

Quantitation of Gibberellins A₁, A₃, A₄, A₉ and a Putative A₉-Conjugate in Grafts of Sitka Spruce (*Picea sitchensis*) during the Period of Shoot Elongation

Thomas Moritz, J. Julian Philipson, and Per Christer Odén*

Department of Forest Genetics and Plant Physiology, Swedish University of Agricultural Sciences, S-901 83 UMEÅ, Sweden (T.M., P.C.O.); and Forestry Commission Northern Research Station, Roslin Midlothian, EH25 9SY United Kingdom (J.J.P.)

ABSTRACT

The levels of endogenous gibberellin A₁ (GA₁), GA₃, GA₄, GA₉, and a cellulase hydrolyzable GA₉ conjugate in needles and shoot stems of mature grafts of Sitka spruce (*Picea sitchensis* [Bong.] Carr.) grown under environmental conditions that were either inductive, hot, and dry, or noninductive, cool, and wet, for flowering, were estimated by combined gas chromatography-mass spectrometry selected ion monitoring using deuterated [²H₂]GA₁, GA₃, GA₄, and GA₉ as internal standards. The samples were taken when the shoots had elongated about 30, 70, and 95% of the final shoot length and 17 days after elongation had terminated. The concentration of putative GA₉-conjugate, estimated by GC-SIM of GA₉ after cellulase hydrolysis of the highly water soluble fraction, was 33 nanograms per gram fresh weight in the needles of both heat and drought- and cool and wet-treated plants sampled just after bud burst. The concentration gradually decreased to a final value of 13 nanograms per gram fresh weight in the heat and drought-treated grafts and 6 nanograms per gram fresh weight in the cool and wet-treated grafts. The stems contained no detectable putative GA₉ conjugate. Free GA₉ was highest in heat and drought-treated material. For plants subjected to this treatment, GA₉ increased from 22 to 32 nanograms per gram fresh weight in needles and from 1 to 22 nanograms per gram fresh weight in stems during the rapid stem elongation phase. By day 17, after cessation of shoot elongation, GA₉ had decreased to 12 nanograms per gram fresh weight in needles and 9 nanograms per gram fresh weight in the shoot stems. The cool and wet-treated material also showed an increase in GA₉ concentration during shoot elongation. However, the concentration was not as high and was also delayed compared with heat and drought-treated material. By day 17, after cessation of shoot elongation, GA₉ concentration was 9 nanograms per gram fresh weight in needles and 5 nanograms per gram fresh weight in stems for cool and wet treatment plants. The concentration of GA₄ was very low in tissue from both treatments. Fluctuation in concentration of the more polar gibberellins, GA₁ and GA₃, showed the same pattern as fluctuations in the content of GA₉. However, the heat and drought-treated material had lower amounts of GA₁ and GA₃ during the later phases of shoot elongation, than the cool and wet-treated material. These results imply differential metabolism between clones treated with conditions inductive and noninductive for flowering. Higher concentrations of putative GA₉ conjugate and free GA₉ in the hot and dry treatment indicate a higher capacity of synthesizing, for flowering, the physiologically important GA₄ in the heat and drought-treated material. This synthesis does not, however, result in a buildup of the GA₄ pool, probably because of a high turnover rate of GA₄. The cool and wet-treated

material had higher amounts of GA₁ and GA₃, indicating that the differentiation was preferentially directed toward vegetative growth.

Flowering stimulation by GA¹ application and culture treatments, e.g. heat and drought, is today often used in the genetic improvement of Pinaceae conifers (27). A general rule is that flowering is stimulated by hot and dry conditions and that an even stronger effect can be achieved if GA₄, GA₇, or a mixture (GA_{4/7}) of them is applied (1, 20). Cool temperatures and a wet soil are considered as noninductive conditions for flowering (21, 22). The timing of these treatments determines the success of the work. Therefore, knowledge about the phenology of bud differentiation in the species under study is very important.

The phenology of predetermined shoot- and bud-growth of Sitka spruce (*Picea sitchensis* [Bong.] Carr.) have been studied in detail by Owens and Molder (17). The growth rate during the elongation period follows a sigmoid curve, starting with a period of slow growth, followed by a phase of rapid elongation, and finally a period of slow growth until the shoot elongation eventually ceases (2, 11). The formation of next year's apical and lateral buds, including cone buds, starts at bud break with the formation of bud scales. At the time of shoot growth cessation, the differentiation to bud type, either vegetative, male, or female types, starts. The best period for influencing cone bud differentiation is, therefore, slightly before or at the time of bud type determination (25, 26). In addition, it is also possible to force a transition of latent or vegetative buds into reproductive buds later during the season (31).

