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Ethylene Receptor Gain- and Loss-of-function Mutants Reveal an ETR1-dependent

Transcriptional Network in Roots

Running head: ETR1-dependent gene regulatory networks in roots

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One sentence summary: Transcriptional responses in *etr1* LOF and GOF mutants reveal an

ethylene-mediated ETR1- and EIN3 dependent gene regulatory network that modulates ethylene

signaling and synthesis and root development.F

Abstract

In Arabidopsis, a family of five receptors mediates ethylene responses in roots, with Ethylene

Response 1 (ETR1) controlling increases in root hair proliferation and decreases in lateral root

formation. To define the ETR1-dependent gene regulatory network (GRN) controlling root

development, we profiled the root transcriptome from Col-0 and the *etr1-3* gain-of-function and

etr1-7 loss-of-function mutants in the presence and absence of ethylene or the ethylene precursor

aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylic acid (ACC). We identified 4,522 differentially expressed (DE)

transcripts in Col-0 roots with altered abundance in response to ethylene and/or ACC treatment,

most with larger magnitude changes induced by ethylene. These included 553 DE transcripts that

were ETR1-dependent, defined by a lack of response to treatment with ethylene and/or ACC in

ethylene-insensitive *etr1-3* and constitutively altered in *etr1-7* in the presence and absence of

treatment relative to untreated Col-0. Within these ETR1 dependent transcripts were ethylene

biosynthesis genes and transcription factors. *ACC OXIDASE 2 (ACO2)* and *ACO3* convert ACC

to ethylene and were ETR1-dependent, and *ACO* promoter fusions were ACC regulated in root

tissues in appropriate locations to control root development, with *ACO5* localized to root hairs.

Abundance of ETR1-dependent transcripts that were predicted to encode transcription factors and

ACOs were examined in Col-0 and an *ein3eil1* mutant with and without ACC treatment, revealing

that the ETR1 and EIN3/EIL1 canonical ethylene signaling pathway regulated some, but not all,

of these transcriptional responses. Together, these findings reveal features of an ETR1-dependent

GRN that controls both ethylene synthesis and root growth and development.

Introduction

Ethylene is a gaseous hormone that modulates growth and development throughout a plant's life cycle, from seed germination to senescence, and controls responses to both biotic and abiotic stress (Abeles et al., 1992; Van de Poel et al., 2015). In young, etiolated seedlings, ethylene induces a triple response: reduced hypocotyl and root elongation, thickening of the hypocotyl, and exaggeration of the apical hook. This triple response phenotype has been the basis of mutant screens in *Arabidopsis thaliana* that have identified key components of the ethylene signaling pathway with ethylene-insensitive or constitutive ethylene signaling phenotypes (Azhar et al., 2020; Schaller and Kieber, 2002). Ethylene also has profound effects on root development, including inhibition of primary root elongation and lateral root formation and stimulation of root hair initiation and elongation (Feng et al., 2017; Harkey et al., 2018; Lewis et al., 2011; Negi et al., 2008; Qin et al., 2019). Many of the proteins that were identified based on their functions in ethylene signaling in etiolated hypocotyls also modulate root development (Khoury et al., 2024b), but with distinct developmental effects downstream of each receptor (Harkey et al., 2018).

Ethylene functions through direct binding to members of a family of transmembrane receptors localized to the endoplasmic reticulum and the Golgi apparatus (Azhar et al., 2020; Binder, 2020; Schaller and Kieber, 2002). These receptors are negative regulators of the pathway, such that binding of ethylene to these receptors removes repression of the pathway, which initiates a signaling cascade that upregulates or downregulates genes with distinct transcriptional responses depending on the tissue type and growth conditions (Chang et al., 2013; Harkey et al., 2018, 2019; Stepanova et al., 2007). In Arabidopsis*,* five receptor isoforms have been identified: Ethylene Response 1 (ETR1), ETR2, Ethylene Insensitive 4 (EIN4), Ethylene Response Sensor 1 (ERS1), and ERS2 (Binder, 2020; Chang et al., 1993; Hua et al., 1998; Hua and Meyerowitz, 1998; Sakai

et al., 1998; Schaller and Bleecker, 1995). Unlike most canonical signaling pathways, however,

ethylene receptors are active in the unbound state. In the absence of ethylene, these receptors

activate the Raf-like serine/threonine protein kinase Constitutive Triple Response 1 (CTR1),

destabilizing EIN3 and EIN3-like (EIL) transcription factors (TFs) and blocking changes in gene

expression downstream of these TFs (An et al., 2010; Binder, 2020; Dolgikh et al., 2019; Kieber

et al., 1993). In the bound state, however, the ethylene receptors lead to stabilization of EIN3 and

EIL TFs in an EIN2-dependent manner (Alonso et al., 1999; An et al., 2010; Huang et al., 2003;

Kieber et al., 1993; Qiao et al., 2009), leading to genome-wide changes in transcript abundance

(Chang et al., 2013; Harkey et al., 2018). Downstream of EIN3/EIL are ethylene response factors

(ERFs) and ethylene response DNA-binding factors (EDFs) that further mediate transcription,

consistent with the existence of tissue-specific gene regulatory networks (GRNs) (Wang et al.,

2002).

The function of ethylene signaling proteins in controlling root architecture has been

examined (Khoury et al., 2024b). EIN2 is required for root developmental responses to ethylene

and its immediate precursor 1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylic acid, or ACC (Alonso and

Stepanova, 2004; Negi et al., 2008). The *ctr1-1* mutant was demonstrated to have constitutive-

ethylene-signaling root phenotypes, with this mutant having shorter primary roots and increased

root hair proliferation compared to Col-0 seedlings in the absence of ethylene (Hua and

Meyerowitz, 1998; Kieber et al., 1993; Masucci and Schiefelbein, 1996; Rahman et al., 2000),

suggesting its presence is required to suppress the pathway in the absence of ethylene. EIN3 and

EIL1 TFs function in ethylene-dependent root hair formation, with the *ein3eil1* double mutant

having reduced ACC-induction of root hair proliferation (Feng et al., 2017). However, root

developmental responses to ethylene can still be observed in the *ein3* and *ein3eil1* mutants (Chang

et al., 2013; Harkey et al., 2018), suggesting that additional TFs may participate in these ethylene

responses.

The five ethylene receptors in Arabidopsis each elicit distinct ethylene responses (Shakeel

et al., 2013), partially due to differences in receptor subunit structure and receptor dimerization

(Berleth et al., 2019). ETR1 was found to be the main receptor controlling inhibition of ethylene

perception by silver nitrate, nutational bending of hypocotyls, and remodeling of root architecture

(Harkey et al., 2018; McDaniel and Binder, 2012). In Arabidopsis, ETR1 positively regulates

nutational bending (Binder et al., 2006), while the other four receptors negatively regulate this

process (Kim et al., 2011). In roots, using a series of single and multiple loss-of-function (LOF)

and gain-of-function (GOF) mutants, only ETR1 was needed for the inhibition of lateral root

formation by ACC (Harkey et al., 2018). The inhibition of lateral root formation by ACC was lost

in the GOF, ethylene-insensitive mutant *etr1-3,* which had significantly more lateral roots than

wild type in the presence and absence of ACC. The LOF, constitutive-signaling mutant *etr1-7* had

significantly fewer lateral roots than wild type in the presence and absence of ACC. ETR1 also

has a central role in the inhibition of primary root elongation and stimulation of root hair formation

by ACC, consistent with ETR1 playing the most substantial role in modulating ethylene-mediated

root remodeling (Harkey et al., 2018). Nevertheless, while it has been demonstrated that elevated

levels of ethylene remodel the root transcriptome (Harkey et al., 2018, 2019; Stepanova et al.,

2007), the GRN downstream of the ETR1 receptor has not yet been identified in roots.

To identify the ETR1-dependent GRN controlling root growth and development, we

performed an RNA-Seq analysis in roots from light-grown seedlings using Col-0 and ETR1

receptor GOF (*etr1-3*) and LOF (*etr1-7*) mutants treated with ethylene and ACC for one, four, and

24 hours. We identified a core set of genes regulated by both ethylene and ACC in Col-0. We also

identified a subgroup of these transcripts that were mis-regulated in the mutants which we defined

as ETR1 dependent, as they had constitutively altered expression in untreated *etr1-7* (as compared

to Col-0) and their responses to ACC and/or ethylene were lost in both *etr1-3* and *etr1-7* mutants.

We examined transcripts encoding the ACC oxidases (ACOs), which are the enzymes that convert

ACC to ethylene, in our dataset, finding transcriptional controls of some, but not all of these genes,

with a subset that were ETR1 dependent. Analysis of verified ACO transcriptional reporters driven

by the native ACO promoters revealed overlapping and distinct root tissue expression patterns

among this protein family. Finally, we explored the ETR1-dependent GRN through the lens of

ETR1-dependent transcripts predicted to encode TFs, building a network model that revealed TF-

encoding transcripts with common temporal and ETR1-regulated responses. We identified those

TFs that are targets of EIN3 and tested whether these transcriptional responses required functional

copies of EIN3/EIL1. This work sheds light on the ETR1 and EIN3-dependent GRNs that mediate

the transcriptional responses to elevated levels of ACC and its ethylene product.

Results

Previous experiments revealed time points and treatment doses for transcriptome analyses

Previous experiments have revealed the profound effects of elevated levels of ethylene and ACC on root architecture (Khoury et al., 2024b), with the ETR1 receptor controlling many aspects of these developmental changes (Harkey et al., 2018). The goal of this work was to define the genes that depend upon ETR1 for their regulation by ethylene In Arabidopsis, a family of five receptors mediates ethylene responses in roots, with Ethylene Response 1 (ETR1) controlling increases in root hair proliferation and decreases in lateral root formation. To define the ETR1-dependent gene regulatory network (GRN) and downstream target genes that control root development, we profiled the root transcriptome from Col-0 and the *etr1-3* gain-of-function and *etr1-7* loss-of-function mutants in the presence and absence of ethylene or the ethylene precursor aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylic acid (ACC). We identified 4,522 differentially expressed (DE) transcripts in Col-0 roots with altered abundance in response to ethylene and/or ACC treatment, most with larger magnitude changes induced by ethylene. These included 553 DE transcripts that were ETR1-dependent, defined by a lack of response to treatment with ethylene and/or ACC in ethylene-insensitive *etr1-3* and constitutively altered in *etr1-7* in the presence and absence of treatment relative to untreated Col-0. Within these ETR1 dependent transcripts were ethylene biosynthesis genes and transcription factors. *ACC OXIDASE 2* (*ACO2)* and *ACO3* convert ACC to ethylene and were ETR1-dependent, and *ACO* promoter fusions were ACC regulated in root tissues in appropriate locations to control root development, with *ACO5* localized to root hairs. Abundance of ETR1-dependent transcripts that were predicted to encode transcription factors and ACOs were examined in Col-0 and an *ein3eil1* mutant with and without ACC treatment, revealing that the ETR1 and EIN3/EIL1 canonical ethylene signaling pathway regulated some, but not all,

148 of these transcriptional responses. Together, these findings reveal features of an ETR1-dependent

149 GRN that controls both ethylene synthesis and root growth and development, which we determined

150 by examining changes in the transcriptome in *etr1* loss-of-function and gain-of-function mutants.

151 We examined transcriptional response to both ethylene and its immediate precursor ACC to

152 compare their GRNs, as previous work suggested that ACC and ethylene act through distinct

153 signaling pathways in some tissues (Mou et al., 2020; Yin et al., 2019). As a first step, we

154 determined the concentration of ethylene that yielded moderate root hair proliferation like that

155 induced by 0.75 µM ACC (Martin et al., 2022), by examining root hairs in Col-0 seedlings treated

156 with a range of ethylene levels for 24 hours (Supplemental Figure 1). The 0.3 ppm ethylene

157 concentration appeared to induce root hair proliferation to a similar degree as 0.75 µM ACC, so

158 we selected 0.3 ppm ethylene and 0.75 µM ACC for this RNA-Seq analysis.

159  The *etr1-3* and *etr1-7* mutants have aberrant ethylene signaling as summarized in Figure

160 1A that leads to altered root development and responses to elevated ethylene (Harkey et al., 2018).

161 An important goal of this work was to examine the changes in the transcriptome profiles of

162 ethylene- and ACC-treated roots of Col-0, *etr1-3,* and *etr1-7* seedlings to determine the extent of

163 overlap between the receptor-mediated transcriptional responses to these molecules. We compared

164 the effects of 24 hours of treatment with ethylene or ACC at these doses on the proliferation of

165 root hairs in the *etr1-3* and *etr1-7* mutants (Figure 1B). Consistent with our previous results

166 (Harkey et al., 2018), *etr1-3* was less sensitive than Col-0 to the effects of ACC and ethylene,

167 forming fewer and shorter root hairs in the presence of either treatment. The *etr1-7* mutant had

168 larger numbers and longer root hairs in the absence of ACC, although it still responded to ACC

169 and ethylene treatments, a role of additional ethylene receptors in the formation and elongation of

170 root hairs. Intriguingly, *etr1-7* appeared to be more sensitive to ethylene than to ACC, as only

ethylene induced the formation of a dense cluster of root hairs at the root tip under these treatment

conditions.

We used our published ACC time-course microarray dataset to determine the best time

points for the RNA-Seq analysis (Harkey et al., 2018). We searched for time points that had large

numbers of differentially expressed (DE) genes that were not found in other time points and

overlapped with the early, middle, and late root hair developmental responses (for details, see

Methods). Supplemental Figure 2 displays a pairwise comparison between DE transcripts at each

time point. We selected 1 hour as it corresponded to a robust early response and 4 hours as, in our

prior experiment, it had 87% of the transcripts that were also DE at 2 hours and 60% of the

transcripts that were also DE at 8 hours. This time point is also where ACC began to significantly

induce root hair formation (Harkey et al., 2018). This comparison revealed that 1, 4, and 24 hours

of ACC treatment yielded large numbers of unique (i.e., not found in other time points) DE

transcripts while also overlapping with the root hair developmental responses, so these time points

were used in this study.

Principal component analysis and Pearson's correlation reveal genotype and treatment

difference in the root transcriptome

We performed this RNA-Seq analysis in triplicate with three genotypes (Col-0, *etr1-3*, and

etr1-7), two treatments (0.75 μM ACC and 0.3 ppm ethylene gas), and four time points (0, 1, 4,

and 24 hours). Roots were collected from these samples, and mRNA was isolated and used for

RNA-Seq sample preparation. After sequencing and quality control, principal component analysis

(PCA) plots were created using 1000 genes with the most variance between samples. Figure 2A

shows the PCA plot for all samples, which highlights differences between genotypes across PC1

(*etr1-7* is distinct from the other two genotypes), and there is a clear difference across PC2 between

ethylene- and ACC-treated samples at time points other than 0. Additionally, one Col-0 control

separated from other controls along the vertical axis, which led us to analyze samples within

genotypes to further investigate differences between them. These analyses (Supplemental Figure

3; described further in Methods) led us to remove this ethylene time-zero sample as an outlier.

