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The Interaction between DELLA and ARF/IAA Mediates Crosstalk between Gibberellin and Auxin Signaling to Control Fruit Initiation in Tomato

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Fruit initiation following fertilization in angiosperms is strictly regulated by phytohormones. In tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum*), auxin and gibberellin (GA) play central roles in promoting fruit initiation. Without fertilization, elevated GA or auxin signaling can induce parthenocarpy (seedless fruit production). The GA-signaling repressor SIDELLA and auxin-signaling components SIIAA9 and SIARF7 repress parthenocarpy, but the underlying mechanism is unknown. Here, we show that SIDELLA and the SIARF7/SIIAA9 complex mediate crosstalk between GA and auxin pathways to regulate fruit initiation. Yeast-two-hybrid and coimmunoprecipitation assays showed that SIARF7 and additional activator SIARFs interact with SIDELLA and SIIAA9 through distinct domains. SIARF7/SIIAA9 and SIDELLA antagonistically modulate the expression of feedback-regulated genes involved in GA and auxin metabolism, whereas SIARF7/SIIAA9 and SIDELLA coregulate the expression of fruit growth-related genes. Analysis of *procera* (*della*), *SIARF7 RNAi* (with downregulated expression of multiple activator *SIARFs*), and *entire* (*iaa9*) single and double mutants indicated that these genes additively affect parthenocarpy, supporting the notion that the SIARFs/SIIAA9 and SIDELLA interaction plays an important role in regulating fruit initiation. Analysis of the GA-deficient mutant *gib1* showed that active GA biosynthesis and signaling are required for auxin-induced fruit initiation. Our study reveals how direct crosstalk between auxin- and GA-signaling components is critical for tomato fruit initiation.

Fruit development is an important reproductive process in angiosperms (Gillaspy et al., 1993). Fruits are derived from ovaries, whose default fate is senescence. Only upon successful pollination and fertilization can an ovary develop into a fruit; this process is called fruit initiation or fruit set. In general, fruit development starts with extensive cell division, followed by cell expansion to provide a suitable environment for maturation of the developing seeds inside the fruit (Gillaspy et al., 1993; Ruan et al., 2012). Plant hormones play pivotal roles in fruit development. In particular, auxin and gibberellin (GA) are the major hormones that promote fruit initiation and subsequent growth to enable full-size fruit production (Srivastava and Handa, 2005; Ruan et al., 2012; Seymour et al., 2013). The current model suggests that both auxin and GA are produced in young seeds immediately after fertilization to promote the fruit initiation process. Importantly, the application of either hormone can trigger parthenocarpy (formation of seedless fruit from an unpollinated ovary) in the absence of fertilization, indicating that the activation of auxin or GA signaling is required for fruit initiation (Gorguet et al., 2005). Parthenocarpy is a desirable agronomic trait that uncouples fruit development from the requirement for fertilization, creating seedless fruits that are often preferred by consumers. Auxin and GA are also involved in postfertilization

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fruit growth, with distinct functions; in general, auxin promotes cell division and GA functions in later cell expansion (Serrani et al., 2007).

In recent years, the molecular mechanisms of the early auxin and GA signaling cascades have been well characterized, particularly in Arabidopsis thaliana and rice (Oryza sativa); these mechanisms are conserved in angiosperms. Auxin activates its signaling pathway by binding to its nucleus-localized receptors TIR1/ AFBs, which are F-box proteins (subunits of an SCF ubiquitin E3 ligase) that recruit downstream repressors AUX/IAA (IAA) proteins for polyubiquitination and subsequent degradation by the 26S proteasome (Dharmasiri et al., 2005; Kepinski and Leyser, 2005; Mockaitis and Estelle, 2008; Salehin et al., 2015). In the absence of auxin, IAA proteins bind to AUXIN RESPONSE FACTOR (ARF) transcription factors to repress auxin signaling. When auxin levels are elevated, auxin induces the rapid degradation of IAA proteins, allowing ARF monomers and/or dimers to activate auxin-responsive genes (Guilfoyle and Hagen, 2007; Guilfoyle, 2015; Salehin et al., 2015). Both IAAs and ARFs belong to large gene families, adding more layers of regulation and complexity to auxin signaling. Several members of the IAA and ARF families have been shown to function in fruit development. In tomato (Solanum lycopersicum), a model plant for fleshy fruit development, the SIIAA9 loss-of-function mutant entire (Zhang et al., 2007) and antisense lines (Wang et al., 2005) showed strong parthenocarpy, indicating its function as a repressor of tomato fruit set. Downregulation of SIARF7 by RNAi also confers parthenocarpy (de Jong et al., 2009). In addition, a loss-of-function mutation in Arabidopsis ARF8 results in a parthenocarpic-fruit

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phenotype (Goetz et al., 2006). Similarly, downregulation of the eggplant ARF8 (SmARF8) by RNAi causes parthenocarpy (Du et al., 2016). Interestingly, overexpression of SmARF8 in Arabidopsis also promotes parthenocarpy (Du et al., 2016). These reports suggest that auxin-signaling components interact to regulate fruit set. Similar to auxin signaling, the GA response pathway is negatively regulated by its central repressors DELLA proteins, which are nucleus-localized transcriptional regulators (Peng et al., 1997; Silverstone et al., 1998; Sun, 2010; Davière and Achard, 2016). Binding of bioactive GA to its nuclear receptor GIBBERELLIN INSENSITIVE DWARF1 (GID1) enhances the GID1-DELLA interaction, resulting in rapid degradation of DELLAs via the ubiquitin-proteasome pathway, thus releasing growth repression imposed by DELLAs (McGinnis et al., 2003; Ueguchi-Tanaka et al., 2005; Murase et al., 2008). Arabidopsis contains five DELLA genes: the quadruple mutant (with functional RGL3 and no other functional DELLA genes) and the guintuple della (global) mutant show equally strong parthenocarpy, indicating that RGA, GA INSENSITIVE, RGL1, and RGL2 play major roles in this process (Dorcey et al., 2009; Fuentes et al., 2012). Similarly, in tomato, mutations and RNAi downregulation of the only SIDELLA gene (PROCERA) cause parthenocarpy (Martí et al., 2007; Carrera et al., 2012; Livne et al., 2015), confirming that PROCERA is a repressor of fruit initiation.

The elucidation of auxin and GA signaling cascades has greatly facilitated investigations of how these hormones coordinate with each other to regulate fruit development. The current model (based on studies in several organisms) suggests that auxin acts upstream of GA during fruit development (Serrani et al., 2008; Dorcey et al., 2009; Ozga et al., 2009). In Arabidopsis, the fertilization-induced auxin response or auxin application triggers GA biosynthesis, whereas GA application does not induce the auxin response (Dorcey et al., 2009). In addition, auxin treatment of the della global mutant does not further stimulate its parthenocarpy, implying that in Arabidopsis, auxin-induced parthenocarpy occurs entirely through DELLA-dependent GA signaling (Fuentes et al., 2012). In tomato, parthenocarpic induction by auxin is also mediated at least partially by GA, as cotreatment with paclobutrazol (PAC; an inhibitor of GA biosynthesis) and auxin greatly reduces parthenocarpy, which can be reversed by coapplication with GA (Serrani et al., 2008). In addition, bioactive GA levels are elevated in auxin (treatment or iaa9/entire)induced parthenocarpic fruits due to increased expression of GA biosynthesis genes and reduced expression of GA catabolism genes (Serrani et al., 2008; Mignolli et al., 2015). Therefore, it was suggested that auxin induces fruit initiation in part through the induction of GA biosynthesis. Auxin and GA are thought to play distinct roles in postinitiation fruit growth, because auxin- and GA-induced parthenocarpic fruits have different morphologies (Serrani et al., 2007). Auxin increases fruit size by increasing the number of pericarp cell layers and enlarging the placenta. GA treatment only induces the formation of medium-size fruit with larger cells but fewer cell layers. Simultaneous application of both hormones can promote parthenocarpy, yielding fruit with a size and cellular structure similar to those of pollinated fruit. Overall, these studies point to a possible mechanism in which auxin acts upstream of GA during fruit initiation, while these two hormones might play diverse roles during fruit growth.

In addition to the current model of auxin acting upstream of GA, evidence suggesting direct crosstalk between auxin and GA signaling pathways has emerged in recent years. RGA (a major Arabidopsis DELLA) was recently shown to interact with three activator ARFs (AtARF6, AtARF7, and AtARF8) by yeast two-hybrid (Y2H) assays and coimmunoprecipitation (co-IP) (Oh et al., 2014). Through this interaction, RGA appears to inhibit the binding of AtARF6 to the promoters of its target genes that function in hypocotyl elongation (Oh et al., 2014). However, the effect of the DELLA-ARF interaction in planta has not been confirmed by genetic analysis.