The ability to promote flowering in Pinaceae conifers by exogenous application of less polar GAs, e.g. GA₄ and GA₇, has raised questions about the physiological role of GAs in flower bud differentiation (1, 4, 18, 19, 20, 21). It has been proposed that GAs are preferentially used in vigorously growing juvenile trees for vegetative growth. As the tree matures, vegetative growth is, for a variety of reasons, reduced and as a consequence the GA concentration increases up to a certain

¹ Abbreviations: GA_n, gibberellin A_n; EtOAc, ethyl acetate; MeOH, methanol; PVPP, poly-*N*-vinylpyrrolidone; SIM, selected ion monitoring.

threshold, large enough for reproductive growth to occur (18, 28). Data supporting this hypothesis are mainly based on exogenously applied GAs. Shoot growth of Douglas-fir (*Pseudotsuga menziesii*) seedlings responded positively to exogenously applied GAs (24, 29). However, with increased maturity the effect on shoot growth decreased and the effect on flowering increased. Webber *et al.* (33) found a positive effect of GA_{4/7} on shoot growth and no effect on flowering of Douglas-fir families with a poor flowering history. Conversely, families with a history of good flowering responded to GA_{4/7} with an increased flowering (29).

Reliable information on endogenous GAs in relation to flower bud differentiation is almost completely absent. Lorenzi *et al.* (11) showed that the amounts of an endogenous nonpolar GA, later identified as an isomer of GA₉ (12), increased in Sitka spruce shoots during the period of shoot elongation. Moritz *et al.* (15) found that needles and shoot stems of clones of Sitka spruce with a good-flowering history contained higher levels of a cellulase hydrolyzable conjugate of GA₉ and free GA₉, compared to poor-flowering clones, when shoot elongation was 95% complete. In addition, the needles and shoot stems of the poor-flowering clones contained relatively large amounts of GA₁ together with small amounts of GA₃, whereas the good-flowering clones contained no detectable amounts of these GAs. GA₁ and GA₃ are considered to be the 'effector' GAs controlling stem elongation in maize (*Zea mays*) (5) and GA₁ is considered to be the 'effector' GA in pea (*Pisum sativum*) (5, 8, 23).

In previous studies, the major endogenous bioactive GAs of Sitka spruce have been identified (13) and the metabolism of some of these GAs has also been studied in Sitka spruce (14). In this study we report the quantitation of endogenous GA₁, GA₃, GA₄, GA₉ and a putative GA₉ conjugate (based on hydrolysis and release of free GA₉) during shoot elongation and shortly thereafter for grafted propagules growing under flower-inductive (hot, dry) and nonflower-inductive (cool, wet) conditions.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Plant Material

Twenty-four 6-year-old grafted propagules, representing three clones, of mature Sitka spruce (*Picea sitchensis* [Bong.] Carr.) ortets were grown in 20 L pots. On May 5, prior to budbreak, half of the trees were placed in a polyethylene greenhouse and treated with heat and drought. The remaining trees were placed outside the greenhouse and watered daily, *i.e.* cool and wet treatment. Leaf water potentials (Ψ) of plants in the greenhouse were measured once or twice a week, and they were watered when Ψ fell below -2 MPa. Shoot length was measured one to two times a week. Shoots were collected on four occasions: when the shoots had elongated about 30% of their final length (May 14, hot, dry; May 21, cool, wet), when the shoots had elongated about 70% of their final length (June 1, hot, dry; June 8, cool, wet), when the shoots had elongated about 95% of their final length (June 15, hot, dry; June 26, cool, wet), and finally 17 d after the elongation growth had ceased (July 2, hot, dry; July 13, cool, wet). The

shoots were immediately frozen in liquid N₂ and stored at -20°C until analyzed.

