



Long-range mobile signals mediate seasonal control of shoot growth

Pál Miskolczi^a, Rajesh Kumar Singh^a, Szymon Tylewicz^{a,b}, Abdul Azeez^{a,c}, Jay P. Maurya^a, Danuše Tarkowská^d, Ondřej Novák^d, Kristoffer Jonsson^a, and Rishikesh P. Bhalerao^{a,e,1}

^aDepartment of Forest Genetics and Plant Physiology, Umeå Plant Science Centre, Swedish University of Agricultural Sciences, SE-901 87 Umeå, Sweden; ^bDepartment of Plant and Microbial Biology, University of Zürich, 8008 Zürich, Switzerland; ^cSchool of Forest Resources and Environmental Science, Michigan Technological University, Houghton, MI 49931; ^dLaboratory of Growth Regulators, Institute of Experimental Botany, The Czech Academy of Sciences, Faculty of Science, Palacký University, CZ-78371 Olomouc, Czech Republic; and ^eBeijing Advanced Innovation Center for Tree Breeding by Molecular Design, Beijing Forestry University, Beijing 100083, China

Edited by Ronald R. Sederoff, North Carolina State University, Raleigh, NC, and approved April 19, 2019 (received for review February 6, 2019)

In perennial plants, seasonal shifts provide cues that control adaptive growth patterns of the shoot apex. However, where these seasonal cues are sensed and communicated to the shoot apex remains unknown. We demonstrate that systemic signals from leaves play key roles in seasonal control of shoot growth in model tree hybrid aspen. Grafting experiments reveal that the tree ortholog of *Arabidopsis* flowering time regulator *FLOWERING LOCUS T* (*FT*) and the plant hormone gibberellic acid (GA) systemically convey seasonal cues to the shoot apex. GA (unlike *FT*) also acts locally in shoot apex, downstream of *FT* in seasonal growth control. At the shoot apex, antagonistic factors—*LAP1*, a target of *FT* and the *FT* antagonist *TERMINAL FLOWER 1* (*TFL1*)—act locally to promote and suppress seasonal growth, respectively. These data reveal seasonal changes perceived in leaves that are communicated to the shoot apex by systemic signals that, in concert with locally acting components, control adaptive growth patterns.

systemic signal | photoperiodic | *FLOWERING LOCUS T* | gibberellic acid | hybrid aspen

In perennials growing in boreal or temperate regions, low temperatures during the winter can severely damage vegetative and floral meristems. Therefore, in plants such as trees (some of which may survive thousands of winters) the shoot apical meristem (SAM) and leaf primordia are protected by cessation of growth before the onset of winter (1–4). Before the onset of winter, SAM activity is terminated, and the shoot apex undergoes a morphogenetic transition to a bud structure that encloses the SAM and arrested leaf primordia (1, 2). Several physiological studies have shown that photoperiodic shifts provide seasonal cues that play a key role in regulating the timing of these developmental transitions associated with annual growth cycle. While photoperiods longer than a critical day length (long days, LDs) are growth-permissive, the shift to photoperiods shorter than the critical day length (short days, SDs) heralding the onset of winter is growth-restrictive and induces growth cessation and bud set (3, 4). Although the role of photoperiodic signals in mediating seasonal control of growth is well established (5), it is not known where these seasonal cues are sensed and how the seasonal shifts are communicated to shoot apices to evoke the morphogenetic transitions associated with the annual growth cycle.

Molecular studies of annual growth cycles in the model tree *Populus* have identified a tree ortholog of the *Arabidopsis* flowering time regulator *FLOWERING LOCUS T* (*FT*) as the primary target of photoperiodic signals in the mediating of the control of seasonal growth (6). In *Populus*, two *FT* orthologs, *FT1* and *FT2*, have distinct expression patterns, with *FT2* being primarily expressed in the leaves. However, *FT1* and *FT2* are highly similar and functionally interchangeable as overexpression of either of them suppresses the growth cessation response to SDs. Moreover, overexpression of either of them initiates early flowering (6, 7). In LDs, *FT2* and the bZIP transcription factor *FDL1* interactively promote expression of *LAP1* (*LIKE-AP1*)

(8). *LAP1* then promotes expression of *AIL1*, a tree ortholog of *AINTEGUMENTA*, which is a positive regulator of key cell-cycling genes such as genes encoding D-type cyclins (9). Shifts from LDs to SDs induce rapid down-regulation of *FT2* expression, resulting in suppression of *LAP1* and *AIL1*, leading to growth cessation.

