Natural Variants of ELF3 Affect Thermomorphogenesis by Transcriptionally

Modulating PIF4-Dependent Auxin Response Genes

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ABSTRACT

Perception and transduction of temperature changes result in altered growth enabling plants to

adapt to increased ambient temperature. While PHYTOCHROME-INTERACTING

FACTOR4 (PIF4) has been identified as a major ambient temperature signaling hub, its

upstream regulation seems complex and is poorly understood. Here, we exploited natural

variation for thermo-responsive growth in Arabidopsis thaliana using quantitative trait locus

(QTL) analysis. We identified GIRAFFE2.1, a major QTL explaining ~18% of the phenotypic

variation for temperature-induced hypocotyl elongation in the Bay-0 x Sha recombinant

inbred line population. Transgenic complementation demonstrated that allelic variation in the

circadian clock regulator EARLY FLOWERING3 (ELF3) is underlying this QTL. The source

of variation could be allocated to a single nucleotide polymorphism in the ELF3 coding

region, resulting in differential expression of PIF4 and its target genes, likely causing the

observed natural variation in thermo-responsive growth. In combination with other recent

studies, this work establishes the role of ELF3 in the ambient temperature signaling network.

Natural variation of ELF3-mediated gating of *PIF4* expression during nightly growing periods

seems to be affected by a coding sequence quantitative trait nucleotide that confers a selective

advantage in certain environments. In addition, natural ELF3 alleles seem to differentially

integrate temperature and photoperiod cues to induce architectural changes. Thus, ELF3

emerges as an essential coordinator of growth and development in response to diverse

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environmental cues and implicates ELF3 as an important target of adaptation.

KEYWORDS: Ambient temperature signaling, auxin, ELF3, PIF4, thermomorphogenesis

INTRODUCTION

In analogy to photomorphogenesis, the term thermomorphogenesis describes the effect of

temperature on morphogenesis [1]. Hypocotyl elongation [2] and leaf hyponasty [3] belong to

the most sensitive thermomorphogenic changes in plant development. Physiologically, these

coordinated responses likely enhance evaporative leaf cooling [4, 5] and thus enable plants to

adapt to warmth. Within the context of globally increasing ambient temperatures, it is

imperative to improve our understanding of the basic processes plants employ to react to such

environmental perturbations.

A major hub in the ambient temperature signaling network is the basic helix-loop-helix

(bHLH) transcription factor PHYTOCHROME-INTERACTING FACTOR4 (PIF4). PIF4

protein binds to the promoters of auxin biosynthesis and response genes [6–9]. It thereby

transcriptionally activates auxin responses, resulting in elongation growth. PIF4 itself seems

to be transcriptionally regulated in a temperature-dependent manner by the bZIP transcription

factor ELONGATED HYPOCOTYL5 [10]. Accumulating data on PIF4 regulation from light

signaling, photomorphogenesis and the circadian clock [11-13] indicate a more complex

regulation of PIF4 activity on several levels.

The objective of this study was to exploit natural variation within the gene pool of

Arabidopsis thaliana to identify additional components of the complex signaling network that

plants use to adapt growth to changes in ambient temperature. Based on a quantitative genetic

approach, we here show that two naturally occurring alleles of EARLY FLOWERING3 (ELF3)

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cause a differential response in thermomorphogenesis.

RESULTS

We previously observed extensive natural variation for the thermomorphogenic signature phenotype we termed *temperature-induced hypocotyl elongation* (TIHE; [10, 14]). To identify the underlying genetic variants, we performed quantitative trait locus (QTL) analyses based on two natural accessions from geographically distant locations. When comparing growth at 20 and 28°C, the selected accessions Bay-0 (Germany) and Sha (Tajikistan) differed significantly in several thermomorphogenic responses (Figure 1A,B; Additional file 1). Identification of the underlying genetic variants would help to improve our understanding of

QTL analysis of temperature-induced hypocotyl elongation

how ambient temperature changes are translated into growth responses.

