Ethylene and ROS Signaling Are Key Regulators of Lateral Root Development under Salt Stress in Tomato

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Abstract

Roots are the primary site for sensing salt, making them critical to understanding how plants adapt to salinity. Unraveling the genetic and molecular mechanisms that maintain root growth under salt stress is essential for developing resilient crops. Tomatoes are vulnerable to salinity, as over 50% of arable land is projected to become saline by 2050. While salt stress effects on tomato seed germination, shoot growth, and fruit yield are well-documented, the genetic basis of root development under salinity remains underexplored. Previous studies focused on physiological responses of roots in a narrow range of cultivated-tomatoes, overlooking the genetic diversity for salt resilience in wild-relatives like *Solanum pimpinellifolium*. Here, we investigated salt-induced changes in root system architecture (RSA) across a natural diversity panel of 220 wild- and 25 cultivated-tomato varieties. We identified tolerant accessions with different RSA strategies; prioritizing lateral root elongation versus emergence. To identify genes involved in specific aspects of lateral root development, an F1 hybrid was generated that exhibited both parents' combined characteristics. An F2-segregating population was then used to identify four distinct subpopulations for Bulk Segregant Analysis (BSA). Simultaneously, we conducted Genome-Wide-Association Studies (GWAS) on root architecture of wild-tomato accessions under salt stress. By integrating the results of BSA and GWAS, we identified 22 candidates involved in the maintenance of root architecture. We utilized RNA-Seq to examine transcriptome reprogramming of the 22 genes in tomato accessions with contrasting lateral root responses. This approach resulted in the identification of 2 genes, AP2-like-ethylene-responsive transcription factor TOE3 and L-ascorbate peroxidase. Using exogenous ethylene, we demonstrated that root architecture exhibits plasticity, which benefits the plant by reducing Na^+ accumulation. We profiled H_2O_2 waves across root systems of tomatoes, emphasizing the role of ROS in maintaining root system architecture under salt stress. These findings provide novel genetic targets for enhancing salt resilience in tomatoes, opening avenues for future research and breeding programs.

Introduction

Tomatoes are one of the most widely cultivated and economically significant crops globally, contributing substantially to food security and agricultural economies. With projections indicating that over 50% of arable land will become saline by 2050, understanding tomato responses to diverse saline environments becomes paramount (Roșca et al. 2023). In arid regions, where evaporation rates exceed freshwater input, soil salinization is contentiously increasing (Richards 1969; Abrol et al. 1988; Fischer et al. 2021). These dryland areas, including regions in South America, Southern and Western Australia, Mexico, Southwest United States, and South Africa, have been identified as hotspots for soil salinization (Hassani et al. 2021). Additionally, salt interactions with clay particles result in impenetrable claypan that prevents roots from reaching deeper soil levels (Cione et al. 2000).

Roots are the primary site of salinity sensing and serve to integrate salt stress with other environmental factors, such as nutrient and water availability. The susceptibility of roots to salt stress determines the plant's overall productivity (Atkin et al. 1973; Steppuhn and Raney 2005). Therefore, understanding the molecular processes leading to maintained root growth is necessary for enhancing crop environmental resilience. Although the effects of salt stress on tomato plants have been studied in the context of seed germination, shoot growth, and fruit yield (Manaa et al. 2011; Yang et al. 2019; Sousa et al. 2022; Morton et al. 2023), the impact of salt stress on root architecture remains unexplored. Furthermore, previous studies have primarily focused on a limited number of cultivars and assessed physiological responses (Manaa et al. 2011), rather than elucidating the genetic basis of salt resilience. As freshwater scarcity intensifies, unraveling root-driven salt stress resilience is key to boosting global agricultural productivity and sustainability (Asins et al. 2010; Melino and Tester 2023).

Wild relatives of crops possess valuable traits such as disease resistance, stress tolerance, and nutritional
quality, which can be introduced into cultivated varieties through breeding programs (Dempewolf et al.
2014; Ebert and Schafleitner 2015; Brozynska et al. 2016; Pailles et al. 2020; Li et al. 2023). Understanding
the genetic basis of these traits in wild relatives facilitates the development of more resilient crop
varieties, which are crucial for ensuring food security in the face of environmental challenges. The closest
wild relative of cultivated tomato, *Solanum pimpinellifollium* (Pease et al. 2016), shows high tolerance to
many biotic and abiotic stresses (Yassin 1985; Sarfatti et al. 1991; Paran and van der Knaap 2007; Ashrafi
et al. 2009; Celik et al. 2017; Zhang et al. 2018). However, only a few studies explored the genetics
underlying salinity tolerance within *S. pimpinellifolium* natural diversity panels (Rao et al. 2015; Wang et
al. 2020b; Morton et al. 2023).
Here, we investigated salt-induced changes in root architecture across a natural diversity panel of
220 wild- and 25 cultivated-tomato varieties. We conducted Genome-Wide-Association Studies (GWAS)
on root architecture of wild-tomato accessions under salt stress and identified 55 putative candidate loci.
We identified tolerant accessions with different lateral root characteristics, prioritizing either lateral root
elongation or emergence. By crossing the tolerant accessions, we generated F1 hybrids that exhibited
both parents' combined characteristics. We developed an F2-segregating population and identified four
distinct subpopulations for Bulk Segregant Analysis (BSA). By integrating the results of BSA and GWAS, we
identified 22 candidate genes involved in the maintenance of root architecture. We utilized RNA-Seq to
examine transcriptome reprogramming of the 22 genes in tomato accessions with contrasting lateral root
responses. This approach enabled identification of four candidate genes, two with existing annotation
including AP2-like-ethylene-responsive transcription factor TOE3 and L-ascorbate peroxidase. Using
exogenous ethylene, we demonstrated that root architecture exhibits plasticity, which benefits the plant
by reducing Na$^+$ accumulation. We profiled H$_2$O$_2$ accumulation across root systems of tomatoes under salt
stress, revealed a unique ROS accumulation pattern associated with maintaining root system architecture
of different accessions under salt stress. These findings provide novel genetic targets for enhancing salt
resilience in tomatoes, opening avenues for future research and breeding programs.

Results

Wild tomato shows high variation in lateral root development in response to salt stress.
Using an agar plate system, we evaluated 220 *S. pimpinellifolium* accessions for their responses to salt
stress (**Table S1**). The 4-day-old seedlings were transferred to media containing 0 or 100 mM NaCl and
scanned daily. Although the images were collected for one week after transfer, the root architecture was
quantified exclusively for the first 4 days after transfer due to root architecture complexity in a plate setup.
We have calculated the daily Main Root growth rate (**Fig. 1A, Fig. S1**), increase in Lateral Root number
(**Fig. 1B**), and increase in average Lateral Root Length (**Fig. 1C**) using linear functions. Although salt
treatment only slightly decreased the Main Root Growth Rate from 1.334 to 1.275 cm / day (**Fig. 1A**),
there was a significant effect of both treatment (ANOVA p-value of 0.000157) and genotype (ANOVA p-
value < 2-e16), and interaction between genotype (G) x treatment (T) (**Fig. 1D**, ANOVA *GxT* p-value of
9.56e-16). On the other hand, Lateral Root emergence was substantially decreased by salt stress (from
4.482 to 2.219 LR / day). This interaction was significantly affected by genotype (**Fig. 1 E**, ANOVA *GxT* p-
value of 3.59e-14). Similar to the Main Root growth rate, the Lateral Root growth rate showed little
decrease in response to salt stress (from 0.315 to 0.304 cm / day), and this phenotype was exclusively
affected by genotype (ANOVA p-value < 2e-16), but not by environment (ANOVA p-value of 0.188) or
interaction between genotype and environment (**Fig. 1F**, ANOVA *GxT* p-value of 0.383). To evaluate the
extent to which root architecture is reprogrammed in response to salt stress, meaning whether individual
root architecture components are affected differently, we calculated stress tolerance indices (STI = GR at
100 mM / GR at 0 mM NaCl, **Fig. 1G**). We observed significant differences between individual root

architecture components, with the increase in lateral root number being affected the most (0.494 of the control values) and average lateral root growth being affected the least (1.034 of the control value). Additionally, we observed a significant interaction between the root architecture component and the genotype (Kruskal-Wallis p-value < 2.2e-16), indicating that the tomato root architecture is substantially reprogrammed in response to salt stress. Within the root architecture patterns in the entire diversity panel, we observed that the genotypes that tend to maintain a high number of lateral root numbers, tend to be compromised in their lateral root elongation, while the genotypes that tend to maintain a high lateral root elongation are oftentimes compromised in their lateral root emergence (**Fig. 1G**). These results suggest that the natural variation in *S. pimpinellifolium*'s root architecture in response to salt stress is primarily caused by its differential sensitivity to salt stress in lateral root development.

Figure 1. Diversity of salt stress responses observed within the S. pimpinellifolium diversity panel. The 220 genotypes of S. pimpinellifolium were germinated on ½ MS agar plates for 4 days and subsequently transferred to media containing 0 or 100 mM NaCl (Control and Salt respectively). The seedlings were imaged every 24 h after transfer for 7 consecutive days. The Root Architecture of seedlings was quantified for the first 4 days after transfer, and the **(A)** growth of Main Root, **(B)** increase in Lateral Root number and **(C)** growth of average Lateral Root was estimated using linear growth functions. The population average values for Control and Salt conditions are indicated using the dashed lines. The effect of the treatment was evaluated using a paired Wilcoxon test for **(D)** Main Root Growth Rate, **(E)** increase in Lateral Root number and **(F)** average Lateral Root Growth Rate. The individual gray lines illustrate the genotype-specific change in individual growth parameters across the conditions. **(G)** The genotype-specific growth rates at individual conditions were used to calculate the Stress Tolerance Index (STI) for individual traits, calculated by dividing growth rate estimated under Control / Salt conditions. The relative change in STI represents the salt-induced reprogramming of the root architecture. The individual gray lines represent the genotype-specific change in STI across individual components of root architecture. The individual dots represent the genotype-specific mean calculated from 4 biological replicates.

Identification of associations with tomato root architecture through GWAS.