The plant hormone gibberellin (GA) is also a target of the photoperiodic pathway in regulation of growth cessation. Rapid reductions in GA levels in apices of several plant genera, such as *Salix* and *Populus*, have been observed following exposure to SDs (10, 11). Moreover, plants overexpressing GA20 oxidase, a key GA biosynthetic enzyme, do not cease growth in response to SDs, and SD-insensitive *PHYA* overexpressors do not reduce their GA levels or cease growth in response to SDs (12, 13). Thus, in addition to *FT*, GA could also play a role in growth cessation and photoperiodic control of seasonal growth.

Intriguingly, *FT2*, the key target of seasonal cues in control of seasonal growth, is expressed exclusively in leaves and not in the shoot apex where the key developmental transitions associated with seasonal changes occur (14). Thus, the control of seasonal growth in shoot apices apparently involves an unknown systemic signaling mechanism mediated by changes in expression of *FT* in leaves. In contrast, GA metabolism-related genes are expressed in leaves as well as in shoot apices (11), but it is not known whether the GA pathway acts in the leaves or in shoot apices. Thus, identifying systemic and local signals involved in morphogenetic transitions of the shoot apex, seasonal growth, and integration of the downstream signaling pathways is essential for

Significance

In perennial plants such as long-lived trees growing in boreal and temperate forest, transition from summer to winter is associated with induction of growth cessation and bud set at the shoot apex. Where in the plant these seasonal shifts are perceived and how these are communicated to the shoot apex remain unresolved. We identify leaves as a site for perception of seasonal shifts and reveal that components of floral transition such as *FLOWERING LOCUS T* (*FT*) and plant hormone GA have been recruited to function as long-range signals to communicate seasonal changes perceived in leaves to the shoot apical meristem to control its activity to synchronize bud set with the change of seasons in perennials.

Author contributions: R.P.B. designed research; P.M., R.K.S., S.T., A.A., J.P.M., D.T., O.N., and K.J. performed research; P.M., R.K.S., S.T., A.A., O.N., and R.P.B. analyzed data; and P.M. and R.P.B. wrote the paper.

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

This article is a PNAS Direct Submission.

This open access article is distributed under Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivatives License 4.0 (CC BY-NC-ND).

¹To whom correspondence should be addressed. Email: rishi.bhalerao@slu.se.

This article contains supporting information online at www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1902199116/-DCSupplemental.

Published online May 13, 2019.

that expression of *FT*, but not of *LAPI*, in the leaves can systemically mediate photoperiodic control of shoot growth.

FT Protein, but Not FT Transcripts, Is Graft-Transmissible. The apparent systemic effect of root stock-derived *FT* on the growth responses of shoot apices to photoperiodic shifts prompted us to investigate the mobility and graft-transmissibility of *FT* protein and *FT* transcripts. To be able to distinguish the graft transmissibility of *FT* protein derived from root stock, we generated transgenic hybrid aspen plants expressing *FT* protein fused with green fluorescent protein (GFP) and HA tags (*FT-GFP-HA*) (SI Appendix, Fig. S2). Whereas the GFP tag allows the microscopic localization of the fusion protein, the HA tag provides for a highly sensitive immunodetection of the resulting *FT* fusion protein. Subsequently, we grafted WT scions on rootstocks of these transgenic hybrid aspen plants expressing *FT* protein fused with the GFP-HA tag (*FT-GFP-HAoe*). The following analyses of the extracted protein and RNA samples showed that we could detect *FT-GFP-HA* protein (Fig. 3A), but not *FT-GFP* transcripts (SI Appendix, Fig. S3A), in the scions. In contrast, we detected no GFP protein in WT scions grafted onto unfused GFP-expressing root stocks (SI Appendix, Fig. S3B). Thus, movement of *FT-GFP* across the grafts is not a result of *FT* fusion with GFP. Taken together, these results demonstrate that *FT* protein, but not *FT* transcripts, is graft-transmissible.