We phenotyped a Bay-0 x Sha recombinant inbred line population [15] for the TIHE response. We grew seedlings in different ambient temperatures (10 days 20°C vs. 10 days 28°C) under a long-day diurnal cycle. QTL analysis based on composite interval and multiple QTL mapping using R/qtl was performed for hypocotyl length at either temperature alone or the ratio between hypocotyl length at 28 and 20°C (28°C/20°C). In total, we identified 14 different QTLs (Figure 1C,D, Additional files 2 and 3). Focusing on growth differences between high and low temperature (28°C/20°C ratio) identified five QTLs, which were named GIRAFFE1/2.1/2.2/5.1/5.2 (GIR1, GIR2.1, GIR2.2, GIR5.1, GIR5.2), according to their respective chromosomal location. Together, the five QTLs explained ~43 % of the phenotypic variation within the mapping population. The strongest QTL, GIR2.1 (LOD score of 23, stepwiseqtl procedure), explained ~18 % of this variation (Additional files 2 and 3), suggesting that a sizeable part of the natural variation between Bay-0 and Sha can be attributed to this locus.

To facilitate map-based cloning of *GIR2.1*, we first validated it using heterogeneous inbred families (HIFs; [16]; Figure 2A, Additional file 4). Phenotypic differences between two HIF lines, carrying either parental allele in the target region, while being otherwise genetically identical, can be attributed to genetic variation in the target QTL interval. In addition to *GIR2.1*, we also included *GIR1* and *GIR5.1* in this analysis. We were unable to validate *GIR5.1*, but observed significant differences in TIHE for the HIF lines separating the two parental alleles for *GIR1* (194-B and 194-S) and *GIR2.1* (84-B and 84-S) under long-day photoperiod (Figure 2B, Additional files 4 and 5). Due to the high impact on the phenotypic variation further analyses focused on *GIR2.1*. Here, the Sha allele conferred long hypocotyls and the Bay-0 allele conferred short hypocotyls (Figure 2B; interestingly, this situation is reversed for *GIR1* [Additional file 4]). We found that the differences in TIHE between the *GIR2.1* HIF lines did not persist under continuous light, darkness or short-day conditions (Figure 2B, Additional file 5). Hence, diurnal cycling with an extensive light phase seems to be necessary for natural variation in TIHE caused by *GIR2.1*. Furthermore, parental differences under monochromatic lights seem to be independent of *GIR2.1* (Additional file 5).

GIR2.1 possibly constitutes a ghost QTL

An F1 derived by crossing 84-B with 84-S showed that the long-hypocotyl phenotype inherited by the Sha allele is dominant over the Bay-0 short-hypocotyl phenotype (Additional file 5). In the process of fine-mapping the *GIR2.1* interval, genotyping of F2 and F3 recombinants with long hypocotyls (longer than 84-B) at 28°C revealed several plants for which the long-hypocotyl phenotype could be attributed to different, non-overlapping Sha intervals within the *GIR2.1* region. This indicated that the exact localization of the *GIR2.1*

LOD score peak was possibly caused by two or more contributing loci. This phenomenon is

frequently observed in QTL analysis and has been called ghost QTL [17]. Recomputing the

QTL analysis with additional co-variates separated this peak into two neighbors, supporting

this scenario (Additional file 6). Interestingly, Jiménez-Gómez et al. [18] reported a similar

phenomenon for this region in the same Bay-0 x Sha population for the regulation of shade

avoidance responses, which phenocopies the high temperature response. However, as we only

reproducibly observed long hypocotyls for one of the two Sha intervals (chr. 2: 9,199,751-

10,426,485 bp), we focused subsequent analyses on this robust interval.

A single nucleotide polymorphism in EARLY FLOWERING3 is underlying the GIR2.1

QTL

Knowing that a diurnal photoperiod was a prerequisite for TIHE differences between Bay-0

and Sha (Figure 2B), we identified EARLY FLOWERING3 (ELF3) as a candidate gene

located in the GIR2.1 target interval. ELF3 is a component of the circadian clock [19] that

functions in the evening complex to repress growth [20] and had previously been shown to

regulate hypocotyl elongation in response to shade avoidance [18]. Notably, using an elegant

transgenic approach, Anwer et al. [11] recently showed that the ELF3^{Bay-0} and ELF3^{Sha} alleles

differentially regulate period length of the circadian clock.