We used the three genotype-specific PCA plots (Figure 2B-D) to assess whether there was

variation between the type and duration of treatments. All three plots showed separation of ACC

and ethylene samples across the PC1 axis. Meanwhile, the PC2 axis separated samples by time of

ethylene or ACC treatment, generally moving from time 0 to time 24 hours from bottom to top.

The variation was greater in Col-0 in both PC1 and PC2, consistent with maximal ethylene- and

ACC-induced transcriptional responses in Col-0 as opposed to the dampened transcriptional

changes in the *etr1-3* mutant due to its reduced ethylene signaling and the *etr1-7* mutant due to its

elevated ethylene signaling in the presence and absence of ACC. The diminished response in *etr1-*

7 was consistent across most of the time points; only the 24-hour time point showed a major

change. These patterns suggested that after genotype, treatment accounted for the largest variance

among samples followed by treatment duration.

Plots of Pearson's correlation (Figure 2E and Supplemental Figure 4A) and of Euclidean

distance (Supplemental Figure 4B and C), with and without hierarchical clustering, were generated

to uncover similarities in expression patterns between samples. The scale of the correlation plots

suggested that, overall, samples were highly similar, as all correlation values were 0.94 or higher,

representing a minimum similarity of 94%. However, some differences were seen in both plots.

The *etr1-7* samples tended to cluster primarily with one another, consistent with *etr1-7* having a

constitutive transcriptional response to elevated ethylene signaling, while Col-0 and *etr1-3*

samples were interspersed with one another, especially in the absence of treatment or at early time

points after treatment, consistent with the absence of ethylene responses under those conditions

(Figure 2E). To provide additional insight into expression patterns, we also prepared manually

arranged plots in which the samples were grouped by genotype, and then the responses to ACC

and ethylene were arranged by time within each genotype (Supplemental Figure 4A and B;

described further in Methods). These plots also revealed that Col-0 and *etr1-3* showed greater

similarity to each other than to *etr1-7*. This separation of *etr1-7* from Col-0 and *etr1-3* was striking,

but another pattern also emerged. Replicate 3 of the ethylene-treated samples were consistently

different from their matching samples in other replicates, leading to a regular "striping" pattern.

This was most obvious in Col-0, slightly less so in *etr1-3*, and although more subtle, also evident

in *etr1-7*. This suggested that this third replicate may have had some difference in part of the

process such as treatment, sample collection, or sequencing that changed its composition.

We performed ACC treatments at Wake Forest University and ethylene treatments at the

University of Tennessee. Therefore, to determine if these samples were similar, we first compared

the controls from each location for each genotype, as detailed in Methods and in Supplemental

Table 1. Since the controls for Col-0 and *etr1-3* were well matched between the two locations, and

the PCAs suggested differences in *etr1-7* were not location dependent (Figure 2D), we combined

the six untreated (0-hour) samples for each genotype, or the five untreated samples for Col-0,

excluding the outlier sample described above, to use as the baseline for comparisons for the

remaining analyses.

Ethylene treatment stimulated more dramatic transcriptional changes than ACC treatment in

Col-0

240    To summarize how the abundance of transcripts was affected by ethylene and ACC

241 treatment, we first examined the hormone-induced responses in Col-0. For both treatments, every

242 time point was compared back to the same set of combined Col-0 controls, defined above. We

243 created a density plot depicting the number of transcripts as a function of their $\log_2$FC using those

244 transcripts with a significant adjusted p-value < 0.01 as determined by DESeq2 (Figure 3A). We

245 observed a bimodal distribution at each time point, showing one group of transcripts that increased

246 in abundance and another that decreased in abundance because of these treatments. This pattern

247 was found in response to both ethylene and ACC, although there were larger numbers of DE

248 transcripts and greater magnitude changes in response to ethylene than ACC treatment, especially

249 at one hour. Both treatments resulted in more down-regulated than up-regulated genes at the 4-

250 and 24-hour time points. The bimodal pattern and higher number of down-regulated genes in

251 response to ACC at the four- and 24-hour time points were similar to our previous microarray

252 study (Harkey et al., 2018). In contrast, we observed more up-regulated genes in our RNA-Seq

253 study at the 1-hour time point for both treatments, while the microarray study detected more down-

254 regulated genes at this time point (Harkey et al., 2018). At the 1-hour time point, the bimodal

255 distribution in response to ACC was not observed in the microarray study, likely due to the lower

256 sensitivity of microarrays compared to RNA-Seq, which allows detection of more subtle changes

257 in transcript abundance. In all treatments and time points, the bimodal peaks representing the

258 increases and decreases in transcript abundance relative to untreated Col-0 were centered on or

259 near -0.5 and 0.5 $\log_2$FC.

260    To identify genes with the most robust changes, we utilized a $|\log_2$FC$| > 0.5$ and adjusted

261 p-value < 0.01 for the following analyses. Using DESeq2, we identified 4,522 transcripts that were

262 DE using both the $\log_2$FC and p-value cutoffs in response to ethylene and/or ACC in at least one

time point in Col-0 (Figure 3B-D). These transcripts and their $\log_2$FCs (Col-0 treated over Col-0

untreated) are listed in Supplemental File 1. More transcripts responded to ethylene treatment and

had a greater $\log_2$FC than to ACC treatment. This $\log_2$FC cutoff eliminated more genes whose

transcripts decreased after treatment, which resulted in a similar number of up- and down-regulated

transcripts passing the $\log_2$FC cutoff, despite there being more down-regulated genes in the larger

set of those with a p-value < 0.01 (Figure 3A). Many genes showed similar trends in response to

ACC and ethylene treatment: 1,493 and 1,657 genes were down- and up-regulated, respectively,

by ethylene only, and 182 and 213 genes were down- and up-regulated, respectively, by ACC only

as summarized in Supplemental Table 2. Strikingly, only 16 genes had opposite responses to the

two treatments: three were down-regulated in ethylene and up-regulated in ACC, and 13 were up-

regulated in ethylene and down-regulated in ACC.

This analysis also revealed that 457 and 504 transcripts were up- and down- regulated,

respectively, by both ACC and ethylene, with heatmaps illustrating the transcript abundance over

time in Figure 3C and D. One pattern that became apparent was that for transcripts whose

abundance decreased after both treatments, the 1- and 24-hour ACC-treated samples did not

respond as strongly as the time-matched ethylene-treated samples, while in the 4-hour ACC

treatment, the number of transcripts changed more dramatically than time-matched ethylene

treatment. This finding suggested the possibility that the rate of conversion of ACC to ethylene

resulted in varied ethylene concentrations across this time course. Indeed, of the 457 transcripts

upregulated by both ACC and ethylene, 258 had a larger magnitude change in response to ACC

treatment at the 4-hour time point, but when these 258 transcripts were examined at the 1-hour

time point, 181 or 70% of them had a larger response to ethylene treatment. Similarly, of the 504

transcripts downregulated by both ACC and ethylene, 245 had a larger magnitude change in

response to ACC treatment at the 4-hour time point, but 213 or 87% of them responded more

strongly to ethylene treatment at the 1-hour time point. These results suggested that ACC induced

maximal transcriptional responses more slowly than ethylene, likely due to the time required to

convert ACC to ethylene. Intriguingly, the pattern of highest absolute log_2FC at the 4-hour time

point was also apparent in the transcripts that were DE only in response to ACC treatment.

Transcripts regulated by ethylene and ACC were enriched in functions related to root

development

To determine which biological processes were enriched among the transcripts whose

abundance changed after ethylene or ACC treatment in Col-0, we performed Gene Ontology (GO)

analysis using AgriGO (Du et al., 2010; Tian et al., 2017) and reported the results in Supplemental

Table 3. Genes whose transcripts had increased abundance in both treatments were enriched in

functional annotations including "negative regulation of the ethylene-mediated signaling

pathway," which is consistent with previous findings that both ethylene and ACC transcriptionally

regulate components of the ethylene signaling pathway in a negative feedback loop, and response

to auxin stimulus, consistent with crosstalk between ethylene and auxin. Several groups of genes,

both up- and down-regulated, were enriched in lipid localization and transport annotations.

Transcripts whose abundance decreased after ethylene and/or ACC treatment were

enriched in gene annotations including lignin biosynthetic process and cell wall loosening, while

transcripts that decreased after only ethylene treatment were enriched in secondary cell wall

biogenesis, plant-type cell wall organization, and lignin metabolic process. These results were not

surprising given the importance of cell wall remodeling in cell expansion during apical root

growth, lateral root emergence, and root hair development.

Interestingly, genes whose transcripts decreased in abundance with ethylene treatment only

were enriched in annotations of root hair cell differentiation or root hair development, including

two myosin genes (*XIB* and *XIK*), *MORPHOGENESIS OF ROOT HAIR 1, 2*, and *6*, *ROOT HAIR*

DEFECTIVE 4 (*RHD4*), *BRISTLED 1*, *CAN OF WORMS 1* (*COW1*), and *SHAVE 2* and *3*. No

annotations were significantly enriched in genes down-regulated by ACC only, likely due to the

smaller size of this group.

We were interested in further examining the identities of the transcripts that were regulated

by ACC only, as these might reveal ACC-regulated transcripts that are not ethylene-regulated. The

213 transcripts that we upregulated by just ACC included genes encoding two mitogen-activated

protein (MAP) kinases MAPKKK13 and MEK1, enzymes that remodel the cell wall including

EXPANSIN A17 (EXPA17) and PECTIN METHYLESTERASE 3 (PME3), and RHO OF

PLANTS GUANINE NUCLEOTIDE EXCHANGE FACTOR 12 (ROPGEF12) and ROOT HAIR

DEFECTIVE 6-LIKE 5 (RSL5), which function in root hair development. We also identified

upregulation of transcripts involved in auxin signaling and jasmonic acid metabolism and

signaling, indicative of hormonal crosstalk. The 182 transcripts that were downregulated by only

ACC encoded enzymes that remodel the cell wall including EXPANSIN A4 (EXPA4) and

EXPANSIN-LIKE A2 (EXLA3), and an enzyme involved in the synthesis of ACC, 1-AMINO-

CYCLOPROPANE-1-CARBOXYLATE SYNTHASE 7 (ACS7), which converts S-Adenosyl

methionine to ACC. This latter finding was quite interesting as it suggested that ACC might

negatively regulate its own synthesis in a negative feedback loop when ACC levels are high.

Transcriptional responses are accentuated in constitutive-signaling* etr1-7 *and reduced in

***ethylene-insensitive* etr1-3**

We next asked how the transcriptional responses to ethylene and ACC varied in the *etr1-3*

and *etr1-7* mutants compared to Col-0. Using a cutoff of $|\log_2FC| > 0.5$ and adjusted p-value <

0.01, we compared each time point for each treatment and genotype to the Col-0 control and found

8,323 transcripts that were DE in at least one of these genotype comparisons, and these transcripts

and their $\log_2FC$ values relative to untreated Col-0 are listed in Supplemental File 1. A heatmap

displaying the changes in abundance of these transcripts in all three genotypes and both treatments

is shown in Figure 4. All $\log_2FC$ values represented here were relative to Col-0 at time zero to

accurately reflect the changes in baseline levels in *etr1-7*.

The heatmap in Figure 4 suggested that the $\log_2FC$ filter eliminated transcripts that

responded to ACC but had smaller magnitude changes in response to ACC than ethylene. As the

density plots showed, many transcripts had a $|\log_2FC|$ between 0.25 and 0.5, so we examined

transcriptional responses using a less stringent cutoff. When the cutoff was changed to $|\log_2FC| >$

0.25, we identified 7,104 DE genes in at least one comparison of ethylene and ACC in Col-0,

compared to 4,522 with a cutoff of $|\log_2FC| > 0.5$ (Supplemental Table 3). Regardless of cutoff,

the number of transcripts that only responded to ethylene was greater than those only responding

to ACC, with approximately 20% of genes regulated by both ACC and ethylene, 70% by ethylene

only, and 10% by ACC only. Therefore, we used the more stringent logFC cutoff of 0.5 for the

remaining analyses.

We compared baseline levels of expression in untreated samples between genotypes

(Figure 5A), identifying 2,562 genes that were DE (p-value < 0.01) in at least one of these

comparisons (these transcripts and their $\log_2FC$ values relative to other genotypes are listed in

Supplemental File 1). Consistent with our expectations, *etr1-3* and Col-0 were nearly identical in

the absence of elevated ethylene; only 49 out of 2,562 genes were found to be DE between them.

However, when we compared *etr1-7* with either Col-0 or *etr1-3*, we found a dramatic difference:

1,941 genes were DE between *etr1-7* and Col-0, and 2,078 genes were DE between *etr1-7* and

etr1-3. A large number (1,458) of the genes were DE in both comparisons with *etr1-7,* including

genes enriched in the "response to ethylene" annotation (Fig. 5B).

One very interesting group of transcripts were the 1,941 transcripts that were DE in *etr1-7*

as compared to Col-0, in the absence of hormone treatment. The large number and magnitude

change of these genes is consistent with the *etr1-7* mutation being sufficient to lead to large

changes in abundances transcripts with endogenous levels of ethylene. Under these conditions, the

etr1-7 mutant has increased root hair formation relative to Col-0. Consistent with this group of

genes having an important function in ethylene response, it is enriched in annotations pertaining

to the ethylene signaling pathway. Similar annotations were also found in the group of transcripts

that responded to ethylene and/or ACC treatment in Col-0, including "response to ethylene"

(Supplemental Table 3). These results are consistent with *etr1-7* having constitutive ethylene

signaling and therefore a different transcriptional landscape than the other genotypes in the absence

of exogenous ethylene or ACC. This group of transcripts is consistent with the *etr1-7* mutation

being sufficient to induce transcript abundance changes that overlap with the treatment of Col-0

with ACC or ethylene.