Extraction and Purification

Current year shoot samples were divided into needles and shoot stems. The samples, processed in triplicates of about 5 g fresh weight each, were extracted in 20 mL g⁻¹ fresh weight of refrigerated MeOH containing 0.02% (w/v) diethyldithiocarbamic acid as an antioxidant. As internal standards, 25 ng 17,17-[²H]GA₁, 25 ng 17,17-[²H]GA₃, 25 ng 17,17-[²H]GA₄, and 80 ng 17,17-[²H]GA₉ (purchased from Prof. L. N. Mander, Research School of Chemistry, Australian national University, Canberra, Australia) were added. After extraction for 2 h at 4°C, the MeOH was filtered and the residue was washed with 50 mL MeOH. The combined MeOH was evaporated under reduced pressure at 35°C. The aqueous residue was adjusted to 5 mL with 0.05 M sodium phosphate (pH 8.0), and slurried with 0.2 g insoluble PVPP. The slurry was centrifuged at 2000g for 5 min, and the buffer phase was decanted from the PVPP which was washed with another 5 mL of buffer and centrifuged again. The buffer phases were combined and adjusted to pH 8.0 and extracted one time with 5 mL EtOAc in a centrifugation vial. The EtOAc phase, containing the putative GA₉-conjugate, was evaporated under N₂ and enzymatically hydrolyzed with cellulase as described below. One mL 0.5 M sodium phosphate was added to the neutral buffer phase, which contained the major part of free GAs, and the pH was adjusted to 2.8 with 6 M HCl. The buffer phase was then extracted three times with 5 mL EtOAc. The combined EtOAc phase was washed once with 5 mL of water, acidified with 6 M HCl to pH 3.0, and then evaporated under a stream of N₂ and further purified by HPLC as described below.

Enzymatic Hydrolysis

The neutral EtOAc phase containing the putative GA₉-conjugate was enzymatically hydrolyzed with cellulase (EC 3.2.1.4; Sigma) at 37°C in 1 mL 0.2 M sodium acetate (pH 4.5) for 16 h. After hydrolysis, 9 mL of 0.1 M sodium phosphate and, as internal standard, 80 ng 17,17-[²H]GA₉ were added. The pH was adjusted to 2.8 and the buffer phase was extracted three times with 5 mL EtOAc. The combined EtOAc phase was washed one time with 5 mL of water, acidified with 6 M HCl to pH 3.0, and then evaporated under a stream of N₂ and further purified by HPLC as described below.

HPLC

The acidic, EtOAc-soluble fractions and the hydrolysed putative GA₉-conjugate fractions were purified by normal phase HPLC (16). The system consisted of two Waters M501 pumps connected to a 200 × 4.6 mm i.d. column packed with 5 μm Nucleosil NO₂, via a Waters U6K injector. The mobile phase was a linear gradient from 75% *n*-heptane, half-saturated with 0.5 M formic acid in water, and 25% EtOAc:water:formic acid (98.5:1:0.5, v/v), to 100% EtOAc:water:formic acid (98.5:1:0.5, v/v). The gradient sweep time was 35 min, and the flow rate was 2 mL min⁻¹. The

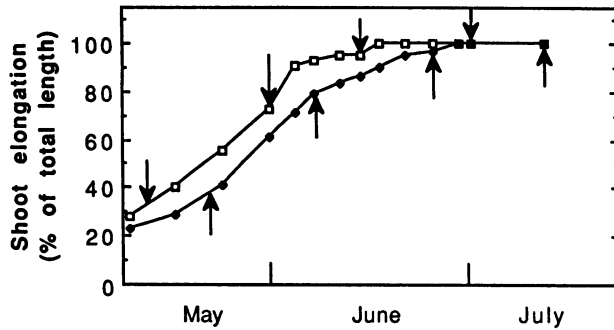


Figure 1. Shoot elongation growth of grafts of Sitka spruce treated with hot and dry conditions (\square) and cool and wet conditions (\blacklozenge). The arrows indicate sampling times.

fractions corresponding to the elution volume of GA_1 , 48 to 54 mL; GA_3 , 48 to 54 mL; GA_4 , 28 to 34 mL; GA_9 , 10 to 16 mL, were collected and analyzed by GC-MS as described below. For purification of the hydrolysed GA_9 -conjugate the mobile phase was 80% *n*-heptane, half-saturated with 0.5 M formic acid in water, and 20% EtOAc:water:formic acid (98.5:1:0.5, v/v). The column was isocratically eluted and the fraction corresponding to GA_9 , 14 to 20 mL, was collected and analyzed by GC-MS as described below.

GC-MS

The fractions containing the GAs were methylated with ethereal diazomethane and, except GA_9 -Me, after evaporation, silylated by adding 50 μ L of *N,O*-bis(trimethylsilyl)-trifluoroacetamide with 1% (v/v) trimethylchlorosilane and heating to 80°C for 20 min. The samples were then evaporated in a Speed-Vac concentrator, dissolved in *n*-heptane, and injected splitless into a Hewlett Packard 5890 GC equipped with a fused silica glass capillary column, SE-30 chemical bonded phase 0.25 μ m, 25 m long, i.d. 0.25 mm (Quadrex). The injector temperature was 230°C and the column temperature was 80°C for 2 min. The temperature was then increased by 20°C min^{-1} to 200°C and by 4°C min^{-1} to 250°C. The column effluent was led to the ion source of a Hewlett Packard 5970 mass selective detector. The interface temperature was 275°C and the electron energy was 70 eV. Each sample was chromatographed two times in SIM mode and data were processed by a Hewlett Packard 9133 data system. For each GA, two characteristic ions and the deuterated analogs were recorded, GA_1 *m/z*: 491, 493, 506, 508; GA_3 , *m/z*: 489, 491, 504, 506; GA_4 , *m/z*: 284, 286, 418, 420; GA_9 , *m/z*: 270, 272, 298, 300. A calibration curve of the response ratio to amount ratio of the nondeuterated to deuterated GA was constructed for each GA in the same way. The dwell time was 100 ms.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Sampling times for the cool, wet- and hot, dry-treated grafts were separated in time due to different rates of elongation (Fig. 1). The two different materials were, however, in the same phenological stage of development when the samples

