# <sup>1</sup> Transcriptional changes suggest a major

# <sup>2</sup> involvement of Gibberellins in Trifolium

# <sup>3</sup> *pratense* regrowth after mowing

4 Short title: Gibberellin influences regrowth in red clover

- 5 Authors: Denise Brigitte Herbert (1)\*, Thomas Gross (1)\*, Oliver Rupp (2), Annette Becker (1)
- 6 \* These authors contributed equally to this work
- 7 Affiliations:
- 8 (1) Justus Liebig University, Institute of Botany, Heinrich-Buff-Ring 38, D-35392 Giessen, Germany
- 9 (2) Justus Liebig University, Department of Bioinformatics and Systems Biology, Heinrich-Buff-Ring
- 10 26-32, D-35392, Giessen, Germany
- 11 Corresponding author: Denise Herbert (Denise.Herbert@bio.uni-giessen.de)

## 12 Abstract

Red clover (*Trifolium pratense*) is used worldwide as a fodder plant due its high nutritional value. In response to mowing, red clover exhibits specific morphological traits to compensate the loss of biomass. The morphological reaction is well described, but knowledge of the underlying molecular mechanisms are still lacking. Here we characterize the molecular genetic response to mowing of red clover by using comparative transcriptomics in greenhouse conditions and agriculturally used field. The analysis of mown and control plants revealed candidate genes possibly regulating crucial steps of the genetic network governing the regrowth reaction. In addition, multiple identified gibberellic acid (GA) related genes suggest a major role for GA in establishing the regrowth morphology of red
clover. Mown red clover plants showing this regrowth morphology were partially "rescued" by
exogenous GA application, demonstrating the influence of GA during regrowth. Our findings provide
insights into the physiological and genetic processes of mowing red clover, to serve as a base for red
clover yield improvement.

25

## 26 Introduction

27 Trifolium pratense (red clover) is an important worldwide forage crop and thus of great economic 28 interest. This perennial plant offers several advantages like a high protein content and soil improving 29 characteristics, which can reduce the use of artificial nitrogen application and can enhance intake in 30 livestock. Well-known disadvantages of red clover include poor persistence under several land use scenarios, like grazing or cutting [1–3]. T. pratense is a member of the Fabaceae (or legumes), which 31 32 are, due to their economic value, among the most examined families in the plant kingdom with 33 genome sequences available for species like *Medicago truncatula* (barrel clover) [4], Lotus japonicus 34 (birdsfoot trefoil) [5], Glycine max (soy) [6], Phaseolus vulgaris (common bean) [7], Cicer arietinum 35 (chickpea) [8], Vigna unguiculata (cowpea) [9], Trifolium subterraneum (subterranean clover) [10] 36 Trifolium medium (zigzag clover) [11], and T. pratense (red clover) [12,13].

Facing today's challenges such as an increased demand on food production in an era of global climate change together with the aim to solve these problems in an environmental friendly and sustainable way requires improvement of forage crops like *T. pratense* [14,15]. *T. pratense* breeding aims to offer genotypes with improved key agronomic traits (dry matter yield, high quality, resistance to diseases and abiotic/biotic stress, persistency, [16]), while improving its regrowth ability [2,17]. Unfortunately, the morphological investigations of several *T. pratense* populations showed a correlation of persistency with non-favorable traits, like small plant size and prostrate growth habit [18]. Moreover, most *T. pratense* cultivars or accessions are locally adapted and require their specific local conditions to show the favored traits [19,20], which decreases the stability for individual traits in breeding efforts [21]. *T. pratense* exhibits significant intraspecific variation due to high intrapopulation genetic diversity, thus, persistence and performance in response to mowing or cutting, depends on the variety, as well as developmental stage at the moment of damage [22–25].