A subset of ACC- and ethylene-regulated transcript responses appear to be dependent on ETR1

signaling

We developed a more rigorous set of criteria to determine which ethylene- and/or ACC-

regulated transcripts were dependent on ETR1 for transcriptional response. For this analysis, we

defined a transcript as ETR1-dependent based on the following criteria, with a significant change

or response designated as a $|\log_2 FC| > 0.5$ and a p-value < 0.01: 1) transcript showed a significant

response to ethylene and/or ACC treatment in at least one time point in Col-0; 2) transcript showed

no significant change in any *etr1-3* samples compared to Col-0 time 0; and 3) transcript showed a

change in *etr1-7* relative to Col-0 in the baseline and showed similar abundance in ACC- and

ethylene-treated *etr1-7* samples. Since *etr1-7* has constitutive ethylene signaling, it should have

had transcriptional responses that differed from Col-0 in the absence of either ACC or ethylene

treatment and were unchanged by ACC or ethylene treatment. Therefore, we compared *etr1-7*

treated samples to *etr1-7* control samples, and only those that did not change with treatment in

etr1-7 qualified as ETR1-dependent.

With this strict criteria, 553 transcripts were identified as ETR1-dependent (listed in

Supplemental File 1 with their $\log_2 FC$ values relative to untreated Col-0). A subset of 292

transcripts met these criteria in ethylene treatment only, another 191 in ACC only, and 70 genes

were classified as ETR1-dependent in both treatments. The heatmap in Figure 6 shows all the

transcripts that were ETR1-dependent using these criteria. The $\log_2 FC$ values in this table are

reported relative to untreated Col-0 samples. It is clear from this heatmap that even though not all

of these were DE in both ACC and ethylene treatments, the difference may simply be tied to a

smaller magnitude of ACC response that was below the $\log_2 FC$ cutoffs, suggesting that these

transcripts are ETR1-dependent regardless of treatment. We also examined the transcripts filtered

to have a $|\log_2 FC| > 0.25$, which yielded many more transcripts in each group, but did not change

the overall ratios of transcripts in those groups.

We generated a network of the 553 ETR1-dependent transcripts using Partitioned Local

Depths (PaLD) analysis (Berenhaut et al., 2022; Khoury et al., 2024a), which grouped transcripts

together based on their similar responses to ACC and ethylene in Col-0, *etr1-3*, and *etr1-7*

(Berenhaut et al., 2022; Khoury et al., 2024a). The $\log_2$FC values of treated samples relative to

Col-0 untreated were fed into PaLD, revealing two large groups of up- and down-regulated

transcripts (Supplemental Figure 5). We further divided these groups based on transcripts with the

strongest ties using the Louvain method for community detection, and these groups were depicted

in different colors on the network (Supplemental Figure 5) with the identities of the transcripts in

each of these groups provided in Supplemental File 1. This network revealed the complexity of

the transcriptional responses of the ETR1-dependent transcripts.

Out of the 553 genes which qualified as ETR1-dependent in one or both treatments, 31

overlapped with a set of core ethylene-responsive genes identified by a comparison of three

transcriptome studies of ethylene- or ACC-treated roots (Harkey et al., 2018). These genes

included *ACC OXIDASE 2* (*ACO2*), *ETHYLENE RESPONSE SENSOR* (*ERS*)*1 & 2*, and

ETHYLENE AND SALT INDUCIBLE 3 (*ESE3*). This finding suggested there were ETR1-

dependent transcriptional responses to ACC and ethylene in this core group. Other ethylene-related

genes that did not overlap with this group but were identified as ETR1-dependent here included

ACO3, several *ERFs*, and *PINOID*, a kinase that is a positive regulator of auxin transport (Sukumar

et al., 2009) and a negative regulator of root hairs (Lee and Cho, 2008). The 553 ETR1-dependent

transcripts were enriched in GO annotations including lipid transport, response to ABA, and

regulation of transcription (Supplemental Table 4).

We tested an additional set of less stringent criteria, where response to treatment was

evaluated by comparing treated samples to the control samples within each genotype, but only

required presence or absence of treatment response regardless of the control sample abundance. In

this case, ETR1 dependence was defined by a response in Col-0 but not in the mutants, and ETR1

independence was defined as a response in all three genotypes. This analysis allowed for a larger

set of transcripts to be included in both groups (Supplemental Figure 6), but ultimately the changes

in abundance of the additional transcripts were not as strong as those seen with the more stringent

criteria, so we focused our analysis on the transcripts that met the more stringent criteria. We

continued to calculate, and report in heatmaps, the *etr1-3* and *etr1-7* $\log_2$FC values relative to Col-

0 untreated but used the comparison of *etr1-7* to its own untreated sample for defining ETR1

dependence in the *etr1-7* samples.

Other transcripts appear to be regulated by ACC and/or ethylene in an ETR1-independent

manner

Next, we defined ETR1-independent responses for each treatment as having a response to

treatment in all genotypes and no altered response in the mutants at baseline (compared to

untreated Col-0). Again, we compared the *etr1-7* treated samples to the *etr1-7* control samples to

determine whether a gene responded to treatment in this genotype relative to baseline transcript

levels, but in this case a response to treatment was required to qualify as ETR1-independent.

The search for ETR1-independent genes resulted in a slightly smaller set of genes: 481

genes qualified as ETR1-independent in ethylene only, 95 in ACC only, and 117 qualified in both

treatments (listed in Supplemental File 1 with their $\log_2$FC values relative to Col-0 untreated).

These ETR1-independent transcripts are shown in the heatmap in Figure 7, where the $\log_2$FC

relative to untreated Col-0 was reported. Unlike the ETR1-dependent genes, these genes showed

different patterns depending on whether they met ETR1-independent criteria in ethylene- or ACC-

treated samples; genes which were ETR1-independent in one treatment had a reduced response to

the other treatment. GO annotations enriched in this group of genes included several stress-

response annotations, as well as "root hair cell differentiation" and "unidimensional cell growth"

(Supplemental Table 4).

The largest set of genes had complex, but more muted responses to ethylene and/or ACC

After identification of genes with ETR1-dependent and -independent responses, an

additional 7,077 genes were left with differential expression in at least one sample (listed in

Supplemental File 1 with their log$_2$FC values relative to untreated Col-0). These genes did not

meet the strict criteria defined for ETR1-dependent or -independent genes above, showing patterns

of response inconsistent with either definition. We divided these "complex" transcripts based on

their general patterns across genotypes relative to Col-0 control. A transcript was counted as DE

in a genotype if it passed p-value and log$_2$FC cutoffs in at least one sample of that genotype as

compared to Col-0 control, including control samples for *etr1-3* and *etr1-7* (Supplemental Figure

7). The largest group consisted of genes that were DE in *etr1-7* only (2,974 genes). However, many

of these were DE only in one or two samples. The same is true for the 508 and 357 genes which

were DE only in Col-0 or *etr1-3*, respectively. The next largest group of 1,068 transcripts had at

least one DE sample in each genotype. These transcripts had some response to treatment in all

genotypes, so they looked like the ETR1- independent genes but failed the strict filtering used for

that group. Similarly, the 1,020 genes that were DE in Col-0 in response to treatment with ACC

and/or ethylene and DE between *etr1-7* and Col in the absence of treatment looked like the ETR1-

dependent group of genes. Perhaps most puzzling were transcripts which were DE in *etr1-3* and

one other genotype, as these did not behave as expected for either ETR1-independent or -

dependent genes. In these groups of genes with complex behavior, a wide variety of GO terms

were enriched, including response to light stimulus, phenylpropanoid biosynthetic process,

response to abscisic acid stimulus, cell wall modification, regulation of transcription, response to

ethylene stimulus, and cell wall macromolecule metabolic process (Supplemental Table 4).

Several ACOs are transcriptionally regulated by ACC and ethylene via the ETR1 receptor

An important action of both ACC and ethylene is to positively regulate the synthesis of

more ethylene. In particular, the ACC oxidase (ACO) enzyme catalyzes the oxidation of ACC to

ethylene as the final step of ethylene biosynthesis. Transcripts encoding ACO enzymes are

positively regulated by ACC levels (Harkey et al., 2018), which then drives ethylene synthesis.

Included in the ETR1-dependent dataset were transcripts encoding several of the five genes

encoding ACOs (*ACO1* through *ACO5*), which synthesize ethylene from both endogenously

produced and exogenously supplied ACC. The abundance of transcripts from these genes varied

in untreated Col-0 roots with TPM values of 8, 313, 6, 39, and 315 for *ACO1-5*, respectively. We

found that both ethylene and ACC treatment of Col-0 significantly increased the transcript

abundance of four *ACO*s (*ACO1*, *ACO2*, *ACO3*, and *ACO5*) in at least one time point after

treatment. The transcript levels of *ACO1*, *ACO2*, and *ACO3* in each genotype and treatment are

shown in Fig. 8. For these genes, there was a greater magnitude increase in transcript abundance

in response to ACC than to ethylene treatment in at least one time point for each transcript. This

difference in response is striking as most of the upregulated DE transcripts in our dataset had larger

magnitude changes in response to ethylene than to ACC treatment. This finding suggests that

exogenous ACC may be a stronger signal to promote transcript accumulation of *ACO*s than

ethylene gas itself.

According to our strict criteria for ETR1 dependence, detailed above, *ACO2* and *ACO3*

were ETR1-dependent in response to ethylene treatment, with uniform reductions in transcript

abundance in *etr1-3* and increases in *etr1-7* compared to Col-0 (Fig. 8D, F). While *ACO2* and

ACO3 passed the criteria for ETR1 dependence in Col-0 and *etr1-3* in response to ethylene

treatment, ACC induced significant increases in transcript abundance at one time point in the *etr1-*

7 mutant relative to the *etr1-7* untreated control and therefore these *ACOs* did not pass the criteria

for ETR1 dependence in the presence of ACC. *ACO1*, *ACO4,* and *ACO5* did not meet our criteria

for ETR1 dependence in the presence of either ACC or ethylene (Figure 8A, B; Supplemental

Figure 8). *ACO5* appeared to be ETR1-dependent based on p-value, but it failed the $\log_2$FC cutoff

for having a smaller magnitude change than required for our stringent requirement. It is clear from

the graphs that reduced or constitutive ethylene signaling in the *etr1-3 and etr1-7* mutants,

respectively, altered the transcriptional response of each *ACO* to ACC and/or ethylene, consistent

with the importance of the ETR1 receptor in regulating *ACO* transcript abundance, even for *ACO*s

that do not meet our stringent ETR1-dependent criteria.

ACC-induced transcript accumulation of ACO1, ACO2, and ACO4 is mediated by EIN3/EIL1

To extend our understanding of the regulation of *ACO*s, we asked if their changes in

transcript abundance in roots were regulated by both ETR1- and EIN3-mediated GRNs. We

quantified the transcript abundance of the *ACO*s in roots of Col-0 and *ein3eil1* using RT-qPCR in

the presence and absence of 0.75 μM ACC. We treated these samples with ACC for 4 hours, as

this was the time point that yielded the largest increases in *ACO* transcript abundance (relative to

untreated Col-0) in our RNA-Seq data. For *ACO1*, *ACO2*, and *ACO4*, we found significant

increases in transcript levels with ACC treatment in Col-0, including 2-fold increases in *ACO1* and

ACO2 and a 1.5-fold increase in *ACO4* (Fig. 8G-I). These ACC-induced increases were lost in the

ein3eil1 mutant, consistent with these transcripts being ACC-regulated through the canonical

ethylene signaling pathway (Fig. 8G-I). Consistent with our RT-qPCR results, the promoters of

ACO2 and ACO4 were found to be directly bound by EIN3 in a DAP-Seq (O'Malley et al., 2016)

and/or ChIP-Seq dataset (Chang et al., 2013) as summarized in Harkey et al. 2019, but the absence

of *ACO1* as an EIN3 target is surprising and is consistent with an EIN3-regulated TF binding to

and controlling *ACO1* transcription, rather than being a direct EIN3 target.

In contrast, we did not detect significant increases in *ACO3* and *ACO5* transcripts in

response to ACC treatment in Col-0 in our RT-qPCR (Supplemental Figure 9). *ACO3* transcript

levels in *ein3eil1* did not differ from those in Col-0 in the presence or absence of ACC, while

ACO5 transcript levels in Col-0 ACC-treated samples were significantly higher than those in

ein3eil1 in the presence and absence of ACC (Supplemental Figure 9). For both *ACOs*, these

findings were consistent with localized changes in abundance in specific tissues that cannot be

consistently detected by RT-qPCR using whole roots. Therefore, to gain further insight into where

these genes are expressed and to reveal localized change in response to ACC, we examined

reporters consisting of green fluorescent protein driven by the *ACO* promoters (Houben et al. 2024)

treated with and without ACC.

ACO transcription increases in distinct root cell types in response to ACC treatment

To determine which of the *ACO*s might control ACC- and ethylene-induced changes in

root development, we queried the *ACO*s in a root cell-type-specific dataset (Brady et al., 2007) to

identify the tissues where these transcripts were most highly enriched. We searched for transcripts

that were localized in the appropriate tissues to mediate ACC- and ethylene-induced root

responses, including stimulation of root hair initiation (Harkey et al., 2018), inhibition of lateral

root emergence (Negi et al., 2008), and inhibition of root elongation at the root tip (Qin et al.,

2019). *ACO5* was identified as a candidate for the control of root hair growth because, like *ETR1*,

its transcripts were highly enriched in cells expressing root hair markers, while the other *ACOs*

had low transcript abundance in this cell type (Fig. 9A).

To provide additional insight into the effect of ACC treatment on tissue-specific

localization and abundance of *ACO* transcripts, we examined a fluorescent reporter driven by each

of the native *ACO* promoters (Houben et al., 2024). To validate the root hair cell specific *ACO5*

accumulation in the microarray described above, we examined fluorescence of a *pACO5*::GFP-

GUS reporter in roots. We observed fluorescence in hair cells and root hairs in the absence of

ACC. Consistent with ACC-induced increases in *ACO5* transcript levels, fluorescence at the tips

of root hairs was brighter in the presence of ACC (Fig. 9B), suggesting that *ACO5* is expressed in

the appropriate position for its protein product to synthesize ethylene to drive root hair elongation.

Laser scanning confocal microscope (LSCM) images of root tips of 10-day-old seedlings revealed

brighter fluorescence in hair cells than non-hair cells, consistent with cell-type-specific expression

patterns (Fig. 9C; Figure 10). In contrast, *pACO5*::GFP-GUS fluorescence was at low levels in the

root tip in both the presence and absence of ACC in five-day-old seedlings, with higher signal in

the elongation zone (EZ) and differentiation zone (DZ) than other *ACO*s (see below) (Fig. 9B).

We found shared and distinct expression patterns in roots of 10-day-old seedlings in the

presence and absence of 0.75 µM ACC after five days of treatment (Figure 10). The *pACO1*::GFP-

GUS reporter had a fluorescent signal in the lateral root cap and the columella of primary and

lateral root tips, where this signal was increased in response to ACC treatment. The *pACO3*::GFP-

GUS reporter exhibited a fluorescent signal in the primary root columella and the inner tissues of

primary and lateral roots, where this signal was increased in response to ACC treatment.