were taken. The most important periods for flowering stimulation are represented by the third and fourth sampling times: slightly before bud type determination starts, in this case when the shoots had elongated about 95%, and during the bud type determination period, in this case 17 d later (17). The second sampling time, when the shoots had elongated about 70% of the final length, corresponds to the period of most rapid elongation.

The cellulase hydrolyzable putative GA_9 -conjugate was quantitated using [2H] GA_9 as an internal standard, added after separation of the conjugate from the free GAs according to Hedden (7). Even though the recovery corrections did not cover the whole purification procedure, the precision of the triplicate analyses was acceptable, 7–18%, and therefore the data are considered reliable. The conjugate was only detected in the needles (Fig. 2) as was the case in a study quantitating GAs in needles and shoot stems of good- and poor-flowering clones of Sitka spruce (15). The amounts were highest in samples collected when the shoots had elongated about 30% of the final length, about 33 ng g^{-1} fresh weight in materials from both treatments. As shoot elongation proceeded, the amounts decreased, and samples from the last sampling time, 17 d after the elongation had ceased (fourth sampling time), contain 13 and 6 ng g^{-1} fresh weight for the hot, dry- and cool, wet-treated materials, respectively. The results, indicating higher amounts of putative GA_9 -conjugate during later periods of shoot elongation in grafts grown under flower inductive condition, are in agreement with previous results showing higher amounts of the putative GA_9 -conjugate in needles of good-flowering clones than in needles of poor-flowering clones when the samples were taken at about 95% shoot extension (15). The decrease in amounts during shoot elongation and the absence of detectable amounts of GA_9 -conjugate in the shoot stems, strongly imply that the conjugate is a storage form of GA_9 that can be hydrolysed yielding free GA_9 (30).

The concentration of GA_9 in the hot, dry-treated material

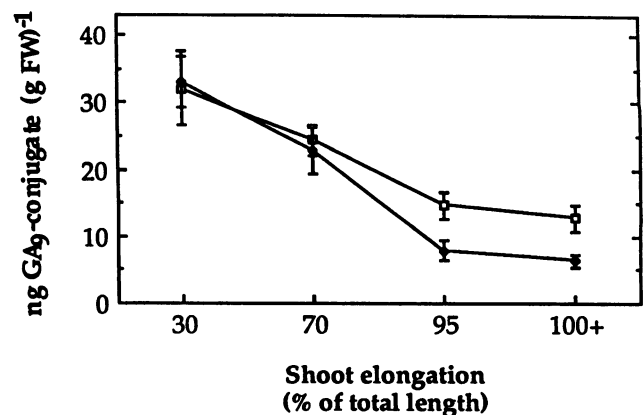


Figure 2. Quantitation of cellulase hydrolyzable GA_9 -conjugate in needles of hot and dry (\square) and cool and wet (\blacklozenge) treated grafts of Sitka spruce, at four different occasions during the shoot elongation period. Samples denoted 100+ were collected 17 d after cessation of shoot elongation.

shows a similar pattern of changes during the shoot elongation in both needles and stems (Fig. 3). On sampling date 1 the needles contained 22 ng GA₉ g⁻¹ fresh weight; the stems, 1 ng g⁻¹ fresh weight. The concentrations had increased at the phase of rapid elongation to 32 ng g⁻¹ fresh weight in the needles and 22 ng g⁻¹ fresh weight in the shoot stems. When the shoots had elongated about 95% of the final length the concentrations had decreased to 11 ng g⁻¹ fresh weight and 9 ng g⁻¹ fresh weight, in needles and stems, respectively. In the cool, wet-treated material the highest concentrations of GA₉ were estimated in samples from the third sampling occasion, *i.e.* later than in the hot, dry-treated material. Compared with the hot, dry-treated material, the concentration of GA₉ was significantly lower in the cool, wet-treated material, except in samples from the first sampling occasion, where equal amounts of GA₉ in both materials was found. The positive correlation between the amount of GA₉ and flowering stimulatory treatment or flowering was also found in another study where the content of GA₉ was analyzed in good- and poor-flowering clones of Sitka spruce during the period of flower bud differentiation (15).