Blockage of FT Mobility Prevents Its Mediation of Growth Responses in Shoot Apices. To investigate the requirement of graft transmissibility of *FT* protein for photoperiodic control of growth, we generated transgenic hybrid aspen plants expressing a *FT* fusion protein (*NUC-FT-GFP-HA*) that carries a nuclear localization signal (in addition to the GFP tag used for visualization). As a result, the *NUC-FT-GFP-HA* fusion protein was targeted to the nucleus, thereby trapping it within the cells and preventing its graft transmissibility. Then we confirmed whether this mobility-restricted *FT* (*NUC-FT-GFP-HA*) could function like WT *FT*, if expressed ectopically. Indeed, transgenic hybrid aspen plants, ectopically expressing *NUC-FT-GFP*, did not cease growth in SDs, as previously described for WT *FT1* and *FT2* overexpressors (6, 7) (SI Appendix, Fig. S4A and B). Next, we confirmed that *NUC-FT-GFP* was targeted to the nucleus (SI Appendix, Fig. S5A) and not graft-transmissible (SI Appendix, Fig. S5B). We then grafted WT scions on WT or *NUC-FT-GFP*-expressing root stocks and (as controls) *NUC-FT-GFP* scions on *NUC-FT-GFP* root stocks and monitored growth responses of the shoot apices of the scions to SDs. In contrast to the effects of WT *FT* root stocks described before (Fig. 2A and B), SD-induced growth cessation was not delayed in apices of the WT scions grafted onto root stocks expressing the nuclear-targeted, non-graft-transmissible *NUC-FT-GFP* (Fig. 3B). Moreover, growth cessation timing and numbers of leaves produced after SD exposure in the grafted scions did not significantly differ from those of WT self-graft controls (Fig. 3C). In contrast, self-grafted *NUC-FT-GFP*-expressing scions did not cease growth in response to identical SDs (Fig. 3B). Thus, graft-transmissible mobility is essential for *FT* to mediate in photoperiodically controlled growth of the shoot apex.

GA (Like FT) Can Systemically Modulate Photoperiodic Responses of the Shoot Apex. The plant hormone GA putatively acts in a parallel pathway to the *CO/FT* pathway in photoperiodic control of seasonal growth (13). However, unlike *FT*, GA is synthesized in leaves as well as in apices, and key enzymes like GA20 oxidase are expressed in both organs, as found both here (Fig. 4A) and previously (11). Thus, it remains unclear whether GA biosynthesis in the leaves can mediate photoperiodic responses in the shoot apex, as demonstrated for *FT*. To address this possibility, we grafted WT scions on root stocks of *GA20 oxidase*-overexpressing (*GA20ox1oe*) plants, which have high levels of GA and vice versa. The WT scions on *GA20ox1oe* root stocks ceased growth in response to SDs significantly later than those on WT root stocks (Fig. 4B).