50 Persistency can be defined as a sustained forage yield over several growing periods [26] and is a 51 complex trait influenced by a variety of abiotic and biotic factors, and the regrowth ability of a plant 52 [27]. Plants with high regrowth ability can survive more frequent and intense biomass loss and could 53 be therefore more persistent. Decapitation or biomass loss due to herbivory or mowing triggers a 54 complex reaction affected by environmental conditions, plant morphology, architecture, 55 developmental stage and genotype [22]. After decapitation, the first stress response in other 56 legumes like *Medicago sativa* and *Pisum sativum* involves the production of phytohormones: 57 cytokinine, auxin, and strigolactones [28–30]. In addition, the mobilization of energy reserves is 58 activated [31]. Phenotypic plasticity of plant architecture in combination with alterations of hormone concentrations can be observed in *P. sativum (pea)* and *T. pratense* after decapitation 59 [25,30,32]. However, the molecular processes allowing plants to thrive even after an enormous loss 60 of biomass remain still unclear, even in Arabidopsis thaliana [33,34]. 61

Here, we compare the transcriptomes of mown (cut) vs. unmown (uncut) *T. pratense* plants from two different field locations on the Biodiversity Exploratory "Heinich-Dün" [35] and greenhouse grown plants. Our field samples were subjected to standard agricultural treatment and we can thus discriminate transcriptional changes caused by abiotic factors and biotic interactions in the field from those regulating regrowth. We present the identification and *in silico* characterization of putative developmental regulators differentially expressed in the regrowth phase after mowing in the field and in the greenhouse that may contribute to the regrowth response of *T. pratense* and

demonstrate that gibberellic acid (GA) is a major regulator of specific aspects of the regrowthmorphology in red clover.

71

## 72 Material and Methods

# Plant growth conditions, GA treatment, tissue sampling, and RNA extraction, cDNA library construction and RNA-Seq

75

76 Plant material for RNA-Seq was collected from three locations (fields and greenhouse, Fig. 1 A and 77 table S1, thereby one field location includes two neighboring field sites). Field plant tissue for RNA-78 Seq was sampled on 11.06.2014 within the area of the Biodiversity Exploratory "Hainich-Dün" [35], 79 located in Thuringia, Germany. Material was sampled on four neighboring sites; two mown pastures 80 and two meadows that were not mown (FaM, FaNM, FbM, FbNM). For the greenhouse samples, 81 seeds of regional T. pratense populations (from a region covering mainly Thuringia, Saxony, Saxony-82 Anhalt, Thuringian Forest and Uckermarck, Germany) were obtained from the Rieger Hofmann seed 83 company (Blaufelden, Germany). Plants were grown in 23 °C with 16 h of light in pots of 12 cm 84 diameter. Plants in the greenhouse were watered daily and compound fertilizer (8'8'6'+) was given 85 every ten days. After 122 days after sowing, half of the plants were cut to 5 cm (GM and GNM). 86 Material from mown plants was sampled approximately 14 days after mowing/cutting, to avoid 87 sequencing of the transcripts related to the first stress response [36]. After collection, the samples 88 were snap frozen in liquid nitrogen. For each site and the greenhouse two biological replicates of four pooled plants (shoot and leaf material) each were collected. 89

91 Fig. 1: Overview of sampling locations and classification of DEGs. A: Overview of the sampling 92 locations for the plant material. Names of the fields belonging to the Biodiversity Exploratory or 93 greenhouse populations are shown, as well as the conditions (mown/cut and not mown/uncut, HG 94 15 and HG 42; HG13 and HG 08). Distances between sampling locations in the field have been 95 estimated. B-D: Classification of DEGs with a |log2FoldChange| <2. Percentage share of each class to 96 the corresponding gene list is shown in bar charts B: Classes of DEGs from field a mown vs. unmown. 97 C: Classes of DE field b mown vs. not mown. D: Classes of DE contigs of mown plants grown in the 98 greenhouse vs. unmown plants. E-F: Shared genes between the different treatments and locations. 99 The Venn diagrams show the number of shared upregulated gene within the "mown" samples (E) 100 and the number of shared genes within the "not mown" samples (F), blue circles indicate 101 greenhouse data, green field a and red field b. G: Number of genes belonging to the class 102 "phytohormones" within the DEG list of field (a and b) and greenhouse transcriptomes. The pie chart 103 shows the number of the different plant phytohormones (absicic acid, ABA; auxin, AUX; genes 104 common between the auxin and cytokinin pathway, AUX/CK; cytokinin, CK; ethylene, ET; 105 gibberellins, GA; jasmonic acid; JA; salicylic acid, SA).