Consistent with a role of ELF3 in thermomorphogenesis, we found that elf3-4 null mutants

conferred long hypocotyls in comparison to their Ws-2 wild-type (Figure 3). To investigate

whether TIHE differences between the Bay-0 and Sha HIF lines can indeed be attributed to

ELF3, we followed a transgenic complementation approach. We took advantage of the same

transgenic lines generated by Anwer et al. [11] that contain either the ELF3^{Bay-0} or the ELF3^{Sha}

allele in the elf3-4 mutant genome (Figure 3A), which enabled us to study allele-specific

TIHE effects in an independent elf3 loss-of-function background. Figure 3B shows that

transgenic lines carrying either parental allele complemented the elf3-4 phenotype at 20°C. At

28°C, however, transgenics carrying $ELF3^{Bay-0}$ (elf3-4 [Pro_{Bay-0} : $ELF3^{Bay-0}$]) repressed hypocotyl

elongation significantly more than those carrying the ELF3^{Sha} allele (elf3-4 [Pro_{Sha}:ELF3^{Sha}]).

This demonstrated that allelic variation in *ELF3* affects TIHE in the Bay x Sha population.

Bay-0 and Sha ELF3 variants differ (i) in a nonsynonymous SNP causing an amino acid

change at position 362, encoding an alanine-to-valine transition (A362V), and (ii) in the

length of a C-terminal glutamine stretch [21, 22]. Although this might depend on the genetic

background [23], Tajima et al. [22] suggested that there was no apparent correlation between

the length of the polyglutamine region and hypocotyl elongation. We therefore focused on the

A362V polymorphism and investigated its potential role in conferring allelic differences in

thermomorphogenesis. Again, we made use of transgenic lines in the elf3-4 mutant

background generated by Anwer et al. [11]. We inspected TIHE in transgenic elf3-4 lines

carrying either the Pro_{Bay-0} : $ELF3^{Bay-0}$ allele or the Pro_{Bay-0} : $ELF3^{A362V}$ allele, differing only in the

A362V SNP [11]. We found that temperature-induced hypocotyls in transgenic lines carrying

a valine at position 362 (as in Sha) were similar to the ELF3^{Sha} allele and, importantly,

significantly longer than those with its alanine counterpart at the same position (Figure 3B).

Together, these data show that the SNP underlying the A362V change in ELF3 causes

phenotypic variation in TIHE and establishes ELF3 as a negative regulator of

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thermomorphogenesis.

Differential transcriptional responses caused by natural ELF3 variants

It has recently been shown that the evening complex of the circadian clock consisting of ELF3, ELF4, and LUX ARRHYTHMO (LUX) underlies the molecular basis for circadian gating of hypocotyl growth by directly down-regulating the expression of *PIF4* in the early evening [20]. As a result, hypocotyl elongation peaks at dawn under diurnal cycles. We, therefore, tested the hypothesis that adopts this model for ambient temperature signaling and investigated whether *PIF4* expression and possibly also the transcript levels of PIF4-regulated

genes that mediate cell elongation are affected in response to elevated temperature.

To assess temperature responsiveness, we grew seedlings for 7 days at 20°C under long-day photoperiods, kept control plates at 20°C, and shifted the remaining seedlings to 28°C at lights off (t=16). Control and 28°C seedlings were subsequently harvested 4 hrs after the shift. We found that loss of *ELF3* in *elf3-4* results in up-regulation of *PIF4* transcript levels at both temperatures (Figure 4A). At 20°C, we observe that complementation of *elf3-4* with either transgenic allele (*Pro_{Bay-0}:ELF3^{Bay-0}*; *Pro_{Sha}:ELF3^{Sha}*; *Pro_{Bay-0}:ELF3^{4362V}*) restores wild-type *PIF4* levels (Figure 4A), demonstrating functionality of the constructs, but suggesting that allelic differences are absent at 20°C. This observation is consistent with similar hypocotyl length of the three lines at 20°C (Figure 3B). At 28°C, however, *PIF4* expression levels in *elf3-4* [*Pro_{Sha}:ELF3^{Sha}*] and *elf3-4* [*Pro_{Bay-0}:ELF3^{4362V}*] are significantly higher than in *elf3-4* [*Pro_{Bay-0}:ELF3^{Bay-0}*] (Figure 4A), again reflecting the hypocotyl phenotype (Figure 3B). Importantly, this expression behavior at 20 vs. 28°C explains the detection the *GIR2.1* QTL (=28°C/20°C ratio) at 28°C only, but not at 20°C (Figure 1D, Additional file 3). Together, this suggests that the natural variation observed for TIHE is attributable to temperature-dependent differences in *PIF4* expression levels caused by the A362V SNP in *ELF3^{Sha}*.