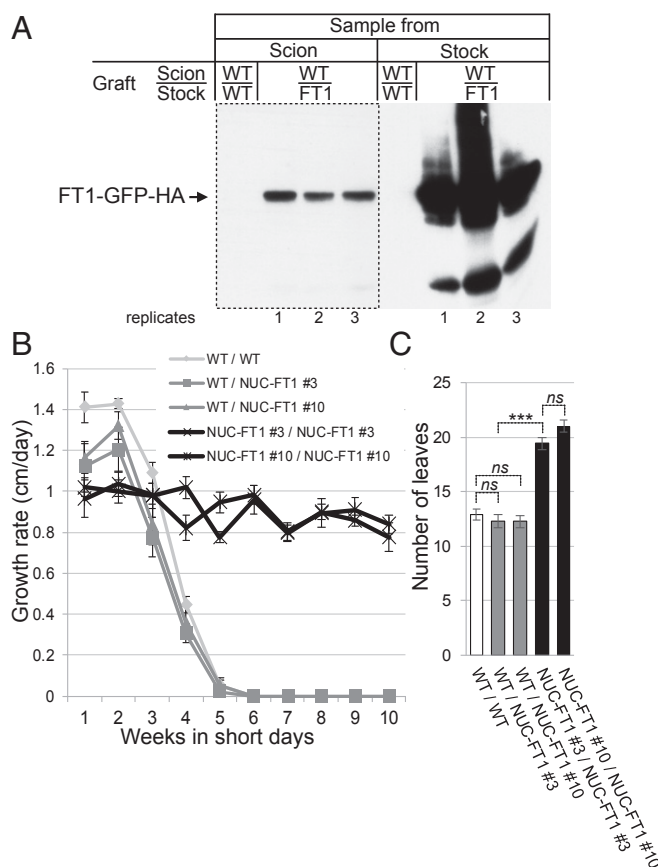


Fig. 3. *FT* protein is graft-transmissible while the blockage of *FT* protein mobility prevents its mediation of growth responses. (A) Western blot detected *FT1-GFP-HA* from stem samples of grafts of WT scion and the *FT1-GFP-HAoe* stock. Samples taken from the scion of WT grafted on itself were used as control. A longer exposition is shown in the dashed-line square for the membrane part of scion samples. Three biological replicates are indicated by numbers. (B) Growth curves of the grafts of WT scions on the stocks overexpressing the nuclear targeted *FT1* (*NUC-FT1*) (line #3 and line #10), the self-grafts of WT, and the self-grafts of the *NUC-FT1*-overexpressing lines. After shifting the grafts to short days, the height of the grafts was measured weekly for 10 wk. (C) The number of newly formed leaves after the initiation of the SD treatment is plotted for the generated grafts of WT and *NUC-FT1oe* plants (as indicated scion/stock) ($n \geq 7$). Error bars indicate SEM. $***P \leq 0.0001$ indicates significant differences; "ns" indicates lack of significant difference between the indicated graft combinations using unpaired *t* test.

FT and LAPI Mediate in Transcriptional Regulation of the GA Metabolic Pathway. GA levels are photoperiodically regulated in the apex, being down-regulated upon exposure to SDs. Since *FT* mediates in photoperiodic control of growth, we investigated if *FT* could also mediate in the photoperiodic regulation of GA levels. We also investigated if *FT* mediates in transcriptional regulation of GA metabolic pathway. As can be seen, photoperiodic control of several key GA metabolism-related genes is affected in *FT* overexpressors (Fig. 5). Since *LAPI* is a target of *FT*, we also checked if *LAPI* was involved in transcriptional regulation of the GA metabolic pathway like *FT*. As can be seen, like *FT*, photoperiodic control of key GA metabolism-related genes is affected in *LAPI* transgenics (SI Appendix, Fig. S6). Collectively, these results suggest that *FT* and its downstream target *LAPI* can mediate in transcriptional control of GA metabolism at the shoot apex by photoperiodic signal. Since systemic effect of *FT* in photoperiodic control of growth is suppressed by blocking its mobility, the effect of *FT* on the GA pathway is relevant at the apex, and thus GA could also act locally at the apex in seasonal control of growth.

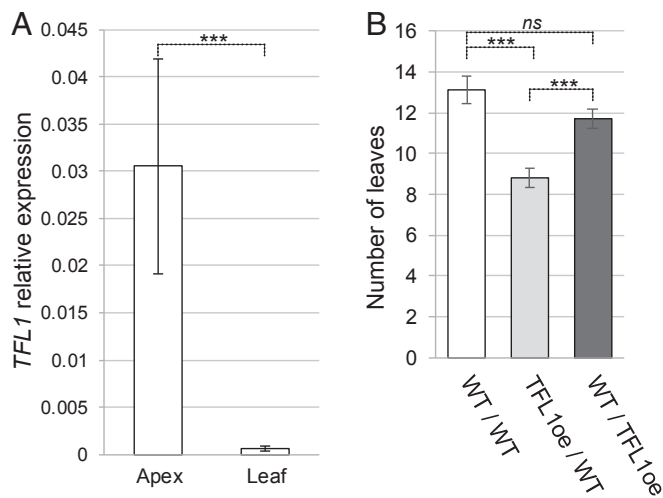


Fig. 6. *TFL1* acts locally at the apex in photoperiodic response. (A) Relative expression of *TFL1* in the apex and leaf of hybrid aspen. The expression values shown are relative to the reference gene *UBQ* and averages of three biological replicates \pm SEM. (B) Numbers of newly formed leaves after the initiation of the SDs in the indicated graft combinations of WT and *TFL1* overexpressing plants ($n \geq 10$). Error bars indicate SEM. *** $P < 0.001$ indicates significant and "ns" indicates lack of significant difference using unpaired *t* test.