In this study, we report that GA and auxin regulate tomato fruit initiation through crosstalk between SIDELLA and SIARF7/ SIIAA9. Y2H and co-IP assays revealed that SIARF7 and additional activator SIARFs bind to SIDELLA and SIIAA9 through distinct domains. RT-qPCR and transient expression analyses showed that the SIARF7/SIIAA9 complex and SIDELLA antagonistically regulate the expression of feedback-regulated genes involved in auxin and GA metabolism. By contrast, the SIARF7/ SIIAA9 complex and SIDELLA additively coregulate the expression of downstream growth-related genes. To investigate the effect of the DELLA-ARF7/IAA9 interaction in planta, we generated double mutants using procera, SIARF7 RNAi, and entire (iaa9) mutants. Phenotype and expression analysis indicated that these mutations additively affect parthenocarpic fruit development. Moreover, auxin application and ARF7 RNAi/iaa9 mutations failed to promote parthenocarpy in the GA-deficient gib1 mutant, indicating that active GA biosynthesis and signaling are required for auxin-induced fruit initiation. Genetic analysis of slarf7 and slarf5 single and double mutants showed that the parthenocarpic phenotype of the SIARF7 RNAi line is caused by downregulation of multiple activator SIARFs. Overall, our study reveals a mechanism in which direct crosstalk between auxin and GA signaling controls tomato fruit initiation.

RESULTS

GA Signaling Repressor SIDELLA Interacts with Auxin Signaling Transcription Factor SIARFs

Previous studies have shown that both SIARF7 and SIDELLA affect tomato fruit initiation (Martí et al., 2007; de Jong et al., 2009). We hypothesized that SIARF7 and SIDELLA mediate crosstalk between GA and auxin signaling during fruit development. To test whether SIARF7 and SIDELLA directly interact, we performed a Y2H assay. A truncated SIDELLA construct (DELLA-CT3, encoding the C-terminal portion of SIDELLA from amino acid residues 166-588) was used as the bait because full-length SIDELLA alone can activate the reporter genes in Y2H assays. We found that SIDELLA indeed interacted with SIARF7 in this assay (Figure 1A). We then tested whether this interaction occurs in plant cells by co-IP using the transient expression system in wild tobacco (Nicotiana benthamiana). HA-SIDELLA was transiently expressed alone or coexpressed with Myc-SIARF7 or Myc-GUS-NLS (as a negative control). After IP using anti-Myc antibody-conjugated beads, HA-SIDELLA was coimmunoprecipitated



Figure 1. SIARF7 Interacts with SIDELLA and SIIAA9 through Distinct Domains.

(A) Y2H assay showing that SIDELLA directly interacts with SIARF7.

(B) Co-IP of transiently expressed HA-SIDELLA with Myc-SIARF7 or Myc-GUS in *N. benthamiana*. Protein extracts were immunoprecipitated with anti-Myc antibody-conjugated agarose beads. Immunoblot analysis was performed using anti-Myc or anti-HA antibodies. Red asterisk marks the full-length Myc-ARF7, and lower bands are truncated Myc-ARF7.

(C) Y2H assay showing that SIIAA9 interacts with SIARF7, but not with SIDELLA.

(D) DELLA and IAA9 do not compete for binding with ARF7 in a Y3H assay.

(E) Diagram of the full-length and various truncated forms of SIARF7 used in (F). DD, dimerization domain; DBD, DNA binding domain; AD, activation domain; PB1, Aux/IAA binding domain. Numbers refer to amino acids.

(F) SIDELLA and SIIAA9 bind to different regions of SIARF7 in a Y2H assay.

(G) Y3H assay showing that DELLA and IAA9 do not interfere with ARF7 dimerization.

In (A), (C), and (F), +His, synthetic medium minus tryptophan and leucine; -His, synthetic medium minus tryptophan, leucine, and histidine, supplemented with 10, 50, 75, or 100 mM 3-AT, as labeled. In (D) and (G), +His and -His media are the same as indicated above, except that uracil was not included in these media. In (A), (D), and (F), DELLA-CT3 (amino acid residues 166–588) was used as the bait. only when coexpressed with Myc-SIARF7, but not with Myc-GUS or when expressed alone (Figure 1B), thus confirming that SIDELLA and SIARF7 interact in planta.

ARFs, especially the activator subgroup, are known to interact with IAA proteins through their C-terminal PB1 (Phox and Bem1) domains (Vernoux et al., 2011). SIARF7 belongs to the activator subgroup of ARFs. Therefore, we examined whether SIARF7 interacts with SIIAA9, which has been shown to inhibit fruit initiation (Wang et al., 2005). As shown in Figure 1C, SIARF7 interacted strongly with SIIAA9 in a Y2H assay, whereas SIDELLA did not. Furthermore, we performed a yeast three-hybrid (Y3H) assay to test whether SIDELLA and SIIAA9 compete for binding to SIARF7. Neither SIDELLA nor SIIAA9 interfered with the SIARF7-SIIAA9 or SIARF7-SIDELLA interaction, respectively (Figure 1D). These results suggest that SIDELLA and SIIAA9 interact with different regions of SIARF7. To verify this notion, we identified DELLA-interaction domain in SIARF7 using a series of SIARF7 truncation constructs in Y2H assays. As shown in Figures 1E and 1F, amino acid residues 375 to 492 of SIARF7 (ARF7-MR2) are responsible for interacting with DELLA. This region is highly variable among ARFs and is mostly located within the activator/repressor domains (Guilfoyle and Hagen, 2007; Chapman and Estelle, 2009). As expected, the conserved C-terminal PB1 domain of ARF7 (in ARF7-CT3, amino acids 1000-1137) is responsible for binding to IAA9 (Figures 1E and 1F). A recent report revealed a second dimerization domain in ARFs for ARF homodimer formation: this domain flanks the N-terminal DNA binding domain (Boer et al., 2014). Interestingly, the SIDELLA interaction domain in SIARF7 is near this N-terminal ARF dimerization domain (Figure 1E). We therefore tested whether SIDELLA interferes with ARF7 self-dimerization by Y3H assays, using an ARF7-NT1 construct as the bait. Consistent with previous findings (Boer et al., 2014), SIARF7 self-dimerized through its Nterminal region (Figure 1G). However, neither SIDELLA nor SIIAA9 affected SIARF7 self-dimerization in this assay. These results indicate that SIDELLA and SIIAA9 interact with SIARF7 through distinct regions.

Besides *SIARF7*, the tomato genome contains seven additional activator *ARF* genes. However, the available *SIARF6A* sequence only contains a partial coding sequence, and *SIARF6B* is predicted to encode a truncated protein (Zouine et al., 2014). We tested the five remaining SIARFs (i.e., SIARF5, SIARF8A, SIARF8B, SIARF19A, and SIARF19B) by Y2H assays and showed that all of them interacted with SIDELLA and SIIAA9 (Figure 2A). We adopted the same *SIARF* gene names listed in Zouine et al. (2014), with the exception of *SIARF7* and *SIARF19A/19B*, which were designated *SIARF19* and *SIARF7A/7B*, respectively, in this 2014 report. This is because earlier publications by de Jong et al. (2009) 2011) 2011) already used *SIARF7* for Solyc07g042260.

As described above, neither SIDELLA nor SIIAA9 affected SIARF7 homodimerization in the Y3H assays. Based on sequence homology of their dimerization domains, ARFs were proposed to form heterodimers as well (Boer et al., 2014). We tested whether SIDELLA or SIIAA9 would interfere with ARF heterodimer formation. In a Y3H assay, we found that SIARF7-NT1 formed heterodimers with SIARF8A, SIARF8B, and SIARF19B, respectively. However, coexpression of SIDELLA or SIIAA9 had little effect on these interactions (Supplemental Figure 1).

Downregulation of Multiple Activator *SIARFs* Leads to a Parthenocarpic Phenotype in the *SIARF7 RNAi* Line

Absolute RT-qPCR analysis showed that all activator SIARFs were expressed in ovaries around anthesis and that SIARF5, SIARF8A, and SIARF8B were expressed at higher levels than SIARF7 (Figure 2B; Supplemental Figure 2). However, only SIARF5 displayed similar temporal expression patterns to those of SIARF7: Both SIARF5 and SIARF7 were induced at anthesis (0 d after anthesis [DAA]) and downregulated at 3 DAA. We tested whether any of these SIARFs (besides SIARF7) are downregulated in a previously generated SIARF7 RNAi transgenic line (de Jong et al., 2009). As shown in Figure 2C, the mRNA levels of SIARF5, SIARF7, and SIARF8B in 0 DAA ovaries were reduced 40 to 60% in the SIARF7 RNAi line compared with the wild type, whereas the expression of the other activator SIARFs was not significantly altered. We also analyzed the expression of nine repressor SIARFs (ARF1, ARF2A, ARF2B, ARF3, ARF4, ARF9A, ARF10A, ARF16A, and ARF24) that are expressed in 0 DAA wild-type ovaries (http://tomexpress.toulouse.inra.fr/). None of these repressor SIARFs showed reduced expression in the SIARF7 RNAi line compared with the wild type (Figure 2D). Taken together, the fruit development phenotypes observed in this SIARF7 RNAi line are likely caused by the downregulation of SIARF7, SIARF5, and SIARF8B.