To identify genetic components underlying the root system architecture responses to salt stress, the collected phenotypic data were combined with previously developed genotypic data (Morton et al. 2023) and used in Genome Wide Association Study (GWAS). Initially, we removed heterozygous markers, imputed the missing markers, and performed GWAS using ASReml script, similarly to the method described in (Awlia et al. 2021). This method yielded a total of 109 associated SNPs above Bonferroni threshold (LOD > 7.15), with 85 unique SNPs, grouping into 16 individual loci out of which 5 loci were

associated exclusively with root architecture measured under salt stress (**Table S2**). However, this method
required us to use a heavily reduced set of SNPs (708 545). Therefore, we explored additional associations
using an entire set of 17 962 579 SNP using the EMMAX model with corrections for population structure
(using three PCA) and kinship matrix (Kang et al. 2010). Although no overlap was found between ASReml
and EMMA-X based scripts, we identified additional 82 associations above the Bonferroni threshold (>
8.56) with various root system architecture components (**Table S2**). Only one of the significantly
associated SNPs had a minor allele frequency (MAF) > 1% (chromosome 1, position 1369582), associated
with lateral root distribution over the length of main root (calculated as Center of Gravity) for roots grown
under control conditions (**Table S2**). We further inspected associations with LOD score above 5,
considering MAF, and the number of SNPs within the 10 kbp interval to select associations that can be
pursued further. We identified 55 genetic loci, each containing at least 3 SNPs within 10 kbp interval or
mapped/associated with multiple root architecture traits (**Table S2**). Additionally, we adjusted the
Bonferroni threshold to 6.77 as the number of SNPs with MAF > 5% was reduced to 5 944 147.
The highest-ranking loci for biomass distribution between main and lateral roots in the first two
days (MRLpTRS) were identified on chromosomes 3 and 4, with one locus on chromosome 3 (29 SNPs)
and three on chromosome 4 (240, 39, and 85 SNPs) (**Fig. S2A-B**). The chromosome 3 locus mapped to
Spimp03g102810, encoding an ABC transporter A family member 7 (**Fig. S2C**). On chromosome 4, the loci
spanned a region containing multiple functionally diverse genes, including DUF4283 proteins, L-ascorbate
oxidases, MADS-box proteins, RING domain-containing proteins, and a Zinc knuckle CCHC-type family
protein (**Fig. S2D-F**). For lateral root length and number after one day of salt stress, high-ranking loci were
found on chromosomes 1, 3, and 11 (**Fig. S3A-B**). On chromosome 1, 27 SNPs were located in the promoter
region of Spimp01g004220, encoding a LITAF domain-containing protein (**Fig. S3C**). Three SNPs on
chromosome 3 spanned genes involved in glycosylation, protein transport, and tRNA synthesis (**Fig. S3D**).
The chromosome 11 locus (60 SNPs) was mapped to Spimp11g311320, encoding a chloroplast ribosome-
recycling factor, alongside neighboring genes with roles in storage and redox regulation (**Fig. S3E**).
Additional loci were linked to increased lateral root number and main root elongation under salt stress
(**Fig. S4A-B**). On chromosome 12, 16 SNPs were associated with Spimp12g340040, encoding a glucan
endo-1,3-beta-D-glucosidase (**Fig. S4C**). Another 15 SNPs on chromosome 11 were mapped to genes
encoding two unknown proteins and a dephospho-CoA kinase (**Fig. S4D**). Other loci with more than 10
highly associated SNPs were identified on chromosomes 1, 2, 5, and 12, linked to root traits under control
and salt stress conditions (**Fig. S5A-I**).

LA2540 and LA1511 prioritize different aspects of lateral root development under salt stress.
Based on the root system architecture responses to salt stress observed in the diversity panel, we selected
two accessions for further detailed investigation. We selected LA2540 as wild tolerant (referred hereafter
as wild tolerant) accession, and LA1371 as wild sensitive (referred hereafter as wild sensitive) accession.
Additionally, we included an *S. lycopersicum* accession (LA1511, referred hereafter as cultivated tomato),
based on the root system architecture responses to salt stress observed in the cultivated diversity panel
and its overall similarity in plant morphology to *S. pimpinellifolium* observed in the greenhouse conditions
(e.g. plant and fruit size). Salt stress reduced main root growth (**Fig. 2A**), lateral root length (**Fig. 2B**), and
the number of lateral roots (**Fig. 2C**) across all examined accessions. While the STI of the main root did not
differ across examined genotypes (**Fig. 2D**), substantial differences were observed between wild-tolerant
and cultivated tomatoes in lateral root-related traits (**Fig. 2E-F**). Wild-tolerant accession showed a higher
STI for average lateral root elongation (**Fig. 2E**), whereas cultivated tomatoes exhibited a higher STI for
lateral root emergence (**Fig. 2F**). Additionally, we evaluated the selected genotypes for ion accumulation
using ICP-AES after 10 days of exposure to salt stress (**Fig. 2G and Fig. S6**). Salt stress exposure resulted in
increased and decreased Na^+ and K^+ accumulation respectively, with no significant differences between

the genotypes. Although all accessions maintained a similar Na^+/K^+ ratio in the roots, cultivated tomatoes
exhibited a significantly lower Na^+/K^+ ratio in the shoot compared to both wild accessions. In summary,
we have identified LA1511 as a salt-tolerant *S. lycopersicum* line that prioritizes the development of new
lateral roots, while LA2540 as a tolerant *S. pimpinellifolium* line that prioritizes the elongation of existing
lateral roots.

Figure 2. Wild tolerant and cultivated tomatoes have different salt tolerant features regarding lateral root development under the salt. (A-C) Root system architecture analysis of cultivated and wild tomatoes under 0 or 100 mM concentrations of NaCl are shown. **(D)** Salt tolerance indexes (STIs) are shown for the main root, **(E)** average lateral root length, **(F)** and lateral root number. The STI was calculated by dividing the growth rate measured under salt stress by the growth rate measured under control condition for each accession. **(G)** Na+/K+ ratio in root and shoot of different accessions after 10 days on treatment plates. Each dot represents an individual replicate per accession. Lines in (A-C) graphs represent median values. The asterisks above the graphs in (A-C) indicate significant differences between control and salt stress conditions, as determined by the Student 's t-test: *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001, and ****P < 0.0001. Statistical analysis was done by comparison of the means for all pairs using Tukey HSD test for (D-G). Levels not connected by the same letter are significantly different (P < 0.05).

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Compound effect of F1 hybrid on maintenance of lateral root development under salt stress.
To further evaluate the genetic mechanisms underlying the differential responses of lateral roots between
wild tolerant and cultivated tomato and explore whether the salt tolerance mechanisms are
complementary between these two accessions, we generated an F1 hybrid by crossing cultivated and
wild-tolerant tomato accessions (**Fig. 3**). We investigated root system architecture of F1 individuals along
with their parental lines and wild sensitive accession, under non-stress and salt stress conditions (**Fig. 3
and Fig. S7**). While no significant differences were observed in the main root growth rate between the
examined accessions under control conditions (**Fig. 3B**), F1 displayed a significant increase in main root
growth rate under the salt stress compared to the other three genotypes, especially when compared to
both wild tomatoes (**Fig. 3B**). F1 and cultivated tomatoes showed an increase in lateral root growth rate
compared to two wild tomatoes under control conditions (**Fig. 3C**). Under salt stress, F1 individuals
exhibited a remarkable increase in lateral root growth rate compared to all other accessions (**Fig. 3C**).
Regarding increase in lateral root number, F1 and wild-tolerant accession exhibited higher rate of lateral

root emergence compared to cultivated and wild-sensitive accessions under control condition (**Fig. 3D**),
while no significant differences were observed for absolute emergence rates under salt stress (**Fig. 3D**).
To investigate how salt stress impacted various aspects of root architecture, we calculated the STI
for main root growth, lateral root elongation, and increased lateral root number (**Fig. 3E-G**). F1 showed
the highest STI for
main root and
lateral root growth
rates, compared to
its parental lines,
indicating a
synergistic
interaction on these
phenotypes. On the
other hand, F1
inherited the STI for
lateral root
emergence, similar
to wild tomatoes.
We further
evaluated F1 along
with their parental
lines for Na$^+$ and K$^+$
accumulation and
observed that F1
seedlings
maintained a low
Na$^+$/K$^+$ ratio in the
root and shoot,
similar to the
cultivated tomato
(**Fig. 3H, Fig. S7**).
Together, these
results indicate that
the salt tolerance
traits, including
maintenance of
lateral root
development and
sodium exclusion,
are dominant traits
inherited from the
tolerant parent.
Additionally, F1
displays synergistic
effect (hybrid vigor)
for main and lateral
root growth rates.
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Figure 3. F1 individuals display an increase in main root growth under salt while maintaining lower Na$^+$/K$^+$ ratio in root and shoot. Root system architecture of F1 individuals, their corresponding parents, i.e., cultivated and wild tolerant tomatoes along with wild sensitive tomatoes were investigated with and without 100 mM NaCl. **(A)** Shown are representative images of 9-day-old seedlings that experienced 5 days of salt treatment. Growth rate for **(B)** main root length, **(C)** lateral root length, and **(D)** lateral root number. Salt tolerance indexes (STIs) are shown for the **(E)** main root, **(F)** average lateral root length, and **(G)** lateral root number. The STI was calculated by dividing the growth rate measured under salt stress by the growth rate measured under control condition for each accession. **(H)** Na$^+$/K$^+$ ratio of root and shoot of different accessions after 10 days on treatment plates. Each dot represents individual replicas per accession. Statistical analysis was done by comparison of the means for all pairs using Tukey HSD test in all graphs. Levels not connected by the same letter are significantly different (P < 0.05).

Segregating F2 population reveals loci on chromosomes 3, 6 and 9 to be associated with lateral root development.

To identify genomic regions associated with root system architectural traits under salt stress, we generated the F2 population. We investigated the root system architecture of 180 F2 individuals alongside their parental lines under salt stress and identified four phenotypic sub-populations that segregated into four classes regarding their lateral root phenotypes (**Fig. 4A**). The classes comprised individuals with low lateral root length/low lateral root number (low LRL/low LR.no), high lateral root length/low lateral root number (high LRL/low LR.no), low lateral root length/high lateral root number (low LRL/high LR.no), and high lateral root length/ high lateral root number (high LRL/high LR.no). We pooled 25 seedlings from each sub-population, extracted DNA, and performed whole-genome sequencing in the pools and their two parents for Bulk Segregant Analysis (BSA).

We performed multiple bulk comparisons to identify genomic regions showing the most variation (**Fig. 4B and Fig. S8**). We found significant associations on chromosomes 3 and 6 with lateral root elongation (high LR.no/low LRL vs. low LR.no/high LRL, **Fig. 4B**) and chromosome 9 with lateral root emergence (low LR.no/high LRL vs. high LR.no/high LRL, **Fig. 4B**). Similarly, we observed a region towards the end of chromosome 9 and chromosome 3, associated with overall lateral root development under salt stress (high LR.no/low LRL vs. high LR.no/high LRL, **Fig. 4B**). These results suggest that the genes positioned on chromosomes 3, 6 and 9 are contributing to the differences in lateral root development between wild tolerant and cultivated tomato.

To narrow down the selection of candidate genes within the identified genetic regions, we overlaid the results from BSA and GWAS. We identified nine overlapping loci, and 22 gene coding regions that are putatively associated with lateral root development under salt stress (**Table 1, Table S3**). The candidate genes included: two ABC transporter family member genes (*Spim03g102820* and *Spim05g145990*), associated with the maintenance of main root length and total root system (MRLpTRS.D1&D2. SALT and TRS.D4.SALT.01); two N-acetylglucosaminyltransferase family genes (*Spim03g108680* and *Spim05g145980*) associated with the average lateral root length and total root system (aLRL.D1.SALT and TRS.D4.SALT); transcription factor bHLH87-like (*Spim03g110510*) and AP2-like ethylene-responsive transcription factor TOE3 (*Spim09g252830*), associated with the maintenance of average lateral root length and main root length per total root system (aLRL.D1.SALT and MRLpTRS.D3&D4.SALT). Additionally, we identified genes involved in the regulation of cellular processes such as those encoding a mannan synthase (*Spim09g253730*), a carboxypeptidase (*Spim09g253210*), a subtilisin-like protease (*Spim06g186120*), and a 3'-5' exonuclease domain-containing protein (*Spim03g110520*), associated with maintenance of main root length and average lateral root length per total root system (MRLpTRS.D4.SALT, aLRLpTRS.D2.SALT, and aLRL.D1.SALT). The L-ascorbate peroxidase gene (*Spim09g252840*) was associated with maintaining the main root length per total root system (MRLpTRS.D3&D4.SALT). Additionally, we identified genes encoding two kinases and three proteins of unknown function, including one containing a domain of unknown function (DUF1677, *Spim06g186130*), which were associated with maintaining either lateral root or main root length per total root system (aLRLpTRS.D2.SALT). Although variation within the natural diversity panel is not guaranteed to be captured within bulk-segregant analysis due to differences in allele frequencies and causal genes, we identified overlapping genetic elements contributing to root development under salt stress between GWAS and bulk-segregant analysis.