Furthermore, FT displayed graft-transmissible mobility (Fig. 3A), and its effect on shoot growth could be abolished by targeting FT to the nucleus (Fig. 3B and C), thereby blocking its graft-transmissibility from root stocks. Thus, the effects of root stocks on shoot apices that we observed are directly mediated by FT, rather than FT-induced production of *LAP1* or other factors followed by their movement or induction of production of another mobile intermediate.

Like FT, the GA pathway has been implicated in control of seasonal growth in trees. In GA overexpressors, FT can be down-regulated in response to SDs, suggesting that GA either acts in a parallel pathway or downstream of the FT (13). GA has demonstrated mobility in *Arabidopsis* (22), so if FT can induce its production, GA could potentially move to shoot apices from root stocks. Our grafting data indicate that *GA20 oxidase*-overexpressing root stocks can indeed delay growth cessation in WT shoots following shifts to growth-restrictive SDs (Fig. 4B). Furthermore, it has been shown that GA levels and expression of *GA20 oxidase* is down-regulated after SDs in the leaves (11). Altogether, these results support the possibility that GAs may act as systemic signals in control of seasonal growth, either independently or downstream of FT. In agreement, however, since mobility of FT is essential for its systemic mediation of seasonal growth responses, GAs are unlikely to act as mediators of FT in this process. Thus, GA can act systemically but independently of FT. However, GA is considerably less effective than FT in modulating growth responses of shoots when provided from root stocks, in contrast with increasing GA levels at the apex as in *GA20 oxidase* overexpressors (13). Moreover, GA biosynthesis can occur in leaves and shoot apices (11) (unlike FT, which is exclusively expressed in leaves), so there is not apparently an absolute requirement for systemic control of shoot growth by GA. Moreover, both FT and its target *LAP1* can participate in transcriptional control of the GA pathway at the apex (Fig. 5 and SI Appendix, Fig. S6). Therefore, while we cannot exclude the possibility that GA may act as a systemic signal, we favor the hypothesis that FT is the predominant systemic signaling agent in seasonal control of shoot growth in hybrid aspen and that GA could act locally in the apex, presumably downstream of FT and *LAP1*.

At the shoot apex, *LAP1*, which promotes growth in LDs, appears to be a key local mediator downstream of the systemically

transduced signals from leaves (16). However, our results show that *TFL1* also mediates growth responses, acting locally in the shoot apex (Fig. 6B). Moreover, as in flowering (23), the *Populus TFL1* homolog appears to play an antagonistic role to FT in seasonal control of growth in trees. *TFL1* overexpression induces early growth cessation, whereas its down-regulation delays growth cessation (SI Appendix, Fig. S7). However, there is a major difference between *TFL1*-mediated control of flowering in *Arabidopsis* and seasonal growth control in trees. While *TFL1* (like FT) also displays mobility in *Arabidopsis* (24), our data indicate that in hybrid aspen it acts locally (unlike FT) in the apex in seasonal control of growth. Thus, *LAP1* and *TFL1* are antagonistically acting local mediators of environmental cues regulating seasonal growth in shoot apices.