To verify the idea that parthenocarpy in the SIARF7 RNAi line is caused by the simultaneous downregulation of multiple activator SIARFs, we generated an SIARF7 null mutant (CRslarf7) by CRISPR-Cas9, as well as an SIARF5 null mutant (slarf5-1, also named slmp-1 because SIARF5 is most similar to AtARF5=AtMP) in the M82 cultivar background. The CRslarf7 allele contains a 107-bp deletion (nucleotides 92-198 downstream of the translational start site) in SIARF7 that leads to an early stop codon after nucleotide 99. The slarf5-1 allele was identified in an EMS population. This mutant contains a C-to-T (GIn-to-Stop) substitution at nucleotide 754 of the open reading frame downstream of the translational start site, within exon 8. As the slarf5-1 mutant displayed severe defects in flower development, only the heterozygous mutant (slarf5/+) was used to test the parthenocarpic phenotype. We also generated a double mutant that is homozygous for CR-slarf7 and heterozygous for slarf5-1 (arf7 arf5/+) by genetic crosses. The single mutants slarf7 and slarf5/+ and the double mutant arf7 arf5/+ showed normal fruit growth compared with the wild type (Figure 2E). Neither single mutant produced parthenocarpic fruits from emasculated flowers, whereas the double mutant arf7 arf5/+ developed parthenocarpy after emasculation (Figures 2E to 2G), indicating that both SIARF5 and SIARF7 are involved in fruit initiation. However, the CR-slarf7 slarf5/+ double mutant produced parthenocarpic fruits at a lower frequency than the ARF7 RNAi line. These results suggest that the parthenocarpic phenotype of the SIARF7 RNAi line is caused by downregulation of multiple activator SIARFs. The SIARF7 RNAi line, with its clear parthenocarpic phenotype, represents a valuable tool for studying the role of the SIDELLA-SIARF interaction in fruit set.



Figure 2. Several Activator SIARFs Likely Function in Fruit Set.

(A) Activator SIARFs interact with SIDELLA and SIIAA9 in a Y2H assay. DELLA-CT3 (amino acid residues 166–588) was used as the bait. +His, synthetic medium minus tryptophan and leucine; –His, synthetic medium minus tryptophan, leucine, and histidine.

(B) Temporal expression patterns of activator SIARFs in ovaries around anthesis. Absolute transcript levels of activator SIARFs in wild-type (MM) ovaries from -2 to +3 DAA.

(C) Absolute transcript levels of activator *SIARFs* in 0 DAA ovaries of the wild type and the *SIARF7 RNAi* line. The mRNA levels in (B) and (C) were calculated using standard curves (Supplemental Figure 2) and are shown as the number of copies of *SIARF* cDNA per 2 × 10² and 10² copies of *SIUBQ7*, respectively.

(D) Repressor *SIARFs* are not downregulated in the *SIARF7 RNAi* line. Relative repressor *SIARF* mRNA levels in wild-type or *ARF7 RNAi* 0 DAA ovaries were determined by RT-qPCR analysis. *SIUBQ7* was used to normalize different samples. The level of each repressor *SIARF* in the wild type was set to 1. In (B) to (D), means \pm se of three biological replicates from independent pools of tissues (two technical repeats each) are shown. *P < 0.05 and **P < 0.01. (E) to (G) The *CR-slarf7 slarf5/+* double mutant produces parthenocarpic fruits. In (E), photographs were taken 4 weeks after pollination (P) or emasculation (E). Bar = 1 cm. In (F), parthenocarpy efficiency was calculated as percentage of parthenocarpic fruits that developed from emasculated flowers. In (G), average sizes of fruits from pollinated and emasculated wild-type and mutant flowers are shown. In (F) and (G), means \pm se from three biological repeats (sampled at different times). *n* = 21 to 85 for each line. Different letters above bars represent significant differences among emasculated lines, P < 0.01.

SIDELLA and SIARF7/SIIAA9 Antagonistically Regulate the Expression of GA/Auxin Feedback-Regulated Genes

Our finding that SIDELLA directly interacts with the activator SIARFs suggests that these key regulatory proteins may coordinate GA and auxin signaling activity during fruit initiation and development. In the rest of this report, we mainly focused on the interaction between SIARF7 and SIDELLA. To investigate whether and how the SIDELLA-SIARF7 interaction controls the expression of common target genes, we analyzed the transcript levels of early GA-responsive genes (*SIGA200x1* and *SIGA30x1*; Serrani et al., 2008) and auxin-responsive genes (*SIGH3.2*; Kumar et al., 2012) in

ovaries of wild-type tomato flowers at -1 DAA. These genes were chosen because they are likely the direct targets of SIDELLA and/ or SIARFs. The use of -1 DAA ovaries allowed us to examine the effects of auxin and GA on the expression of these genes. Flower morphology around anthesis is shown in Figure 3A. *SIGA20ox1*, *SIGA30x1*, and *SIGH3.2* were repressed by GA application compared with mock treatment (Figure 3B). By contrast, treatment with 2,4-D (a synthetic auxin analog) induced the expression of all three genes (Figure 3C). To test whether *GA200x1*, *GA30x1*, and *GH3.2* are common targets of DELLA/ARF7-IAA9 during early GA/auxin signaling, we examined the expression of these genes in loss of function or reduced expression mutants of *SIDELLA*, *SIARF7*, and *SIIAA9*. Consistently, *GA20ox1*, *GA3ox1*, and *GH3.2* expression was reduced in *procera* (*pro*; a *SIDELLA* loss-of-function mutant) but increased in the *SIARF7* RNA*i* line and *entire* (*SIIAA9* loss-of-function mutant) compared with the wild type (Figures 3D and 3E), indicating that SIDELLA activates the expression of these genes while SIARF7 and SIIAA9 repress their expression. GH3.2 belongs



Figure 3. SIDELLA and SIARF7/SIIAA9 Antagonistically Regulate GA- and Auxin-Feedback-Regulated Genes.

(A) Wild-type flower morphology around anthesis is similar to that described previously (Brukhin et al., 2003). Flowers were harvested from wild-type plants at different developmental stages without further manipulation. Bar = 1 cm.

(B) to (E) Relative mRNA levels in -1 DAA ovaries, as determined by RT-qPCR analysis. The housekeeping gene, *SIUBQ7*, was used to normalize different samples. Means \pm sE of three biological replicates from independent pools of tissues (two technical repeats each) are shown. The level in mock treatment ([B] and [C]) or the wild type ([D] and [E]) was set to 1. *P < 0.05 and **P < 0.01. In (B) and (C), -1 DAA ovaries of emasculated flowers were treated with hormone or mock treated.

(B) and (D) GA biosynthetic genes (GA200x1 and GA30x1) and amino acid-auxin conjugating gene (GH3.2) were repressed after 6 h GA₃ treatment and in the pro mutant (compared with that in the wild type).

(C) and (E) GA200x1, GA30x1, and GH3.2 were induced after 6 h 2,4-D treatment (C) and in elevated auxin-signaling mutants ARF7 RNAi and entire (iaa9) (E).

(F) to (H) Dual luciferase assay in the *N. benthamiana* transient expression system showing that SIDELLA and SIARF7/SIIAA9 antagonistically regulate the expression of *GA20ox1* (F), *GA3ox1* (G), and *GH3.2* (H). Means \pm se of nine biological replicates are shown. Different letters above the bars represent significant differences (P < 0.01). The reporter constructs contained the 2.5-kb *GA20ox1* promoter (F), 2.4-kb *GA3ox1* promoter (G), and 2.5-kb *GH3.2* promoter (H) fused to the *fLUC* coding sequence. Effector constructs used in each assay are as labeled, and the empty effector construct was included as a negative control.





(A) Diagrams of the SIGA200x1, SIGA30x1, and SIGH3.2 promoters. qPCR amplicons for ChIP-qPCR are depicted as short lines under the promoters. The downward arrow points to the position of the canonical AuxRE (TGTC) elements in these promoters. The bent arrow indicates translational start sites.

to group II of the GH3 protein family; some group II members in Arabidopsis and rice are auxin-amino acid conjugating enzymes that convert auxin to an inactivate form (Staswick et al., 2005; Park et al., 2007). Thus, our result suggests that GA may regulate auxin homeostasis through GH3.2. However, some members of the GH3 family conjugate amino acids to jasmonic acid or salicylic acid instead of auxin (Staswick et al., 2002). To investigate whether auxin can serve as a substrate for GH3.2, we performed an in vitro enzyme assay using GST-GH3.2 protein produced in *Escherichia coli*. As shown in Supplemental Figure 3, GST-GH3.2 conjugated aspartic acid to IAA, but GST alone did not, suggesting that GH3.2 is an auxin-amino acid conjugating enzyme.

Because the transcript levels of SIGA20ox1, SIGA3ox1, and SIGH3.2 in -1 DAA ovaries were reduced in pro compared with the wild type and increased in SIARF7 RNAi and entire (Figures 3D and 3E), we hypothesized that the SIARF7-SIIAA9 complex represses the transcription of SIGA200x1, SIGA30x1, and SIGH3.2, whereas SIDELLA induces the expression of these genes by interacting with SIARF7. In the absence of SIIAA9, SIARF7 may act as a transcriptional activator either as a homodimer or heterodimer with other ARFs, as it contains a glutamine-rich sequence and is predicted to be a transcriptional activator (de Jong et al., 2009). To test this possibility, SIDELLA, SIARF7, and SIIAA9 were transiently expressed alone or coexpressed in N. benthamiana leaves by agroinfiltration to determine whether they compete to modulate the transcription of SIGA200x1, SIGA30x1, and SIGH3.2 using a dual luciferase (LUC) reporter assay. The reporter constructs contained promoter sequences of GA20ox1, GA3ox1, and GH3.2, which were fused to the firefly LUC gene (fLUC). The Pro355: Renilla LUC (rLUC) construct was used as an internal standard. Three effectors, Pro355: SIDELLA, Pro355: SIARF7, and Pro355: SIIAA9, were included in the assays. As shown in Figures 3F to 3H, SIDELLA alone induced transcription of these target genes, while SIIAA9 repressed their transcription, which is consistent with the above in vivo expression data. SIARF7 alone did not alter the expression of these three genes. However, when combined with SIIAA9, SIARF7 caused further repression of the target genes compared with SIIAA9 alone (Figures 3F to 3H), suggesting that SIARF7 may recruit SIIAA9 to these promoters for transcriptional repression. Coexpression of SIDELLA with SIARF7 and SIIAA9 resulted in intermediate fLUC activity (lower than that in the SIDELLA alone sample, but higher than the SIARF7/SIIAA9 sample). These results strongly suggest that through an interaction with SIARF7, SIDELLA antagonizes the repressive effect of SIARF7/SIIAA9 on

these target genes, which are under feedback regulation and are important for GA and auxin homeostasis.