106

107 RNA was extracted using NucleoSpin<sup>®</sup> RNA Plant Kit (Macherey-Nagel GmbH & Co. KG, Düren, 108 Germany) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Preparation of the cDNA libraries and the 109 strand-specific sequencing was conducted by Eurofins Genomics (Ebersberg, Germany). The RNAs of 110 four individuals were pooled for each RNA-Seq library and sequenced on an Illumina Hiseq2000 111 platform with chemistry v3.0, creating 2x 100 bp paired end reads.

112 In order to assess the effect of GA during the regrowth reaction of *T. pratense*, 14 red clover plants 113 were mown as described in [25]. Of these plants, seven were used as control plants and seven plants 114 were sprayed with 100  $\mu$ M GA<sub>3</sub> (Duchefa Biochemie B.V, Haarlem, The Netherlands) once per week 115 as described in [37]. Different morphological characters (leaf number, length/width of leaflets,

116 petiole length, number of inflorescences, and number of main shoots) were measured for four

117 weeks.

118

#### 119 Assembly of reference transcriptome and annotation

120

121 The raw-read-quality of the RNA-Seq data was analyzed with FastQC (available online at: 122 http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc). Illumina adapter and low quality regions were trimmed using Trimmomatic [38] with ILLUMINACLIP, SLIDINGWINDOW:5:20 and 123 124 MINLEN:50 options. Quality trimmed reads were pooled and digitally normalized [39]. Multiple de 125 novo assemblies were computed using Trinity [40] and Oases [41] with all odd k-mer parameters 126 between 19 and 85. In addition, a genome guided assembly was performed using Trinity using the 127 draft genome of T. pratense 1.0 (GCA\_000583005.2) [12,42]. The resulting contigs were screened for 128 potential coding sequences (CDS) using TransDecoder (https://transdecoder.github.io/). The 129 EvidentialGene pipeline (http://arthropods.eugenes.org/EvidentialGene/about/EvidentialGene 130 \_trassembly\_pipe.html) was used to merge and filter the contigs based on the TransDecoder CDS 131 prediction. Completeness of the final contig was confirmed by computing the mapping-rate of the 132 non-normalized reads to the contigs. The raw sequence reads can be found at NCBI: PRJNA561285.

The contigs were uploaded to the "Sequence Analysis and Management System" (SAMS) [43] for functional annotation with the SwissProt [44], TrEMBL [45] and Phytozome [46] (e-value cutoff of 1e-5) databases. Additionally, attributes like gene name or functional description were extracted from the blast hits. Contigs were mapped to the *T. pratense* reference genome using gmap [47]. All non-Viridiplantae contigs were discarded. Transcription factors were identified using a blastp search of the protein sequences against the plant transcription factor database Potsdam (PInTFDB) (48 [48], version 3.0, http://plntfdb.bio.uni-potsdam.de/v3.0/) protein database with an e-value cutoff of 1e20. The files contain the functional annotation description of all transcripts e-Appendix (Table S11).

141

# Differential gene expression analysis, enrichment analysis, and classification of differentially expressed genes

144

145 Read counts for each contig of the final assembly in each sample were computed using RSEM [49] 146 with bowtie mapping. To identify differentially expressed T. pratense genes (DEG) a pairwise 147 comparison of all treatments was preformed using the DESeq2 [50] tool with FDR  $\leq$  0.01 and  $|\log FoldChange| \ge 2$  between FaM and FaNM, FbM and FbNM; GM and GNM respectively. The top 148 149 20 DEG were determined for each comparison based on the expression strength (log2 fold change). 150 Homologues in the next closest species and A. thaliana for each T. pratense candidate gene were 151 searched based on the T. pratense genome sequence deposited in Phytozome [46]. TPM (transcript 152 per million) values were calculated to estimate contig expression level (Wagner et al 2012).

We used the description and gene names obtained from TrEMBLE and SwissProt to search the UniProt [51], NCBI [52] and TAIR [53] databases to obtain further information (Table S8). Raw reads that were assembled to contigs, exhibiting a gene structure (ORF) and attained a putative annotation referred to below as genes.