GA₄ was only detected in the needles (Fig. 4). The concentration in the hot, dry-treated material decreased from 1.3 ng g⁻¹ fresh weight at the first sampling time to 0.5 ng g⁻¹ fresh weight in the final sample. The amount in the cool, wet-treated material was significantly lower in the sample from the first sampling occasion, 0.8 ng g⁻¹ fresh weight, but no differences between the two treatments were observed during the later phases of shoot elongation, when the flower bud

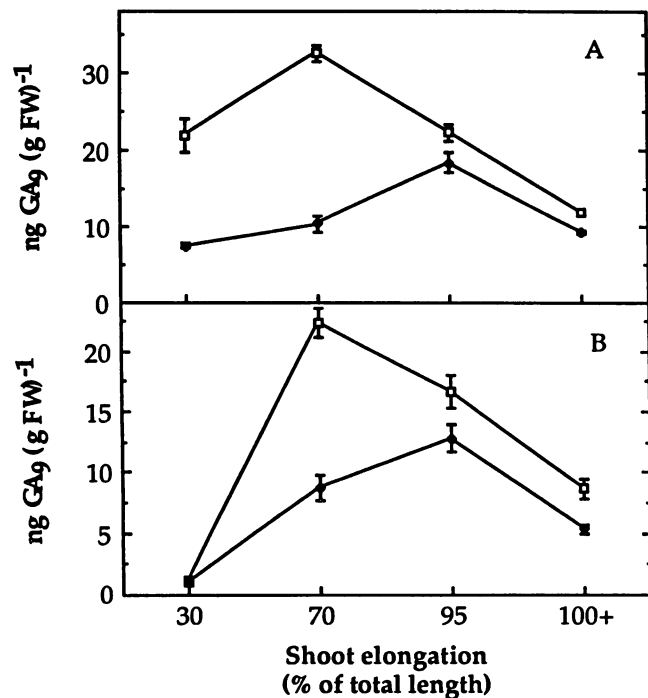


Figure 3. Quantitation of GA₉ in needles (A) and stems (B) of hot and dry (□) and cool and wet (◆) treated grafts of Sitka spruce, at four different occasions during the shoot elongation period. Samples of 100+ were collected 17 d after cessation of shoot elongation.

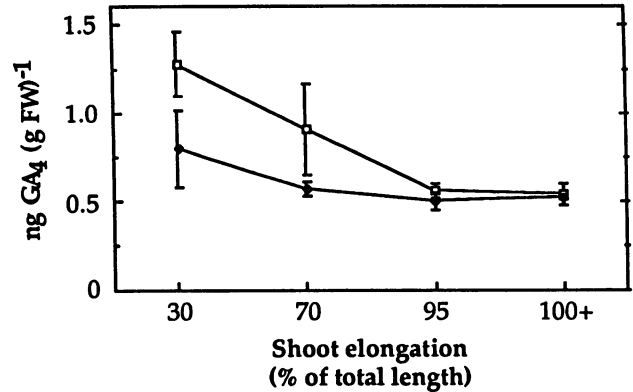


Figure 4. Quantitation of GA₄ in needles of hot and dry (□) and cool and wet (◆) treated grafts of Sitka spruce, at four different occasions during the shoot elongation period. Samples denoted 100+ were collected 17 d after cessation of shoot elongation.

differentiation is thought to occur (17). In another study comparing good- and poor-flowering clones, a positive correlation between GA₄ concentration slightly before the time of bud differentiation and flowering could not be found either (15). The amounts of GA₄ generally were small, possibly due to a high turnover rate.

The polar GAs, GA₃, and GA₁ could not be detected in the samples collected when the shoots had elongated about 30% of the final length (Figs. 5 and 6). The concentration of GA₁ (Fig. 5) in the needles increased during the time of rapid elongation to about 6 ng g⁻¹ fresh weight in the hot, dry-treated material and to 4 ng g⁻¹ fresh weight in the cool, wet-treated material, as did GA₁ concentration in stems, although without differences between the two treatments. Samples from the last two collection dates contained significantly lower concentrations of GA₁ in both needles and stems of hot, dry-treated material, than for cool, wet-treated material. The concentration of GA₃ (Fig. 6) increased to about 8 ng g⁻¹ fresh weight in the needles of the materials from both treatments taken during the rapid elongation phase (70% of the final length), but thereafter decreased to below detection limits in the final samples, the decrease being more rapid in the hot, dry-treated material. The concentrations of GA₃ in the stems were lower in the needles, but showed the same fluctuation pattern as in the needles. The positive correlation between the high concentrations of GA₃ slightly before the start of bud differentiation and poor flowering was also found when GA-concentrations of good- and poor-flowering clones of Sitka spruce were compared (15).