Interestingly, the *pACO4*::GFP-GUS reporter had a fluorescent signal in the columella of

elongated lateral roots that was increased after ACC treatment, but this signal was not detected in

the columella of primary root tips in the presence or absence of ACC. We identified weak ACC-

induced changes for some of the reporters in the root tissues of interest, although there appeared

to be moderate basal levels of expression consistent with the cell type data (Figure 10). The

fluorescence of the *pACO2*::GFP-GUS reporter was low and did not show induction by ACC in

root tissues of interest (Supplemental Figure 10).

Identification of EIN3-regulated transcripts predicted to encode TFs within the ETR1-

dependent GRN

One goal of this study was to gain additional insight into the transcriptional regulators

downstream of ETR1 whose abundance changed in response to ACC and ethylene treatment.

Consistent with a global remodeling of the transcriptome, a GO analysis revealed that the ETR1-

dependent transcripts were significantly enriched in genes that function in the regulation of

transcription (Supplemental Table 4). We identified 60 ETR1-dependent transcripts predicted to

encode TFs using the AGRIS database (Palaniswamy et al., 2006). The expression patterns of

these TF-encoding transcripts were calculated and the log$_2$FC relative to Col-0 untreated is

shown in Figure 11A. Note the larger number of downregulated than upregulated transcripts and

the distinct temporal responses, with some transcripts changing rapidly after ACC and/or

ethylene treatment and other transcripts responding more slowly to these treatments.

To better visualize groups of TFs that have similar expression patterns in response to

treatments and in the *etr1* mutants, we employed a PaLD analysis (Berenhaut et al., 2022;

Khoury et al., 2024a) using the log$_2$FC values relative to Col-0 time 0 for each transcript to

generate a network of the 60 ETR1-dependent TFs (Fig. 11B). This analysis results in a network

with each node representing one of the 60 TF-encoding transcripts and the edges connecting

transcripts with the most similar responses to ACC and ethylene over time in the different

genotypes.

To sort these transcripts into distinct groups with the most similar responses, we used the

Louvain method, which identifies communities in large networks (Blondel et al., 2008). The

network yielded a structure consisting of six groups containing two or more transcripts.

Transcripts belonging to the same group as indicated by their matching colors are those with the

most similar transcript abundance patterns across the time course of ACC and ethylene treatment

in Col-0, *etr1-3*, and *etr1-7*. As EIN3 is a transcription factor that is downstream of ETR1 in the

canonical ethylene signaling pathway (Dolgikh et al., 2019), we used publicly available data on

the genes to which EIN3 binds revealed by DAP-Seq (O'Malley et al., 2016) or ChIP-Seq

(Chang et al., 2013). We highlighted on the PaLD network in large, bold font the direct targets of

EIN3. Consistent with EIN3 functioning to primarily increase transcript abundance (Harkey et

al., 2018), most of the targets were found in the upregulated groups of genes (Fig. 11B). We also

calculated the percent of genes in each Louvain group that are direct EIN3 targets. The pink and

yellow groups making up the upregulated transcripts consisted of 71% and 31% EIN3 targets,

respectively. These numbers are substantially higher than the 4% of the whole genome

containing EIN3 targets as noted by Harkey et al. (2018). In contrast, the green, blue, orange, and

red-orange groups consisting of down-regulated transcripts included 25%, 8%, 0%, and 0%

EIN3 targets, respectively. The upregulated EIN3 targets had diverse expression patterns, with

some being rapidly induced by ACC/ethylene treatment (e.g., *ERF2*) and others being more

slowly induced (e.g., *RSL5*). The downregulated EIN3 targets were also diverse in their patterns,

with AT1G08320 being rapidly downregulated and *MYB9* and *MYB107* being more slowly

downregulated.

To validate whether both upregulated and downregulated ETR1-dependent transcripts that

are EIN3 targets by ChIP-Seq and DAP-Seq showed altered transcript abundance in the *ein3eil1*

mutant, we quantified the transcript abundance of several genes in roots of five-day-old Col-0 and

ein3eil1 seedlings in the presence and absence of ACC after 4 hours. We were interested in *ROOT*

HAIR DEFECTIVE 6-LIKE 5 (*RSL5*), as this TF was previously demonstrated to be involved in

root hair development (Pires et al., 2013). Intriguingly, in our RNA-Seq dataset, *RSL5* transcript

levels were significantly upregulated by ACC at the four- and 24-hour time points but were not

significantly regulated by ethylene (Fig. 11C, D). Consistent with these data, we found a

significant increase in *RSL5* transcripts in the presence of ACC and demonstrated the dependence

of this change on EIN3, as this induction was lost in the *ein3eil1* mutant (Fig. 11E). This result

suggested that although *RSL5* was more strongly regulated by ACC, this regulation depended upon

the canonical ethylene signaling pathway. We also observed a significant increase in *RAP2.6L*

transcript levels and a significant decrease in *MYB9* transcript levels in the presence of ACC, and

both changes were lost in the *ein3eil1* mutant (Fig. 11F, G). We also examined transcript

abundance of an additional gene (*LRP1*) whose promoter was targeted by EIN3, and three genes

(*ANAC058*, *MYB52*, and *MYB93*) that were not identified as direct targets of EIN3 by ChIP-Seq

and DAP-Seq (Chang et al., 2013; O'Malley et al., 2016). However, the levels of these transcripts

were not significantly altered by ACC in our RT-qPCR data, although there were trends consistent

with the patterns observed in the RNA-Seq data (Supplemental Figure 11). This example further

validates the ability of this RNA-Seq dataset to identify additional root-specific genes that are

dependent upon ETR1 and EIN3 for altered transcript accumulation in response to ACC and/or

ethylene treatment.

The proLRP1::GUS reporter exhibited increased amounts of GUS product in lateral root

primordia in the presence of ACC

We were interested in exploring the roles of several of these ETR1-dependent TFs in root

development and how they were modulated by ACC. One gene, *LRP1*, stood out since it had

previously been demonstrated to function in lateral root primordium (LRP) development , as *LRP1*

overexpression lines had increased numbers of stage I, IV, and V LRP, but reduced numbers of

emerged lateral roots (Singh et al., 2020). Since *LRP1* transcripts were induced in whole roots in

response to ethylene and ACC treatment (Fig. 12A, B), we next asked in which root tissues these

transcripts were synthesized. We used the *proLRP1*::GUS transcriptional reporter (Estornell et al.,

2018) treated with ACC for five days and visualized GUS product in roots using a

stereomicroscope. In 10-day-old seedlings, we found the GUS product accumulated in the central

root tissues in both the presence and absence of ACC, beginning at the root elongation zone (Fig.

12C). We observed increased GUS activity in the presence of ACC in lateral root primordia at all

primordia stages and in emerged lateral roots, consistent with *LRP1* transcripts being synthesized

in these tissues and having increased expression in response to ACC treatment.

We also quantified the number of lateral roots and the lateral root density in the region of

new root growth in the *lrp1-1* and *lrp1-2* mutants in the presence and absence of ACC, with

representative images shown in Supplemental Figure 12A. Based on a prior report that examined

LRP1 overexpression lines and identified a 2.5-fold decrease in lateral root density in these lines

compared to Col-0 (Singh et al., 2020), we expected to see a large phenotypic difference in these

mutants. We quantified the number of lateral roots in the region of root formed after transfer to

control or ACC media, as we previously demonstrated a negative effect of ACC on lateral root

formation in this region (Negi et al., 2008). We found that in untreated roots, there was a small

and significant increase in the number of emerged lateral roots in *lrp1-1* with a non-significant

increase in *lrp1-2* (Supplemental Figure 12C). We found that these small differences were lost in

the presence of ACC, which had equivalent inhibition of lateral root formation as Col-0. We also

quantified lateral root density in the region of new root growth (5 days of ACC treatment) and

found no significant difference in lateral root density in *lrp1-1* and *lrp1-2* in the absence of ACC

(Supplemental Figure 12D). The reduction in lateral root density by ACC significantly differed

from Col-0 in *lrp1-2* and not *lrp1-1*, with less inhibition of lateral root formation in *lrp1-2*

compared to Col-0. Consistent with the weak accumulation and the absence of changes with ACC

of the *proLRP1*::GUS reporter in the primary root tip (Fig. 12C), there were subtle changes in

primary root elongation in the mutants (Supplemental Figure 12B). We observed a small but

statistically significant increase in primary root growth in *lrp1-1* in the absence of ACC and no

significant increase in *lrp1-2* compared to Col-0.

Several ETR1-dependent TF mutants show subtle differences in root hair initiation, lateral root

formation, and root elongation

We screened mutants in a small set of ETR1-dependent TFs for root phenotypes in the

presence and absence of ACC. We selected several genes that were also regulated by ACC over a

time course of ACC treatment (Harkey et al., 2018). These included *RAP2.6-L*, *ANA058*, *MYB9*,

and *MYB52*, some of which were also found to be direct targets of EIN3. To illustrate how these

genes responded to ethylene and ACC treatment in Col-0, *etr1-3*, and *etr1-7* in this RNA-Seq

study, we reported the fold change in transcript abundance relative to untreated Col-0

(Supplemental Figure 13). These transcripts were also expressed in various root tissues, including

lateral roots, pericycle cells, xylem pole pericycle cells, hair cells, and non-hair cells to varying

degrees (Supplemental Figure 14A).

We found that in the region of new root growth, *myb52-1* had significantly fewer lateral

roots than Col-0 in the absence of ACC, but it showed wild-type inhibition of lateral root formation

in the presence of ACC (Supplemental Figure 14B). The *anac058-1*, *myb52-1*, and *rap2.6l-1*

mutants all had lower lateral root densities in this region in the presence of ACC compared to Col-

0, suggesting they may function to promote lateral root formation (Supplemental Figure 14C).

These results were consistent with *MYB52* and *ANAC058* being downregulated by ACC, but not

with *RAP2.6L* being upregulated by ACC. The *myb9-1* mutant was also found to have a longer

primary root growth phenotype in the absence of ACC compared to Col-0, and no difference was

observed in the presence of ACC (Supplemental Figure 14D), suggesting MYB9 may inhibit

primary root growth, although this was not consistent with MYB9 being downregulated by ACC.

We also examined the effects of these mutants on root hair number in the absence and presence of

four hours of ACC treatment. Only the *myb52-1* mutant had aberrant root hair formation with

reduced root hairs compared to Col-0 in both the presence and absence of ACC, suggesting it

functions to promote root hair formation (Supplemental Figure 15). These subtle phenotypes were

likely due to functional redundancy, as many of the proteins encoded by these transcripts belonged

to extensive TF families.

We also compared the growth response of the light-grown seedlings described above to

dark-grown seedlings (Supplemental Figure 16). In 10-day-old light-grown seedlings, the *lrp1-1*

and *myb9-1* mutants exhibited more primary root growth, yet the ability of ACC to inhibit

elongation was like that observed in Col-0, with other mutants having Col-0 levels of root

elongation in the absence of treatment (Supplemental Figure 12B; Supplemental Figure 14B).

When these same mutants were etiolated on ACC (or untreated) plates for four days, we found that

lrp1-1 had significantly shorter roots than Col-0 at 0.2 µM ACC, while *myb9-1* behaved like Col-

0 at all doses of ACC we tested. We also found that *rap2.6l-1*, which did not have a primary root

growth phenotype when grown under continuous light, displayed shorter roots than Col-0 at

multiple lower doses of ACC (<0.5 µM) after etiolation. However, *lrp1-1* and *rap2.6l-1* did not

differ from Col-0 at ACC doses of 0.5 µM and higher. The *myb52-1* mutant displayed longer roots

than Col-0 under control conditions at five days of age, although the primary root growth did not

differ from Col-0 at 10 days of age when lateral roots were measured. In contrast, etiolated *myb52-*

1 seedlings displayed longer roots than Col-0 in the absence of ACC treatment but shorter roots

than Col-0 in the presence of 0.2 µM ACC. The *anac058-1* mutant was not significantly different

from Col-0 at any of the doses of ACC we tested. These differences in light- and dark-grown

seedlings suggested that perhaps some of the ETR1-dependent TFs were more important for light-

dependent root responses than light-independent ones (Harkey et al., 2019).

Discussion

The Arabidopsis genome encodes five ethylene receptors that have distinct and overlapping

functions in the regulation of plant growth. The specific roles of individual receptors in controlling

ethylene-regulated development have been examined only in a few tissues (Binder, 2020; Cancel

and Larsen, 2002; Harkey et al., 2018; Ma and Dong, 2021). These receptors negatively regulate

the ethylene signaling pathway and are turned off by the binding of ethylene, inducing downstream

changes in transcription. In roots, ETR1 is the ethylene receptor that is most strongly linked to the

inhibition of both lateral root formation and primary root elongation and the stimulation of root

hair growth (Harkey et al., 2018). To understand the transcripts whose synthesis is regulated by

ETR1 to control root development, we identified genome-wide changes in transcript abundance in

roots in response to treatment with ethylene or its precursor, ACC, using Col-0 and LOF and GOF

etr1 receptor mutants. We examined the GRNs that are turned on by ethylene and ACC and are

dependent on ETR1 signaling, revealing transcripts encoding enzymes of ethylene synthesis and

TFs that drive transcriptional responses downstream of ethylene.

To identify the transcriptional changes in the presence and absence of ethylene and ACC

in Col-0, we began by determining the doses of ethylene and ACC that had similar root

developmental responses. The transcript abundance in the presence of ACC and ethylene treatment

was quantified at each time point relative to untreated Col-0 to identify DE transcripts and the

direction and magnitude change of abundance of these transcripts in response to elevated levels of

ethylene or ACC. Ethylene induced a greater number of DE genes than ACC at all time points

after treatment and yielded larger magnitude changes in transcript abundance for most transcripts.

The most likely explanation for this result was that ethylene gas used in our treatments elevated

ethylene levels more than ACC, while ACC needed to be converted to ethylene to induce

transcriptional responses. The differences in the magnitude of transcript abundance changes

between the treatments were likely due to limitations in cellular uptake of ACC and the additional

step required to convert ACC to ethylene by ACO (Houben and Van de Poel, 2019), resulting in

reduced and delayed ethylene signaling in the ACC-treated seedlings than in seedlings directly

treated with ethylene gas. It is also worth noting that in response to ACC and ethylene treatments,

most transcriptional changes were decreases in abundance, especially at the 4- and 24-hour time

points. This observation is in alignment with our previous finding that ACC treatment led to a

greater number of transcripts with decreased abundance than increased abundance relative to

untreated controls (Harkey et al., 2018).