157

#### 158 Blast2Go Analysis of T. pratense genomes

159

160 Two local BLAST searches [54] with word-size of 3, e-value of 1.0E-3 and HSP length cutoff of 33 161 were performed against the PInTFDB using Blast2GO [55]. Only the blast hits with the highest 162 similarity were used for further comparisons (number of BLAST hits = 1), sequences with similarity below 50% and an e-value higher than 1.0e-4 were omitted. The Blast2GO output was compared 163 164 with in-house python3-script utilizing NumPy (https://numpy.org/), Pandas an (https://pandas.pydata.org/) and Seaborn (https://seaborn.pydata.org/) applying the list of 165 166 transcription factors (TF) downloaded from PInTFDB (http://pIntfdb.bio.uni-potsdam.de/v3.0/) to 167 the blast output and furthermore visualizing the generated datasets. We searched Uniprot database 168 hits for development and phytohormone related genes. Subsequently, gene IDs of gibberellin genes 169 we searched for matches within our annotated *T. pratense* transcriptomes. Matches were filtered 170 based on TPM values and classified based on biosynthesis, catabolism activation/repression or 171 signaling/response, corresponding expression patterns within the transcriptome have been 172 identified additionally.

- 173
- 174

### 175 **Results**

#### 176 RNA-Seq results, *de novo* assembly, and functional description of contigs

177

The RNA-Seq produced a total number of short reads between 44.7 and 58.1 million for each library with two exceptions (table S2) totaling 608,041,012 raw reads. The *de novo* assembly of the reference transcriptome of *T. pratense* produced 44,643 contigs, of which 41,505 contigs were annotated and 29,781 contigs were identified as plant specific. The minimum length of the contigs was 124 bp, the maximum length 1171.31 bp (Table S3). After the *de novo* assembly of the *T. pratense* transcriptome, each individual library was mapped back against the reference

transcriptome individually, to determine the overall alignment rate, which was between 77.85 % and
90.32 % (Table S4).

186 63 % of the 44,643 contigs could be mapped to a known locus of the *T. pratense* genome annotation [12,42]. 32 % could be mapped to an unknown locus of the *T. pratense* genome and 5 % could not be 187 188 mapped to the *T. pratense* genome (Fig. S1). All plant-specific contigs were annotated with several 189 databases (Table S5). To further verify the quality of our replicates, we identified the transcripts 190 shared by the two replicates. We identified TPM values for each transcript and discarded transcripts 191 with TPM values <1. Then we compared the transcripts of each library with each other and 192 calculated the percentage of this number compared with the total number of transcripts within each library. The percentage of transcripts shared between the two replicates is between 90 % and 94 % 193 194 for all treatments/localities, suggesting that the RNA-Seq data are reproducible (Table S6).

# Specific transcriptional regulator families are differentially expressed during the regrowth process

We were firstly interested to identify transcriptional regulators initiating and maintaining the regrowth morphology and mapped the transcriptome to the PInTFDB to identify these transcriptional regulators. All members of a specific transcriptional regulator family (TRF) were *in silico* identified in the transcriptome and their expression was compared between mown and unmown plants (Fig. S2). Only those TRFs are shown for which at least 10% of the members showed significantly differential expression between mown and unmown conditions (Fig. 2).

203

Fig. 2: Differentially expressed TRF members in mown and not mown *T. pratense* plants. The y-axis shows the number of expressed contigs (TPM value over 5 TPM) that are members of the specific TRF. Names of the transcriptomes and TRFs are given on the x-axis. Expression of transcription factor members was compared in a pairwise manner (GM vs GNM, FaM vs FaNM, FbM vs FbNM). Shown are only those plant TRFs in which at least one of the comparisons resulted in a difference of more
than 10% of the contigs significantly upregulated in either the mown or the unmown condition
(orange bars).

211

17 TRFs were identified of which at least 10% of the members showed differential expression in the
mown versus unmown comparisons (Fig. 2): ABI3VP1, AP2-EREBP, C<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>-Dof, C<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>-GATA, GRAS, HSF,
LOB, MADS, mTERF, MYB, NAC, PHD, SBP, SNF2, TCP, TRAF, WRKY.