We then connected this scenario to the level of PIF4 target genes responsible for cell

elongation. Genes involved in cell elongation such as the SMALL AUXIN UPREGULATED

RNA (SAUR) family or ARABIDOPSIS THALIANA HOMEOBOX PROTEIN2 (AtHB2) have

previously been shown to be activated by PIF4 in a temperature-dependent manner [6, 24,

25]. As Figure 4B-D shows, we found that temperature-induced expression levels of the tested

genes in elf3-4 [Pro_{Bay-0}:ELF3^{A362V}] were significantly higher than those in elf3-4 [Pro_{Bay-}

₀:ELF3^{Bay-0}]. This strongly suggested that the A362V SNP causes natural variation of

temperature-induced PIF4 expression levels directly resulting in alterations of auxin-mediated

cell elongation.

DISCUSSION

Our findings shown here illustrate the power of natural variation approaches and support

ELF3 as a negative regulator of ambient temperature signaling. Physiological and gene

expression data indicate that ELF3 protein might be involved in down-regulating transcript

levels of the major ambient temperature signaling hub PIF4, and thereby affect thermo-

responsive growth. Transgenic complementation assays furthermore demonstrated that a

nonsynonymous SNP between the natural accessions Bay-0 and Sha significantly affects the

ability of ELF3 to regulate temperature-induced PIF4 transcript levels, its target genes, and

hypocotyl elongation.

In general, different types of polymorphisms, such as nonsynonymous SNPs or expression

level polymorphisms, can contribute to the expression of a particular trait [26]. In line with

this phenomenon, distinct types of naturally occurring ELF3 polymorphisms seem to

contribute to hypocotyl elongation in response to different temperatures. Box et al. [27]

recently used a different quantitative genetic approach based on the MAGIC lines [28], and elegantly showed that both protein-coding and expression level polymorphisms in *ELF3* are likely responsible for TIHE differences in natural accessions. The authors presented convincing evidence that warmth relieves the gating of growth by ELF3 at night. Specifically, ELF3 gating of transcriptional targets responds rapidly to changes in temperature by temperature-dependent binding of ELF3 to target promoters including *PIF4*. Together with Box *et al.*'s [27] non-transgenic quantitative complementation assays, our transgenic complementations unequivocally establish the role of ELF3 in thermomorphogenesis

signaling.

Intriguingly, the *ELF3* QTLs in both studies were identified in different photoperiods. *ELF3* polymorphisms causal for variation within the MAGIC population were identified under short-day conditions. In contrast, our study identified the *ELF3* polymorphism under a long-day photoperiod and subsequent analysis of HIF lines showed long-day specificity (Figure 2B). Furthermore, a direct comparison of Bay-0 and Sha with two of the parental lines used in the study of Box *et al.* [27] revealed the short-day-specificity of the Sf-2 and Zu-0 alleles in promoting hypocotyl elongation (Additional file 7). This photoperiod specificity of the different natural alleles represents an interesting observation in itself requesting further investigations. Another unexpected difference between the two studies relates to the growth temperature at which the *ELF3* QTL was detected. Whereas we identified the *ELF3* QTL peak for hypocotyl growth at 28°C, but not at 20°C (Figure 1D), Box *et al.* [27] did not detect *ELF3* at high temperature but rather at 22°C standard growth conditions. This difference could be attributed to the differential integration of temperature and photoperiod by natural *ELF3* alleles. Alternatively, the genetic backgrounds and interactions with other contributing

loci might be involved. In support of this, it is known that the capacity of ELF3 to mediate

growth depends on the context of the genome [23]. Hence, Box et al. [27] and this study

confer complementary evidence for a central role of ELF3 as a major signaling hub acting

upstream of PIF4 in the ambient temperature signaling network and add yet another layer to

its complex regulation (Figure 5).

Anwer et al. [11] recently identified ELF3 as a QTL for the regulation of the circadian clock

in the same Bay-0 x Sha population. In fact, they showed that the ELF3^{Sha} protein variant

failed to properly localize to the nucleus and its ability to accumulate in the dark was

compromised. If the same scenario holds for ambient temperature responses, then ELF3^{Sha}

might fail to accumulate in the nucleus during nighttime when hypocotyl growth peaks. As a

consequence of a weaker potential of ELF3^{Sha} to repress PIF4 expression, a temperature

increase could result in a much earlier activation of PIF4-mediated signaling processes during

the night. Indeed, Box et al. [27] demonstrated that hypocotyl growth dynamics at elevated

temperatures are considerably different from those at standard conditions and show a

prolonged growth throughout the first night and an additional growth peak in the beginning of

the dark period in subsequent nights. However, it is currently unknown in which manner

temperature might affect ELF3 protein localization.