This study indicates that there are differences in the concentrations of GAs in shoots of Sitka spruce subjected to flower inductive and nonflower inductive treatments. The results are in many ways consistent with previous results (15), where good-flowering clones contained higher amounts of GA₉ and a GA₉-conjugate slightly before bud determination starts, than poor flowering clones and, as a consequence, had a higher capability to synthesise the physiologically important GA₄. Moritz *et al.* (14) showed that exogenously applied GA₉ was metabolized to GA₄ to a higher degree in grafts subjected

to a flower inductive treatment than in grafts subjected to a nonflower inductive treatment. Gibberellin A₄ and GA₇ are the most successfully used GAs for stimulating flowering (18). Since no correlation between the amounts of GA₄ or GA₇, which could not be detected at all, and flowering could be found we conclude that the turnover rate of GA₄ is of great importance. In order to study the turnover rate, it is necessary to estimate levels of the biologically inactive GAs as well (6). In several studies it has been shown that a 2 β -hydroxylation of GA₄ to GA₃₄ occurs in conifers (3, 10, 14, 32) and it has been suggested that under nonflower-inductive conditions the formation of GA₃₄ from GA₄ is higher than under flower-inductive conditions (20).

In summary, it can be concluded that the highest concentration of GA₉, GA₁, and GA₃ is closely correlated with the time of most rapid shoot elongation. This correlation might indicate that the GAs at this time are preferentially used for controlling shoot extension (33). If the conditions are favorable for vegetative growth or if the material is of a poor flowering clone, bud differentiation may be directed preferentially toward vegetative buds due to a more rapid conversion of the less polar GAs, GA₉ and GA₄, to the more polar GAs, GA₁ and GA₃, the latter GAs being the known 'effectors' of vegetative growth in maize, and probably in many higher plants (23). If the vegetative growth is restricted in any way, the conversion of less polar GAs to polar GAs is blocked, therefore resulting in a decreased concentration of polar GAs

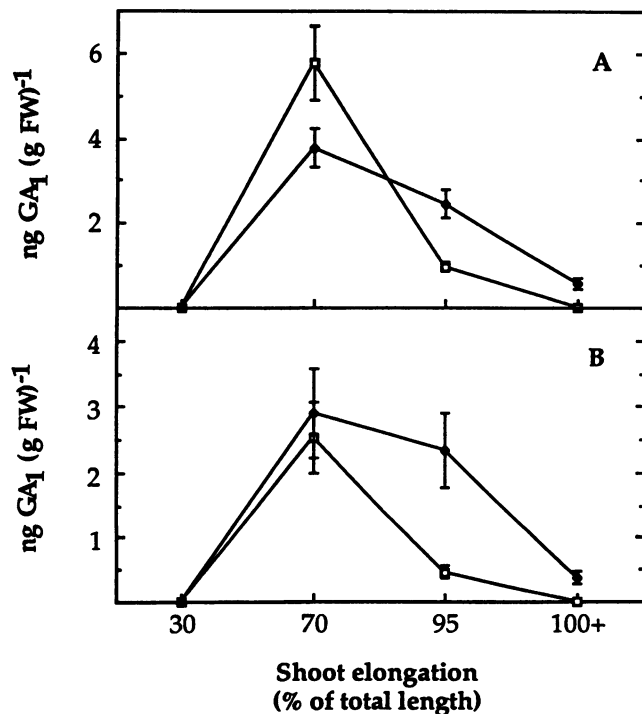


Figure 5. Quantitation of GA₁ in needles (A) and stems (B) of hot and dry (□) and cool and wet (◆) treated grafts of Sitka spruce, at four different occasions during the shoot elongation period. Samples denoted 100+ were collected 17 d after cessation of shoot elongation.