Several reports have suggested that ACC may act as a signal independently of its

conversion to ethylene, especially at high concentrations where ACO-dependent conversion of

ACC to ethylene becomes rate limiting (Althiab-Almasaud et al., 2021; Houben and Van de Poel,

2019; Li et al., 2020, 2022; Mou et al., 2020; Polko and Kieber, 2019; Tsang et al., 2011;

Tsuchisaka et al., 2009; Van de Poel, 2020; Van de Poel and Van Der Straeten, 2014;

Vanderstraeten et al., 2019; Xu et al., 2008; Yin et al., 2019). At concentrations of 10 μM and

above, ACC inhibits rosette size and growth across all tissues in seedlings (Vanderstraeten et al.,

2019). However, in roots at lower doses of ACC (less than or equal to 1 μM), both the ethylene-

insensitive *ein2-1* and *ein2-5* mutants do not respond to treatment with 1 μM ACC (Harkey et al.,

2018; Ivanchenko et al., 2008; Muday et al., 2012; Negi et al., 2008; Růžička et al., 2007),

suggesting that ACC is either completely converted to ethylene at this dose or that in these tissues

under these growth conditions ACC does not control development independent of its conversion

to ethylene. Our finding that most of the transcripts that were DE in response to ACC were also

DE in response to ethylene is consistent with these possibilities. There were only 395 transcripts,

or 9% of all ethylene- and/or ACC-regulated transcripts, that were DE in response to ACC and not

ethylene. This small group of ACC-regulated transcripts may result from direct ACC signaling

rather than signaling after its conversion to ethylene. We found that several transcripts regulated

by ACC only included those encoding MAP kinases, enzymes that remodel the cell wall, and

proteins involved in root hair development, as well as ACO enzymes who regulation we

characterized. We found that ACC downregulated *ACS7*, which might suggest a negative feedback

of ACC synthesis in response to elevated levels of ACC, while *ACO* transcripts increase to

facilitate conversion to ethylene.

We identified ETR1-regulated genes using two *etr1* mutant alleles: *etr1-3*, which is a GOF

receptor mutant with a constitutively active receptor that turns off ethylene signaling, resulting in

an ethylene-insensitive phenotype, and *etr1-7*, which is a LOF receptor mutant that has an inactive

receptor, resulting in constitutive ethylene signaling. The combination of GOF and LOF receptor

mutants served as a powerful approach to identify ETR1-dependent transcriptional responses. This

is clear from the earliest steps of the analysis; comparison of all samples by a PCA plot, Pearson's

correlation, and Euclidean distance plots led to the separation of *etr1-7* samples from Col-0 and

etr1-3 on the PC1 axis (Figure 2A). This pattern was also observed in the Pearson's correlation

and Euclidean distance plots, which showed that *etr1-7* samples were more like each other than to

either Col-0 or *etr1-3* (Figure 2E and Supplemental Figure 4). When we examined transcripts that

were DE when comparing baseline differences between the genotypes, most transcripts were found

DE in comparisons of *etr1-7* to Col-0 or *etr1-3*. In contrast, in the absence of ACC or ethylene,

Col-0 and *etr1-3* had nearly identical transcriptional profiles (Figure 5). In a heatmap of all

transcripts that changed in Col-0 and the *etr1* mutants in response to ACC and/or ethylene (Figure

4), many of the transcripts that changed in *etr1-7* had transcript abundances that changed in the

same direction upon ACC or ethylene treatment. Together, these data demonstrated the dramatic

effect that constitutive signaling by ETR1 had on the transcriptional profile of Arabidopsis.

We compared the transcriptional profiles of the *etr1* mutants to Col-0 in the presence and

absence of ethylene or ACC to identify transcripts whose changes in abundance were tied to ETR1

functionality. The criteria by which we determined whether a transcript was ETR1 dependent

were: 1) if it had a significant change in response to ethylene and/or ACC treatment in at least one

time point in Col-0; 2) if it showed no significant change in all treatment samples in *etr1-3*

compared to untreated Col-0; and 3) if it showed a significant change in *etr1-7* relative to Col-0 in

the baseline with no further changes across the time points. We organized transcripts by their

responses, classifying them as ETR1-dependent, ETR1-independent, or complex. ETR1

dependency was defined using stringent criteria to identify only those transcripts that clearly

required this receptor for transcriptional response to ACC and/or ethylene. The strict ETR1-

dependent group was enriched in transcripts annotated to function in "ethylene mediated signaling

pathway." We also compared our ETR1 dependent genes to a conserved group of ethylene-

responsive genes from a meta-analysis of three root ACC and ethylene response datasets finding

31 transcripts that were ETR dependent in the overlap of these groups.

An unexpected finding in this study was that there were nearly as many transcripts that

responded in an ETR1-independent fashion as those that were ETR1-dependent. Transcripts were

defined as ETR1-independent if they responded to ACC or ethylene treatment in all three

genotypes. If the abundance of these transcripts increased and decreased in *etr1-7* and *etr1-3*,

respectively, and changed with hormone treatment, this might suggest two receptors control their

activity with hormone-dependent changes being mediated by a second receptor.

In a prior study we found ETR1 to be essential in some root developmental responses and

identified roles for other ethylene receptors in other responses (Harkey et al., 2018). ACC effects

on lateral root development were completely lost in the ethylene-insensitive mutant *etr1-3* and not

induced by addition of ACC in the constitutively signaling mutant *etr1-7*, suggesting inhibition of

lateral root formation by ethylene signaling had strong dependence on ETR1. In contrast, inhibition

of primary root elongation and stimulation of root hair growth by ACC were less dependent on

ETR1 as they showed attenuated responses to ACC in *etr1-7* (Harkey et al., 2018), suggesting a

role of other ethylene receptors in these root processes. Perhaps some of the transcripts which were

ETR1 independent were involved in root elongation or root hair initiation. Indeed, when we

examined genes that were ETR1-independent by the strictest criteria, they were enriched in the

annotation "root hair cell differentiation" and several other related annotations.

We had identified a small subset of transcripts that were regulated only by ACC in Col-0,

suggesting responses that may be driven by ACC signaling independently of its conversion to

ethylene. Therefore, we were interested in further analyzing the transcripts that encode ACC

oxidases, which convert ACC to ethylene, as this might provide insight into understanding how

ACC may regulate its conversion to ethylene. In our dataset, we found that *ACO* transcripts were

themselves regulated by ACC and ethylene in a positive feed forward loop, where application of

ethylene and/or ACC induced transcript accumulation of all *ACO*s in at least one time point after

treatment. We found that *ACO2* and *ACO3* met our strict criteria for ETR1 dependence in response

to ethylene but not ACC. This suggests that ACC may be able to regulate transcripts in ways above

and beyond the function of ETR1, consistent with the possibility of an ACC-independent signaling

pathway. Among these results, we found it most intriguing that *ACO2* and *ACO3* were ETR1-

dependent in response to ethylene but not ACC treatment, which would suggest that ACC may act

through different molecular machinery than ethylene to regulate the levels of these transcripts.

However, for *ACO2*, perhaps the most puzzling of the *ACO*s, ACC-mediated changes in transcript

abundance were completely lost in *ein3eil1*, suggesting that ACC activates the canonical ethylene

signaling pathway to control *ACO2* levels. It is not clear how ACC both activates the canonical

ethylene signaling pathway and induces changes in the *etr1* mutants that were not induced by

ethylene. Perhaps ACC can work through a non-canonical ethylene signaling pathway or directly

bind to a different ethylene receptor, as this might be required when ACC levels become too high,

and the plant needs a mechanism to rapidly convert ACC to ethylene. There is evidence that

glucose can signal to EIN2 and subsequently EIN3/EIL1 through the target of rapamycin pathway

(Fu et al., 2021), so it is possible that ACC could activate this pathway resulting in transcriptional

changes that are not dependent on ETR1 but require the EIN3/EIL1 machinery.

To provide more information on the localization of changes in *ACO* transcript abundance,

we examined the root cell-type-specific localization of *ACO* transcripts in untreated roots using

publicly available transcriptome data and *in planta* using ACO promoter-driven fluorescent protein

reporters to inform our understanding of the tissues that express the machinery to convert ACC to

ethylene under our treatment conditions. We found that each *ACO* had a distinct tissue expression

pattern, and many of these were enhanced in the presence of ACC treatment in 10-day-old

seedlings. These findings were consistent with *ACO*s being expressed in root hairs, lateral roots,

pericycle cells, and the root elongation zone where their protein products convert ACC to ethylene

to signal root responses in these tissues. The most striking observation was that *ACO5* transcripts

were the only *ACO* accumulating to high levels in hair cells and root hairs, including the root hair

tips, and this expression was induced upon ACC treatment in young seedlings, consistent with a

role for ACO5 in driving root hair elongation. On the other hand, the other *pACO*::GFP reporters

were not detected or had low fluorescence in root hairs.

We were interested in mapping the GRN downstream of ETR1 and EIN3 by examining

transcripts predicted to encode TFs using the Agris database (Davuluri et al., 2003). We identified

60 TF-encoding transcripts in the ETR1-dependent list of genes and found some that were rapidly

upregulated and a greater number that were downregulated by ACC and ethylene treatment with a

range of different kinetic responses to these treatments. We also generated a network using PaLD,

which groups transcripts together with the most similar temporal responses. This network allows

us to visualize connections among transcripts with the most similar responses to ACC and ethylene

across time and genotypes and to partition transcripts into groups of like responding genes. We

found that the upregulated genes clustered into two groups, one consisting of transcripts with rapid

and strong induction in response to treatment, and another consisting of transcripts with more

muted up-regulatory patterns, and both groups were enriched in direct targets of EIN3. In contrast,

the downregulated genes clustered into four groups containing two or more transcripts with distinct

expression patterns, and few of the transcripts in these groups were direct targets of EIN3. These

results raise the interesting question of what is the regulatory mechanism by which so many

transcripts are decreased in abundance in response to ACC and ethylene treatment.

We asked whether three of the TF encoding genes that were found to be EIN3 targets in

DAP-Seq or ChIP-Seq datasets (Chang et al. 2013; O'Malley et al. 2016) lost their ACC-regulated

expression in an *ein3eil1* mutant, focusing on *ROOT HAIR DEFECTIVE 6-LIKE 5* (*RSL5*),

RELATED TO AP2 6L (RAP2.L), and *MYB9*. We found that the ACC-mediated increase in *RSL5*

and *RAP2.6L* transcripts and the decrease in *MYB9* transcripts were both lost in *ein3eil1*. It was

previously reported that an *rsl5* mutant exhibited normal root hair development in the absence of

treatment (Pires et al. 2013), which is not surprising due to the low levels of transcript abundance

in untreated roots, suggesting that RSL2 might function in ACC- and ethylene-stimulated root hair

formation (2 TPM). One future direction would be to determine whether there is a root hair

phenotype in this mutant in the presence of ACC to test the role of *RSL*5 in ethylene regulated root

hair formation.

ETR1 is important in ethylene's ability to inhibit lateral root formation in the region of new

root growth formed after exposure to ACC. *LRP1* was identified as ETR-dependent in our dataset;

this gene encodes a TF that has previously been shown to function in inhibiting lateral root

emergence downstream of ARF7/ARF19, LATERAL ROOT PRIMORDIA 1 (LRP1) (Singh et

al., 2020). LRP1 overexpression lines had fewer emerged lateral roots, suggesting that LRP1

functions to inhibit lateral root emergence. By examining a *proLRP1*::GUS reporter, we found that

LRP1 expression was increased by ACC in lateral root primordia at all stages of primordia

development, and in emerged lateral root tips and in the innermost root cells of primary and lateral

roots. However, we examined two *lrp1* mutant alleles in the presence and absence of ACC we

observed that one mutant had reduced inhibition of lateral root formation in response to ACC,

while the other allele did not, which is inconsistent with the wild-type gene functioning to control

lateral root development under our growth conditions.

We examined mutants in several other TFs that were selected based on their transcriptional

responses to ACC in both this dataset and our prior ACC time course dataset (Harkey et al., 2018),

including ANAC058, MYB9, MYB52, and RAP2.6L. We found subtle but statistically significant

root phenotypes in these mutants, with *anac058-1*, *myb52-1*, and *rap2.6l-1* having reduced lateral

root densities in the presence of ACC compared to Col-0, and *myb9-1* having increased primary

root growth compared to Col-0 in the absence of ACC. We also found that *myb52-1* had fewer

root hairs than Col-0 in both the presence and absence of ACC. We also examined these mutants

for triple response phenotypes in the presence and absence of several concentrations of ACC,

finding differences in phenotypes between seedlings grown under continuous light conditions and

those grown in the dark for four days prior to exposure to light. These findings suggested that some

of these TFs could be involved in the light-dependent pathway downstream of ethylene (Harkey

et al., 2019).

This study provides insight into the ETR1-mediated GRN controlling root growth and

development, identifying genes that are regulated by ETR1 and/or EIN3 and the networks of

transcriptional responses that may mediate ethylene dependent root development. We examined

the transcriptional regulation of genes encoding ACC oxidases to understand this final step in

ethylene synthesis, which controls the balance of accumulation of the ACC precursor and the

ethylene product. We find that the *ACO* transcript abundance is regulated more strongly by ACC

than ethylene consistent with feed forward synthesis of ethylene when ACC accumulates, which

hints at an ethylene-independent role in the regulation of this gene family. This study also provides

a valuable dataset to allow researchers to further dissect the role of ETR1 in controlling root

responses to changes in both ethylene and the ethylene precursor, ACC.

Methods

Genotypes and plant growth conditions

All mutants used in this study were in the Col-0 background. Both the *etr1-3* and *etr1-7* alleles have been described previously (Guzmán and Ecker, 1990; Harkey et al., 2018; Hua and Meyerowitz, 1998). The *etr1-7* (AT1G66340) mutant was obtained from Elliot Meyerowitz (Hua and Meyerowitz, 1998). T-DNA insertion mutants were obtained from the Arabidopsis Biological Resource Center for AT3G18400 (SALK_049205C), AT5G12330 (SAIL_402_G06/CS873836 and SALK_201247C), AT5G16770 (SALK_149765C), AT1G17950 (SALK_138624C), and AT5G13330 (SALK_051006C); see Supplemental Table 5 for more information on these lines. The *pACO*::GFP-GUS reporters were prepared by Dr. John Vaughan-Hirsh and shared by Dr. Bram Van de Poel (Houben et el. 2024). The *proLRP1*::GUS reporter was obtained from ABRC (Estornell et al., 2018).