CONCLUSIONS

In summary, remarkable progress has been made in understanding the functions of ELF3. In

combination with recent studies on the role of ELF3 in the shade avoidance response [18, 21]

and the circadian clock [11, 13, 29], this work contributes to understanding its role in the fine-

tuned integration of a variety of environmental stimuli that in concert regulate plant growth

and development (Figure 5). Natural variation in thermomorphogenesis caused by ELF3

variants could be mediated at several levels. First, transcriptional regulation of ELF3 itself

caused by expression level polymorphisms can result in varying amounts of PIF4-repressing

ELF3 protein [27]. In addition, coding sequence polymorphisms might affect the ability of

ELF3 protein to interact with PIF4 protein and thereby inhibit its transcriptional activity, as

shown by Nieto et al. [13]. However, it is unknown whether this protein-protein interaction is

temperature-dependent and the existence of natural variation for this mechanism has yet to be

reported. Lastly, nonsynonymous SNPs may affect nuclear accumulation of ELF3, which -

like expression level polymorphisms described above - would result in variation of the

amount of nuclear ELF3 [11] capable of transcriptionally repressing PIF4, and other targets.

Possibly, the latter mechanism is responsible for natural variation between Bay-0 and Sha

thermomorphogenesis we reported here.

Our work in combination with the study of Box et al. [27] adds further insight into the

essential role of ELF3 in integrating multiple signals to promote architectural changes. The

photoperiod-specific function of natural ELF3 alleles could provide new avenues to elucidate

the clock-mediated growth regulation in general and ELF3 mode of action specifically.

METHODS

Plant material

Plant material used for QTL analyses has been obtained from the Versailles Arabidopsis Stock

Center: Bay-0 (accession number 41AV), Sha (236AV), heterogeneous inbred families (HIFs,

33HV84, 33HV194), Bay-0 x Sha population (33RV). Lines used for complementation assays

have been described in Anwer et al. [11]. Natural accessions Sf-2 (N6857) and (Zu-0 N6902)

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were obtained from the Nottingham Arabidopsis Stock Center.

Thermo-responsive growth assays

Seeds were surface-sterilized and kept in deionized H₂O for 3 days at 4°C before sowing.

Seedlings were germinated and grown under sterile conditions and the indicated temperatures

on Arabidopsis thaliana solution (ATS) medium [30]. Hypocotyl growth was quantified in

seedlings cultivated for 8-10 days under 250 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ white light and a long-day

photoperiod (16/8) unless stated otherwise. Hypocotyl length was measured using the

RootDetection software package (http://www.labutils.de/). Petiole length and leaf expansion

were measured on 12 days-old seedlings using ImageJ. All growth assays including

phenotyping of the Bay-0 x Sha population have been repeated at least three times with

similar results of which one representative data set is shown.

QTL mapping

Described QTL mapping was applied using Haley-Knott Regression [31] at 1 cM steps with

the R/qtl package [32]. Logarithm of odds (LOD) score thresholds were based on 1000

permutations and an alpha error rate of 0.05. Detailed instructions on the QTL mapping

procedure are found in Additional file 8. QTL mapping has been performed on all three

repetitions of phenotyping of the Bay-0 x Sha mapping population independently with similar

results. QTL mapping data of one representative data set are shown.

Light response assays

Seeds were surface-sterilized, stratified at 4°C for 2 days, and dispersed on 0.8% agar (w/v)

Murashige and Skoog medium. Monochromatic red, far-red, or blue light was generated with

an LED SNAP-LITE (Quantum Devices, Barnereld, WI). Green light was generated from a

fluorescent light bulb with a green filter. Seedling growth was measured after 4 days.

qRT-PCR

Surface-sterilized seeds were placed on ATS medium and grown for 7 days under long-day

photoperiod (16/8) and 100 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ white light at 20°C. Temperature-induced samples

were shifted to 28°C at the dusk, while control plants remained at 20°C. Samples for qRT-

PCR analyses were harvested in the middle of the night 4 hrs before subjective dawn. Sample

preparation and qRT-PCR (including primer sequences) were performed as previously

described [10].