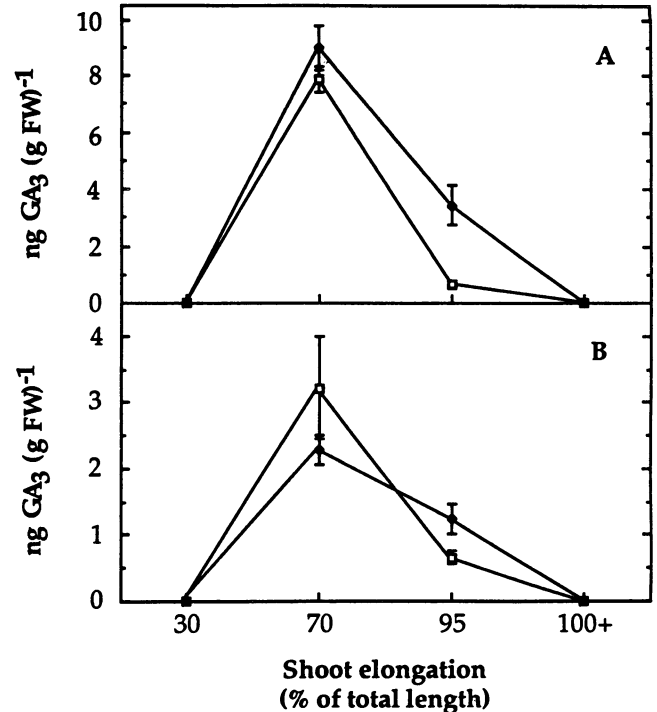


Figure 6. Quantitation of GA₃ in needles (A) and stems (B) of hot and dry (□) and cool and wet (◆) treated grafts of Sitka spruce, at four different occasions during the shoot elongation period. Samples of 100+ were collected 17 d after cessation of shoot elongation.

and also an increased availability of the less polar GAs, especially the physiologically important GA₄.

LITERATURE CITED

- Bonnet-Masimbert M, Zaerr JB (1987) The role of plant growth regulators in promotion of flowering. *Plant Growth Regul* 6: 13-35
- Cannell MGR, Thompson S, Lines R (1976) In MGR Cannell, FT Last, eds, *Tree Physiology and Yield Improvement*. Academic Press, London, pp 173-205
- Dunberg A, Malmberg C, Sassa T, Pharis RP (1983) Metabolism of tritiated gibberellin A₄ and A₉ in Norway spruce, *Picea abies* (L.) Karst. Effects of a cultural treatment known to enhance flowering. *Plant Physiol* 71: 257-262
- Dunberg A, Odén PC (1983) Gibberellins and conifers. In A Crozier, ed, *The Biochemistry and Physiology of Gibberellins*, Vol 2. Praeger, New York, pp 221-295
- Fujioka S, Yamane H, Spray C, Gaskin P, MacMillan J, Phinney BO, Takahashi N (1988) Qualitative and quantitative analyses of gibberellins in vegetative shoots of normal, dwarf-1, dwarf-2, dwarf-3, and dwarf-5 seedlings of *Zea mays* L. *Plant Physiol* 88: 1367-1372
- Graeb JE, Ropers HJ (1978) Gibberellins. In DS Letham, PB Goodwin, TJV Higgins, eds, *Phytohormones and Related Compounds: A Comprehensive Treatise*, Vol 1. Elsevier/North-Holland Biomedical Press, Amsterdam, pp 107-203
- Hedden P (1987) Gibberellins. In L River, A Crozier, eds, *Principles and Practice of Plant Hormone Analysis*, Vol 1. Academic Press, London, pp 9-110
- Ingram TJ, Reid JB, Murfet IC, Gaskin P, Willis CL, MacMillan J (1984) Internode length in *Pisum*. The Le gene controls the