Our results suggest the following model for the control of seasonally synchronized growth transitions, involving both long-range and local signaling components (SI Appendix, Fig. S8). Signals of seasonal changes perceived in the leaves are conveyed systemically by FT to the shoot apex where *TFL1* and *LAP1* act locally in the coordination of anticipatory growth responses. We propose that, unlike FT, GA has a dual role, participating not only systemically but also locally in the shoot apex. During summer, under growth-permissive LDs, FT, presumably by interacting with FDL1 (8), directly binds the *LAP1* promoter in shoot apices (SI Appendix, Fig. S9) to positively regulate *LAP1* expression. Furthermore, FT participates in transcriptional control of the growth-promotive GA pathway either via *LAP1* or independently of *LAP1*. Positive regulation of *LAP1*, which positively regulates cell-cycle-related genes via *AIL* transcription factors and that of the GA pathway (9, 16), results in promotion of growth during summer. Transition to winter, as day length becomes shorter, results in suppression of FT expression (and the GA pathway), thereby switching off long-range growth-promotive signaling to the apex. Consequently, the FT/TFL ratio falls, and *LAP1* is down-regulated in the apex. Additionally, the suppression of FT and its target *LAP1* results in GA down-regulation in the apex, thereby reinforcing the switch to growth repression, inducing the growth cessation program culminating in morphogenetic transformation of the shoot apex to a bud structure. The selective pressures that resulted in shoot apices' seasonal growth dependence on leaf-derived signals are unclear, but may be linked to a general growth regulation mechanism that enables coupling of shoot growth, leaf production, and metabolic status with seasonal cues.

Anticipating the change of seasons and modulating development accordingly is central to adaptation and thus survival in plants. The induction of flowering by vernalization has provided a paradigm for the control of a key developmental transition by seasonal cues (25). Vernalization in *Arabidopsis* acts via repression of the floral repressor *FLC* (26) by chromatin remodeling whereas our results now demonstrate the role of long-range signals and systemic signaling in seasonal control of growth cycles that define perennial habit and provide evidence strongly implicating FT and GA as systemic mediators of seasonal shifts. Previously, there had been scant evidence of FT movement in trees. Thus, its potential role in long-range systemic signaling in seasonal control of the growth cycles of perennials has not been explored. However, FT homologs have been implicated in various developmental transitions, inter alia flowering, tuber induction, and bulbing (27–29). In each of these cases, an inductive environmental signal activates expression of FT homologs, which are then transported to the site of activation of the transitional process. In trees, FT is required for maintenance of vegetative growth, and, in contrast with examples outlined above, suppression of FT induces the transition to growth cessation (6). Thus, while FT may regulate developmental transitions that are highly distinct—e.g., flowering, bulbing, tuberization, or growth control—its movement appears to be a key evolutionarily conserved feature of systemic control of developmental transitions in plants. In summary, our studies have addressed two key questions: where the signals that herald seasonal shifts are perceived and how the

perception of these seasonal shifts is communicated to the shoot apex to control seasonal growth by demonstrating the role of long-range mobile signals and providing evidence strongly supporting FT and GA as mobile mediators in control of seasonal growth transitions.

Materials and Methods

Plant Material and Growth Conditions. Hybrid aspen (*Populus tremula* × *Populus tremuloides*) clone T89 (WT) and the transgenic plants grown in soil for 5 wk were subjected to SD (8 h, 20 °C light/16 h, 15 °C dark cycles) for growth cessation analysis as detailed in *SI Appendix, Supplementary Materials and Methods*. Aspen plants of SwAsp line 5 and line 115 from southern and northern regions of Sweden (15), respectively, were grown in the greenhouse for 5 wk (23 h light, 20 °C, and 1 h dark, 80% relative humidity) before grafting them.

Grafting Experiments. Soil-grown plants were grown in the greenhouse (18 h light, 22 °C, and 60% relative humidity), and then scions were grafted onto root stocks that had about 10 developed leaves, as previously reported (30). After 2 wk in LDs, the growing grafts were transferred to the SD chamber (8 h, 20 °C light/16 h, 15 °C dark cycles, 80% relative humidity) and monitored for growth cessation. The grafts of SwAsp lines were treated with 18-h light and 6-h dark cycles in SDs as described in detail in *SI Appendix, Supplementary Materials and Methods*.

RNA Isolation and Quantitative Real-Time PCR Analysis. Total RNA extracted using the Spectrum Plant Total RNA Kit (Sigma-Aldrich) was used for quantitative real-time PCR analyses as described in *SI Appendix, Supplementary Materials and Methods*. Relative expression values were calculated by using the d-ct-method (31). The complete list of primers used in real-time PCR analysis is presented in *SI Appendix, Table S1*.