215 Two TRFs show expression activation upon mowing: a significant number of WRKY transcripts are 216 up-regulated in mown plants regardless of the provenance. MADS-box transcripts were found 217 upregulated as well, but only in the field-derived transcriptomes. Generally, only five of the 17 TRFs 218 analyzed here showed significant changes in expression towards mowing in the greenhouse-derived 219 plants suggesting that they react less strongly towards mowing than the field-derived plants. Six 220 TRFs (AP2-EREBP, MYB, NAC, PHD, SBP, and TCP) show transcriptional changes in reaction to mowing only in field location a and three TRFs (mTERF, SNF2, TRAF) show this only in field location b 221 222 suggesting that combination of biotic and abiotic factors with mowing differ between the two field 223 locations.

Notably, only the C<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>-GATA TRF reacts towards mowing under greenhouse but not under fieldconditions suggesting that transcriptional changes in reaction to other biotic and abiotic factors may overlay the regrowth reaction. Taken together, the TRF analysis shows that the reaction towards mowing induces transcriptional changes in only a subset of TRFs, suggesting that those play a major role in relieving the stress biomass loss and regrowth.

#### 230 Differentially expressed genes analysis reveals diverse subsets of genes involved

#### 231 in regrowth influenced by location and environmental conditions

232

To identify gene expression responses underlying the regrowth response after mowing digital gene expression analysis was performed comparing FaM vs FaNM; FbM vs FbNM; GM vs GNM to identify DETs (Table S12) from mown plants. Interestingly, using the log fold change 2, the number of DEG is rather similar in all comparisons, ranging from 119 (Gm vs. GNM) to 142 (FaM vs. FaNM) (Table 1).

237

Table 1 Table shows the numbers of differentially expressed transcripts (contigs) between libraries with changes above
 logfold 2. Up- or down regulation for each comparison is shown.

Analysis	total	Number of transcripts up regulated	Number of transcripts down regulated
	DEG	(library)	(library)
GM vs. GNM	119	54 (greenhouse mown)	65 (greenhouse not mown)
FaM vs. FaNM	142	49 (mown)	93 (not mown)
FbM vs. FbNM	122	59 (mown)	63 (not mown)

240

We were then interested to identify developmental processes in greater detail that are required for the regrowth process. Thus, the results of the DEG analysis were restructured such that the DEG were grouped in 16 descriptive classes by database and literature mining (Table S7 and Table S8). Those classes describe major functional groups and serve to identify the potential role of a gene.

The results of the top 20 DEG showed that the greenhouse plants displayed more DEG involved in regrowth processes and less genes related to environmental conditions when compared with field plants. Most likely, the greenhouse grown plants displayed the regrowth reaction more prominently,

as they grew under less stressful conditions than the field grown plants, for which more stress

249 related DEG were observed (Fig. 1 B-D /Table 2-4).

Table 2: Top twenty differentially expressed genes of GM vs. GNM analysis. The table shows the transcript name, log2 fold change of the corresponding transcript, the library in which the

transcript is upregulated (pattern), gene name based on *T. pratense* genome annotation, corresponding Phytozome description, gene name and species name of the next homologues and

252	A. thaliana gene name and locus name based on information available on Tair.
-----	------------------------------------------------------------------------------