- 3 β -hydroxylation of gibberellin A₂₀ to gibberellin A₁. *Planta* **160**: 455–463
9. **Junttila O, Heide OM** (1981) Shoot and needle growth in *Pinus sylvestris* as related to temperature in northern Fennoscandia. *Forest Sci* **27**: 423–430
 10. **Kamienska A, Durley RC, Pharis RP** (1976) Endogenous gibberellins of pine pollen. III. Conversion of 1,2-³H]GA₄ to gibberellins A₁ and A₃₄ in germinating pollen of *Pinus attenuata* Lemm. *Plant Physiol* **58**: 68–70
 11. **Lorenzi R, Horgan R, Heald JK** (1975) Gibberellins in *Picea sitchensis* Carriere: seasonal variation and partial characterization. *Planta* **126**: 75–82
 12. **Lorenzi R, Saunders PF, Heald JK, Horgan R** (1977) A novel gibberellin from needles of *Picea sitchensis*. *Plant Sci Lett* **8**: 179–182
 13. **Mortiz T, Philipson JJ, Odén PC** (1989) Detection and identification of gibberellins in Sitka spruce (*Picea sitchensis*) of different ages and coning ability by bioassay, radioimmunoassay and gas chromatography-mass spectrometry. *Physiol Plant* **75**: 325–332
 14. **Moritz T, Philipson JJ, Odén PC** (1989) Metabolism of tritiated and deuterated gibberellins A₁, A₄ and A₉ in Sitka spruce (*Picea sitchensis*) shoots during the period of cone-bud differentiation. *Physiol Plant* **77**: 39–45
 15. **Moritz T, Philipson JJ, Odén PC** (1990) Quantitations of gibberellins A₁, A₃, A₄, A₉ and A₉-conjugate in good- and poor flowering clones of Sitka spruce (*Picea sitchensis*) during the period of flower bud differentiation. *Planta* (in press)
 16. **Odén PC, Schwenen L, Graebe JE** (1989) Separation of gibberellins by normal-phase high-performance liquid chromatography. *J Chromatogr* **464**: 195–200
 17. **Owens JN, Molder M** (1976) Bud development in Sitka spruce. II. Cone differentiation and early development. *Can J Bot* **54**: 766–779
 18. **Pharis RP, King RW** (1985) Gibberellins and reproductive development in seed plants. *Annu Rev Plant Physiol* **36**: 517–568
 19. **Pharis RP, Kuo CG** (1977) Physiology of gibberellins in conifers. *Can J For Res* **7**: 299–325
 20. **Pharis RP, Ross SD** (1986) Hormonal promotion of flowering in *Pinaceae* family conifers. In A Halevy, ed, *Handbook of Flowering*, Vol 5. CRC Press, Boca Raton, FL, pp 269–286
 21. **Pharis RP, Webber JE, Ross SD** (1987) The promotion of flowering in forest trees by gibberellin A_{4/7} and cultural treatments: a review of the possible mechanisms. *For Ecol Manage* **19**: 65–84
 22. **Philipson JJ** (1983) The role of gibberellin A_{4/7}, heat and drought in the induction of flowering in Sitka spruce. *J Exp Bot* **34**: 291–302
 23. **Phinney BO, Spray C** (1982) Chemical genetics and the gibberellin pathway in *Zea mays* L. In PF Wareing, ed, *Plant Growth Substances*. Academic Press, London, pp 101–110
 24. **Ross SD** (1983) Enhancement of shoot elongation in Douglas-fir by gibberellin A_{4/7} and its relation to the hormonal promotion of flowering. *Can J For Res* **13**: 986–994
 25. **Ross SD** (1985) Promotion of flowering in potted *Picea engelmannii* (Perry) grafts: effects of heat, drought, gibberellin A_{4/7}, and their timing. *Can J For Res* **15**: 618–624
 26. **Ross SD** (1988) Effects of temperature, drought, and gibberellin A_{4/7}, and timing of treatment, on flowering in potted *Picea engelmannii* and *Picea glauca* grafts. *Can J For Res* **18**: 163–171
 27. **Ross SD, Pharis RP, Binder WD** (1983) Growth regulators and conifers: their physiology and potential uses in forestry. In LG Nickel, ed, *Plant Growth Regulating Chemicals*, Vol 2. CRC Press, Boca Raton, FL, pp 35–78
 28. **Ross SD, Pharis RP** (1985) Promotion of flowering in tree crops: different mechanisms and techniques with special reference to conifer. In MGR Cannell, JE Jackson, eds, *Attributes of Trees as Crop Plants*. Institute of Terrestrial Ecology, Monks Wood Experimental Station, Abbots Ripton, Huntingdon, UK, pp 383–397
 29. **Ross SD, Webber JE, Pharis RP, Owens JN** (1985) Interaction between gibberellin A_{4/7} and root-pruning on the reproductive and vegetative process in Douglas-fir. I. Effects on flowering. *Can J For Res* **15**: 341–347
 30. **Schneider G** (1983) Gibberellin conjugates. In A Crozier, ed, *The Biochemistry and Physiology of Gibberellins*, Vol 1. Praeger, New York, pp 389–456
 31. **Tompsett PB, Fletcher AM** (1979) Promotion of flowering on mature *Picea sitchensis* by gibberellin and environmental treatments. The influence of timing and hormonal concentration. *Physiol Plant* **45**: 112–116
 32. **Wample RL, Durley RC, Pharis RP** (1975) Metabolism of gibberellin A₄ by vegetative shoots of Douglas fir at three stages of ontogeny. *Physiol Plant* **35**: 273–278
 33. **Webber JE, Ross SD, Pharis RP, Owens JN** (1985) Interaction between gibberellin A_{4/7} and root-pruning on the reproductive and vegetative process in Douglas-fir. II. Effects on shoot elongation and its relationship to flowering. *Can J For Res* **15**: 348–353