Figure 4. Segregating F2 populations displays four distinct phenotypic bulks for root system architecture. (A) Graph showing root system architecture of 180 F2 individuals alongside their parents under salt stress for lateral root length and lateral root number. The dashed lines used to show the threshold criteria in selecting different bulks, which was 1.8 cm for lateral root length and 10 for the lateral root number. Using these criteria, we identified four distinct phenotypic bulks, as indicated in the figure with representative images provided for each bulk and their parents. **(B)** Representative bulks comparison with most significant changes are shown. Distribution of Δ (SNP index) between the two bulks are shown across the *S. pimpinellifolium* genome. The statistical confidence intervals under the null hypothesis of no QTLs were indicated as green (p < 0.05) and blue (p < 0.01) lines.

Identification of transcriptional patterns underlying differences in lateral root development under salt stress.

To identify key time points at which wild tolerant and cultivated tomatoes differ in their lateral root development in response to salt stress, we imaged the development of their root architecture under control and salt stress conditions at 60-minute intervals using a SPIRO setup (Ohlsson et al. 2021)(**Fig. S9**). We observed that salt stress exposure immediately reduces lateral root length in cultivated tomatoes, while no significant differences in individual lateral root length were observed in wild tolerant (**Fig. S9A**). Significant decrease in individual lateral root growth rate was observed from 1,200 minutes after stress

exposure onwards in cultivated tomatoes (**Fig. S9B**). On the other hand, there was no obvious difference in lateral root growth rate of wild tolerant until 5,000 minutes after stress exposure, after which salt exposed lateral roots showed an increased growth rate (**Fig. S9B**). Cultivated tomatoes developed new lateral roots throughout the experiment under both control and salt stress conditions, albeit at a reduced rate, thereby reducing the average emergence time from 3519 to 4488 minutes after stress exposure (**Fig. S9C**). Although the average emergence time in wild tolerant showed even smaller difference between control and salt stress conditions (2841 and 3173 minutes after stress exposure respectively), we did observe a clear delay in lateral root emergence of wild tolerant under salt stress compared to the control condition, with no lateral roots emerging until 2,000 minutes after stress exposure (**Fig. S9C**).

Guided by the time points at which we observed significant differences in lateral root growth and emergence, we performed RNA-Seq analysis of the transcriptional profiles of both cultivated tomato and wild tolerant roots collected at 500, 1000, 2000, 3000, and 4000 minutes after salt stress exposure (**Fig. 5, Table S4**). We identified 3,792 differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in wild tolerant (2,261 upregulated and 1,531 downregulated) and 4,032 DEGs in cultivated tomato (2,307 upregulated and 1,725 downregulated) (**Fig. 5A**). Among these changes, we found 1,467 genes as being upregulated in both accessions while 1,009 genes downregulated. To identify genotype-specific DEGs at specific time points, we compared DEGs across individual time points (**Fig. 5B**). WT showed highest DEGs at 500 min after salt stress exposure (1,796 genes with fold change ≥ 2-fold and adjusted p-value > 0.05), followed by 4,000 min (1,631) (**Table S5**). On the other hand, cultivated tomato showed the highest number of DEGs at 4000 min (2,018 genes with fold change ≥ 2-fold and adjusted p-value > 0.05), followed by 500 (1,989). While both accessions showed the most changes in transcript abundances during early and late time exposure to salt stress, both had the least changes at 3,000 min after salt exposure. To compare the overlap between time points, we generated UpSet plots (**Fig. 5C, Fig. S10**). This analysis revealed that most upregulated DEGs in each accession were detected at 4,000 minutes, while most downregulated DEGs occurred at 500 minutes (**Fig. 5C**). Additionally, we observed that the majority of DEGs in each accession are unique to one or two time points, with only a few DEGs commonly expressed across all time points. Using gene ontology (GO) enrichment analysis, we examined at which biological process they were involved in. Most DEGs at 500 minutes after salt exposure were enriched with genes involved in stress responses and metabolic processes in wild tolerant, or detoxification and transporter activities in cultivated tomato. Interestingly, at 4,000 minutes, the wild tolerant DEGs remained enriched with genes involved in stress responses and metabolic processes, similar to the early response to stress. In contrast, DEGs found in cultivated tomato showed significant enrichment with genes related to light response, regulatory functions in photosynthesis and cellular binding activities (**Fig. 5C, Table S6**).

Figure 5. Differential expression analyses showing unique and common changes in transcriptome of the two tomato accessions in response to the salt stress. (A) Venn diagrams showing number of differentially expressed genes between the two accessions for all timepoints, and **(B)** across individual time points. **(C)** Intersection of numbers of DEGs under salt treatment relative to control condition across five timepoints. The graphs with orange dots represent DEGs in wild tolerant samples and graphs with blue dots represents cultivated tomato samples. The direction of arrow within each panel represents whether DEGs are significantly up- or down-regulated.

To uncover transcriptional patterns underlying lateral root differences between accessions, we conducted weighted gene correlation network analysis (WGCNA) (Langfelder and Horvath 2008) and identified 14 co-expression modules (**Fig. 6, Fig. S11**). We focused on modules containing GWAS/BSA candidates and those aligning with contrasting salt stress responses. The **yellow module** (2,697 genes)

exhibited repression from 1,000 min post-stress, more pronounced in cultivated tomato (**Fig. 6A**). It
included Spim05g145990, encoding an ABC transporter G family protein, emphasizing the role of cellular
transport in root response. The **brown module** (2,907 genes) displayed initial repression in cultivated
tomato, recovering over time, while wild tolerant showed a delayed but stronger resurgence (**Fig. 6B**). It
contained Spim09g252850, a kinase-like gene linked to lateral root regulation. The **red module** (1,684
genes) showed early induction in cultivated tomato but later repression, while wild tolerant maintained
upregulation (**Fig. 6C**). It included AP-3 complex subunit delta (Spim03g108690) and Ring-box protein 1a
(Spim06g186110), involved in protein trafficking and interaction (Lee and Hwang 2014), (Abd-Hamid et
al. 2020). The **turquoise module** (6,591 genes) was consistently more expressed in cultivated tomatoes,
containing ten GWAS/BSA genes associated with protein homeostasis, signaling, and structural integrity
(**Fig. 6D**). The **blue module** (3,427 genes) was upregulated in cultivated tomato under salt stress, with a
transient upregulation in wild tolerant (**Fig. 6E**). It included genes related to stress response, oxidative
protection, and protein modification. The black module (313 genes) was upregulated early in both
accessions but showed no later treatment differences (**Fig. 6F**), featuring Spim03g102820, an ABC
transporter A family member 7-like gene. These findings highlight that lateral root responses to salt stress
depend on early stress-induced genes (e.g., yellow module) and constitutively differentially expressed
genes (e.g., turquoise and blue modules).

Identification of candidate genes highly associated with lateral root development under salt stress.
To identify which of the 22 candidate genes (**Table 1**) exhibited transcriptional changes during root
development, we cross-referenced them with the RNA-Seq data (**Table S4, Fig. S12**). While all were
expressed across various time points, only four showed significant salt stress-induced changes in at least
one accession (**Fig. 7A**): DUF1677 (Spim06g186130), AP2-like ethylene-responsive transcription factor
TOE3 (Spim09g252830), L-ascorbate peroxidase (Spim09g252840), and an unknown protein
(Spim09g253720). DUF1677 and TOE3 were transiently repressed in both cultivated tomato and wild
tolerant, indicating their suppression may be critical for salt stress response. L-ascorbate peroxidase was
consistently upregulated in cultivated tomato but only transiently in wild tolerant, suggesting its

Table 1. List of 22 genes identified by cross-referencing GWAS and BSA analysis. If no genes were found within the chromosome regions indicated by the GWAS, we extended the search by 10 kb before and after the original SNP locations.

Locus	1st SNP	Last SNP	Gene ID	Chromosome	Start	End	Strand	Description
MRLpTRS.D1&D2.SALT	58311594	58318648	Spim03g102820	Chr03	58317465	58333842	-	ABC transporter A family member 7-like
aLRL.D1.SALT	62872139	62872729	no candidate					
+/-10k	62862139	62882729	Spim03g108680	Chr03	62862616	62865458	-	Core-2/I-branching beta-1,6-N-acetylglucosaminyltransferase family
			Spim03g108690	Chr03	62868995	62871907	-	AP-3 complex subunit delta
			Spim03g108700	Chr03	62873276	62881576	-	Histidine--tRNA ligase
aLRL.D1.SALT	64342558	64343225	no candidate					
+/-10k	64332558	64353225	Spim03g110510	Chr03	64340070	64341212	-	Transcription factor bHLH87-like
			Spim03g110520	Chr03	64348724	64354128	-	3'-5' exonuclease domain-containing protein
TRS.D4.SALT	2853323	2873370	Spim05g145980	Chr05	2855866	2859416	-	Core-2/I-branching beta-1,6-N-acetylglucosaminyltransferase family
			Spim05g145990	Chr05	2864524	2873811	+	ABC transporter G family member protein
aLRLpTRS.D2.SALT	39476715	39476898	no candidate					
+/-10k	39466715	39486898	Spim06g186100	Chr06	39466736	39467116	-	Receptor-type tyrosine-protein like
			Spim06g186110	Chr06	39470274	39473093	+	Ring-box protein 1a
			Spim06g186120	Chr06	39473899	39476229	-	subtilisin-like protease
			Spim06g186130	Chr06	39481301	39481819	-	Protein of unknown function (DUF1677)
MRLpTRS.D3&D4.SALT	893689	899226	no candidate					
-10k/+10k	883689	909226	Spim09g252830	Chr09	885469	888212	+	AP2-like ethylene-responsive transcription factor TOE3
			Spim09g252840	Chr09	893083	897835	+	L-ascorbate peroxidase
			Spim09g252850	Chr09	901262	910459	+	Kinase
MRLpTRS.D3&D4.SALT	1235817	1235817	no candidate					
-10k/+10k			Spim09g253200	Chr09	1239184	1244087	+	DnaJ protein like
			Spim09g253210	Chr09	1244798	1246201	+	Carboxypeptidase
MRLpTRS.D3&D4.SALT	1278892	1308283	Spim09g253260	Chr09	1289015	1294003	+	TIR domain-containing protein
			Spim09g253270	Chr09	1304169	1306382	+	Protein kinase domain-containing protein
MRLpTRS.D4.SALT	1688182	1701564	Spim09g253720	Chr09	1691928	1693028	+	Unknown protein
			Spim09g253730	Chr09	1694719	1698430	-	Mannan synthase
			Spim09g253740	Chr09	1699511	1699663	+	Unknown protein

377   importance in lateral root development. The unknown protein was upregulated early in wild tolerant but
378   not in cultivated tomato, highlighting a genotype-specific expression pattern.
379   To assess allelic variation, we examined SNPs in these four genes using the Integrative Genomics
Viewer (IGV) (**Fig. 7B**). SNPs were detected in their 5' UTR, 3' UTR, and intronic regions, suggesting roles
in transcriptional regulation and mRNA stability. Two missense SNPs were identified: one in DUF1677
(Proline to Leucine) and one in TOE3 (Ala to Val or Leu to Phe), both differing from the reference *S.*
pimpinellifolium LA2093 genome. Given the overall conservation of coding sequences between
accessions, these findings suggest that regulatory variants likely drive differences in gene expression and
function.