Plants were grown on 1× Murashige and Skoog medium (Caisson Laboratories), pH 5.6, Murashige and Skoog vitamins, and 0.8% agar, buffered with 0.05% MES (Sigma), and supplemented with 1% sucrose. After stratification for 72 h at 4°C, plants were grown under 100-130 µmol m^{-2} s^{-1} continuous cool-white light.

For selecting a dose of ethylene for the RNA-Seq, Col-0 seedlings were treated on day five after germination. For ACC treatment, the seedlings were transferred to a growth medium containing 0 or 0.75 µM ACC for 24 hours before imaging. For ethylene treatment, plates were placed in clear treatment tanks with constant flow-through of the indicated concentration of ethylene for 24 hours before imaging.

Method for selecting time points for RNA-Seq analysis using a previous microarray study

We developed an analysis approach to identify the subset of time points that contained the

most unique (i.e., not found in other time points) DE genes in response to ACC treatment using

our previously published time-course microarray study with ACC treated Col-0 roots (Harkey et

al. 2018). In that prior study, we examined transcriptional responses to 1 µM ACC after 0, 0.5, 1,

2, 4, 8, 12, and 24 hours of treatment, which overlaid the timeline for ACC-induced root hair

initiation. To inform the selection of time points for the present study, we first analyzed the prior

microarray data to find DE genes for each individual time point compared to time zero. We then

performed a pairwise comparison of time points to determine the number of overlapping DE genes

between each time point (Supplemental Figure 1B) and the percent of DE genes in a time point

that overlapped with another time point (Supplemental Figure 1A). These results revealed that

treatment times of 1, 4, and 24 hours contained the most unique sets of transcripts while also

overlapping with the timing of root hair formation to capture early, middle, and late developmental

responses. Therefore, we chose to perform RNA-Seq using samples treated with ACC or ethylene

at three time points: 1 hour, to monitor rapid transcriptional responses that precede developmental

changes; 4 hours, where the most unique transcripts are DE and root hair initiation and primary

root elongation are increasing and decreasing, respectively, in response to treatment; and 24 hours

to identify transcripts linked to ethylene-modulated lateral root regulation.

Microarray data (Harkey et al., 2018) was analyzed using limma (Ritchie et al., 2015).

Probes were first filtered for interquartile range (IQR), with anything less than 0.1 excluded from

further analysis. Time points were then compared to their time-matched controls; p-values were

adjusted using a Benjamini-Hochberg correction. Genes with an absolute log_2FC greater than 0.5

and an adjusted p-value less than 0.05 were considered to be DE at that time point. The overlap

matrix was created by comparing the DE genes across the time points in a pair-wise manner.

Supplemental Figure 1A graphically illustrates the results of this analysis. For each

column, the percentage of DE genes at that time point (column) that are also DE in the time point

to which it was compared (row) is shown. The number of genes in each comparison that was used

to calculate the percentages can be seen in Supplemental Figure 1B. For example, the 2-hour time

point showed considerable overlap with the four-hour time point; 87% of all 2-hour DE genes were

also DE at 4 hours. The reverse comparison of the four-hour genes that were also DE at 2 hours

yielded only 32% of the four-hour genes that were DE at two hours because there were more DE

genes in this 4-hour sample. Therefore, the four-hour time point identified nearly all the same DE

genes as the 2-hour time point, as well as many more unique genes, so we selected the 4-hour time

point over the 2-hour for this RNA-Seq analysis. We also examined the overlaps of the 4- and 8-

hour time points and the 12- and 24-hour time points, finding more unique DE transcripts in the

8- and 24-hour time points for each of these overlaps. However, as root hairs had already begun to

initiate by 4 hours (Harkey et al., 2018), and the ethylene-dependent inhibition of lateral root

initiation had begun by 24 hours, these time points also represented important developmental

milestones. Ultimately, this analysis informed our choice to do the present experiment with time

points 0, 1, 4, and 24 hours.

ACC and ethylene treatment of seedlings for RNA isolation for sequencing

Plants were grown on media as described above on top of a nylon filter (03-100/32; Sefar

Filtration) pressed against the plate, as described previously (Harkey et al., 2018; Levesque et al.,

2006). Approximately 100 sterilized seeds were placed on each filter; 2 plates were combined for

each biological replicate. ACC-treated samples were grown and harvested at Wake Forest

University and ethylene-treated samples were grown and harvested at the University of Tennessee

Knoxville utilizing a gas flow-through system to treat with constant levels of ethylene gas. The

same researchers prepared both sets of samples and identical reagents and light treatments were

used in both laboratories. Time 0 controls were prepared in both locations to account for any

location-specific effects on baseline expression.

Plants were treated on day five after germination. For untreated samples, the nylon filter

containing five-day-old plants was transferred to a new control medium and root tissue was

immediately harvested. For ACC treatment, the plants on nylon were transferred to growth

medium with 1 µM ACC for the given treatment time (1, 4, and 24 h) and then root tissue was

harvested. For ethylene treatment, the nylon was transferred to new control medium, and plants

were placed in clear treatment tanks with constant flow-through of 0.3 ppm ethylene gas for the

given treatment time (1, 4, and 24 h) and then root tissue was harvested. At time of harvesting,

roots were cut from seedlings and flash frozen in liquid nitrogen. Frozen samples were ground in

liquid nitrogen, and RNA isolation was performed according to the Qiagen plant RNeasy kit

protocol, with the addition of the Qiagen RNase-free DNase treatment (Qiagen). After RNA

isolation, samples were quantified by A260 using a Nanodrop spectrophotometer (Nanodrop

Technologies). Each sample yielded at least 3 µg, and on average 15 µg, of RNA. One Col-0

sample which had a 4-hour ethylene treatment had an RNA integrity number (RIN) less than 6 and

was not sequenced. Sequencing was performed by GENEWIZ, LLC using the Illumina HiSeq

platform.

RNA-Seq preprocessing and quality control

FastQC v0.11.8 (Wingett and Andrews, 2018) and MultiQC v1.7 (Ewels et al., 2016) were

used for assessing read quality, which identified adaptor contamination and a bimodal GC Content

distribution. Adaptors were trimmed from reads using CutAdapt v1.18 (Martin, 2011), and reads

trimmed to less than 25 bp were removed. Trimmed reads were then processed with the BBMap

tool BBDuk (Bushnell 2014) to identify and remove rRNA contamination. Running

FastQC/MultiQC over the trimmed and filtered reads revealed the identified quality issues had

been mitigated. Read quantification was performed directly on the processed fastq files with the

Salmon v0.12.0 (Patro et al., 2017) "quant" algorithm in mapping mode using the "--

validateMapping" flag, setting the library type to "IU", and using the TAIR10 reference

transcriptome (NCBI ID: GCF_000001735.3). Counts were imported into R v3.6.0 using the

tximport R package v1.12.3 (Soneson et al., 2016) and summarized to the gene level.

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Differential expression and visualization

For visualization and sample comparisons, raw read counts were normalized using the

Variant Stabilizing Transformation method from the R package DESeq2 v1.24.0 (Love et al.,

2014). Sample-wise comparison heatmaps were generated using Pearson's correlation and

Euclidean distance as the distance metrics, respectively. PCA analyses were performed by

DESeq2's plotPCA method using the top 1000 most variable genes for all genotypes together, and

on a per-genotype basis.

All sample-wise comparisons were performed using the DESeq2 package and ashr v2.2-

47 (Stephens et al., 2020). Density plots were generated using ggplot2 v3.3.0 (Wickham, 2016),

and heatmaps of sample-wise comparisons were generated using ComplexHeatmap v.2.3.4 (Gu et

al., 2016). For DE transcripts used in heatmaps and GO analyses, we considered a transcript to be

DE if it had a p-value < 0.01, $|logFC| > 0.5$, and baseMean > 10.

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Method to identify and remove outlier control sample

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To determine if all the control samples could be pooled for calculation of logFC of samples,

we generated a PCA plot using only the Col-0 samples (Supplemental Figure 3). This revealed that

one control (an ethylene time 0 sample) did not cluster with the 5 other control samples. This single

sample showed separation on the PC1 axis, which represents over 50% of the variance across all

the Col-0 samples. This sample was found to have far lower RNA yield than the other 71 samples

prepared. This analysis suggested that this sample should be removed from the rest of our analyses.

We generated a new PCA plot without it present revealing much great consistency.

To further validate this method, we performed a differential expression analysis to look for

differences in transcripts between locations with all six Col-0 control samples (three from each

location) and with the outlier sample removed. When all six samples were included, 693 genes

were found to be DE (adjusted p-value < 0.01, $|\log_2 FC| > 0.5$) between the ACC and ethylene

controls performed at these two locations (Supplemental Table 1). When the outlier sample

identified by the PCA plot was removed from the analysis, only 34 genes were found to be DE

between the Col-0 samples (Supplemental Table 1). This removal also affected the model

generated by DESeq2, resulting in subtle effects on the *etr1-3* and *etr1-7* comparisons

(Supplemental Table 1). In the model with the outlier Col-0 removed, 121 and 763 genes were DE

between the controls compared at each location in *etr1-3* and *etr1-7*, respectively (Supplemental

Table 1). The untreated *etr1-7* samples had more DE genes between locations than had been

expected, but there were two controls that were quite different than other samples (as evident in

the PCA analysis in Figure 2D), which suggested that this is a character of two samples rather than

a difference in samples because of location (Supplemental Table 1). We ultimately decided to

combine the control samples for each genotype from both locations.

PaLD analysis

A newly developed tool called Partitioned Local Depths (PaLD) was used to generate networks of the 553 ETR1-dependent transcripts and the 60 ETR1-dependent transcription factors, with application of this algorithm to gene expression and time course datasets described previously (Berenhaut et al., 2022; Khoury et al., 2024a). We sorted genes based on their transcript abundance patterns in response to ACC and ethylene over time in Col-0, *etr1-3*, and *etr1-7*. We used the $\log_2$FC values relative to untreated Col-0 as input for the PaLD analysis. We further divided the networks using the Louvain method for community detection (Blondel et al., 2008). Relevant R code can be found at https://github.com/moorekatherine/pald.

RT-qPCR

RNA was extracted from roots using the RNeasy Plant Mini Kit (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer's protocol, with buffer RLT selected as the extraction buffer for roots. RNA with A260/230 values less than 1.5 were re-isolated using isopropanol. DNA was removed using the RapidOut DNA Removal Kit (ThermoScientific) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Complementary DNA was synthesized using the Superscript III First-Strand Synthesis System for RT-PCR (Invitrogen) with RNA template primed with random hexamers according to the manufacturer's instructions. PowerUp SYBR Green Master Mix (Applied Biosystems) was used for quantitative PCR on a QuantStudio 3 Real-Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems). Primer efficiency and transcript abundance values were calculated using the standard curve method and primer sequence is reported in Supplemental Table 1.

Fluorescence and brightfield imaging

For high resolution imaging of all *pACO*::GFP-GUS reporters, a Zeiss LSM 880

microscope was used. Roots were first stained with propidium iodide (PI) diluted in water to a

final concentration of 0.01 mg/mL for 2 min before being washed briefly in DI water and mounted

on slides in DI water with #1.5 coverslips. Confocal images were acquired with a 488 nm excitation

laser for imaging GFP and the 561 nm laser for imaging PI with emission ranges of 490-552 nm

and 56-696 nm, respectively. To minimize light scatter and improve image resolution, the pinholes

for imaging GFP and PI were adjusted to slightly less than 1 Airy Unit. Images were taken with a

Plan-Apo 20x/0.8NA objective and field size of 2048 x 2048 pixels. For Z-stacks, pixel dwell time

was 0.26 µs and line averaging was set to 4. Z-stacks were obtained with 2.9 µm intervals between

optical slices. For single-slice, high-resolution images, pixel dwell time was 1.02 µs and line

averaging was set to 8.

For epifluorescence imaging of the *pACO5*::GFP-GUS reporter, a Zeiss Axio Zoom.V16

equipped with a PlanNeoFluar Z 1.0x (0.25NA) objective was used. An excitation range of 430-

495 nm and emission range of 495-575 nm was employed with a Zeiss 38HE fluorescence filter

cube. Images were captured with an Axiocam 506 monochrome camera with an exposure time of

around 500 ms.

For imaging *proLRP1*::GUS, the Zeiss Axio Zoom.V16 equipped with a PlanNeoFluar Z

2.3x (0.75NA) objective was used. Images were captured with an AxioCam HR R3 color camera

with an exposure time of around 10 ms.

GUS staining procedure

Fresh X-Gluc (GoldBio) was dissolved on ice in N,N-Dimethylformamide immediately

before incubating samples. For GUS staining, ten-day-old seedlings were vacuum infiltrated with

GUS buffer containing X-Gluc (100 mM phosphate buffer pH 7, 0.5 mM $K_4Fe(CN)_6$, 0.5 mM,

$K_3Fe(CN)_6$, 0.5 mM, 10 mM EDTA, 0.1% Triton X-100, and 2 mM X-Gluc) for five minutes, then

incubated in the buffer and X-Gluc mixture for 1.5 hours at 37°C. Following product formation,

seedlings were washed in 70% EtOH for 10 min. then fixed overnight in 3:1 EtOH:acetic acid at

4°C in the dark prior to imaging.

PCR genotyping

The primers used for genotyping are reported in Supplemental Table 5. Young leaf tissue

was homogenized in a microcentrifuge tube using a micropestle that was dipped in liquid nitrogen.

Edwards Solution (Edwards et al., 1991) was added to the homogenized leaf tissue and samples

were incubated at room temperature for at least one hour before being spun down. Supernatant

was carefully transferred to a new tube containing an equal volume of isopropanol. Samples were

washed with EtOH and air dried in a sterile hood for approximately 30 minutes before being

resuspended in molecular biology grade H_2O. Genotype was determined using wild-type primers

that flanked the T-DNA insert (the wild-type reaction) to amplify the gene, and right border

primers with T-DNA primers (the T-DNA reaction) to amplify the T-DNA insert (O'Malley et al.,

2015), with primer sequences listed in Supplemental Table 5. DreamTaq DNA Polymerase

(ThermoFisher) was used according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Root development analysis

For analysis of root hair and lateral root phenotypes, five-day-old seedlings were

transferred to plates containing 0 or 0.75 μM ACC for 4 hours or 5 days before imaging root hairs

and lateral roots, respectively. For the root length analysis of dark grown seedlings, seeds were

germinated in the dark for 4 days on untreated plates or plates containing 0.1, 0.2, 0.5, 1 or 2 μM

ACC, then root lengths were measured. Statistical tests (two-way ANOVA and multiple

comparisons tests) were performed in GraphPad Prism 8.0.2. Outliers were identified using ROUT

(Q = 1%).