We then performed chromatin immunoprecipitation-quantitative PCR (ChIP-gPCR) to determine whether SIDELLA and SIARF7 bind directly to the promoters of these feedback-regulated target genes in vivo. For ChIP of SIDELLA binding sites, we generated a transgenic tomato line containing Prosidella: FLAG-SIDELLA in the pro mutant background. In this line, the FLAG-SIDELLA fusion protein is functional as it rescued the overall phenotypes of pro, including stem growth, leaf shape, and fruit development (Supplemental Figures 4A to 4D). In addition, FLAG-SIDELLA is responsive to GA-induced degradation (Supplemental Figure 4E). Using -1 DAA ovaries from the FLAG-SIDELLA line, cross-linked chromatin was pulled down using anti-FLAG beads, and gPCR was performed on several primer pairs that span the promoter region of each feedback-regulated target gene (Figure 4A). SIUBQ7 was used to normalize the qPCR results in each ChIP sample. A 1.8- to 2.8-fold enrichment was observed for promoter sequences of GA20ox1, GA3ox1, and GH3.2 (Figure 4B). To test whether SIARF7 also binds to these promoters, we transiently expressed a Myc-SIARF7 construct in developing tomato fruits by agroinfiltration because the stable transgenic line was not available. When we performed ChIP using anti-Myc beads, a 2.8- to 3.7-fold enrichment of promoter sequences of these target genes was observed by gPCR (Figure 4C). These results indicate that both SIDELLA and SIARF7 directly associate with the promoters of these target genes.

To examine whether SIDELLA interferes with the binding of SIARF7 to the promoters of these feedback-regulated genes, we pretreated wild-type plants with PAC for 2 weeks and transiently expressed Myc-SIARF7 in developing fruits, followed by GA or mock treatment. Immunoblot analysis indicated that SIDELLA protein levels were enhanced by PAC and that GA treatment dramatically reduced SIDELLA protein levels (Supplemental Figure 5). ChIP-qPCR showed that GA treatment slightly increased SIARF7 binding to GA20ox1 and GH3.2 promoters compared with the mock-treated control (Figure 4D). These results suggest that the SIDELLA-SIARF7 interaction inhibits the binding of SIARF7 to these target promoters. On the other hand, when transiently expressed in fruits of the wild type or SIARF7 RNAi, Myc-DELLA protein bound to its feedback-regulated target genes to similar levels in these plants, as shown by ChIP-gPCR (Figure 4E). These results suggest that the reduced SIARF7 level in SIARF7 RNAi had no obvious effect on the association of DELLA with its target promoters.

Figure 4. (continued).

⁽B) SIDELLA binds to the promoter regions of GA200x1, GA30x1, and GH3.2 in vivo. Chromatin isolated from cross-linked –1 DAA ovaries of the *Pro*_{SIDFLA}:FLAG-SIDELLA transgenic tomato line was immunoprecipitated using anti-FLAG antibodies followed by qPCR.

⁽C) Myc-SIARF7 binds to GA and auxin feedback-regulated genes, as determined by ChIP-qPCR. *Pro*₃₅₅:*Myc-SIARF7* was transiently expressed in tomato fruits by agroinfiltration, and ChIP was performed using anti-Myc antibodies followed by qPCR.

⁽D) ChIP-qPCR analysis showing that GA treatment enhances SIARF7 binding to the GA20ox1 and GH3.2 promoters, presumably due to reduced DELLA protein levels. Myc-ARF7 was transiently expressed as in (C).

⁽E) Myc-SIDELLA transiently expressed in the wild type or the SIARF7 RNAi line shows equal binding to the promoters of feedback-regulated genes, as determined by ChIP-qPCR analysis.

In (B) to (E), the relative enrichment was calculated by normalizing against ChIP-qPCR of nontransgenic control samples using *SIUBQ7*. The normalized values of fold enrichment are the average \pm se of three biological replicates from independent pools of tissues. *P < 0.05 and **P < 0.01.



Figure 5. SIDELLA and SIARF7/SIIAA9 Have Similar Effects on Their Direct Downstream Target Genes, EXP5 and ACO4.

(A) and (B) Relative mRNA levels in –1 DAA ovaries, as determined by RT-qPCR analysis. The housekeeping gene, *SIUBQ7*, was used to normalize different samples. Means \pm sE of three biological replicates (two technical repeats each) are shown. The level in mock treatment (A) or the wild type (B) was set to 1. *P < 0.05 and **P < 0.01. *EXP5* was induced after 6 h GA₃ or 2,4-D treatment (A) and in the *pro*, *ARF7 RNAi*, and *entire* (*iaa9*) mutants ([B]; compared with that in the wild type). By contrast, *ACO4* was repressed by GA₃ or 2,4-D treatment (A) and in *pro*, *ARF7 RNAi*, and *entire* (*iaa9*) mutants (B).

(C) Diagrams of the SIEXP5 and SIACO4 promoters. qPCR amplicons for ChIP-qPCR are labeled as short lines under each diagram. The downward arrow points to the position of the canonical AuxRE (TGTC) elements in these promoters. The bent arrow indicates translational start sites.

(D) SIDELLA binds to the promoter regions of *EXP5* and *ACO4* in vivo, as revealed by ChIP-qPCR analysis. Chromatin isolated from cross-linked –1 DAA ovaries of the *Pro_{SIDELLA}:FLAG-SIDELLA* tomato line was immunoprecipitated using anti-FLAG antibodies followed by qPCR.

(E) Binding of transiently expressed Myc-SIARF7 to *EXP5* and *ACO4*, as determined by ChIP-qPCR. *Pro₃₅₅:Myc-SIARF7* was transiently expressed in tomato fruits by agroinfiltration, and ChIP was performed using anti-Myc antibodies followed by qPCR.

(F) Myc-SIDELLA transiently expressed in the wild type or the SIARF7 RNAi line shows equal binding to the promoters of downstream target genes, as determined by ChIP-qPCR analysis.

(G) ChIP-qPCR analysis showing that GA treatment reduces SIARF7 binding to the *EXP5* and *ACO4* promoters, presumably due to reduced DELLA protein levels. Myc-ARF7 was transiently expressed as in (E).

In (D) to (G), the relative enrichment was calculated by normalizing against ChIP-qPCR of nontransgenic control samples using *SIUBQ7*. The normalized values of fold enrichment are the average \pm se of three biological replicates from independent pools of tissues. *P < 0.05 and **P < 0.01.

SIDELLA and SIARF7/SIIAA9 Coregulate Downstream Target Genes in Developing Fruits

Although SIDELLA and SIARF7/SIIAA9 play opposite roles in modulating the expression of feedback-regulated genes involved in GA and auxin metabolism, mutations in *SIIAA9* and *SIDELLA*, as well as the downregulation of *SIARF7* together with additional related ARF genes, lead to fertilization-independent fruit initiation. Therefore, it is possible that SIDELLA and SIARF7/SIIAA9 coregulate common downstream target genes that control fruit initiation in response to GA and auxin signals. Tang et al. (2015) performed transcriptome profiling of GA- and auxin

induced parthenocarpic tomato fruit at 4 d after hormone treatments. Importantly, the expression of a number of genes is regulated similarly by both hormones, making them candidates for early fruit development genes that are coregulated by SIDELLA and SIARF7/SIIAA9. To test this idea, we analyzed the expression of 14 selected genes in –1 DAA wild-type ovaries to determine whether they are coregulated by GA and auxin at 6 and 24 h after treatment (Supplemental Figure 6). Among these, 10 genes, including *EXPANSIN5* (*EXP5*, Solyc02g088100) and *ACC OXIDASE4* (*ACO4*, Solyc02g081190), were coregulated by GA and auxin at these early time points. *EXP5* likely promotes cell expansion during fruit development. *ACO4* is an



Figure 6. SIDELLA, SIARF7, and SIIAA9 Additively Repress Fruit Initiation and Growth.

(A) and (B) Parthenocarpic growth in *pro*, *entire*, and *ARF7 RNAi* single and double mutants. WT cv. AC, Ailsa Craig; MM, Moneymaker; AC/MM, AC/MM hybrid. Photographs were taken 4 weeks after pollination (P) or emasculation (E). Pericarp (PC), locule tissue (LT), seed (S), placenta (PI), and columella (C). Bars = 1 cm in (A) and 0.5 cm in (B).