Figure 6. Co-expression network analysis showing distinct patterns among the two accessions across various developmental scales. WGCNA co-expression modules with scaled expression values (y axis) across different time points (x axis) **(A-F)**. Black dotted line indicates eigengene expression profile. Gray line indicates expression values of all genes within the module. Most genes in these modules were positively correlated to the eigengene. Genes that are identified through GWAS and BSA (Table 1) and showing significant association with each module were listed below their respective modules, with bolded genes highlighting three of the four candidates identified by cross-referencing GWAS and BSA with RNA-Seq data. See Fig. S8 for a detailed analysis of all 14 modules.

Figure 7. Allelic variants analysis revealed the two accessions are almost conserved in their coding sequence but not in the intronic region, as well as 5' and 3' UTRs. (A) Log2 fold changes are shown for the four genes identified by cross-referencing the three experiments, GWAS, BSA, and RNA-Seq, across all developmental time points for the two accessions. Stars indicate statistically significant changes in gene expression, defined as a fold change of ≥ 2 and an adjusted p-value of < 0.05. **(B)** Gene models are illustrated for the four genes, with unique SNP positions depicted as straight lines. The positions of the transcription start site (TSS) and STOP are indicated, with gene locations displayed above. SNPs resulting in missense mutations are depicted along with their corresponding variants in the other accession. See Table S3 for the comprehensive list of variant analyses conducted for the 22 genes identified from GWAS and BSA analyses (Table 1).

ACC reduces root growth without affecting shoot Na⁺/K⁺ ratio.
Given that TOE3, an AP2-like ethylene-responsive transcription factor, was identified as a key regulator of
lateral root development under salt stress (**Fig. 7**), we hypothesized that ethylene is driving the different
root architecture strategies in response to salt between cultivated and wild tomatoes. To test this, we
analyzed root growth and Na⁺ accumulation in two tomato accessions treated with or without the
ethylene precursor 1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylic acid (ACC). Across all accessions and conditions,
ACC significantly reduced both main root and lateral root lengths (**Fig. 8, Fig. S13A-B**), while its effect on
lateral root number varied. In cultivated tomatoes, low ACC concentrations significantly reduced lateral
root number under both control and salt stress conditions, whereas high concentrations had no effect
(**Fig. S13C**). In wild tomatoes, ACC had a non-significant effect under control conditions but significantly
increased lateral root number under salt stress at both concentrations. To assess the physiological
relevance of these changes, we calculated the STI for root traits (**Fig. 8B-D**). At low ACC concentrations,
STI for main root growth significantly decreased in cultivated tomato but remained unchanged at high
ACC concentrations (**Fig. 8B**). For lateral root growth, STI increased in cultivated tomato (non-significant
at low ACC, significant at high ACC), while in wild tolerant, it significantly decreased (**Fig. 8C**). Lateral root
number exhibited a non-significant STI increase in cultivated tomato and no clear trend in wild tolerant
(**Fig. 8D**). These findings suggest that ethylene modulates root system architecture in response to salt
stress, aligning with transcriptional changes observed in TOE3 (**Fig. 7**). To further explore ACC's role in ion
accumulation, we measured Na⁺, K⁺, and the Na⁺/K⁺ ratio using ICP-AES. ACC treatment resulted in a non-
significant reduction of Na⁺ levels in roots and shoots (**Fig. S13D**) and a slight decrease in root K⁺ content,
while shoot K⁺ levels remained unchanged (**Fig. S13E**). In cultivated tomato, the Na⁺/K⁺ ratio showed no
change in roots at low ACC concentration but a non-significant increase at high ACC; in shoots, it decreased
slightly at both concentrations (**Fig. 8E**). In wild tolerant, the Na⁺/K⁺ ratio showed a slight non-significant
increase in roots and a mixed response in shoots. These results suggest that ACC-induced root

Figure 8. ACC treatment significantly reduces main root and lateral root length while lowering Na⁺/K⁺ ratio non-significantly in shoot of cultivated and wild tolerant tomato accessions. (A) Shown are representative images of 9-day-old tomato seedlings that experienced 5 days of treatment with 0 or 100 mM concentrations of NaCl supplemented with or without various concentrations of ACC as indicated in the figure. Salt tolerance indexes (STIs) are shown for the **(B)** main root, **(C)** average lateral root length, and **(D)** lateral root number. The STI was calculated by dividing the growth rate measured under salt stress by the growth rate measured under control condition for each accession. **(E)** Na⁺/K⁺ ratio of root and shoot of different accessions after 10 days on treatment plates. (B-E) Each dot represents individual replicas per accession and lines represent mean values in all. Statistical analysis was done by comparison of the means for all pairs using Tukey HSD test in all graphs. Levels not connected by the same letter are significantly different (P < 0.05).

412 architectural changes under salt stress influence Na^+ and K^+ accumulation, potentially contributing to
413 stress resilience.

Ascorbate and H_2O_2 modulate root architecture and K^+ retention under salt stress.

Since APX was identified as a key candidate in lateral root development under salt stress (**Fig. 7**), we
hypothesized that ROS homeostasis influences root system architecture under these conditions. To test
this hypothesis, we analyzed root traits in two accessions under salt stress, with and without ascorbate
(reducing agent) or H_2O_2 (oxidizing agent). Main root length and lateral root growth were largely
unaffected by both treatments (**Fig. S14A-B**). However, in cultivated tomatoes, both ascorbate and H_2O_2
significantly increased lateral root number under control conditions but had no effect under salt stress,
while wild tomatoes showed no significant response across treatments (**Fig. S14C**). Consistent with
previous findings (**Fig. 2E-F**), cultivated tomato showed a higher STI for lateral root number, while wild
tolerant had a higher STI for lateral root length (**Fig. 9A**, red highlights). Ascorbate had no significant effect
on STI for main root length in cultivated tomato but caused a slight, non-significant decrease in wild
tolerant (**Fig. 9A**, green font). STI for lateral root traits remained mostly unchanged, except for a slight,
non-significant increase in lateral root length in wild tolerant. Similarly, H_2O_2 caused no significant changes
in STI values, except for a slight increase in lateral root growth in cultivated tomato and a slight decrease
in lateral root number (**Fig. 9A**). These results indicate that exogenous ascorbate and ROS influence root
system architecture in a genotype-specific manner.

To determine whether ascorbate and H_2O_2 treatments affect ion exclusion and Na^+ and K^+
homeostasis, we measured ion content in roots and shoots using ICP-AES (**Fig. S14D-E**). Neither treatment
significantly altered Na^+ content in either accession (**Fig. S14D**). Under control conditions, both treatments
slightly increased root K^+ content in cultivated tomato, while no significant changes were observed in wild
tolerant. Under salt stress, ascorbate caused a slight but non-significant increase in root K^+ content in both
accessions, while H_2O_2 had no effect (**Fig. S14E**). In shoots, ascorbate led to a slight, non-significant K^+
increase in cultivated tomato, whereas H_2O_2 had no detectable effect. In wild tolerant, ascorbate did not
affect shoot K^+ levels under control conditions, but H_2O_2 caused a minor increase. Under salt stress, shoot
K^+ content changes mirrored those in cultivated tomato (**Fig. S14E**). Regarding the Na^+/K^+ ratio, neither
treatment significantly altered root ion balance, but ascorbate significantly reduced the Na^+/K^+ ratio in
shoots under salt stress in both accessions (**Fig. 9B**). These results suggest that ascorbate enhances salt
tolerance primarily by maintaining cellular K^+ homeostasis.

Figure 9. Ascorbate and H_2O_2 treatments show accession-dependent effects on root system architecture under salt stress, with ascorbate significantly reducing the shoot Na+/K+ ratio during salt stress. Analysis of root system architecture in tomato accessions treated with 0 or 100 mM NaCl, with or without the addition of 1 mM ascorbate or H_2O_2, as shown in the figure. **(A)** Salt tolerance indexes (STIs) are shown for the main root, average lateral root length, and lateral root number across the various treatments indicated in the figure. The STI was calculated by dividing the growth rate measured under salt stress by the growth rate measured under control condition for each accession. **(B)** Na+/K+ ratio of root and shoot of different accessions after 10 days on treatment plates. (A-B) Each dot represents individual replicas per accession and lines represent mean values in all. Statistical analysis was done by comparison of the means for all pairs using Tukey HSD test in all graphs. Levels not connected by the same letter are significantly different (P < 0.05).

H_2O_2 accumulation under salt stress displays distinct responses among the two accessions.

Given that we identified APX as a key candidate gene involved in lateral root development under salt stress (**Fig. 7**), and observed APX differential transcriptional responses among accessions in the transcriptome profiling, we hypothesized that the two accessions exhibit distinct H_2O_2 accumulation patterns upon salt stress in roots that might explain their distinct root architecture. To test this, we imaged H_2O_2 levels in the roots and shoots of both accessions over a time series under salt stress (**Fig. 10**). This analysis revealed that a spike of ROS accumulation occurs in the roots of the cultivated tomato at 20 and 30 minutes after salt exposure (p = 0.1), which then declined compared to corresponding mock treatments at 240 min (**Fig. 10A**). A similar pattern was not observed in the roots of the wild tolerant tomato (**Fig. 10A**). In contrast, the shoots of the cultivated tomato exhibited a peak in accumulation at 20 minutes (p = 0.1), while the shoots of the wild tolerant tomato showed a similar peak earlier at 10 minutes (p = 0.2), which continued to increase until 30 minutes after salt exposure (**Fig. 10B**). By 240 minutes post-exposure, both accessions displayed baseline levels of H_2O_2 in their shoots (**Fig. 10B**). Overall, these findings suggest that the two accessions exhibit distinct H_2O_2 signaling dynamics in roots in response to salt stress, which may contribute to their differences in root architecture.

A

B

Figure 10. H2O2 profiling in roots shows distinct responses among the two accessions under salt stress. Quantification of H_2O_2 levels in the **(A)** roots and **(B)** shoots of two tomato accessions exposed to 0 or 100 mM NaCl at specific time points, as indicated in the figure. Salt stress was applied by fumigating the plates with a Peroxy Orange 1 (PO1) solution, a H_2O_2-specific dye, containing 100 mM NaCl, while mock-treated plates received only the PO1 solution. Imaging was performed using the IVIS Lumina S5 platform with Living Image 4.7.3 software in acquisition mode. The raw integrated density of regions of interest (ROIs) was quantified using ImageJ. Differences between mock and salt-treated conditions within each accession were analyzed using one-way ANOVA, with n = 3 per accession and condition. a.u. refers to arbitrary units.