COMPETING INTERESTS

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS

MQ designed the study. AR, CI, SB, AG, JT, KD, and CD performed the thermo-responsive

growth assays. KKU and BS conducted the QTL analysis. AR and CI fine-mapped the GIR2.1

QTL. CI and CD conducted the qRT-PCR analysis. XS and MN performed the light response

assays. MUA and SJD contributed materials and edited the manuscript. AR, CI, CD and MQ

wrote the manuscript. All authors read and approved the manuscript.

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FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1 Quantitative trait locus analysis of temperature-induced growth responses in

Arabidopsis thaliana. (A) Relative hypocotyl length (28°C/20°C in %, n=15) of 10 days-old

A. thaliana accessions Bay-0 and Sha. (B) Relative petiole length and leaf expansion of 12

days-old seedlings. (A,B) Asterisks mark significant differences in temperature responses (P <

0.05) as assessed by two-way ANOVA of the absolute data presented in Additional file 1. (C)

Frequency plot of phenotypic classes observed in a Bay-0 x Sha-derived recombinant inbred

line population for hypocotyl length of 10 days-old seedlings grown at 20°C (n=400) or 28°C

(n=395), and for the ratio of 28 vs. 20°C (n=387) means. Parental phenotype classes are

indicated to illustrate the transgression effects within the population. (D) LOD scores (y axis)

from composite interval mapping (cim) and multiple QTL mapping (stepwiseqtl) are plotted

against all chromosomes (x axis). Tick marks on the x axis correspond to molecular markers

in the genetic map. Colored dots on the x axis show co-variates set for composite interval

mapping. Thresholds are based on 1000 permutations and an alpha of 0.05. The 28°C vs.

20°C GIR2.1 QTL, which is the subject of this study, is highlighted.

Figure 2 GIR2.1 validation and photoperiod specificity. (A) Haplotype overview of the

heterogeneous inbred family (HIF) 84 that segregates for Bay-0 and Sha alleles within the

GIR2.1 interval. (B) Box plots show relative hypocotyl length (28° C/ 20° C in %, n > 15) of

seedlings grown for 8 days under long-day (LD), continuous light (LL), in darkness (DD) or

short-day (SD) photoperiods. Different letters denote statistical differences in temperature

responses (within one photoperiod) as assessed by two-way ANOVA (P < 0.05) of the

absolute data presented in Additional file 5.

Figure 3 Transgenic complementation of ELF3-mediated TIHE variation. (A) Overview

of transgenic constructs used for complementation of the elf3-4 null mutation (Ws-2

background). (B) Box plot shows absolute hypocotyl length of 8 days-old seedlings grown in

LD at 20 or 28°C, respectively. Different letters denote statistical differences as assessed by

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one-way ANOVA and Tukey HSD (P < 0.05).

Figure 4 Effects of ELF3 allelic variation on the expression of PIF4 and auxin-

responsive genes. qRT-PCR analysis of (A) PIF4, (B) SAUR19, (C) SAUR23, and (D) AtHB2

expression in WT (Ws-2) and transgenic complementation lines (see Figure 3A). Seedlings

were grown for 7 days at 20°C and transferred to 28°C or kept at 20°C (control). Seedlings

were harvested after 4 hrs in the middle of the 8 hrs dark period. Relative expression levels of

three biological replicates per treatment were assessed using At1g13320 as control gene. Bar

plots show means and SEM. Different letters denote statistical differences among samples as

analyzed by one-way ANOVA and Tukey HSD test (P < 0.05).

Figure 5 Simplified model of ambient temperature signaling

ELF3 functions as a transcriptional repressor of PIF4 and integrates temperature and

photoperiod information in the regulation of thermomorphogenesis. In addition, PIF4

regulation in response to temperature involves the regulatory components of the

photomorphogenesis pathway DET1, COP1, and HY5 [10]. PIF4-mediated transcriptional

regulation of target genes can be terminated by the RNA binding protein FCA, causing

dissociation of PIF4 from target gene promoters [33]. Other mechanisms previously shown to

contribute to PIF4 regulation in other biological contexts are depicted by gray dashed lines.

These involve direct binding of DET1 to PIF4 [12], competition of PIF4 and other

transcription factors for similar binding sites [34], PIF4 protein sequestration by HFR1 [35]

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and phyB-mediated phosphorylation and degradation of PIF4 [36].

ADDITIONAL FILES

Additional file 1: Figure S1. Temperature-induced growth responses in Bay-0 and Sha.