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Figure 1. Altered ethylene signaling in the *etr1-3* and *etr1-7* mutants results in aberrant root hair formation. (A) A schematic illustrating the wild-type ethylene signaling pathway and how it is altered in *etr1-3* and *etr1-7* mutants. This image was prepared using Biorender. (B) Representative images of six-day-old Col-0, *etr1-3*, and *etr1-7* seedlings treated with 0.3 ppm ethylene or 0.75 μM ACC for 24 hours, revealing similar developmental responses by these two doses of ethylene and ACC within the different genotypes.

1387

Figure 2. Large-scale transcript abundance patterns in data show *etr1-7* samples are distinctly different from Col-0 and *etr1-3*. (A) PCA plot of all sequenced samples with the genotype indicated by shape of the symbol, the time of treatment indicated by color, and the treatment type ACC or ethylene, indicated by open or filled symbols, respectively. The arrow denotes an untreated Col-0 outlier. PCA plots of (B) Col-0 (with the outlier sample removed), (C) *etr1-3*, and (D) *etr1-7* samples. Circles surround the 80% confidence intervals for each time point. (E) Pearson Correlation plot for all samples.

1395

Figure 3. The transcriptional responses to ethylene and ACC treatment revealed more down-
regulated genes at 4 and 24 hours and more DE genes by ethylene than ACC. (A) Density plot
reporting the number of transcripts across a range of $\log_2$FC values for each treatment and time
point in Col-0 samples. The $\log_2$FC is relative to Col-0 control (time 0). For each treatment and
time point, only transcripts with an adjusted p-value < 0.01 are shown; no $\log_2$FC cutoff was used.
(B) Heatmap showing the $\log_2$FC values of the 4,522 transcripts that were DE relative to untreated
Col-0 in at least one Col-0 sample treated with ethylene or ACC based on $|\log_2$FC$| > 0.5$ and
adjusted p-value < 0.01. (C & D) Transcripts which are DE in at least one time point for both
ethylene and ACC, with a (C) negative or (D) positive $\log_2$FC.

1405

Figure 4. Heatmap of all transcripts that were DE in at least one time point, treatment, or genotype revealed a variety of patterns. This comparison of the transcriptional responses of 8,323 DE transcripts across treatments, time points and genotypes revealed suppressed ethylene signaling in *etr1-3* and enhanced ethylene signaling in *etr1-7*, relative to Col-0 untreated. The heat map includes all 8,323 transcripts that are DE in at least one of the represented groups in comparison with Col-0 control with |log$_2$FC| > 0.5 and adjusted p-value < 0.01. log$_2$FC for all columns is relative to untreated Col-0 samples.

1413

Figure 5. Baseline transcript abundance differences between Col-0 and the *etr1* mutants were consistent with constitutive ethylene signaling in *etr1-7*. (A) All transcripts which are DE in at least one comparison with |log₂FC| > 0.5 and adjusted p-value < 0.01. log₂FC is relative to the second genotype in each comparison. (B) Enriched biological processes among the 1,458 DE genes in the overlap between the *etr1-7* vs. Col-0 comparisons and the *etr1-7* vs. *etr1-3* comparisons as determined by ShinyGO 0.80 (Ge et al., 2020).

Figure 6. ETR1-dependent transcript heatmap revealed genotype and treatment dependent changes in transcript abundance. This comparison of transcript abundance across treatments and genotypes revealed a set of transcripts that responded to ethylene and/or ACC treatment in Col-0 but not in the mutants. Transcripts which follow a pattern of response that suggests they are ETR1-dependent were selected. These transcripts respond to ACC and/or ethylene treatment in Col-0, do not respond in *etr1-3*, and are constitutively up or down in *etr1-7*, based on $|\log_2FC| > 0.5$ and adjusted p-value < 0.01. The $\log_2FC$ reported here was determined relative to untreated Col-0. Genes are split into three groups based on whether they met our ETR1-dependent criteria in ethylene only (292 transcripts), ACC only (191 transcripts), or both treatments (70 transcripts).

Figure 7. ETR1-independent transcript heatmap revealed genotype and treatment independent changes in transcript abundance. This comparison of transcript abundance across treatments and genotypes revealed a set of genes that responded to ethylene and/or ACC treatment in all genotypes. Genes which respond to ethylene or ACC in all three genotypes were considered receptor-independent (since transcript abundance should have been constant in *etr1-3* and *etr1-7*). Significant differences were defined as having $|\log_2 FC| > 0.5$ and adjusted p-value < 0.01. Transcripts are divided based on which treatment qualifies as ETR1-independent. $\log_2 FC$ is reported relative to untreated Col-0. Genes are split into three groups based on whether they met our ETR1-independent criteria in ethylene only (488 transcripts), ACC only (95 transcripts), or both treatments (117 transcripts).

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Figure 8. Transcript abundance of ETR1-dependent and/or EIN3/EIL1-regulated *ACO*s.
(A-F) Normalized transcript abundance was calculated for *ACO1, ACO2*, and *ACO3* by taking
average TPM for each time point and reporting it relative to the average TPM of untreated Col-0.
Asterisks indicate statistical significance (p-value < 0.01) compared to Col-0 time zero. Pound
symbols indicate statistical significance (p-value < 0.01) compared to *etr1-7* time zero and are
displayed only for *etr1-7*. Error bars represent SD. (G-I) Transcript abundance in Col-0 and
ein3eil1 samples treated with and without 0.75 μM ACC for 4 hours was quantified using RT-
qPCR. The average of three biological replicates are reported with error bars representing SD.
Statistical significance was defined as p-value < 0.05 using Tukey's multiple comparisons test.

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Figure 9. *pACO5*::GFP-GUS fluorescence increased in root tissues including root hairs in
response to ACC treatment. (A) Publicly available root cell type data reported as a heatmap
(Brady et al., 2007). Data has been scaled and normalized to the tissue with the highest
expression for each transcript. (B) Roots of five-day-old *pACO5*::GFP-GUS seedlings treated
with and without 0.75 µM ACC for four hours with images captured on a fluorescent
stereomicroscope. DZ, differentiation zone. EZ, elongation zone. Scale bar is 500 µm. (C) Roots
of 10-day-old *pACO5*::GFP-GUS seedlings treated with 0.75 µM ACC for five days and stained
with propidium iodide (PI; magenta) were imaged by laser scanning confocal microscopy. Scale
bar= 150 µm.
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Figure 10. *ACO* transcripts are synthesized in distinct root tissues in response to ACC treatment. 10-day-old *pACO*::GFP-GUS seedlings treated with and without 0.75 μM ACC for five days. Abbreviations for root regions are primary root tip (PRT), lateral root primordium (LRP), and lateral root tip (LRT). Scale bar is 150 μm for PRT and LRT images and 100 μm for LRP images.

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Figure 11. ETR1-dependent transcripts annotated as transcription factors (TFs) exhibit
diverse expression patterns. (A) Heatmap of transcript abundance of the 60 ETR1-dependent
transcripts that are predicted to encode TFs (reported as $\log_2$FC relative to Col-0 time zero). Colors
next to gene names correspond to colors in the PaLD network. (B) PaLD network of the ETR1-
dependent TFs, with EIN3 direct targets highlighted on the network in large, bold font. The node
for *CIB1* was positioned more closely to the main network to conserve space. (C, D) *RSL5*
normalized transcript abundance was calculated by taking average TPM for each time point and
reporting it relative to the average TPM of untreated Col-0. (E-G) Transcript abundance in the
roots of Col-0 and *ein3eil1* seedlings treated with and without 0.75 µM ACC for four hours. Error
bars represent SD. Statistical significance was defined as P < 0.05 according to Tukey's multiple
comparisons test.

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Figure 12. *ProLRP1*::GUS reporter results are consistent with higher *LRP1* expression in

lateral root primordia in response to ACC treatment. (A, B) *LRP1* normalized transcript

abundance was calculated by dividing the TPM of each time point by the average TPM of

untreated Col-0. Error bars are SD. (C) Images of lateral root primordia of 10-day-old GUS-

stained *proLRP1*::GUS seedlings in the presence and absence of 0.75 µM ACC after five days.

Arrows point to stage I-III primordia. Scale bar is 100 µm.

Supplemental Materials

Supplemental File 1. This file includes a list of genes that were DE in response to ethylene and/or ACC in Col-0 at each time point, a summary of ETR1 dependence, a list of the ETR1-dependent, -independent, and complex DE genes, and a list of the DE genes in the genotype comparisons at baseline. All DE genes are listed with their log_2FC values (relative to Col-0 control samples or other genotype in the genotype comparisons) and p-values.

Air   0.008   0.07   0.3   0.7   100

[Ethylene], ppm

Supplemental Figure 1. Root hair formation in response to increasing concentrations of ethylene gas. Images of the root tips of six-day-old seedlings were captured 24 hours after treatment with ethylene gas at the indicated concentrations.

Supplemental Figure 2. Pairwise comparison of the DE genes at each time point in the ACC microarray dataset (Harkey et al., 2018)**.** (A) The percentage of DE genes in one time point (column) which were also DE in the overlap time point (row). The total number of DE genes in each time point is shown in parentheses under the column time point labels. Comparisons highlighted in the text are boxed in black solid or dashed lines. (B) The number of DE genes in one time point (column) which were also DE in the overlap time point (row).

Supplemental Figure 3. Principal component analysis was used in the decision to remove Col-0 outlier. PCA plot of Col-0 samples, with the outlier sample included.

Supplemental Figure 4. Large-scale patterns of data from all samples. Samples were compared in a pair-wise manner using Pearson's correlation (A) or Euclidean distance (B & C), then sorted by genotype and treatment (A and B), which highlights samples that differed from other replicates from the same genotypes and treatment times, or clustered based on greatest similarity between samples (C).

Supplemental Figure 5. PaLD network of the 553 ETR1-dependent transcripts. Nodes represent transcripts, and edges represent connections between transcripts with the most similar temporal response to ACC and ethylene across treatments of Col-0, *etr1-3*, and *etr1-7*. The log$_2$FC values of treated samples relative to Col-0 untreated were used as input for PaLD. Colors indicate transcripts belonging to communities with the strongest ties as identified by the Louvain method. Numbers correspond to genes listed in Supplemental File 1. The group on the left are transcripts whose abundance increases with ACC and ethylene treatment and the group on the right have transcript levels that decrease with these treatments.

Supplemental Figure 6. Transcripts identified by less stringent criteria for ETR1 dependence or independence. For this analysis, ETR1-dependent transcripts were required to respond to treatment in Col-0, and not respond in the mutants; ETR1-independent transcripts were required to respond to treatment in all three genotypes. Both sets of criteria were evaluated based on comparison of treatment samples to the untreated control samples for the same genotype, regardless of the transcript abundance in that control sample.

Supplemental Figure 7. Transcripts with complex responses, which responded to ACC or ethylene, but were not consistently regulated by ETR1. Genes with complex responses to ethylene and/or ACC which did not qualify as ETR1-dependent or -independent. Genes were split into groups based on which genotypes had at least one DE sample, based on $|\log_2 FC| > 0.5$ and adjusted p-value < 0.01. $\log_2 FC$ was reported relative to untreated Col-0.

Supplemental Figure 8. Transcript abundance of *ACO4* and *ACO5* in the *etr1* mutant alleles. Transcript abundance (TPM) is reported relative to Col-0 time zero after ACC and ethylene treatment in our RNA-Seq dataset. Asterisks indicate statistical significance ($p < 0.01$) relative to untreated Col-0. Pound symbols indicate statistical significance ($p < 0.01$) compared to *etr1-7* time zero and are displayed only for the *etr1-7* data. Error bars represent SD.

Supplemental Figure 9. *ACO3* and *ACO5* **transcript abundance is not significantly different in an *ein3/eil1* mutantEIN3/EIL1.** Transcript abundance in Col-0 and *ein3eil1* samples treated with and without 0.75 µM ACC for four hours. Error bars are SD. Statistical significance was defined as $p < 0.05$ according to Tukey's multiple comparisons test.

Supplemental Figure 10. *ACO***2 was not regulated by ACC in tissues that control lateral root or primary root development.** 10-day-old *pACO2*::GFP-GUS seedlings treated with and without 0.75 µM ACC for five days. PRT, primary root tip. LRP, lateral root primordium. LRT, lateral root tip. Scale bar is 150 µm for PRT and LRT images and 100 µm for LRP images.

Supplemental Figure 11. Several ETR1-dependent transcripts encoding TFs did not have significant changes in the *ein3eil1* mutant. Transcript abundance in Col-0 and *ein3eil1* samples treated with and without 0.75 µM ACC for four hours. Error bars are SD. Statistical significance was defined as p-value < 0.05 according to Tukey's multiple comparisons test.

Supplemental Figure 12. The *lrp1-1* and *lrp1-2* mutants had weak and not consistent root phenotypes. (A) Representative images of 10-day-old Col-0, *lrp1-1*, and *lrp1-2* seedlings treated with and without 0.75 µM ACC for five days. Quantification of (B) primary root growth, (C) the number of lateral roots in the region of new root growth, and (C) and the lateral root density in the region of new primary root growth in Col-0, *lrp1-1*, and *lrp1-2* in the presence and absence of 0.75 µM ACC after five days. Error bars are SD. Statistical significance is defined as p-value < 0.05 according to Tukey's multiple comparisons test.

Supplemental Figure 13. Transcript abundance of the four downregulated ETR1-dependent transcripts encoding TFs. Transcript abundance (TPM) is reported relative to Col-0 time zero after ACC and ethylene treatment in our RNA Seq dataset. Asterisks indicate statistical significance (p-value < 0.01) relative to untreated Col-0. Pound symbols indicate statistical significance (p-value < 0.01) compared to *etr1-7* time zero and are displayed only for the *etr1-7* data. Error bars are SD.

Supplemental Figure 14. Mutants in several ETR1-dependent TFs have alterations in lateral root formation or primary root growth. (A) Root cell type data reported as a heatmap (Brady et al. 2007). Data has been scaled and normalized to the tissue with the highest expression for each transcript. Violin plots of lateral root number in the region of new root growth (B), lateral root density in the region of new root growth (C), and primary root growth (D) for 10-day-old seedlings treated with and without 0.75 μM ACC for five days. Asterisks indicate significant differences from Col-0 under the same treatment conditions (p-value < 0.05). ACC effects within genotypes were significant for all genotypes in B and D (not shown on graphs). Pound symbols indicate significant differences within genotypes (p-value <0.05) for B. At least three biological replicates were performed. The median is illustrated in a thicker yellow line. The quartiles are illustrated in thinner gray lines.