458
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Discussion

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Harnessing the inherent genetic diversity found in wild relatives, traditional landraces, and modern
cultivars is essential for ensuring food security, a critical priority for crop enhancement initiatives. Genetic
diversity within the wild progenitors of our cultivated crop species has been largely recognized as an
important resource for increasing climate resilience of modern-day agriculture (Kovach and McCouch
2008; Morton et al. 2023). In tomato, GWAS has been used for detecting genetic variations underlying
complex agronomic and morphological traits (Bui et al. 2015; Alaguero-Cordovilla et al. 2018; Rodriguez
et al. 2020; Tripodi et al. 2021; Ye et al. 2021; Hakla et al. 2024). Although various components of salinity
tolerance have been identified in S. pimpinellifolium (Rao et al. 2015; Wang et al. 2020b; Morton et al.
2023), this is the first study that explores root system architecture-derived mechanisms of salt tolerance.
We used a previously developed natural diversity panel of 220 diverse wild tomato accessions to
identify alleles associated with root system responses to salt stress. A total of 191 significant associations
corresponding to 55 genetic loci have been identified, of which nine showed overlap with BSA and RNA-
seq studies. Moreover, we have identified accession LA2540 (wild tolerant) to be salt tolerant, which
interestingly was identified as one of the more resilient *S. pimpinellifolium* accessions in field and
greenhouse-based studies (Morton et al. 2023). Unlike in Arabidopsis, where natural variation in salt-
induced changes in root architecture was observed for both main and lateral root based responses
(Julkowska et al. 2017), we have identified that salt-induced changes in *S. pimpinellifolium* root
architecture are mainly associated with lateral root development (**Fig. 1, Fig. S2**). We identified a

cultivated tomato accession, LA1511, that showed complementary response in its lateral root
development to the wild tolerant tomato (**Fig. 2**). Through generation of F1 hybrids between wild tolerant
and cultivated tomato, we determined that the lateral root traits of both cultivated and wild tolerant
accessions can be combined and act on complementary aspects of salinity tolerance. F1 hybrid exhibited
an increase in STI for average lateral root length when compared to each parent (**Fig.3F**). Additionally, F1
maintained a lower Na^+/K^+ ratio, mimicking the cultivated parent and prioritizing tolerance by exclusion
of sodium in the shoot (Fig. 6H) (Munns and Tester 2008). Together, these findings suggest that combining
the complementary strategies of salinity tolerance, based on complementary characteristics of lateral
root development, results in increased resilience of F1 hybrids. While previous studies have identified
S.pimpinellifolium as a resource for salt tolerant traits (Rao et al. 2015; Razali et al. 2018; Martínez-Cuenca
et al. 2020), we show that dissecting responses to salt stress through root architecture can result in
identification of complementary traits that can be a source of further potentiation of salt stress resilience.
BSA identified three genomic regions linked to root growth maintenance under salt stress, and
integration with GWAS revealed 22 candidate genes (**Table 1**). While only four showed significant
transcript changes (**Fig. 7, Fig. S11**), 17 clustered in WGCNA co-expression modules (**Fig. 6**). Turquoise
module contained genes involved in cellular homeostasis, including carboxypeptidase (Spim09g253210)
and mannan synthase (Spim09g253730), key players in cell wall remodeling (Website; Voiniciuc 2022;
Zhang et al. 2024), subtilisin-like protease (Spim06g186120), thus far mainly studied in the context of
plant-pathogen interactions (Figueiredo et al. 2014), and 3'-5' exonuclease domain-containing protein
(Spim03g110520), implicated in DNA quality control (Shevelev and Hübscher 2002). Subtilases, known for
their glycosylation-dependent activity, are critical for lateral root emergence, as seen in *Arabidopsis*
where AIRS subtilase promotes lateral root outgrowth by degrading structural proteins in the extracellular
matrix (Neuteboom et al. 1999). While mannan synthase remained repressed under stress, subtilisin-like
protease exhibited late-stage upregulation (**Fig. S11**), suggesting distinct regulatory roles in lateral root
adaptation to salt stress.
AP2-like ethylene-responsive transcription factor TOE3 (Spim09g252830) (**Fig. 6**) showed
significant transcript changes under salt stress (**Fig. 7**) and co-localized within chromosome 9 GWAS/BSA
regions (**Table 1**). Ethylene-responsive transcription factors regulate stress adaptation, often acting as
molecular switches between stress tolerance and growth inhibition (Dubois et al. 2018). Ethylene's role
in salt tolerance varies—while enhancing resilience in *Arabidopsis*, it suppresses salt tolerance in *Oryza*
sativa, where RNAi knockdown of OsEIL1/OsEIL2 improves survival (Cao et al., 2006; Achard et al. 2006;
Jiang et al. 2013; Peng et al. 2014). Here, we observed that for both tomato accessions, ACC treatment
significantly reduced main and lateral root growth (**Fig. 8, Fig. S13**) but had no significant impact on the
shoot Na^+/K^+ ratio, suggesting ethylene limits root exposure to salt rather than directly affecting ion
homeostasis. One possible mechanism is the growth restriction hypothesis, where ethylene reduces root
surface area, minimizing Na^+ uptake. TOE3 expression was initially repressed in response to salt stress
before recovering at later time points (**Fig. 7**), indicating that lateral root development requires dynamic
ethylene signaling. The early repression of TOE3 may be essential for lateral root initiation, followed by
increased expression during adaptation. This aligns with findings in *Arabidopsis*, where ethylene results in
early root growth inhibition through inhibiting cell proliferation and disturbance of microtubules in
elongating cells (Street et al. 2015; Wang et al. 2018), but later facilitates root growth through promoting
cell elongation via auxin-ethylene-ABA crosstalk (Růzicka et al. 2007; Thole et al. 2014). Together, these
results support a model where ROS homeostasis, ethylene signaling, and cell wall remodeling coordinate
lateral root development under salt stress. Future studies should explore post-transcriptional regulation
of these candidate genes and how ethylene interacts with other hormonal pathways in salt adaptation.
Salinity stress leads to oxidative stress and cellular damage. The antioxidant system mitigates
oxidative damage by counteracting the generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) (Wang et al. 2013;
Ahanger et al. 2017). Salt tolerance is positively correlated with the cell's antioxidant capacity (Shalata

and Neumann 2001; Munns and Tester 2008; Zhang et al. 2012; Wang et al. 2013; Dinneny 2019;
Hasanuzzaman et al. 2019; Thabet et al. 2021), additionally supported here by an increase in the
expression of ascorbate peroxidase throughout our experiment (**Fig. 7**). The constitutive expression of
ascorbate peroxidase can be explained by two potential mechanisms. First, the initial reactive oxygen
species (ROS) generated by salt stress trigger root cells to enhance their antioxidant response. Second,
the emergence of lateral roots requires cell rupture, which generates another wave of ROS signal in a
localized area of the root environment, further amplifying the increase in transcript levels. These potential
mechanisms highlight the complex interplay between stress responses and root development. While
ascorbate and H_2O_2 treatments showed accession-dependent effects on root system architecture under
salt stress, we observed that ascorbate treatment significantly reduced the Na^+/K^+ ratio, primarily by
aiding in K^+ retention during salt stress (**Fig. 9, Fig. S14**). Previous studies have demonstrated that the
Arabidopsis K^+ efflux channel GATED OUTWARDLY-RECTIFYING K^+ CHANNEL 1 (GORK1, AT5G37500) is
activated by hydroxyl radicals (HO•) under salt stress and pathogen attack (Demidchik et al. 2010). Using
electron paramagnetic resonance spectroscopy and electrophysiological techniques, it was shown that
high NaCl concentrations (100 and 250 mM) stimulate HO• production, activating K^+ channels and causing
K^+ efflux from roots. From our root transcriptomics data, we identified three outward-rectifying K^+
channels that were differentially expressed in one or both tomato accessions (**Table S7**). Two of these
channels (Spim03g099320 and Spim11g313920, both annotated as potassium channel SKOR) were
downregulated under salt stress, while the third (Spim05g165150, annotated as potassium channel SKOR-
like) was upregulated. Notably, Spim11g313920 shares the highest protein identity with Arabidopsis
GORK1 (70%), followed by Spim05g165150 (68%), and Spim03g099320 (59%). Spim11g313920 is
downregulated at most time points in our study in both accessions. GORK1 is known to contribute to
guard cell membrane potential hyperpolarization by allowing K^+ efflux, a process critical for resetting
membrane potential during ion transport cycles. Under salt stress, GORK1 is expected to be upregulated
to counterbalance Na^+ influx at the cost of K^+ efflux, maintaining cellular ionic balance. However, in our
study, its downregulation suggests an adaptive response to retain K+ in the cytosol, preserving cellular
integrity. Since both tomato accessions here demonstrate salt tolerance through distinct lateral root
traits, we propose that the addition of ascorbate enhances the downregulation of K^+ efflux channels,
supporting K^+ retention in the cytosol. This process helps maintain cellular integrity and promotes lateral
root development under salt stress. However, further studies are needed to investigate how ascorbate
influences the functionality of K^+ efflux channels beyond changes in gene expression, which is outside the
scope of this study. Although both accessions exhibited early H_2O_2 accumulation in shoots in response to
salt, the distinct H_2O_2 signaling patterns observed in the roots of the two accessions suggest differential
oxidative signaling dynamics that may regulate lateral root development under salt stress. The early and
sustained H_2O_2 accumulation in cultivated tomato roots at 20 and 30 minutes (**Fig. 10A**) may contribute
to salt-induced lateral root emergence. In contrast, the wild-tolerant accession, which exhibits minimal
and delayed H_2O_2 accumulation at 240 minutes, may employ a different strategy to modulate redox
signaling, potentially facilitating lateral root elongation. These findings suggest that temporal differences
in H_2O_2 accumulation could underlie the contrasting root architectural responses observed between the
accessions.
In conclusion, our integrative approach successfully identified new and previously known
candidate genes involved in lateral root development under salt stress conditions. Our additional
physiological experiments provide compelling initial validation that ethylene signaling and the antioxidant
scavenging system are pivotal factors in regulating lateral root development under salt stress. Future full
genetic validation of the identified genes in both wild and cultivated tomato background will provide more
insight into genotype x environment interactions and genetic context of lateral root development.
Nevertheless, data generated in this study will prove invaluable for future functional validation studies

aimed at elucidating the precise roles of these genes during early root development in response to salt
stress, contributing to the broader objective of enhancing plant productivity under saline conditions.

Materials and Methods

Agar-based plate experiments
Tomato seeds were sterilized for 10 min with 50% bleach and rinsed five times using autoclaved milli-Q
water, and germinated on ¼ strength Murashige and Skoog (MS) medium containing 0.5% (w/v) sucrose,
0.1% (w/v) 4-morpholineethanesulfonic acid (MES), and 1% (w/v) agar, with pH adjusted to 5.8 with KOH.
After 24 h of vernalization at 4 °C in the dark, the plates were placed in the Conviron growth chamber with
the light intensity of 130–150 µmol x m^{-2} x s $^{-1}$ in a 20 h light / 4 h dark cycle at 25 °C day / 20 °C night and
60% humidity. 4 days after germination, the seedlings were transferred to 1/4 MS media with and without
100 mM NaCl, as indicated in the figures. Each plate contained one tomato seedling for root system
architecture analysis. The plates were scanned using EPSON scanner every 5 consecutive days, starting
from day 4 after germination. To analyze root system architectural traits from the scanned plate images,
we used SmartRoot plugin (Lobet et al. 2011) in ImageJ to manually trace the root, and extract root-
related features in the CSV format followed by data analysis in R. The root system architecture assays for
the initial experiment to evaluate the root system architecture responses of natural diversity panel were
conducted over six experimental batches, with four biological replicates per genotype per condition. The
quantified data averaged per genotype and condition is listed in Table S1. The original image data,
together with the traced files can be found at https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.nk98sf826. The R-script used
to curate and process the raw phenotypic data can be accessed at
(https://rpubs.com/mjulkowska/BIGpimp_RSA_salt). The R-notebooks for the analysis of individual
follow-up experiments can be accessed at RPubs - 20211201_M248M058LA1511_RSA_analysis, RPubs -
20230502_RSA_F1_100mM_Salt, RPubs - 20230612_F1_FW_DW_ICP_Salt, RPubs -
20230605_RSA_analysis_F2_100mM_Salt_d9_all_batches_final). The data analysis and visualization has
been performed using ggplot2, ggpubr, corrplot, ggbeeswarm, ggridges, gapminder, RColorBrewer,
ColorRamps, doBy, reshape2, cowplot, plotly and tidyverse libraries (Kassambara; Keitt; Wickham 2016,
2020; Wilke 2016; Wei and Simko 2017; Wickham et al. 2019; Chen 2020; Sievert 2020; Categorical Scatter
(Violin Point) Plots [R package ggbeeswarm version 0.7.2] 2023, doBy: Groupwise Statistics, LSmeans,
Linear Estimates, Utilities).

