the role of GA in primary root elongation. 72 73 We first examined primary root elongation in the GA deficient mutant gib-2 (Koornneef et al., 1990). We treated 14-day-old WT plants and gib-2 mutants with 10⁻⁵ M GA₃ and 74 after two-weeks we measured stem and root length. Untreated *gib-2* stems were almost 75 three times shorter than WT. GA application induced strong stem elongation in both 76 genetic backgrounds, and their final length was similar (Fig. 1a). Non-treated gib-2 77 primary roots, however, were not significantly shorter than those of the WT and GA 78 79 treatment had only a very mild effect on root length (Fig. 1a). This observation suggests that either GA has no effect on tomato root elongation, or that root elongation is highly 80 sensitive to GA and reaches saturation at very low levels of GA. Since gib-2 exhibits 81 82 residual GA activity (Illouz-Eliaz et al., 2019), this may be sufficient to allow normal root growth. We therefore tested primary root elongation in the *gid1^{TRI}* (*gid1* triple) 83 mutant that lacks any GA activity due to the loss of all three GA receptors, GID1a, 84 GID1b1 and GID1b2 (Illouz-Eliaz et al., 2019). We first measured the elongation rate 85 of primary roots and hypocotyls for 10 days following germination. Hypocotyl 86 elongation rate of gid1^{TRI} was 10-times lower than that of WT (Fig. 1b), but root 87 88 elongation rate of the mutant was only three-times lower (Fig. 1c). After ten days, primary roots of gid1^{TRI} were ca. 2.5 times shorter than those of the WT, whereas the 89 90 mutant hypocotyls were 10 times shorter (Fig. 1c). Root-to-shoot ratio was ca. 4 times higher in $gid1^{TRI}$ (Fig. 1d). Since the $gid1^{TRI}$ exhibits very slow growth, we also 91 examined mature plants of the same physiological age (similar number of leaves in 92 $gidl^{TRI}$ and WT). Primary roots of $gidl^{TRI}$ were only two times shorter than those of 93 WT, whereas gid1^{TRI} stems were ca. 10 times shorter than those of WT (Fig 1e). Thus, 94 the lack of GA activity, strongly affects shoot development, but only partially affects 95 primary root elongation. We cannot exclude the possibility that the inhibition of root 96 elongation in *gid1^{TRI}* can also be a results of limited assimilate supply by the extremely 97 small canopy. 98

99 We further tested the effect of exogenous GA on root and stem elongation. To this end, 14-day-old WT seedlings, were treated with 2 mg/L PAC followed by the application 100 of elevating GA₃ concentrations (from 10^{-7} M to 10^{-3} M). After 15 days, we measured 101 stem and primary root length. WT stems exhibited a strong and increased elongation 102 response to rising GA₃ concentrations, reaching saturation at very high concentrations 103 (above 0.5 mM, Fig. 1f). In contrast, primary root length was hardly affected and 104 exhibited a bell-curve response (Fig. 1g). To examine how GA affects cell length, we 105 treated WT seedlings with PAC or PAC with GA_3 (10⁻⁶, 10⁻⁴, and 10⁻³ M), and after 10 106 days we measured epicotyl and primary root epidermal cell length using confocal 107 microscopy. Stem epidermal cell elongation strongly responded to GA treatments and 108 cell length of stems treated with PAC and 1 mM GA₃ were four times longer than those 109 treated only with PAC (Fig 1h). Primary root epidermal cells exhibited a very mild 110 response to PAC and GA₃ (Fig 1i) and the effect of the hormone was saturated already 111 at 10⁻⁶ M. GA-treated cells were only 1.2 times longer than the PAC treated cells. 112

113 It was previously suggested that roots are more sensitive to GA than stems (Tanimoto 114 and Hirano, 2013). To further test root sensitivity to GA, we analyzed the response of various known GA-regulated genes, including GA biosynthesis (GA20-OXIDASEs and 115 GA3-OXIDASE) and signaling (GID1s) genes that are downregulated by the hormone 116 (Middleton et al., 2012; Illouz-Eliaz et al., 2019) and the GA-induced gene, GAST1 117 (GIBBERELLIC ACID STIMULATED TRANSCRIPT1, Shi et al., 1992). Seedlings 118 were treated with 2 mg/l PAC for 10 days and then with several GA₃ concentration (10⁻ 119 8 to 10⁻⁵M), and three hours later, gene expression in elongating stems and roots was 120 analyzed by qRT-PCR. We found a clear and significant response to 10⁻⁷M, but not to 121 10⁻⁸M GA₃, for all genes, in both elongating stems and roots (Fig 2a-f), suggesting 122 similar sensitivity to GA. Moreover, the intensity of the molecular response in roots 123 was weaker and saturated at lower concentrations than in stems. These results are 124 consistent with our cell elongation results (Fig. 1h and i). 125