(C) Average sizes of fruits from pollinated and emasculated wild-type and mutant flowers. Means \pm se (n = 26-32 for pollinated fruits; 17–20 for parthenocarpic fruits). Different letters above bars represent significant differences among parthenocarpic fruits, P < 0.01.

(D) Parthenocarpy efficiency as calculated by percentage of parthenocarpic fruits that developed from emasculated flowers. Means \pm sE. n = 18 to 28 for most lines, but n = 41 to 50 for mutants with low parthenocarpy efficiency, including *ARF7 RNAi*, *entire*, and *e ARF7i*. Different letters above bars represent significant differences, P < 0.05.

(E) and (F) Transcript levels of EXP5 and ACO4 in -1 DAA ovaries of single and double mutants. Means \pm se of three biological replicates (two technical repeats each) are shown. Different letters above bars represent significant differences (P < 0.01).

ethylene biosynthesis gene, which may regulate fruit set because ethylene inhibits this process (Vriezen et al., 2008; Shinozaki et al., 2015). Figure 5A shows that EXP5 was induced by 6 h of GA and auxin treatment, while ACO4 was repressed by both hormones. Consistently, EXP5 was upregulated in pro, ARF7 RNAi, and entire mutants, while ACO4 was downregulated in all three lines (Figure 5B). Therefore, SIDELLA and SIARF7/SIIAA9 have similar effects on EXP5 and ACO4 expression. ChIP-qPCR analysis showed that both SIDELLA and SIARF7 are associated with the promoters of these two genes in vivo (Figures 5C to 5E), indicating that EXP5 and ACO4 are direct targets of SIDELLA and SIARF7. We then tested whether DELLA levels affect the binding of SIARF7 to these target promoters by ChIP-qPCR analysis. Wild-type plants were pretreated with PAC before Myc-SIARF7 was transiently expressed in developing fruits, followed by GA or mock treatment. ChIP-gPCR analysis showed that SIARF7 displayed slightly reduced binding to the EXP5 and ACO4 promoters in GA-treated sample (Figure 5G), suggesting that the SIARF7-SIDELLA interaction may enhance SIARF7 binding to these target promoters. By contrast, the association of Myc-SIDELLA with these promoters was not affected by reduced levels of activator SIARFs in the SIARF7 RNAi lines compared with that in the wild type (Figure 5F). Thus, the association of SIDELLA with these promoters does not depend on SIARF7.

Additive Interactions among *pro*, *SIARF7 RNAi* (Downregulation of Multiple Activator SIARFs), and *entire* (*iaa9*) Mutations during Parthenocarpic Fruit Development

To further investigate the effects of the SIDELLA and SIARFs/ SIIAA9 interaction on fruit set and growth, we generated double homozygous mutants by genetic crosses using pro, SIARF7 RNAi, and entire mutant lines. The SIARF7 RNAi line was used in this genetic analysis because it displays a clear parthenocarpic fruit phenotype due to the downregulation of several activator SIARFs (SIARF5, SIARF7, and possibly SIARF8B). We compared the fruit phenotypes of these single and double mutants, including fruits produced after self-pollination and parthenocarpic fruits from emasculated flowers, to those of the single mutants and wild-type plants. Because pro and entire are in the Ailsa Craig (AC) background, while the SIARF7 RNAi line is in the Moneymaker (MM) background, we included both the AC and MM cultivars and the hybrid AC/MM (F1 of AC × MM) as wild-type controls in these experiments. The entire (e) and pro mutations in the e pro double mutant displayed additive effects in terms of parthenocarpic fruit development compared with entire and pro single mutants (Figures 6A and 6B). The parthenocarpic fruits (from emasculated flowers) of the e pro double mutant had more advanced fruit structure compared with the other lines, including further developed placenta, locule tissues, and pseudoembryos (Figures 6A and 6B), as well as larger fruit size (Figure 6C). By contrast, SIARF7 RNAi pro (ARF7i pro) and entire SIARF7 RNAi (e ARF7i) double mutants mainly showed additive effects in terms of growth in the placenta and locule tissues (Figures 6A and 6B), with unaltered fruit size (Figure 6C). Nevertheless, when we measured the efficiency of parthenocarpy formation (i.e., percentage of parthenocarpic fruits that formed versus total ovaries emasculated), all three double mutants showed significantly higher efficiency than their corresponding single mutants (Figure 6D). These results, together with our biochemical data, support the notion that crosstalk between GA and auxin occurs during fruit initiation through interactions among SIDELLA, SIARFs, and SIIAA9. Furthermore, we analyzed the expression of their coregulated downstream target genes in the double mutants. In *e pro, EXP5* and *ACO4* were more highly induced or repressed, respectively, than those in the single mutants (Figures 6E and 6F). Overall, the results from double mutant phenotyping and target gene analysis support the idea that the interaction of SIDELLA with SIARFs/SIIAA9 has an important impact on their downstream target genes, as well as fruit set and subsequent growth.

Active GA Biosynthesis and Signaling Is a Prerequisite for Tomato Fruit Initiation

A previous study suggested that auxin induces parthenocarpy in tomato via GA-dependent and -independent pathways (Serrani et al., 2008). This model is based on the observation that treatment with the GA biosynthesis inhibitor, PAC, did not block auxin-induced tomato fruit initiation, but it only partially inhibited parthenocarpic fruit growth (Serrani et al., 2008). However, depending on the treatment conditions, PAC treatment may not completely block GA biosynthesis and could have nonspecific effects. To verify the current model, we used the severe GAdeficient tomato mutant gib1 to test the effect of auxin on parthenocarpy. The gib1 mutant is impaired in the first committed step in GA biosynthesis, which is catalyzed by ent-copalyl diphosphate synthase (Bensen and Zeevaart, 1990). GIB1 has been mapped to chromosome 6 (Koornneef et al., 1990). However, the molecular lesion in the gib1 mutant has not been reported. By performing BLAST searches using the AtCPS protein sequence as a query, we identified Solyc06g084240 as a putative SICPS. This locus is indeed labeled as CPS1 in the Sol Genomics Network website (https://solgenomics.net/). DNA sequence analysis showed that the SICPS cDNA from the gib1 mutant contains a deletion of G at nucleotide 563 (from the ATG start site), which leads to four new amino acids after amino acid 187, followed by a premature stop codon. Further sequencing of the nearby genomic region in gib1 revealed that instead of a deletion, there is a G-to-A mutation at the end of intron 4 (nucleotide 1178 from the start codon). This mutation shifted the intron excision site one nucleotide into exon 5 (from TAG|GAA to TAAG|AA, where | indicates a splicing site). Taken together, we confirmed that gib1 is a loss-offunction allele of SICPS (Solyc06g084240).

Consistent with previous studies (Serrani et al., 2007, 2008), in wild-type plants, GA or auxin treatment of emasculated –1 DAA ovaries promoted seedless fruit growth (Figure 7A). To understand the role of GA in these responses, we tested how –1 DAA *gib1* ovaries respond to GA and 2,4-D treatment after emasculation. As shown in Figures 7B and 7C, 3 weeks after auxin treatment, *gib1* ovaries were the same size as mock-treated ovaries. By contrast, GA treatment dramatically promoted parthenocarpic fruit development in *gib1*. Cross sections of mock- versus auxin-treated *gib1* ovaries showed similar pericarp and placenta structures, further supporting the observation that auxin failed to promote seedless fruit set in *gib1* (Figure 7D). To rule out the



Figure 7. The Induction of Fruit Initiation by Auxin Requires Active GA Signaling.

(A) Parthenocarpy is induced by exogenous application of GA and/or auxin in wild-type -1 DAA ovaries. Photographs were taken 3 weeks after pollination or emasculation + hormone treatment (bar = 1 cm).

(B) to (D) In the GA biosynthetic mutant *gib1*, parthenocarpy is induced by the application of GA₃, but not 2,4-D. –1 DAA ovaries of emasculated flowers were treated with mock solution or hormones as indicated. Three weeks after treatment, photographs of ovaries/fruits were taken (B), average diameters of ovaries were measured (C), and cellular structures were analyzed by cross sectioning (D). Bars = 1 cm in (B) and 100 μ m in (D). In (C), means ± sE (*n* = 16).

(E) to (G) *ARF7i* gib1 and *e* gib1 double mutants are unable to produce parthenocarpic fruits. Flowers were emasculated at –1 DAA. Five weeks after emasculation, photographs were taken ([E]; bar = 5 mm), and fruit diameters were measured (F). In (F), means \pm sE (n = 30), and different letters above bars represent significant differences (P < 0.01). Cellular structures were analyzed by cross sectioning ([G]; bar = 100 μ m).

(H) and (I) In *gib1*, DELLA/ARF7/IAA9 downstream target genes (*EXP5* and *ACO4*) did not respond to 2,4-D treatment (I), while feedback-related genes did. By contrast, all genes responded to GA_3 in the same manner as in the wild type (H). Values are means $\pm sE$ of three biological replicates (two technical repeats each). **P < 0.01.

(J) FLAG-DELLA protein accumulates to a higher level in pro gib1 than in the pro background.