Genome wide-association study
The genome wide-association study has been performed using the data from 220 *S. pimpinellifolium*
accessions using the ASReml script as described in (Morton et al. 2023). Briefly, the SNP data has been
curated and imputed for missing and heterozygous SNPs, and ran using three PCA components as
estimations for population structure, and kinship matrix calculated using GAPIT (Wang and Zhang 2021).
The code used for running the ASReml-based script can be accessed at
https://github.com/mmjulkowska/Pimp_RSA_GWAS_salt/blob/main/20211011_RSA_GWAS_prep.R
andhttps://github.com/mmjulkowska/Pimp_RSA_GWAS_salt/blob/main/20220101_ASReml_prep_for_
pimp_RSA.R. The ASReml-method GWAS output files can be accessed at
https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.nk98sf826. Additionally, we have used the entire SNP dataset to run
EMMA X method (Kang et al. 2010), using 3 PCA components as estimations for population structure, and
kinship matrix calculated using the essential SNP set. The code used for running the EMMAX-based script
can be accessed at
https://github.com/mmjulkowska/Pimp_RSA_GWAS_salt/blob/main/20240208_EMMAX_GWAS%20pip

. The EMMA-X GWAS output files can be accessed at https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.nk98sf826. The data was subsequently investigated for all SNPs with association p-value above genome-wide threshold of -log10(p-value) > 5, as well as minor allele frequency and overlap of associations across individual traits and neighboring SNPs. The list of strongly associated SNPs can be found in **Table S2**.

Elemental analysis

The elemental analysis was performed using Inductively Coupled Plasma Atomic Emission Spectroscopy (ICP-AES). For analysis of Na^+ and K^+ ions in roots and shoots of plate-grown seedlings, the plants were grown on 1/4 x MS plates as described above. After 10 days of exposure to 0 or 100 mM NaCl, root and shoot tissues were harvested and measured for fresh weight, rinsed in milli-Q water and collected into separate paper bags that were dried at 60 °C for 2-3 days. Subsequently, the dry weight was recorded. Samples were digested in double distilled HNO_3, followed by the addition of 60/40 nitric/perchloric acid (v/v), continuing incubation at 150 °C. Samples were processed for ICP-AES analysis using a Thermo iCap 7000 ICP-AES after being diluted to 10 ml with deionized water. Ion content was calculated per dry weight for each sample, followed by data analysis in R.

Generating the F1 hybrid and screening the F2 population for variation in later root length and number

The F1 hybrid population was created through reciprocal crosses between two tomato varieties: the cultivated tomato (*S. lycopersicum* LA1511) and the wild tolerant tomato (*S. pimpinellifolium* LA2540). The F1 hybrid underwent self-pollination to produce the F2 segregating population. From this population, 180 F2 tomato seeds were used for Bulk Segregant Analysis (BSA). The seeds underwent processing similar to that described for the agar-based plate experiments mentioned above for screening root system architecture. Following the root system architecture analysis, we identified four distinct bulks within the F2 population based on lateral root length and number. These bulks were then subjected to DNA extraction.

DNA extraction for genome sequencing

From each bulk, we pooled 25 individuals that had the best characteristic of their designated pool for DNA extraction from roots. Extraction of the DNA was carried out using Wizard® Genomic DNA Purification Kit (Promega, catalogue # A1125) according to the manufacturer instructions. The integrity of DNA samples was checked using the electrophoresis gel and the concentration was determined by measuring the absorbance at 260 nm in a Nanodrop. 500 ng/µl of DNA from each pool and the two parents were sent on dry ice to the Novogene (Sacramento, CA, USA) for genome sequencing.

Bulk Segregant Analysis (BSA)

Raw paired-end reads were processed to trim adaptor and low-quality sequences using Trimmomatic (version 0.39) (Bolger et al. 2014). The processed reads were aligned to the reference *Solanum pimpinellifolium* genome (Wang et al. 2020a)) using BWA-MEM (0.7.17-r1188) (Li 2013) with default parameters. Following read mapping, duplicated read pairs in each sample were marked using Picard (v2.26.6; http://broadinstitute.github.io/picard/), and SNPs were then called from the marked alignment files using GATK (v4.1.4.1) (McKenna et al. 2010). The called SNPs were filtered using GATK with parameters 'QD < 2.0 || FS > 60.0 || MQ <40.0 || MQRankSum < -12.5 || ReadPosRankSum < -8.0'.

For BSA-Seq analysis, in each comparison of two bulks, SNP index of each SNP site was calculated for each bulk by dividing the number of reads harboring the allele of one parent with the total number of reads covering the site. Δ(SNP index) was then calculated by subtracting the SNP index in one bulk from the SNP index in the other bulk. An average Δ(SNP index) in each 200-kb sliding window with a step size of 100 kb across the *S. pimpinellifolium* genome was calculated. The 95% and 99% confidence intervals of the Δ (SNP index) under the null hypothesis of no QTLs were also calculated following the method

661 described in (Takagi et al. 2013). QTLs were then identified as genomic regions with the Δ (SNP index)
662 larger than the threshold ($p < 0.05$).

Root sample collection for RNA-Seq experiment

To determine the time points corresponding to both pre- and post-lateral root emergence in the presence
and absence of 100 mM salt, we utilized the Smart Plate Imaging Robot (SPIRO) platform to capture
images of tomato seedlings cultivated on agar plates at 30-minute intervals over the course of one week.
Subsequently, we analyzed these images using SmartRoot, and processed in an R-pipeline that can be
accessed at (https://rpubs.com/mjulkowska/tomato_LR_LA1511vsM248) to identify the time points at
which lateral roots emerged. Based on this analysis, we selected five time points spanning before, during,
and after lateral root emergence under both control and salt stress conditions, specifically at 500, 1000,
2000, 3000, and 4000 minutes after transfer to the treatment plates. Following this selection, we collected
root samples, excluding the 0.5 cm root tip, from the two tomato accessions at the designated time points
in three independent biological replicates. These samples were promptly frozen in liquid nitrogen and
stored at -80°C for subsequent analysis.

RNA isolation, library preparation, and sequencing

Total RNA from roots were extracted using RNeasy Plant Mini Kit (Qiagen, Invitrogen, catalog # 74904),
including a cleaning step using RNase-free DNase to eliminate genomic DNA contamination. The integrity
and quality of RNA samples were evaluated using the Qubit RNA IQ Assay Kit (ThermoFisher Scientific,
catalog # Q33221) and its concentration were evaluated using Qubit RNA HS Assay Kit (ThermoFisher
Scientific, catalog # Q32852). 500 ng/µl of total RNA from each sample was sent on dry ice to the
Novogene (Sacramento, CA, USA) for library preparation using NEBNext Ultra™ II RNA Kit for Illumina
(Catalog# E7770L) paired end x 150 bp unstranded sequencing using NovaSeq. RNA-seq data were
processed, in brief, using "trimmomatic" (v0.32, parameter: LEADING:3 TRAILING:3 MINLEN:36, TruSeq3-
PE.fa:2:30:10:2, (Bolger et al. 2014)) to remove adaptors and low-quality reads. Then, clean reads derived
from *S. pimpinellifolium* and *S. lycopersicum* were mapped to the *S. pimpinellifolium* reference genome
by Hisat2 (v2.1.0, parameter: --rna-strandness RF -p 60 --no-softclip, (Kim et al. 2019)). Afterwards, the
BAM files were processed by FeatureCounts to quantify transcript abundance at the gene level (v2.0.1
(Liao et al. 2014), parameter: -s 1 -p -t mRNA -g ID -O). DESeq2 (v3.19, (Love et al. 2013)) was used to
normalize read counts among the 60 samples and identify differentially expressed genes (DEGs). Here, we
included the four timepoint (500min, 1000min, 2000min, 3000min, 4000min), two species (*S.*
pimpinellifolium and *S. lycopersicum*), and treatments (Control and Salt) as the experimental design
factors. Then condition-wise DEGs per time points per species were identified using the cutoff of adjusted
p-value < 0.05. Intersections of DEGs among time-points and species were characterized by the UpsetR
plot function in R (Conway et al. 2017). The effect of timepoints, species, and treatment on transcriptome
response was examined by principal component analysis (PCA) using in-house R-scripts
(https://github.com/Leon-Yu0320/Tomato-salt-stress-transcriptome). Briefly, the PC values were
calculated using the top 25% most variable genes based on standard deviation (SD) the PCA plot was
visualized with ggplot2 (Wickham 2016).

Go enrichment analysis

700 GO term enrichment analysis was performed to identify over-represented GO terms in the biological
701 process category using Blast2GO (v3.1.11) (Conesa and Götz 2008). The Fisher's exact test with the FDR
702 correction for multiple testing was used to determine statistical significance (adjusted *P* value < 0.05).

Co-expression network analysis

Co-expression network modules were built with the weighted gene correlation network analysis (WGCNA)
R package version 1.72-1 (Langfelder and Horvath, 2008). Normalized counts were used as an input and

75% of the most variable genes were used for analysis. A scale-free network was created by applying a
soft threshold power of 5. We created an unsigned network using the blockwiseModules function with
following parameters: corType = bicor, max PO utliers = 0.05, merge Cut Height = 0.4 and max Block Size =
25 000. Gene Ontology enrichment analysis was carried out with GoStats R package version 2.62.0 with a
standard hypergeometric test, to evaluate the enrichment of categories in each module compared to the
set of all genes used to create the co-expression network.

Ethylene, ascorbate, and H_2O_2 treatments for root assay
To analyze root system architecture with ethylene treatment, we utilized the ethylene precursor 1-
aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylic acid (ACC). ACC was incorporated into the ¼ MS agar plates at
concentrations of 1 µM or 5 µM. After autoclaving the media, ACC was added to the cooled medium after
filter sterilization. For ascorbate and H_2O_2 treatments, a concentration of 1 mM was used in the ¼ MS agar
plates. To prevent ascorbate degradation, freshly prepared ascorbate solution was sprayed on the
seedlings daily throughout the experiment. Similar to ACC, H_2O_2 was added to the cooled ¼ MS medium
after filter sterilization.