We previously showed that GID1a is the dominant GA receptor in tomato stems, due to its high affinity to DELLA and the fact that it is not inhibited by the feedback response to GA (Illouz-Eliaz *et al.*, 2019). Its presence alone, in the absence of GID1b1 and GID1b2 activity, can induce the strong stem-elongation response to exogenous GA that is saturated only at very high concentrations. GID1b1 and GID1b2 exhibit a weak GA response that is saturated at low concentrations. To examine if the differential

response to GA in stems and roots results from differential activity of the different 132 GID1s, we tested the effect of GA application on the three tomato gid1 double mutants. 133 The GID1 family in tomato is composed of three members, therefore each double 134 mutant contains, one active GID1. In stems, only gid1b1 gid1b2 with active GID1a 135 exhibited strong elongation response, similar to WT (Fig. 2g, Illouz-Eliaz et al., 2019). 136 In contrast, roots of this double mutant did not show elongation response (Fig. 2h), 137 suggesting that GID1a does not promote strong GA response in roots as it does in stems. 138 Previously we showed that GID1a and GID1b1 are highly expressed in elongating 139 140 stems, while GID1b2 exhibits relatively low expression (Illouz-Eliaz et al., 2019). We 141 analyzed available public data of tomato root transcriptome (Koenig et al., 2013; Zouine et al., 2017; Góra-Sochacka et al., 2019; Gray et al., 2020) and found very low 142 expression of GID1a compared to GID1b1 and GID1b2 in all datasets (Fig. 2i presents 143 the data analyzed from Góra-Sochacka et al., 2019). This raises the possibility that the 144 minor effect of GA on root elongation, is caused by low GID1a expression in roots. 145 Further research regarding the activity of GID1a as a disjunctive component of GA 146 147 signaling in above-and underground organs is thus highly warranted. An example for such studies could be exploring the effect of highly expressed GID1a under a root-148 149 specific promoter.

To conclude, our results suggest that unlike shoots, tomato roots can grow rather well without GA and the hormone has only a minor role in the regulation of primary root elongation. Although previous studies suggest that roots are more sensitive to GA than shoots, this is probably not the case in tomato. We found however that very low GA concentrations are sufficient to saturate root elongation, but not stem elongation.

Plants adjust root-to-shoot ratio to adapt to changes in the environment. Under drought conditions root-to-shoot ratio increases to reduce transpiration and increase water uptake (Xu *et al.*, 2015). GA accumulation is inhibited under osmotic stresses, such as drought and salinity (Achard *et al.*, 2006; Colebrook *et al.*, 2014). Thus, the reduced GA levels strongly affects shoot but not root growth. It is possible that this mechanism evolved as a strategy to modify root-to-shoot ratio under stress conditions.

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167 Figures legend

Figure 1. GA-induced elongation response spatially differentiates in tomato roots and shoots 168 169 (a) Stem and root elongation of 14-days-old WT and gib-2 mutants, treated continuously (or not) with 10^{-5} M GA₃. Values are mean of 4 biological replicates ± SE. Each set of letters above 170 the columns represents significant differences (Tukey–Kramer HSD, P < 0.05). (**b** and **c**) 171 172 Hypocotyl (b) and root (c) elongation rate of WT and $gidl^{TRI}$ seedlings grown on MS plates. Values are mean of 7 plants of each line and the shadow presents the statistical mean. (d) Root-173 to-shoot ratio of 10-day-old WT seedlings and $gid1^{TRI}$ mutants. (e) Representative image of WT 174 175 and $gid1^{TRI}$ at the same physiological age. Numbers present the average length of 3 biological replicates \pm SE. (f and g) Stem (f) and primary root (g) length of 14-day-old WT seedlings 176 treated with 2 mg/L PAC followed by GA₃ (10^{-7} to 10^{-3} M). Values are mean of 10 plants ± SE. 177 Each set of letters above the columns represents significant differences (student's t test, p < p178 0.05). (h and i) Epidermal cell length of elongating stems (h) and primary roots at the elongation 179 180 zone (i), was measures after 10 days of treatment with PAC or $PAC + GA_3$ using confocal 181 microscopy and analyzed by imageJ. Each set of letters above the columns represents 182 significant differences (student's t test, p < 0.05).

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Figure 2. qRT-PCR analysis of (a) GA200x-1 (b) GA200x-3 (c) GA30x-1 (d) GID1b1 (e) 184 GID1b2 and (f) GAST1 expression in elongating stems and roots treated with 2 mg/L PAC. 185 After 10 days with PAC, plants were treated with different GA₃ concentrations and RNA was 186 187 extracted three hours later for expression analysis. Values (normalized to ACTIN) are means of four biological replicates \pm SE. (g and h) Stem (g) and primary root (h) length of 14-day-188 189 old WT seedlings treated with 2 mg/L PAC followed by GA_3 application (10⁻⁴M). Values are 190 mean of 9 plants \pm SE. Each set of letters above the columns represents significant differences 191 (Tukey–Kramer HSD, P < 0.05). (i) Tomato GID1a, GID1b2 and GID1b2 expression in roots taken from transcriptomic data by Góra-Sochacka et al., 2019. Values are mean of 3 plants 192 193 \pm SE. Each set of letters above the columns represents significant differences (student's t test, p 194 < 0.05).

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