(K) The application of 2,4-D to emasculated -1 DAA ovaries of FLAG-DELLA pro reduced SIDELLA protein levels gradually over a 24-h period. DELLA





(A) Schematic of the GA and auxin pathways. The SIARF7/SIIAA9 complex functions as an auxin signaling repressor complex, and SIDELLA is a GA signaling repressor. These proteins additively inhibit tomato fruit set and fruit development by repressing the expression of growth-related genes (e.g., *EXP5*) and activating ethylene biosynthesis gene (*ACO4*). By contrast, SIARF7/SIIAA9 and SIDELLA antagonistically regulate the expression of feedback-regulated genes, including GA biosynthesis genes (*GA200x1* and *GA30x1*) and auxin deactivation gene (*GH3.2*). Upon pollination, auxin and GA play key roles in fruit set. Auxin levels increase in the fertilized ovule, which in turn induces IAA9 degradation and GA biosynthesis. Elevated GA levels then trigger SIDELLA degradation. Removing both SIDELLA and SIIAA9 promotes fruit set and subsequent development.

(B) Molecular model for the regulation of feedback-regulated genes by SIDELLA and SIARF7/SIIAA9. Feedback-regulated genes involved in GA and auxin metabolism are repressed by the SIARF7/SIIAA9 complex but are induced by SIDELLA. Binding of SIDELLA to SIARF7 may sequester SIARF7 from the target gene promoters. SIDELLA may also recruit unidentified transcription factors (?) to activate transcription of these genes.

(C) Molecular model for the regulation of downstream fruit development-related genes by SIDELLA and SIARF7/SIIAA9. Fruit set and growth-related genes are repressed by the inhibition of SIARF7 activity by SIDELLA and SIIAA9 via direct protein-protein interactions. SIDELLA may also bind to unidentified transcription factor (?), which stabilizes SIARF7 binding to target promoters but inhibits its transactivation activity. Elevated levels of auxin and GA in fertilized ovule can trigger degradation of SIIAA9 and SIDELLA, respectively. This then allows SIARF7 (and additional activator SIARFs) to activate transcription of downstream growth-related genes.

possibility that auxin treatment of *gib1* ovaries was not effective, we generated *ARF7 RNAi gib1* (*ARF7i gib1*) and *entire gib1* (*e gib1*) homozygous double mutants by crosses to test whether enhanced auxin signaling by *ARF7 RNAi* or *entire* can promote parthenocarpy in *gib1*. Emasculation experiments showed no parthenocarpy in these double mutants compared with the *gib1* single mutant (Figures 7E and 7F). *e gib1* consistently produced smaller ovaries than *gib1* and *ARF7i gib1*, likely due to the pleiotropic effects of *entire*. Analysis of cross sections of the double mutant ovaries further confirmed that there was no difference in the number of cell layers or cell size compared with the *gib1* single mutant (Figures 7D and 7G). These results indicate that active GA biosynthesis is required for auxin to trigger fruit initiation and growth. We also tested whether the expression of SIDELLA- and SIARF7/SIIAA9-target genes in *gib1* is responsive to GA and auxin treatment. As expected, both feedback- and growth-related downstream target genes in *gib1* responded to GA treatment in a manner similar to those in the wild type (Figure 7H). On the other hand, upon 2,4-D treatment, only the feedback-regulated genes were still responsive in *gib1*, while the expression of growthrelated downstream genes was unaltered (Figure 7I). Therefore, under GA-deficiency conditions, auxin can still induce the expression of GA biosynthesis genes. However, in the absence of bioactive GA production, growth-related downstream target genes of SIDELLA/SIARF7/SIIAA9 are not responsive to auxin, as their expression is likely blocked by high levels of SIDELLA. To verify this idea, we tested whether SIDELLA protein levels are

Figure 7. (continued).

levels consistently increased 12 h after mock treatment, while GA application caused DELLA degradation in 1 h.

⁽L) 2,4-D and mock treatments of emasculated –1 DAA ovaries of *FLAG-DELLA pro gib1* did not affect DELLA levels over a 24-h period. By contrast, GA still caused the degradation of DELLA, as in *pro*.

In (J) to (L), FLAG-DELLA was detected by immunoblot analysis with anti-FLAG antibody, and blots probed with α-tubulin were included to show equal loading.

affected by auxin in the wild-type GIB1 and gib1 mutant backgrounds. We used FLAG-DELLA transgenic lines, FLAG-DELLA pro and FLAG-DELLA pro gib1, for this analysis because FLAG-DELLA could readily be detected with an anti-FLAG antibody. As expected, FLAG-DELLA protein levels were much higher in pro gib1 mutant than in pro due to the lack of bioactive GA in gib1 (Figure 7J). For both FLAG-DELLA lines, emasculated -1 DAA ovaries were treated with 2,4-D or GA and harvested at different time points, and FLAG-DELLA levels were analyzed by immunoblot analysis. Figure 7K shows that under mock treatment, DELLA protein levels in the FLAG-DELLA pro line increased significantly at 12 h after emasculation and remained high at 24 h. There were no significant changes in the DELLA transcript levels at these time points (Supplemental Figure 7), indicating that the increased DELLA protein accumulation at 12 to 24 h is due to increased DELLA stability caused by the lack of GA production after emasculation. Under 2,4-D treatment, DELLA protein levels greatly decreased 12 h after emasculation and remained low at 24 h (Figure 7K), although its transcript levels remain unaltered (Supplemental Figure 7). In the FLAG-DELLA pro gib1 line, FLAG-DELLA protein levels did not change after emasculation in the mock controls (Figure 7L), likely because FLAG-DELLA protein already accumulated to high levels in the gib1 background due to GA deficiency. Importantly, auxin treatment did not reduce the levels of FLAG-DELLA accumulation in the gib1 background (Figure 7L). GA treatment, which was used as a control, caused rapid degradation of FLAG-DELLA in both the pro and pro gib1 backgrounds (Figures 7K and 7L). These results strongly suggest that auxin-induced tomato fruit initiation requires active GA biosynthesis and signaling to reduce the levels of the major repressor SIDELLA.

DISCUSSION

Our study revealed that SIDELLA and SIARF7/SIIAA9 mediate crosstalk between GA and auxin signaling pathways to regulate fruit initiation in tomato (Figure 8). SIDELLA induces the expression of GA biosynthesis genes (GA20ox1 and GA3ox1) and GH3.2 (encoding an auxin conjugating enzyme), which are known to be feedback-regulated genes by GA and auxin, respectively (Figure 8A). Coexpression of SIARF7 and SIIAA9, however, represses the expression of these feedback-regulated genes. Because SIARF7 and SIIAA9 directly interact, it is likely that the SIARF7/SIIAA9 complex functions as a transcriptional repressor to inhibit the transcription of these feedback-regulated genes (Figures 8A and 8B). Our data also indicate that SIDELLA directly interacts with SIARF7 and other activator SIARFs and that the coexpression of SIDELLA and SIARF7/SIIAA9 antagonistically regulates the feedback-regulated genes involved in GA biosynthesis and auxin deactivation (Figure 8A). ChIP-qPCR analysis indicated that both SIDELLA and SIARF7 associate with chromatin containing the promoters of these feedback-regulated genes. Reduced SIDELLA levels by GA treatment led to slightly increased SIARF7 binding to these feedback-regulated promoters. Therefore, the SIDELLA-SIARF7 interaction may sequester SIARF7 away from these target gene promoters. We also found that SIDELLA binds to the middle region of SIARF7 instead of its DNA binding domain, suggesting that the SIDELLA-SIARF7 interaction may alter the conformation of SIARF7. SIDELLA may also recruit unidentified DNA binding transcription factors to activate the transcription of these genes (Figure 8B); AtDELLAs activate the transcription of GA feedback-regulated genes through direct interactions with the zinc-finger transcription factors, INDETERMINATE DOMAIN family proteins (Fukazawa et al., 2014; Yoshida et al., 2014). A previous study (de Jong et al., 2011) also suggested that SIARF7 affects GA responses, as the morphology of parthenocarpic SIARF7 RNAi fruits was similar to that of GA-induced parthenocarpic fruits, and GA20ox1 mRNA levels were higher in SIARF7 RNAi lines than in the wild type at anthesis. However, at 12 DAA, bioactive GA levels in the pericarps of parthenocarpic fruits of the SIARF7 RNAi lines were lower than those of wild-type fruits (de Jong et al., 2011). At this later stage, the high levels of GAs in wild-type pericarp could be due to the transport of GAs from developing seeds.