H_2O_2 imaging
The seeds were germinated for four days on ¼ strength Murashige and Skoog (MS) medium as described
in the "Agar-based plate experiments" section above. Salt stress was applied by fumigating the plates with
Peroxy Orange 1 (PO1; H_2O_2-specific dye; excitation/emission 540 nm/565 nm; Tocris Bioscience cat-
1199576-10-7, Bristol, United Kingdom) solution containing 100 mM NaCl while mock plates were
fumigated with only PO1 solution. 10 mL of 100 µM PO1 solutions were made in 10 mM phosphate buffer
(pH7.4) containing 0.002% Silwet L-77 (LEHLE seeds, Round Rock, TX, USA). Plates were fumigated with
fine mist of dye solutions at designated time points (10, 20, 30, 240 min after salt exposure) in a glass
chamber (24.5 x 12.5 x 16.5) as described in (Fichman et al. 2019, 2022; Fichman and Mittler 2020, 2021).
The imaging was done using the IVIS Lumina S5 platform via Living Image 4.7.3 software in acquisition
mode (PerkinElmer, Waltham, MA, USA) (Fichman et al. 2019; Fichman and Mittler 2020, 2021; Myers et
al. 2023) and the raw integrated density of regions of interest (ROIs) was calculated using Image J.

Data availability

733 Raw genome sequencing reads from Bulk Segregant Analysis (BSA) and RNA-Seq raw reads have been
734 deposited in the National Center for Biotechnology Information BioProject database under the accession
735 numbers PRJNA1108418 and PRJNA1119579, respectively. The phenotypic data in both raw and
736 processed state, and GWAS results can be accessed at https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.nk98sf826.

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Author contributions

745 M.R.I. and M.M.J. conceived the project and wrote the manuscript with inputs from all coauthors, M.M.J.
746 performed GWAS, H.S. and M.M.J quantified the root architecture data for the GWAS population, M.R.I.
747 conducted majority of the experiments including root system architecture analysis of selected accessions,

generation of F1 hybrid and F2 segregating population, root system architecture analysis of F2 population for bulk segregant analysis, collected samples and extracted DNA for bulk segregant analysis, collected samples and analyzed ion content data from ICP-AES, performed root system architecture analysis for ethylene, ascorbate, and H_2O_2 treatments as well as conducted ICP-AES analysis, M.R.I. and M.M.J. both collected samples for the time-series RNA-Seq experiment, M.R.I. extracted RNA for time-series RNA-Seq experiment, E.C. and M.P. helped in ICP-AES, L.Y. and A.D.L.N. performed RNA-Seq DEGs analysis, D.K. performed Co-expression network analysis, J.Z. and Z.F. performed Bulk Segregant analysis and GO enrichment, D.M. and R.M. performed H_2O_2 imaging and data analysis, M.A.T. helped with providing infrastructure for the initial screen and initial funding for the experiments.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests

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Figures and tables legend

Table 1. List of 22 genes identified by cross-referencing GWAS and BSA analysis. If no genes were found within the chromosome regions indicated by the GWAS, we extended the search by 10 kb before and after the original SNP locations.

Figure 1. Diversity of salt stress responses observed within the *S. pimpinellifolium* diversity panel. The 220 genotypes of *S. pimpinellifolium* were germinated on ½ MS agar plates for 4 days and subsequently transferred to media containing 0 or 100 mM NaCl (Control and Salt respectively). The seedlings were imaged every 24 h after transfer for 7 consecutive days. The Root Architecture of seedlings was quantified for the first 4 days after transfer, and the **(A)** growth of Main Root, **(B)** increase in Lateral Root number and **(C)** growth of average Lateral Root was estimated using linear growth functions. The population average values for Control and Salt conditions are indicated using the dashed lines. The effect of the treatment was evaluated using a paired Wilcoxon test for **(D)** Main Root Growth Rate, **(E)** increase in Lateral Root number and **(F)** average Lateral Root Growth Rate. The individual gray lines illustrate the genotype-specific change in individual growth parameters across the conditions. **(G)** The genotype-specific growth rates at individual conditions were used to calculate the Stress Tolerance Index (STI) for individual traits, calculated by dividing growth rate estimated under Control / Salt conditions. The relative change in STI represents the salt-induced reprogramming of the root architecture. The individual gray lines represent the genotype-specific change in STI across individual components of root architecture. The individual dots represent the genotype-specific mean calculated from 4 biological replicates.

Figure 2. Wild tolerant and cultivated tomatoes have different salt tolerant features regarding lateral root development under the salt. (A-C) Root system architecture analysis of cultivated and wild tomatoes under 0 or 100 mM concentrations of NaCl are shown**. (D)** Salt tolerance indexes (STIs) are shown for the main root, **(E)** average lateral root length, **(F)** and lateral root number. The STI was calculated by dividing the growth rate measured under salt stress by the growth rate measured under control condition for each accession. **(G)** Na^+/K^+ ratio in root and shoot of different accessions after 10 days on treatment plates. Each dot represents an individual replicate per accession. Lines in (A-C) graphs represent median values. The asterisks above the graphs in (A-C) indicate significant differences between control and salt stress conditions, as determined by the Student 's t-test: $*P < 0.05$, $**P < 0.01$, $***P < 0.001$, and $****P < 0.0001$. Statistical analysis was done by comparison of the means for all pairs using Tukey HSD test for (D-G). Levels not connected by the same letter are significantly different ($P < 0.05$).

Figure 3. F1 individuals display an increase in main root growth under salt while maintaining lower Na^+/K^+ ratio in root and shoot. Root system architecture of F1 individuals, their corresponding parents, i.e., cultivated and wild tolerant tomatoes along with wild sensitive tomatoes were investigated with and without 100 mM NaCl. **(A)** Shown are representative images of 9-day-old seedlings that experienced 5 days of salt treatment. Growth rate for **(B)** main root length**, (C)** lateral root length, **(D)** and lateral root number**.** Salt tolerance indexes (STIs) are shown for the **(E)** main root, **(F)** average lateral root length**,** and **(G)** lateral root number. The STI was calculated by dividing the growth rate measured under salt stress by the growth rate measured under control condition for each accession. **(H)** Na^+/K^+ ratio of root and shoot of different accessions after 10 days on treatment plates. Each dot represents individual replicas per accession. Statistical analysis was done by comparison of the means for all pairs using Tukey HSD test in all graphs. Levels not connected by the same letter are significantly different ($P < 0.05$).

Figure 4. Segregating F2 populations displays four distinct phenotypic bulks for root system architecture. (A) Graph showing root system architecture of 180 F2 individuals alongside their parents under salt stress for lateral root length and lateral root number. The dashed lines used to show the

threshold criteria in selecting different bulks, which was 1.8 cm for lateral root length and 10 for the lateral
root number. Using these criteria, we identified four distinct phenotypic bulks, as indicated in the figure
with representative images provided for each bulk and their parents. **(B)** Representative bulks comparison
with most significant changes are shown. Distribution of Δ (SNP index) between the two bulks are shown
across the *S. pimpinellifolium* genome. The statistical confidence intervals under the null hypothesis of no
QTLs were indicated as green (*p* < 0.05) and blue (*p* < 0.01) lines.

Figure 5. Differential expression analyses showing unique and common changes in transcriptome of the
two tomato accessions in response to the salt stress. (A) Venn diagrams showing number of differentially
expressed genes between the two accessions for all timepoints, and **(B)** across individual time points. **(C)**
Intersection of numbers of DEGs under salt treatment relative to control condition across five timepoints.
The graphs with orange dots represent DEGs in wild tolerant samples and graphs with blue dots represents
cultivated tomato samples. The direction of arrow within each panel represents whether DEGs are
significantly up- or down-regulated.

Figure 6. Co-expression network analysis showing distinct patterns among the two accessions across
various developmental scales. WGCNA co-expression modules with scaled expression values (y axis)
across different time points (x axis) **(A-F).** Black dotted line indicates eigengene expression profile. Gray
line indicates expression values of all genes within the module. Most genes in these modules were
positively correlated to the eigengene. Genes that are identified through GWAS and BSA (Table 1) and
showing significant association with each module were listed below their respective modules, with bolded
genes highlighting three of the four candidates identified by cross-referencing GWAS and BSA with RNA-
Seq data. See Fig. S8 for a detailed analysis of all 14 modules.

Figure 7. Allelic variants analysis revealed the two accessions are almost conserved in their coding
sequence but not in the intronic region, as well as 5' and 3' UTRs. (A) Log2 fold changes are shown for
the four genes identified by cross-referencing the three experiments, GWAS, BSA, and RNA-Seq, across all
developmental time points for the two accessions. Stars indicate statistically significant changes in gene
expression, defined as a fold change of ≥ 2 and an adjusted p-value of < 0.05. **(B)** Gene models are
illustrated for the four genes, with unique SNP positions depicted as straight lines. The positions of the
transcription start site (TSS) and STOP are indicated, with gene locations displayed above. SNPs resulting
in missense mutations are depicted along with their corresponding variants in the other accession. See
Table S3 for the comprehensive list of variant analyses conducted for the 22 genes identified from GWAS
and BSA analyses (Table 1).

Figure 8. ACC treatment significantly reduces main root and lateral root length while lowering Na^+/K^+
ratio non-significantly in shoot of cultivated and wild tolerant tomato accessions. (A) Shown are
representative images of 9-day-old tomato seedlings that experienced 5 days of treatment with 0 or 100
mM concentrations of NaCl supplemented with or without various concentrations of ACC as indicated in
the figure. Salt tolerance indexes (STIs) are shown for the **(B)** main root, **(C)** average lateral root length**,**
and **(D)** lateral root number. The STI was calculated by dividing the growth rate measured under salt stress
by the growth rate measured under control condition for each accession. **(E)** Na^+/K^+ ratio of root and shoot
of different accessions after 10 days on treatment plates. (B-E) Each dot represents individual replicas per
accession and lines represent mean values in all. Statistical analysis was done by comparison of the means
for all pairs using Tukey HSD test in all graphs. Levels not connected by the same letter are significantly
different (P < 0.05).

Figure 9. Ascorbate and H_2O_2 treatments show accession-dependent effects on root system architecture
under salt stress, with ascorbate significantly reducing the shoot Na^+/K^+ ratio during salt stress. Analysis
of root system architecture in tomato accessions treated with 0 or 100 mM NaCl, with or without the

addition of 1 mM ascorbate or H_2O_2, as shown in the figure. **(A)** Salt tolerance indexes (STIs) are shown
for the main root, average lateral root length**,** and lateral root number across the various treatments
indicated in the figure. The STI was calculated by dividing the growth rate measured under salt stress by
the growth rate measured under control condition for each accession. **(B)** Na^+/K^+ ratio of root and shoot
of different accessions after 10 days on treatment plates. (A-B) Each dot represents individual replicas per
accession and lines represent mean values in all. Statistical analysis was done by comparison of the means
for all pairs using Tukey HSD test in all graphs. Levels not connected by the same letter are significantly
different (P < 0.05).

Figure 10. H_2O_2 profiling in roots shows distinct responses among the two accessions under salt stress.
Quantification of H_2O_2 levels in the **(A)** roots and **(B)** shoots of two tomato accessions exposed to 0 or
100 mM NaCl at specific time points, as indicated in the figure. Salt stress was applied by fumigating the
plates with a Peroxy Orange 1 (PO1) solution, a H_2O_2-specific dye, containing 100 mM NaCl, while mock-
treated plates received only the PO1 solution. Imaging was performed using the IVIS Lumina S5 platform
with Living Image 4.7.3 software in acquisition mode. The raw integrated density of regions of interest
(ROIs) was quantified using ImageJ. Differences between mock and salt-treated conditions within each
accession were analyzed using one-way ANOVA, with n = 3 per accession and condition. a.u. refers to
arbitrary units.