Absolute values for (A) temperature-induced hypocotyl elongation (TIHE), (B) temperature-

induced petiole elongation (TIPE), and (C) temperature-induced leaf expansion (TILE). Data

correspond to the relative data presented in Figure 1.

Additional file 2: Table S1. Descriptive statistics of phenotypes analyzed in the Bay-0 x Sha

population.

Additional file 3: Table S2. QTL summary statistics.

Additional file 4: Figure S2. Validation of the GIR1 QTL. (A) Haplotype overview of the

heterogeneous inbred family (HIF) 194 that segregates for Bay-0 and Sha within the GIR1

interval and was used for validation and mapping of the GIR1 QTL. (B) Box plots show

relative (28°C/20°C in %) hypocotyl length of 10 days-old seedlings. Different letters denote

statistical differences in temperature responses as assessed by two-way ANOVA (P < 0.05) of

the absolute hypocotyl length data presented in (C). (D) Haplotype overview of the

heterogenous inbred family (HIF) 214 that segregates for Bay-0 and Sha within the GIR5.1

interval and served for the attempted validation of this QTL. (E) Box plots show relative

(28°C/20°C in %) hypocotyl length of 10 days-old seedlings. Different letters denote

statistical differences in temperature responses as assessed by two-way ANOVA (P < 0.05) of

the absolute data presented in (F). The significant differences in TIHE observed for the

parental lines Bay-0 and Sha was not reflected by the two HIF lines 214-B and 214-S that

carried a Bay-0 or Sha allele within the GIR5.1 interval, respectively. As such, the GIR5.1

QTL could not be validated with the available genetic material.

Additional file 5: Figure S3. Effect of altered light conditions on GIR2.1-mediated hypocotyl

elongation. (A) Box plots show relative (28°C/20°C in %) and absolute hypocotyl length of

10 days-old seedlings of Bay-0, Sha, and HIF lines homozygous for either Bay-0 (84-B) or

Sha (84-S) in the GIR2.1 interval. F1 plants derived from a cross of 84-B and 84-S correspond

to the haplotype 84-H in Figure 2A and illustrate the dominance of the Sha over the Bay-0

allele. Different letters denote statistical differences in temperature responses as assessed by

two-way ANOVA (P < 0.05) of the absolute hypocotyl length data. (B) Absolute hypocotyl

length corresponding to the relative data presented in Figure 2B. (C) Hypocotyl length in

monochromatic light conditions. Significant differences among Bay-0 and Sha are observed

in 4 days-old seedlings grown at 20°C in constant blue (4.93 µmol m⁻² sec⁻¹), green (0.32

 $\mu mol\ m^{-2}\ sec^{-1}$), or red (0.89 $\mu mol\ m^{-2}\ sec^{-1}$) light. These differences seem to be regulated

independent of GIR2.1 as 84-B and 84-S did not differ in their growth response. No

differences among genotypes were detected in seedlings grown in far-red (0.024 µmol m⁻² sec⁻¹

1) light.

Additional file 6: Figure S4. GIR2 constitutes a ghost QTL. Setting additional covariates in

the GIR2.1 target region separates the single peak into two linked peaks (compare with Figure

1d), indicating the potential existence of two linked loci. Tick marks on the x axis correspond

to molecular markers in the genetic map of the Bay-0 and Sha mapping population. Circles on

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the x axis show co-variates set for composite interval mapping.

Additional file 7: Figure S5. Photoperiod and allele effects on ELF3-mediated TIHE. TIHE

comparison of 7 days-old seedlings grown either in short day (SD) or long day (LD)

photoperiods. Box plots show (A) relative (28/20°C in %) and (B) absolute hypocotyl length

for Bay-0, Sha and MAGIC population parental lines Sf-2 and Zu-0 that also carry

polymorphisms in ELF3. While Sf-2 and Zu-0 show a strong TIHE response in SD, the

response for Sf-2 and Zu-0 is much weaker under LD. (A) Different letters in denote

statistical differences in temperature responses as assessed by two-way ANOVA (P < 0.05) of

the absolute hypocotyl length data.

Additional file 8: Methods S1. Estimation of heritability and QTL analysis procedure.

Additional file 9: Supplementary Dataset 1. Phenotypic data used for QTL mapping. This

dataset has been uploaded to figshare and can be accessed via

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http://dx.doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.1339892.