In contrast to the antagonistic effects of SIDELLA versus SIARF7/SIIAA9 on feedback-regulated genes, these proteins inhibit the expression of downstream growth-related genes (e.g., EXP5) and induce the expression of ethylene biosynthesis gene ACO4 (Figure 8A), as shown by gene expression (Figures 6E and 6F) and ChIP-qPCR (Figure 5G) analyses. Previous studies have indicated that the activator ARFs function as transcriptional activators when they form ARF-ARF dimers (Ulmasov et al., 1999; Hardtke et al., 2004). We propose that before pollination, SIDELLA and SIIAA9 inhibit the expression of growth-related genes during fruit set by binding to SIARF7 (and other activator SIARFs) (Figure 8C). Interestingly, SIARF7 interacted with SIDELLA and SIIAA9 through distinct regions, and binding of SIDELLA or SIIAA9 did not affect the homodimerization of SIARF7 or its heterodimerization with other activator SIARFs. These results suggest that the binding of SIDELLA and SIIAA9 to activator SIARFs may directly inhibit their activity without interfering with their dimerization. Furthermore, our ChIP-qPCR data suggest that SIDELLA may enhance the binding of SIARF7 to downstream target promoters, whereas the association of SIDELLA with these targets is not affected by reduced levels of SIARFs in the SIARF7 RNAi line. One possibility is that SIDELLA also binds to other unidentified transcription factor(s), which stabilizes the binding of SIARF7 to target promoters but inhibits its transactivation activity (Figure 8C). Upon pollination, SIDELLA and SIIAA9 are degraded under elevated GA and auxin levels. This allows SIARF7 and other activator SIARFs to activate the transcription of the growth-related genes. Using the GA-deficient gib1 mutant, we showed that auxin-induced tomato fruit initiation is GA dependent. In the gib1 mutant background, elevated auxin signaling (via auxin treatment or e mutation) did not remove the high levels of SIDELLA protein. Based on this observation, one may consider that auxin functions upstream of the GA pathway. However, the additive effect of e (iaa9) and pro (della) indicates that both auxin and GA signals are necessary to remove both the auxin signaling repressor (IAA9) and GA signaling repressor (DELLA). Our biochemical and genetic studies provide support for the molecular interaction between GA and auxin pathways during fruit set. Our results help explain why both auxin and GA play important roles in fruit initiation and subsequent growth. Upon fertilization, auxin produced in the tomato ovule induces increased GA biosynthesis, which in turn triggers DELLA degradation. At the same time, auxin induces the degradation of SIIAA9 (and possibly other SIIAAs), which is mediated by auxin receptors. Removing both key repressors (SIIAA and SIDELLA) releases SIARFs, allowing them to activate downstream genes that are important for fruit initiation and fruit growth.

The model presented in Figure 8 is supported by the observation that pro (della), SIARF7 RNAi, and entire (iaa9) have additive effects in promoting parthenocarpic fruit development, as shown by the phenotypes of the single and double mutants. In addition to SIARF7, it is likely that other activator SIARFs also play a role in controlling fruit set. We found that all activator SIARFs were expressed around anthesis, and they interacted with SIDELLA in Y2H assays. A recent study showed that amiRNAinduced downregulation of SIARF5 expression resulted in parthenocarpy (Liu et al., 2018). We also showed that besides SIARF7, SIARF5 and SLARF8B were downregulated in the SIARF7 RNAi line. Moreover, the CR-slarf7 slarf5/+ double mutant, but not its corresponding single mutants, produced parthenocarpic fruits, although at a lower frequency compared with the ARF7 RNAi line (Figures 2F and 6D). In addition, the average parthenocarpic fruit size of this double mutant was much smaller than that of the ARF7 RNAi line (Figure 2G). However, the CR-slarf7 slarf5/+ double mutant and the ARF7 RNAi line are in two different backgrounds (cultivar M82 versus MM), which may also contribute to the differences in their phenotypes. It is possible that SIARF8B also plays a role in fruit set, as this gene is expressed at guite high levels around anthesis and its expression is downregulated in the SIARF7 RNAi line. Taken together, our results support the idea that SIARF5, SIARF7, and additional SIARFs play overlapping roles in the regulation of fruit set. Based on the results of these genetic analyses, it is intriguing that these activator SIARFs appear to inhibit auxininduced parthenocarpy. Considering that SIIAA9 represses auxin signaling by binding to activator ARFs, mutations in SIARF7 and SIARF5 may allow other activator SIARFs to induce downstream target genes more effectively if they have lower affinity to SIIAA9 than SIARF7 and SIARF5. Consistent with this idea, we found that SIARF8A and SIARF8B displayed weaker interactions with SIIAA9 than SIARF5 and SIARF7 in a Y2H assay (Figure 2A). As discussed above, our model also suggests that SIARF7 and other activator SIARFs promote fruit set when SIIAA9 and SIDELLA are degraded in response to elevated auxin and GA levels upon fertilization. The generation and characterization of single and multiple knockdown and knockout lines for additional activator SIARFs should help elucidate the specific and complex roles of individual SIARFs in fruit initiation.

Using the tomato system, we demonstrated that direct crosstalk between GA and auxin signaling pathways plays a role in controlling fruit initiation. Although recent studies in Arabidopsis reported an interaction between DELLA and ARF in Y2H and co-IP assays (Oh et al., 2014), the physiological effect of the DELLA-ARF interaction in planta is difficult to examine in Arabidopsis by genetic analysis, mainly due to the functional redundancy among the five AtDELLAs and the large numbers of AtARFs and AtIAAs. Importantly, the tomato genome contains only a single *SIDELLA (PRO)* gene. Although tomato contains many *IAA* genes, the single *entire (iaa9)* mutant displays a clear parthenocarpic phenotype. These unique features of the tomato system allowed us to elucidate the genetic interactions among SIDELLA, SIIAA9 and the activator SIARFs during fruit initiation.

METHODS

Plant Materials, Growth Conditions, and Statistical Analysis

Tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum*) cultivars AC and MM, and the *entire* mutant (in the AC background; Rick and Butler, 1956) were obtained from the Tomato Genetics Resource Center at UC Davis. The *pro* (5x bc AC; Smith and Ritchie, 1983) and *pro gib1* (Van Tuinen et al., 1999) mutants were gifts from Maarten Koornneef (Max Planck Institute for Plant Breeding Research, Germany), and the *ARF7 RNAi* line #4 (in the MM background) was generated by Wim Vriezen (de Jong et al., 2009). The AC/MM hybrid and double mutants *ARF7 RNAi pro*, *entire pro*, *entire ARF7 RNAi*, *ARF7 RNAi gib1*, and *entire gib1* were generated by genetic crosses. The *slarf5-1* (*slmp-1*, generated by EMS mutagenesis) and *CR-slarf7* mutants are in the M82 cultivar background. The *FLAG-DELLA pro gib1* line was produced by crossing the *FLAG-DELLA pro* transgenic line with *pro gib1*. Genotyping primers for the *pro*, *entire*, *gib1*, *CR-arf7*, and *arf5-1* mutants are listed in Supplemental Data Set 1.

Tomato plants were grown in the greenhouse with 16-h/8-h day/night light cycle. During the 16-h photoperiod, supplemental lights (Phillips 1000w Hortilux Super HPS) were turned on when internal light intensity was below 900 μ mol/m²/s for 30 min. Lights were turned off when internal light intensity exceeded 900 μ mol/m²/s for 30 min. Temperatures in the greenhouse were maintained at 21.1 to 26.7°C/18.3 to 23.9°C (day/ night), and humidity was maintained between 37% and 72% RH. Flowers for emasculation and/or hormonal treatments were from the third to seventh flower trusses on the primary stem. For hormonal treatments, 10 μ L of 300 μ M GA₃, 100 μ M 2,4-D, or mock solvent (5% methanol and 0.1% Tween 20) was applied to emasculated –1 DAA ovaries.

All statistical analyses were performed using Student's t test.

Plasmid Construction

Primers for plasmid construction are listed in Supplemental Data Set 1. PCR-generated DNA constructs were sequenced to make sure no mutation was introduced. Detailed information on plasmid construction is described in the Supplemental Data Set 2.

Y2H and Y3H Assays

The ProQuest Two-Hybrid system (Invitrogen) and yeast strain pJ69-4A were used for the Y2H and Y3H assays. Yeast transformation and 3-amino-1,2,4-triazole (3-AT) tests were performed as described previously (Dill et al., 2004) with slight modifications: 3-AT concentrations in the plates were 0, 5, 10, 25, 50, 75, and 100 mM in most cases, although concentrations of 150, 200, 250, and 300 mM 3-AT were used when the interactions were strong. Immunoblot analyses were performed using anti-HA (1:2000; Covance MMS-101P), anti-FLAG (1:5000; Sigma-Aldrich A8592), or anti-cMyc (1:2000; Covance MMS-150P) primary antibodies to show that the HA-DNA-BD, 3xFLAG-AD fusions in the Y2H assays and Mycfusions in the Y3H assays produced the expected proteins in yeast.

Plant Transformation

Transformation of the *Pro_{SLDELLA}*:*FLAG-SIDELLA* construct into the *pro* mutant was performed by NCSU Plant Transformation Laboratory with *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* strain GV3101 pMP90. T0 lines containing a single insertion were identified by their T1 seeds having a 3:1 ratio of kanamycin-resistant versus kanamycin-sensitive segregation patterns.

All eight independent homozygous lines identified in the T1 generation rescued *pro* defects; line #C1-18-6 was chosen for further study.

Transient expression (for co-IP and the dual luciferase assays) in wild tobacco (*Nicotiana benthamiana*) leaves was performed as described (Zentella et al., 2016). Transient expression in tomato fruits (for ChIP) was performed based on a previous report (Orzaez et al., 2006), with slight modifications. Agrobacterium strain 1D1249 (a gift from Gregory Martin, Cornell University) containing the pEG203-ARF7 plasmid was used for this test. Incubation of 1D1249 cells in induction solution was performed as described for *N. benthamiana* infiltration (Zhang et al., 2011). The bacterial infiltration solution was injected into 2- to 3-cm-diameter wild-type fruits (2–3 weeks after anthesis) using a syringe with a 20-gauge needle; the needle was inserted into the stigma end of the fruit. When the needle was injected into the fruit, bacterial solution in the syringe was injected into the fruit until the solution emerged from the tips of sepals. Five days after infiltration, the jelly-like tissue in the fruit locules was harvested for ChIP-qPCR.