ID	Patt	Contig ID	log2	Class (basis of classifiation)	Gene name T. Pratense	Next homologue	Next homologue	A. thaliana	A. thaliana
	ern		Fold			gene name	species name	gene name	locus name
			Chan						
			ge						
1	GHN	tdn_99733	-9.5	Growth ( <i>M. truncatula</i> )	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA4544.v2	Medtr4g029550.1	M. truncatula	-	-
	Μ								
2	GHN	k41_54584	-6.3	Biotic stress (T.pratense, M. truncatula, A.	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA28349.v2	Medtr5g073620.1	M. truncatula	ATEXO70B1	AT5G58430
	М			thaliana)					
3	GHN	tdn_92791	-5.5	Abiotic/biotic stress (T.pratense, M.	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA20498.v2	Medtr1g041150.1	M. truncatula	ΑΤСΡΚ1	AT5G04870
	Μ			truncatula, A. thaliana)					
4	GHN	k41_130218	-5.5	-	-	-	-	-	-
	М								
5	GHN	tdn_53091	-4.8	Phytohormone (M. truncatula, A. thaliana)	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA39912.v2	Medtr4g010250.1	M. truncatula	-	AT5G20190
	М								
6	GHN	tgg_43136	-4.4	Transcription (M. truncatula, A. thaliana)	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA29629.v2	Medtr4g098630.1	M. truncatula	ANAC071	AT4G17980
	М								
7	GHN	tdn_141837	-4.3	Abiotic stress (T.pratense, M. truncatula, A.	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA760.v2	Medtr2g022700.1	M. truncatula	ATGPT2	AT1G61800
7	GHN	tdn_141837	-4.3	Abiotic stress (T.pratense, M. truncatula, A.	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA760.v2	Medtr2g022700.1	M. truncatula	ATGPT2	

	Μ			thaliana)					
8	GHN	tdn_40997	-4.2	Abiotic stress (T.pratense, M. truncatula, A.	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA25718.v2	Medtr4g130540.1	M. truncatula	HSP70B	AT1G16030
	М			thaliana)					
9	GHN	k71_5292	-4.1	Biotic stress (T.pratense, M. truncatula)	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA23166.v2	Medtr0163s0020.	M. truncatula	LECRK-IX.1	AT5G10530
	М					1			
10	GHN	k59_6358	-3.9	Growth (T.pratense, M. truncatula, A.	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA12337.v2	Medtr3g435430.1	M. truncatula	ATEXP15	AT2G03090
	М			thaliana)					
11	GHM	tdn_86219	8.0	Biotic stress (T.pratense, M. truncatula, A.	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA29036.v2	Medtr4g066210.1	M. truncatula	BGLU12	AT5G42260
				thaliana)					
12	GHM	k23_115785	8.0	Abiotic stress (T.pratense, M. truncatula, A.	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA22071.v2	Glyma.01G00100	G. max	-	AT5G58110
				thaliana)		0.1			
13	GHM	tdn_91159	8.1	Biotic stress (T.pratense, M. truncatula, A.	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA7745.v2	Medtr4g035870.1	M. truncatula	-	AT5G62360
				thaliana)					
14	GHM	k65_43517	8.3	Phytohormone (T.pratense, A. thaliana)	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA6281.v2	Medtr1g082750.1	M. truncatula	ATAMI1	AT1G08980
15	GHM	tgg_18067	8.4	-	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA32019.v2	-	-	-	-
16	GHM	k61_38813	9.0	-	-	-	-	-	-
							-		
17	GHM	k49_82496	9.0	Abiotic/biotic stress (G. max, A. thaliana)	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA37976.v2	Glyma.06G26880	G. max	-	AT4G04790
						0.1			

18	GHM	k67_38815	9.1	Biotic stress (T.pratense)	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA41666.v2	Medtr0062s0020.	M. truncatula	-	-
						1			
19	GHM	k45_11164	9.6	Transcription (T.pratense)	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA29953.v2	Medtr3g092510.1	M. truncatula	ATRBP37	AT4G10610
20	CLINA	tala 25404	0.0	Crewth (Dhannalus unleavie)	T=57577 TCAC +2	Rhund 000002200	<u>Ob see a luca un la ania</u>		
20	GHM	tdn_25484	9.6	Growth (Phaseolus vulgaris)	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA13093.v2	Phvul.006G03380	Phaseolus vulgaris	-	-
						0.1			

253

254

Table 3: Top twenty differentially expressed genes of FaM vs. FaNM analysis. The table shows the transcript name, log2 fold change of the corresponding transcript, the library in which

256 the transcript is upregulated (pattern), gene name based on *T. pratense* genome annotation, corresponding Phytozome description, gene name and species name of the next homologues

and *A. thaliana* gene name and locus name based on information available on Tair.