Generation of Plasmid Constructs and Plant Transformation. The generation of the FT1-GFP-HA construct has been described earlier (16). For nuclear targeting

of FT1, nuclear localization signal sequence was inserted in the front of the N-terminal of FT1-GFP-HA sequence, and hybrid aspen were transformed as described in detail in *SI Appendix, Supplementary Materials and Methods*. The generation of the other transformant lines used in the experiments has been previously described: FTRNAi (6), control GFPoe (32), GA2Oxidase1oe (18), and TFL1oe (17).

Western Blot Analysis. Western blot analysis was performed on total extracts isolated from leaves of untransformed control and independent transformed lines to detect the FT-GFP-HA and NLS-FT-GFP-HA protein levels using anti-HA-peroxidase antibody (3F10; Roche). To detect the FT-GFP-HA, protein levels from the scion and stock stem segments of grafts were taken 5 cm below and above the joints, and the presence of HA-tagged protein was detected by Western blot using anti-HA-peroxidase-conjugated antibody after GFP-Trap precipitation as detailed in *SI Appendix, Supplementary Materials and Methods*.

Chromatin Immunoprecipitation. Chromatin immunoprecipitation assays were carried out generally as previously described by Gendrel et al. (33) with further details and modifications described in *SI Appendix, Supplementary Materials and Methods*.

Confocal Microscopy. Fluorescence was visualized by confocal laser-scanning microscopy using a Carl Zeiss LSM780 confocal microscope as detailed in *SI Appendix, Supplementary Materials and Methods*.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS. We thank Prof. Amy Brunner for the generous gift of TFL1 transgenic lines published earlier. This work was supported by grants from Vetenskapsrådet (VR-2016-04430) and the Knut and Alice Wallenberg Foundation (2014-0032) (to R.P.B.). D.T. and O.N. were supported by Grant CZ.02.1.01/0.0/0.0/16_019/0000738 from the European Regional Development Fund–Project Centre for Experimental Plant Biology and by the Czech Science Foundation (project no. 18-10349S) of the Ministry of Education, Youth, and Sports of the Czech Republic.