For the transient Myc-ARF7 expression +/–GA test, wild-type plants were drenched with 10 μ M paclobutrazol three times a week for 2 weeks to increase DELLA levels in the fruit. One day before harvest (i.e., 4 d after infiltration), 300 μ M GA₃ or mock solution was injected into Myc-ARF7 infiltrated fruits. Locular tissues were harvested on day 5 as described above. For transient Myc-DELLA ChIP, 1D1249 agrobacteria cells containing pEG203-DELLA plasmid were injected into wild-type or *ARF7 RNAi* fruits.

Quantitative RT-PCR

Total RNA was isolated using a Quick-RNA MiniPrep kit (Zymo Research). First-strand cDNA was synthesized using a Transcriptor First Strand cDNA Synthesis kit (Roche Applied Science). For qPCR, FastStart Essential DNA Green Master mix (Roche Applied Science) was used on a Mastercycler ep *realplex* Instrument (Eppendorf). The PCR program consisted of an initial denaturation at 95°C for 10 min, then 45 cycles of amplification at 95°C for 10 s, 60°C for 10 s, and 72°C for 15 s, followed by melting curve step at 95°C for 10 s, 65°C 60 s, and increases temperature at 0.1°C/s to 95°C for 1 s. Three biological replicates from independent pools of tissues (two technical repeats each) were included for each experiment. Primers for qPCR are listed in Supplemental Data Set 1.

For absolute qPCR analysis, the qPCR standard curves of *SIUBQ7* and *SIARF* genes were generated as described before (Tyler et al., 2004). For *SIUBQ7*, a 200-bp PCR product of *SIUBQ7* cDNA amplified by primers SIUBQ7-1 and SIUBQ7-2 from AC cDNAs was first inserted to pCR8/GW. Then, linearized pCR8-SIUBQ7 DNA was used as template for determining cDNA copy versus cycle number. For *SIARFs*, the DNA templates were linearized plasmids containing pCR8-*SIARF* cDNAs (except for *SIARF7*, which was in pENTR1A). Based on these standard curves, the cDNA copy numbers of *SIARF* genes and *SIUBQ7* were determined according to their respective cycle numbers.

Co-IP and Dual Luciferase Assay

Co-IP assays using proteins transiently expressed in *N. benthamiana* by agroinfiltration were performed as described previously (Zentella et al., 2016). The dual luciferase assays was also performed via transient expression in *N. benthamiana*. First reporter plasmids (*tomato gene promoter:fLUC* and *Pro₃₅₅:rLUC*) and effector constructs (*Pro₃₅₅:ARF7*, *DELLA*, or *IAA9* in pEarleyGate vector) were separately transformed into *Agrobacterium* strain GV3101. The *fLUC* and *rLUC*-containing strains were coinfiltrated into leaves, with various agro combinations of ARF7, DELLA, and IAA9 constructs. Two days after infiltration, *N. benthamiana* leaves were harvested for protein extraction, and luciferase activity was measured using the dual-luciferase reporter assay system (Promega).

Relative promoter activity was calculated as the ratio of fLUC to rLUC activity for each sample. Nine biological repeats (three independent pools of tissue were assayed at one time and repeated at three different times) were conducted for each effector combination.

ChIP-qPCR

The ChIP-qPCR experiment was performed as described (Zentella et al., 2007), with slight modifications. For FLAG-SIDELLA ChIP, –1 DAA ovaries of the *FLAG-SIDELLA pro* transgenic tomato line were used. For transient SIARF7 ChIP, Myc-SIARF was transiently expressed in 2- to 3-cm-diameter wild-type fruits (2–3 weeks after anthesis) and the locule tissues were harvested and cross-linked for ChIP. Nontransgenic tissues (*pro* for SIDELLA ChIP and wild type + 1D1249 for SIARF7 ChIP) were included as controls. There were two modifications for the transient SIARF7 +/-GA ChIP. First, the wild-type plants were watered with 10 μ M PAC for 2 weeks. Second, GA solution was injected into fruit 1 d before harvest. Nontransgenic tissues (wild type/PAC + 1D1249 –GA) were included as a control. For transient SIDELLA ChIP, Myc-SIDELLA was expressed in wild-type or *SIARF7 RNAi* fruit. 1D1249-infiltrated wild-type fruit was used as a control.

After cross-linking the tissues, chromatin was extracted as described by Zentella et al. (2007), and DNA was eluted from antibody-conjugated beads with modified elution buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 5 mM EDTA, 50 mM NaCl, 1% SDS, and 50 μ g/mL proteinase K). qRT-PCR was then performed using primers specific for different regions of the target promoters. The *SIUBQ7* gene (Solyc10g005560) was used to normalize the qPCR results in each ChIP sample. Primer sequences are listed in Supplemental Data Set 1.

Histology

After emasculation of flowers, ovaries were collected from *gib1*, *ARF7 RNAi gib1*, or *entire gib1* plants. Tissue fixation was performed as described (Hu et al., 2008), followed by tissue embedding in Technovit 7100 (Heraeus Kulzer) according to the manufacturer's protocol. Threemicrometer sections produced with a microtome (model 820; Spencer Lens Co.) were stained with 0.1% toluidine blue in 1% borax and examined by bright-field microscopy as described (Hu et al., 2008).

In Vitro IAA-Aspartic Acid Conjugation Assay

Recombinant GST, GST-SIGH3.2, and GST-AtGH3.6 were expressed in *Escherichia coli* BL21-CodonPlus (DE3)-RIL (Agilent Technologies). Induction and purification of recombinant proteins were performed as described by Zentella et al. (2016). The in vitro conjugation of IAA-aspartic acid and subsequent detection procedures basically followed a previous report (Staswick et al., 2005), with slight modifications. In particular, the conjugation reaction was performed at room temperature overnight in 50 μ L solution containing 500 ng GST fusion proteins or GST. Six-microliter reactions were analyzed by thin-layer chromatography, and staining of IAA or IAA-Asp was done with Salkowski reagent.

Accession Numbers

Sequence information for genes included in this article can be found in the Sol Genomics Network and GenBank (for tomato genes) and TAIR network (https://www.arabidopsis.org/; for Arabidopsis genes) under the following accession numbers: *SIDELLA* (i.e., *PRO*, Solyc11g011260), *SIARF7* (Solyc07g042260), *SIIAA9* (i.e., *ENTIRE*, Solyc04g076850), *SIARF5* (Solyc04g084210), *SIARF8A* (Solyc03g031970), *SIARF8B* (Solyc02g037530), *SIARF19A* (Solyc07g016180; NM_001247811), *SIARF19B* (Solyc05g047460; XM_010322983), *SIARF1* (Solyc01g103050), *SIARF2A* (Solyc03g118290), *SIARF2B* (Solyc12g042070), *SIARF3* (Solyc02g077560), *SIARF4* (Solyc11g069190), *SIARF9A* (Solyc08g082630), *SIARF10A* (Solyc11g069500), *SIARF16A* (Solyc09g007810), *SIARF24* (Solyc05g056040), *SIGA20ox1* (Solyc03g006880), *SIGA30x1* (Solyc06g066820), *SIGH3.2* (Solyc01g107390), *SIAG1* (Solyc02g071730), *SITM29* (Solyc02g089200), *JOINTLESS* (Solyc11g010570), *SIMADS6* (Solyc01g093960), *SIFUL1* (Solyc06g069430), *SIMADS29* (Solyc11g005120), *SICYCB1;2* (Solyc10g080950), *SIEXP5* (Solyc02g088100), *SIEXP12* (Solyc05g007830), *SIXTH9* (Solyc12g011030), *SIXTH15* (Solyc03g031800), *SIABI2* (Solyc07g040990), *SIACO4* (Solyc02g081190), *SIERF1B* (Solyc09g066360), *SICPS* (i.e., *GIB1*, Solyc06g084240), *SIUBQ7* (Solyc10g005560), *AtARF5* (At1g19850), *AtCPS* (At4g02780), and *AtGH3.6* (At5g54510).

Supplemental Data

Supplemental Figure 1. Activator SIARF hetero-dimerization is not affected by SIDELLA or SIIAA9 in a Y3H assay.

Supplemental Figure 2. Standard curves for absolute quantification of transcript levels by qPCR.

Supplemental Figure 3. GH3.2 functions as an amino acid-IAA conjugating enzyme in vitro.

Supplemental Figure 4. Pro_{SIDELLA}:FLAG-DELLA is functional in tomato.

Supplemental Figure 5. SIDELLA protein in fruit locule tissue accumulated to higher levels in response to PAC treatment and was completely degraded 24 h after GA_3 application.

Supplemental Figure 6. Response of putative GA/auxin target genes to GA or 2,4-D treatment in ovaries.

Supplemental Figure 7. *SIDELLA* transcript levels in emasculated –1 DAA ovaries compared with mock and hormone treatments.

Supplemental Data Set 1. List of primers and their uses.

Supplemental Data Set 2. Constructs.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

J.H. and T.-p.S. designed the research. J.H. performed most experiments. N.O. identified the *slarf5-1* mutant. A.I. and N.O. generated the *CR-slarf7* single mutant and the *CR-slarf7* slarf5-1/+ double mutant. J.H and T.-p.S. analyzed and wrote the manuscript. Received May 7, 2018; revised June 21, 2018; accepted July 12, 2018; published July 15, 2018.

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