Supplemental figures and tables legends

Figure S1. The natural variation in Root System Architecture components in response to salt stress. The
220 genotypes of *S. pimpinellifolium* were germinated on ½ MS agar plates for 4 days and subsequently
transferred to media containing 0 or 100 mM NaCl (Control and Salt respectively). The seedlings were
imaged every 24 h after transfer for 7 consecutive days. The Root Architecture of seedlings was quantified
for the first 4 days after transfer, and inspected for changes throughout time for **(A)** Total Root Size, **(B)**
Main Root Length, **(C)** Lateral Root Length, **(D)** Lateral Root Number, **(E)** Center of Gravity (calculated as
the position of MR with most Lateral Root Length), and **(F)** ratio of Main Root Length per Total Root Size.
The individual lines represent the genotype-specific mean, whereas the dashed lines represent the
population average. The *, **, *** and **** represent the significant differences between the treatment
at individual time points as tested with two-way ANOVA with p-value < 0.05, 0.01, 0.001 and 0.0001,
respectively.

**Figure S2. Salt-induced changes in root biomass distribution between main and lateral roots are
associated with loci on Chromosomes 3 and 4.** Genome Wide Association Study was performed on 9M
SNPs using standard EMMA-X method. Only SNPs with minor allele frequency > 0.05 were used for
plotting the Manhattan plot for associations identified with **(A)** ratio of main root length to total root size
at 1 day and **(B)** two days post transfer to salt stress, with pseudo-heritability values of 0.116 and 0.195
respectively. The red line indicates the   Bonferroni threshold, whereas the blue line indicates genome-
wide suggestive threshold. **(C)** The significantly associated loci were inspected in further detail for the
gene coding sequences within the regions with significantly associated SNPs. The region on chromosome
3 contained 29 SNPs with -log10(p-value) > 5. The three individual loci **(D-F)** identified on chromosome 4
contained 240, 39 and 85 SNPs with -log10(p-value) > 5. The association graph below each locus
represents the association strength with the ratio of main root length to total root size at 1 day after salt
stress imposition.

**Figure S3. Salt-induced changes in lateral root development are associated with loci on chromosomes
1, 3 and 10.** Genome Wide Association Study was performed on 9M SNPs using standard EMMA-X
method. Only SNPs with minor allele frequency > 0.05 were used for plotting the Manhattan plot for

associations identified with **(A)** average lateral root length and **(B)** lateral root number at one day post
transfer to salt stress, with pseudo-heritability values of 0.145 and 0.358 respectively. The red line
indicates the Bonferroni threshold, whereas the blue line indicates genome-wide suggestive threshold.
(C) The significantly associated loci were inspected in further detail for the gene coding sequences within
the regions with significantly associated SNPs. The region on chromosome 1 contained 27 SNPs, **(D)** the
region on chromosome 3 7 SNPs, and **(E)** region on chromosome 11 contained 60 SNPs with -log10(p-
value) > 5. The association graph below each locus represents the association strength with the average
lateral root length at 1 day after salt stress imposition.

Figure S4. Emergence of lateral roots and main root growth rate is associated with loci on chromosomes
12 and 22. Genome Wide Association Study was performed on 9M SNPs using standard EMMA-X method.
Only SNPs with minor allele frequency > 0.05 were used for plotting the Manhattan plot for associations
identified with **(A)** lateral root emergence and **(B)** main root growth rate under salt stress, with pseudo-
heritability values of 0.855 and 0.628 respectively. The red line indicates the Bonferroni threshold,
whereas the blue line indicates genome-wide suggestive threshold. **(C)** The significantly associated loci
were inspected in further detail for the gene coding sequences within the regions with significantly
associated SNPs. The region on chromosome 12 contained 16 SNPs, whereas **(D)** the region on
chromosome 11 contained 15 SNPs -log10(p-value) > 5. The association graph below each locus represents
the association strength with the trait initially associated with that locus.

Figure S5. High-confidence loci identified through GWAS. Genome Wide Association Study was
performed on 9M SNPs using the standard EMMA-X method. Only SNPs with minor allele frequency >
0.05 were used for plotting the Manhattan plot for associations identified with **(A)** lateral root number at
2 days after transfer to control conditions. The significantly associated loci on chromosome 5, consisting
of **(B)** 15 and **(C)** 11 SNPs were inspected in further detail. **(D)** Associations with the number of lateral
roots were identified on chromosome 1, and **(E)** the locus consisting of 14 highly associated SNPs has been
inspected in more detail. The red line on Manhattan plots indicates the Bonferroni threshold, whereas
the blue line indicates genome-wide suggestive threshold. The association graph below each locus
represents the association strength with the trait initially associated with that locus.

Figure S6. Wild tomatoes accumulate higher levels of Na$^+$ in the shoot compared to cultivated tomato.
(A) Na$^+$ and **(B)** K$^+$ contents of root and shoot of different accessions after 10 days on treatment plates.
Each dot represents an individual replicate per accession. Statistical analysis was done by comparison of
the means for all pairs using Tukey HSD test. Levels not connected by the same letter are significantly
different (P < 0.05).

Figure S7. F1 individuals accumulate less Na$^+$. (A-C) Root system architecture of F1 individuals, their
corresponding parents, i.e., cultivated and wild tolerant tomatoes along with wild sensitive tomatoes
were investigated with and without 100 mM NaCl. **(D-E)** Na$^+$ and K$^+$ contents of root and shoot of different
accessions after 10 days on treatment plates. Each dot represents individual replicas per accession.
Statistical analysis was done by comparison of the means for all pairs using Tukey HSD test in all graphs.
Levels not connected by the same letter are significantly different (P < 0.05).

Figure S8. Remaining bulk comparisons. Displayed here are the additional BSA results that were not
shown in Figure 4.

Figure S9. Wild tolerant and cultivated tomatoes show variation in lateral root elongation and
emergence under the salt stress. (A) Lateral root length, **(B)** lateral root length growth rate, and **(C)** lateral
root number are shown for the two tomato accessions grown in agar plate under 100 mM NaCl. The plates
were imaged using SPIRO setup at a 30-min interval for one week. Individual transparent lines indicate

the growth trajectory of individual lateral roots, dashed line indicates the growth average per genotype
per condition, whereas the shaded area indicates the standard deviation. The differences between
Control and Salt conditions were tested within each genotype using one-way ANOVA, with *, ** and ***
representing p-values below 0.05, 0.01 and 0.001, respectively. The growth dynamics of lateral roots were
measured over two experimental replicates for 4 biological replicates per genotype per condition.

Figure S10. Intersection of DEGs between WT and CT under Salt and Control conditions. The upset plots
highlight the intersection of numbers of DEGs between wild tolerant and cultivated tomato samples
across five timepoints under salt and control conditions, respectively. The panel with dark blue dots
represents samples under the control condition, while the panel with brown dots are Salt samples. The
direction of arrows within each panel indicates whether the depicted genes are up- or down-regulated.

Figure S11. Co-expression network analysis. The rest of WGCNA co-expression modules are shown here,
module 7 to 14.

Figure S12. Gene expression profiles over time for genes identified by overlapping GWAS and BSA
analyses in Table 1. Log2 fold changes are shown for the 18 genes identified by cross-referencing the
GWAS and BSA, across all developmental time points for the two accessions.

Figure S13. ACC treatment significantly reduces both main root and lateral root lengths while causing a
non-significant decrease in Na$^+$ concentrations in the roots and shoots of both accessions under salt
stress. Root system architecture analysis of cultivated and wild tomatoes under 0 or 100 mM
concentrations of NaCl supplemented with or without various concentrations of ACC, as indicated in the
figure, are shown for main root growth rate **(A)**, average lateral root length **(B)** as well as average lateral
root number **(C)**. Na$^+$ **(D)** and K$^+$ **(E)** content of root and shoot of different accessions after 10 days on
treatment plates. (A-E) Each dot represents individual replicate per accession. (D-E) Lines represent mean
values. The asterisks above the graphs in (A-C) indicate significant differences between control (i.e., 0 mM
NaCl and 0 ACC) and other treatment by the Student 's t-test: *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001, and
****P < 0.0001. Statistical analysis was done by comparison of the means for all pairs using Tukey–Kramer
HSD test for (D-E). Levels not connected by the same letter are significantly different (P < 0.05).

Figure S14. Ascorbate and H$_2$O$_2$ treatments exhibit accession-dependent effects on root system
architecture under salt stress, with ascorbate contributing to K$^+$ retention during salt stress. Root system
architecture analysis of cultivated and wild tomatoes under 0 or 100 mM concentrations of NaCl
supplemented with or without ascorbate or H$_2$O$_2$, as indicated in the figure, are shown for main root
growth rate **(A)**, average lateral root length **(B)** as well as average lateral root number **(C)**. Na$^+$ **(D)** and K$^+$
(E) content of root and shoot of different accessions after 10 days on treatment plates. (A-E) Each dot
represents individual replicate per accession. (D-E) Lines represent mean values. Statistical analysis was
done by comparison of the means for all pairs using Tukey–Kramer HSD test for (A-E). Levels not
connected by the same letter are significantly different (P < 0.05).

Table S1. Root System Architecture traits for *S. pimpinellifolium* diversity panel. The 89 different
phenotypes were recorded for 220 *S. pimpinellifolium* accessions. The traits presented in this table
represent the average trait value as calculated based on 4 biological replicates. The trait abbreviations are
as follow: aLRL - average Lateral Root Length; aLRLpTRS - ratio of average lateral root length to total root
size; CoG - center of gravity calculated as the length of the main root that gives rise to most lateral root
biomass; LRL - cumulative lateral root length; LRno - lateral root number, MRL - main root length;
MRLpTRS - ratio of main root length to total root size; TRS - total root size. The abbreviations behind the
1st dot indicate either the time and treatment at which individual RSA parameters were recorded (0 - 4 -

days post treatment application; C and S for Control and Salt stress respectively), or STI - stress tolerance
index - calculated by dividing the trait value recorded under Salt stress conditions by value recorded under
Control conditions. GR indicates the growth rate, estimated by fitting a linear curve into change of trait
over time.

Table S2. GWAS results. All of the SNPs with -log10(p-value) > 5 ware collated into one table, from two
GWAS methods used (ASReml - as used in (Awlia et al. 2021), and EMMA-X). The position of each SNP is
indicated in Chr and Pos columns, corresponding to chromosome and position on the chromosome in
base pairs as per S.pimpinellifolium genome annotation (Wang et al. 2020a). The distance between
neighboring SNPs is indicated in the "dist" column, and distances below 10,000 bp are highlighted in
yellow, while distances below 1,000 bp are highlighted in red. The Pval column indicates the P-value
associated with each SNP, and MAF indicates the minor allele frequency of that particular SNP. The trait
column indicates the specific trait association used, with aLRL representing average lateral root length,
MRL main root length, LRL lateral root length, TRS total root size, perc - a percentage of main root length,
CoG - center of gravity calculated for lateral root distribution along the main root length, Apical, Branched
and Basal indicating the lengths of individual zones as absolute values or (perc) as percentage of the main
root length. The traits recorded under Control conditions are colored in blue, while traits recorded under
salt stress are colored with pink. The LOD is calculated as -log10(p-value). The Method represents whether
an individual association was observed as significant using ASReml or EMMA-X method.

Table S3. Analysis of allelic variants for the 22 genes that overlap between GWAS and BSA studies.

Table S4. RNA-Seq raw reads and differentially expressed genes (DEGs).

Table S5. Differentially expressed genes (DEGs) for 500 and 4000 minutes.

Table S6. Go enrichment analysis for 500 and 4000 minutes.

Table S7. List of potassium channels and transporters with their gene expression profiles in tomato root
transcriptomics.

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