- Ruttink T, et al. (2007) A molecular timetable for apical bud formation and dormancy induction in poplar. *Plant Cell* 19:2370–2390.
- Goffinet MC, Larson PR (1981) Structural changes in *Populus deltoides* terminal buds and in the vascular transition zone of the stems during dormancy induction. *Am J Bot* 68:118–129.
- Nitsch JP (1957) Photoperiodism in woody plants. *Proc Am Soc Hort Sci* 70:526–544.
- Weiser CJ (1970) Cold resistance and injury in woody plants: Knowledge of hardy plant adaptations to freezing stress may help us to reduce winter damage. *Science* 169:1269–1278.
- Singh RK, Svystun T, Aldahmash B, Jönsson AM, Bhalerao RP (2017) Photoperiod- and temperature-mediated control of phenology in trees: A molecular perspective. *New Phytol* 213:511–524.
- Böhlenius H, et al. (2006) CO/FT regulatory module controls timing of flowering and seasonal growth cessation in trees. *Science* 312:1040–1043.
- Hsu CY, Liu Y, Luthé DS, Yuceer C (2006) Poplar FT2 shortens the juvenile phase and promotes seasonal flowering. *Plant Cell* 18:1846–1861.
- Tylewicz S, et al. (2015) Dual role of tree florigen activation complex component FD in photoperiodic growth control and adaptive response pathways. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 112:3140–3145.
- Karlberg A, Bako L, Bhalerao RP (2011) Short day-mediated cessation of growth requires the downregulation of AINTEGUMENTALIKE1 transcription factor in hybrid aspen. *PLoS Genet* 7:e1002361.
- Olsen JE, Junntila O, Moritz T (1995) A localized decrease of GA(1) in shoot tips of *Salix pentandra* seedlings precedes cessation of shoot elongation under short photoperiod. *Physiol Plant* 95:627–632.
- Eriksson ME, Moritz T (2002) Daylength and spatial expression of a gibberellin 20-oxidase isolated from hybrid aspen (*Populus tremula* L. × *P. tremuloides* Michx.). *Planta* 214:920–930.
- Olsen JE, et al. (1997) Ectopic expression of oat phytochrome A in hybrid aspen changes critical daylength for growth and prevents cold acclimatization. *Plant J* 12:1339–1350.
- Eriksson ME, Hoffman D, Kaduk M, Mauriat M, Moritz T (2015) Transgenic hybrid aspen trees with increased gibberellin (GA) concentrations suggest that GA acts in parallel with FLOWERING LOCUS T2 to control shoot elongation. *New Phytol* 205:1288–1295.
- Hsu CY, et al. (2011) FLOWERING LOCUS T duplication coordinates reproductive and vegetative growth in perennial poplar. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 108:10756–10761.
- Luquez V, et al. (2008) Natural phenological variation in aspen (*Populus tremula*): The SwAsp collection. *Tree Genet Genomes* 4:279–292.
- Azeez A, Miskolczi P, Tylewicz S, Bhalerao RP (2014) A tree ortholog of APETALA1 mediates photoperiodic control of seasonal growth. *Curr Biol* 24:717–724.
- Mohamed R, et al. (2010) *Populus* CEN/TFL1 regulates first onset of flowering, axillary meristem identity and dormancy release in *Populus*. *Plant J* 62:674–688.
- Eriksson ME, Israelsson M, Olsson O, Moritz T (2000) Increased gibberellin biosynthesis in transgenic trees promotes growth, biomass production and xylem fiber length. *Nat Biotechnol* 18:784–788.
- Eagles CF, Wareing PE (1964) The role of growth substances in the regulation of bud dormancy. *Physiol Plant* 17:697–709.
- Tylewicz S, et al. (2018) Photoperiodic control of seasonal growth is mediated by ABA acting on cell-cell communication. *Science* 360:212–215.
- Zhang H, et al. (2010) Precocious flowering in trees: The FLOWERING LOCUS T gene as a research and breeding tool in *Populus*. *J Exp Bot* 61:2549–2560.
- Ragni L, et al. (2011) Mobile gibberellin directly stimulates Arabidopsis hypocotyl xylem expansion. *Plant Cell* 23:1322–1336.
- Kobayashi Y, Kaya H, Goto K, Iwabuchi M, Araki T (1999) A pair of related genes with antagonistic roles in mediating flowering signals. *Science* 286:1960–1962.
- Conti L, Bradley D (2007) TERMINAL FLOWER1 is a mobile signal controlling Arabidopsis architecture. *Plant Cell* 19:767–778.
- Andrés F, Coupland G (2012) The genetic basis of flowering responses to seasonal cues. *Nat Rev Genet* 13:627–639.
- Berry S, Dean C (2015) Environmental perception and epigenetic memory: Mechanistic insight through FLC. *Plant J* 83:133–148.
- Turck F, Fornara F, Coupland G (2008) Regulation and identity of florigen: FLOWERING LOCUS T moves center stage. *Annu Rev Plant Biol* 59:573–594.
- Navarro C, et al. (2011) Control of flowering and storage organ formation in potato by FLOWERING LOCUS T. *Nature* 478:119–122.
- Lee R, Baldwin S, Kenel F, McCallum J, Macknight R (2013) FLOWERING LOCUS T genes control onion bulb formation and flowering. *Nat Commun* 4:2884.
- Nieminen K, et al. (2008) Cytokinin signaling regulates cambial development in poplar. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 105:20032–20037.
- Vandesompele J, et al. (2002) Accurate normalization of real-time quantitative RT-PCR data by geometric averaging of multiple internal control genes. *Genome Biol* 3:RESEARCH0034.
- Takata N, Eriksson ME (2012) A simple and efficient transient transformation for hybrid aspen (*Populus tremula* × *P. tremuloides*). *Plant Methods* 8:30.
- Gendrel AV, Lippman Z, Martienssen R, Colot V (2005) Profiling histone modification patterns in plants using genomic tiling microarrays. *Nat Methods* 2:213–218.