Supplemental Figure 15. A mutant in the ETR1-dependent *MYB52* has altered root hair initiation. (A) Representative images of five-day-old Col-0 and mutant seedlings treated with and without 0.75 µM ACC for four hours. Scale bar is 1,500 µm. (B,C) Violin plots of the number of root hairs in the region 0-1500 µm from the root tip in the absence and presence of 0.75 µM ACC. Asterisks indicate significant differences from Col-0 under the same condition, either untreated or with ACC (p-value < 0.05). ACC effects within genotypes were significant for all genotypes (p-value < 0.05). Three biological replicates were performed. The median is shown in a thicker yellow line. The quartiles are shown in thinner gray lines.

Supplemental Figure 16. Triple response assay results for the candidate ETR1-dependent genes that function in root hair or lateral root formation. Seedlings were incubated in the dark on control or ACC plates for four days before hypocotyl and root lengths were measured. Statistical significance was determined using a one-way ANOVA followed by a multiple comparisons test. * p-value < 0.05; ** p-value < 0.01; *** p-value < 0.001; **** p-value < 0.0001.

Supplemental Table 1. The number of differentially expressed genes between Wake Forest University- and University of Tennessee-prepared untreated samples for each genotype (with and without the untreated Col-0 outlier sample).

Genotype	With outlier	Outlier removed
Col-0	693	34
etr1-3	137	121
etr1-7	997	763

Supplemental Table 2. Number of DE genes in response to ethylene and ACC based on two $\log_2$FC cutoffs. Note that the small number of genes that were regulated in opposite directions in the two treatments were not shown here for simplicity.

Group of genes	0.25 cutoff	0.5 cutoff
Down in both	860	504
Down in ethylene	2,461	1,493
Down in ACC	317	182
Up in both	620	457
Up in ethylene	2,563	1,657
Up in ACC	255	213

Supplemental Table 3. Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment results for genes transcriptionally regulated by ethylene and/or ACC in Col-0. Transcripts were separated based on if they responded to one or both treatments and if they were down- or up-regulated by the treatment(s). The number of genes with each GO annotation, the p-value and false discovery rate (FDR) for each annotation are reported.

GO Term	# of genes	p-value	FDR
Up in both treatments			
regulation of transcription, DNA-dependent	36	7.80E-09	5.00E-07
response to chitin	14	1.20E-08	5.70E-07
regulation of gene expression	50	1.10E-06	2.60E-05
negative regulation of two-component signal transduction system (phosphorelay)	5	1.70E-06	3.60E-05
negative regulation of ethylene mediated signaling pathway	5	1.70E-06	3.60E-05
response to auxin stimulus	16	1.30E-05	0.00025
lipid localization	5	2.10E-05	0.00039
response to oxidative stress	14	7.40E-05	0.0013
response to osmotic stress	14	0.00056	0.0095
defense response to bacterium	8	0.0017	0.027
defense response, incompatible interaction	7	0.0021	0.034
response to external stimulus	13	0.0025	0.04
nitrogen compound metabolic process	65	0.0027	0.042
Down in both treatments			
lipid transport	14	9.5E-08	0.000016
hyperosmotic salinity response	7	0.000014	0.0011
response to cold	16	0.000014	0.0011
response to water deprivation	13	0.00002	0.0013
response to abscisic acid stimulus	17	0.00002	0.0013
response to nematode	7	0.000066	0.0029
phenylpropanoid biosynthetic process	9	0.00016	0.0064

response to oxidative stress	14	0.0002	0.0076
unidimensional cell growth	10	0.00027	0.0094
glycolysis	5	0.0013	0.028
terpenoid metabolic process	7	0.0018	0.036

Up in ethylene only

chlorophyll biosynthetic process	19	1.3E-11	1.7E-09
cofactor biosynthetic process	33	2.7E-10	2.8E-08
chloroplast organization	20	1.1E-09	1.1E-07
response to high light intensity	16	3.8E-08	3.4E-06
lipid localization	11	9.7E-08	8.1E-06
photosynthesis, light harvesting	11	1.8E-07	0.000014
protein folding	34	2.5E-07	0.000018
response to red light	17	2.9E-07	0.00002
carbon fixation	9	3.9E-07	0.000027
photosynthetic electron transport in photosystem I	10	5.5E-07	0.000034
response to cold	37	5.9E-07	0.000036
response to blue light	15	1.7E-06	0.000089
embryonic development ending in seed dormancy	45	1.9E-06	0.000097
regulation of photosynthesis, light reaction	8	2.4E-06	0.00012
photosystem II assembly	7	2.8E-06	0.00014
response to far red light	13	5.2E-06	0.00024
protein import into chloroplast thylakoid membrane	6	0.000011	0.00049
response to other organism	49	0.000043	0.0017
response to hydrogen peroxide	11	0.000058	0.0023
defense response	58	0.000068	0.0026
thylakoid membrane organization	7	0.00018	0.0062
carotenoid biosynthetic process	8	0.00024	0.0075
positive regulation of development, heterochronic	5	0.00025	0.008
heat acclimation	6	0.00045	0.013

vitamin K biosynthetic process	5	0.00049	0.014
positive regulation of nitrogen compound metabolic process	11	0.0005	0.014
isopentenyl diphosphate biosynthetic process, mevalonate-independent pathway	5	0.00066	0.018
positive regulation of gene expression	10	0.00082	0.022
positive regulation of transcription	10	0.00082	0.022
positive regulation of cellular biosynthetic process	11	0.00091	0.023
xanthophyll metabolic process	5	0.0014	0.034
RNA metabolic process	98	0.0017	0.039
Down in ethylene only			
protein amino acid phosphorylation	76	1.5E-08	4.7E-06
oligopeptide transport	17	1.5E-08	4.7E-06
secondary cell wall biogenesis	9	5.2E-07	0.000089
glycoside metabolic process	18	7.2E-07	0.0001
plant-type cell wall organization	15	2.2E-06	0.00026
root hair cell differentiation	10	0.000033	0.0021
cell wall polysaccharide metabolic process	6	0.000068	0.004
transmembrane receptor protein tyrosine kinase signaling pathway	16	0.00027	0.012
glucosinolate metabolic process	10	0.00034	0.014
cell tip growth	11	0.00055	0.02
phenylpropanoid biosynthetic process	15	0.00081	0.028
lignin metabolic process	8	0.00097	0.031
multidrug transport	10	0.0011	0.034
isoprenoid biosynthetic process	14	0.0015	0.046
Up in ACC only			
regulation of biological quality	12	0.00034	0.022
defense response to bacterium	6	0.0005	0.026

protein amino acid phosphorylation	14	0.00078	0.036
transmembrane receptor protein tyrosine kinase signaling pathway	5	0.0012	0.038
response to inorganic substance	7	0.00098	0.038
response to hormone stimulus	14	0.0011	0.038
response to chitin	5	0.0016	0.046

Down in ACC only

None significant

Up in either treatment

response to light intensity	22	3.20E-07	2.00E-05
cellular nitrogen compound biosynthetic process	50	4.00E-06	0.00019
fat-soluble vitamin biosynthetic process	9	2.20E-05	0.00091
toxin catabolic process	13	7.80E-05	0.0027
cellular response to chemical stimulus	48	0.00033	0.011
reductive pentose-phosphate cycle	5	0.00034	0.011
positive regulation of cellular metabolic process	16	0.00037	0.012
cellular response to stimulus	76	0.00075	0.022
quinone cofactor biosynthetic process	8	0.00097	0.027
response to iron ion	5	0.0011	0.03
cellular cation homeostasis	14	0.0013	0.034

Down in either treatment

response to salt stress	41	0.000091	0.0045
lignin biosynthetic process	7	0.00015	0.0065
cell maturation	11	0.00016	0.0069
plant-type cell wall loosening	10	0.00028	0.011
sucrose biosynthetic process	6	0.00084	0.028
zinc ion transport	6	0.00084	0.028
fatty acid metabolic process	26	0.0011	0.035

glucosinolate biosynthetic process	9	0.0012	0.039
pentacyclic triterpenoid biosynthetic process	5	0.0016	0.049
alcohol metabolic process	29	0.0016	0.049
abscisic acid mediated signaling pathway	8	0.18	1
oligopeptide transporter activity	5	0.011	0.14

Supplemental Table 4. GO annotations enriched in genes which respond to ethylene or ACC via ETR1-dependent and -independent pathways. The number of genes with each GO annotation, the p-value and false discovery rate (FDR) for each annotation are reported.

GO Term	# of genes	p-value	FDR
ETR1 dependent (all)			
oligopeptide transport	7	0.000092	0.0097
lipid transport	10	0.00019	0.011
post-embryonic development	24	0.00013	0.011
response to water deprivation	12	0.00018	0.011
regulation of transcription, DNA-dependent	30	0.00014	0.011
response to abscisic acid stimulus	15	0.00053	0.021
ethylene mediated signaling pathway	6	0.00095	0.03
fatty acid metabolic process	10	0.002	0.048
ETR1 independent (all)			
response to heat	21	1.60E-11	8.30E-09
response to chitin	17	1.00E-08	3.20E-06
response to hydrogen peroxide	8	1.20E-05	0.0013
response to high light intensity	8	2.00E-05	0.0018
root hair cell differentiation	7	3.70E-05	0.0027
unidimensional cell growth	12	0.00025	0.013
protein folding	14	0.00076	0.036
inorganic anion transport	5	0.00087	0.04
nucleotide-sugar metabolic process	5	0.00097	0.043
cellular response to nutrient levels	7	0.0011	0.045
lipid metabolic process	29	0.0011	0.045
plant-type cell wall loosening	5	0.0012	0.048

ETR1 complex (all)

response to light stimulus	180	1.4E-08	0.000004
response to chitin	64	1.1E-07	0.000026
phenylpropanoid biosynthetic process	60	2.4E-07	0.000051
toxin catabolic process	33	2.5E-07	0.000051
protein amino acid phosphorylation	244	2.6E-06	0.00044
oligopeptide transport	35	3.1E-06	0.00048
response to wounding	71	2.9E-06	0.00048
glucosinolate biosynthetic process	25	8.9E-06	0.0011
plant-type cell wall organization	37	8.7E-06	0.0011
monocarboxylic acid metabolic process	120	0.000009	0.0011
response to nematode	34	0.000011	0.0013
response to salt stress	107	0.000033	0.0037
post-embryonic morphogenesis	21	0.000054	0.0055
photosynthetic electron transport chain	24	0.000088	0.0086
multidrug transport	32	0.000091	0.0088
response to abscisic acid stimulus	107	0.000094	0.009
response to metal ion	74	0.00011	0.0097
intracellular signaling cascade	169	0.00011	0.0097
cell wall modification	45	0.00013	0.012
response to cold	94	0.00017	0.015
disaccharide biosynthetic process	21	0.00017	0.015
protein complex assembly	47	0.00021	0.017
heterocycle metabolic process	123	0.00022	0.018
defense response to fungus	40	0.00025	0.019
terpenoid biosynthetic process	36	0.00029	0.022
cellular carbohydrate catabolic process	44	0.00031	0.023
regulation of transcription	400	0.00039	0.028

response to ethylene stimulus	61	0.00055	0.034
cellular glucan metabolic process	33	0.00059	0.036
cation transport	97	0.00062	0.037
two-component signal transduction system (phosphorelay)	34	0.00071	0.042
cell wall macromolecule metabolic process	21	0.00074	0.044
chemical homeostasis	45	0.00078	0.045
response to water deprivation	67	0.00085	0.049
transition metal ion transmembrane transporter activity	16	0.022	0.43

Supplemental Table 5. Genotyping primers used in this study. Sequences are written 5' to 3'. L, left border primer. R, right border primer.

Genome Locus	Allele Name	T-DNA Insertion Line	Location of Insertion	Primer Sequences
AT3G18400	*anac058-1*	SALK_049205C	3' UTR	L:GTTCTGGCAGCAATTGTGATC R:CAACTCTTTGTTGCTCAAGGC
AT5G12330	*lrp1-1*	SAIL_402_G06/ CS873836	Promoter	L:TGTATGGCCAGTAAGCAATCC R:ACGTCGGTAGATTATGCCTCC
AT5G12330	*lrp1-2*	SALK_201247C	Exon	L:TGATAAGTGCATGAGAAAATGG R:ACACACCACCTCAAAGTTTCG
AT5G16770	*myb9-1*	SALK_149765C	Promoter	L:TGGAATCGCAGTTTTTCTAGC R:CGTGCATAAATATTTGCATGTG
AT1G17950	*myb52-1*	SALK_138624C	Exon	L:AAAAGGATGTTCATTTGGTGG R:TGCAAGTAAATGAGTAATGGTGC
AT5G13330	*rap2.6l-1*	SALK_051006C	5' UTR	L:AAAAGGTGGTACATACAGGCG R:TCGGTGGTTCAATTCAAAAAC

Supplemental Table 6. RT-qPCR primers used in this study. Sequences are written 5' to 3'. F, forward primer. R, reverse primer.

Genome Locus	Gene Symbol	Primer Sequences
AT2G19590	*ACO1*	F: TGGTCCAAAAGGTCCAGCTTT R: ATTCCCCCAGCATCCGTATG
AT1G62380	*ACO2*	F: TCTACGTTCGTCACCTCCCT R: AGTCTTTCATGGCCGTCCTG
AT1G12010	*ACO3*	F: ACAACGGGTCCAACTTTTGC R: TGTGAGCCCTAAGCCCTTTG
AT1G05010	*ACO4*	F: CTACCTCAAGCACCTTCCCG R: GCACAGCAGATCCAGTAGCT
AT1G77330	*ACO5*	F: AGTCAATGGCCTTCGAGCTC R: GATCCACTCGCCGTCTTTCA
AT3G18400	*ANAC058*	F: ACAACCTTTCAACCCCACGA R: TTTGCTGCCGTGCTCTTTTC
AT5G12330	*LRP1*	F: CTGTGGCTACAACGAGGAGG R: ACGGAAGCTGAGCCTAAACC
AT5G16770	*MYB9*	F: ACAAGTGGTCGTCGATAGCC R: GGCTATAAGCTGCGGGAGAG
AT1G17950	*MYB52*	F: CCGGTCGAACTGATAACGCT R: TAGCGGTTGTGGTTGCCAAT
AT1G34670	*MYB93*	F: ATCAACCCACCCAACCACTC R: GTCACCTTGCGATGGTAGCT
AT5G13330	*RAP2.6L*	F: CAAAGAAAGCAGCCCGTGTC R: GTTGTGGTGGTAGTAGGGCC
AT5G43175	*RSL5*	F: GCAATTTGGTTACCGAGCCT R: ATCCCTCTGTTGGCTTTCGC