ID	Pattern	Contig ID	log2F	Class (basis of classifiation)	Gene name T. pratense	Next homologue	Next homologue	A. thaliana	A. thaliana
			oldCh			gen name	species name	gene name	locus name
			ange						
1	TPNM2	k33_17052	-9,0	Biotic stress (T. pratense, M. truncatula, A.	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA21474.v2	Medtr4g079440.1	M. truncatula	na	AT1G06260
				thaliana)					
2	TPNM2	k43_11179	-8,8	Biotic stress ( <i>M. truncatula</i> )	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA26333.v2	Medtr8g101900.1	M. truncatula	CCOAOMT7	AT4G26220
		2							
3	TPNM2	tdn_34568	-8,6	-	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA9104.v2	Glyma.13G06180	G. max	-	AT5G39530
						0.1			
4	TPNM2	tdn_49640	-8,6	-	-	-	-	-	-

5	TPNM2	tdn_58745	-8,5	Biotic stress (T. pratense, M. truncatula, A.	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA20190.v2	Medtr8g075200.1	M. truncatula	-	AT1G75900
				thaliana)					
6	TPNM2	tdn_47209	-8,5	Growth (M. truncatula, A. thaliana)	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA10703.v2	Medtr1g053315.1	M. truncatula	-	AT1G03390
7	TPNM2	tdn_48478	-8,4	Biotic stress (T. pratense, M. truncatula, A.	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA19516.v2	Medtr2g099020.1	M. truncatula	-	AT3G59510
				thaliana)					
8	TPNM2	k41_17597	-8,4	Growth stress (T. pratense, M. truncatula, A.	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA8526.v2	Medtr1g036490.1	M. truncatula	ATCOMT,	AT5G54160
				thaliana)				ATOMT1	
9	TPNM2	k51_82581	-8,2	Growth (T. pratense)	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA23127.v2	Medtr2g436480.1	M. truncatula	KCS21	AT5G49070
10	TPNM2	tdn_82424	-8,1	Growth (T. pratense)	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA17103.v2	Medtr2g013740.1	M. truncatula	KCS10	AT2G26250
11	TPM2	k49_380	7,5	Development (A. thaliana)	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA37185.v2	SapurV1A.0885s0	Salix purpurea	DAYSLEEPER	AT3G42170
						040.1			
12	TPM2	tdn_49869	7,6	-	-	-	-	-	-
13	TPM2	tdn_54983	7,7	-	-	-	-	-	-
14	TPM2	k37_9029	7,8	-	-	-	-	-	-
15	TPM2	k45_6120	8,4	-	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA2166.v2	Medtr2g007510.1	M. truncatula	-	-
16	TPM2	k71_23808	8,4	Development (T. pratense, M. truncatula, A.	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA14131.v2	Medtr1g021320.1	M. truncatula	-	AT4G33280
				thaliana)					
17	TPM2	k59_3541	8,4	Development (T. pratense, M. truncatula, A.	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA34193.v2	Medtr4g089030.1	M. truncatula	CYP71A26	AT3G48270
				thaliana)					
18	TPM2	k59_360	8,6	Metabolism (Linum usitatissimum, T.	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA21875.v2	Lus10012445	Linum usitatissimum	-	AT1G50020
				pratense)					
19	TPM2	k53_38903	9,0	Abiotic stress (A. thaliana)	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA37328.v2	Medtr8g063190.1	M. truncatula	PRIN2	AT1G10522

 20
 TPM2
 tdn\_12997
 9,6
 AT5G01140

 8
 8

Table 4: Top twenty differentially expressed genes of FbM vs. FbNM analysis. The table shows the transcript name, log2 fold change of the corresponding transcript, the library in which the transcript is upregulated (pattern), gene name based on *T. pratense* genome annotation, corresponding Phytozome description, gene name and species name of the next homologues and *A. thaliana* gene name and locus name based on information available on Tair.

ID	Patter	Contig ID	log2	Class (basis of classifiation)	Gene name T. pratense	Next homologue	next homologue	A. thaliana	A. thaliana
	n		Fold			gen name	species name	gene name	locus name
1	TPNM 3	tdn_100726	-9,4	Biotic stress (T. pratense, M. truncatula, A. thaliana)	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA24659.v2	Medtr4g094772.1	M. truncatula	CYP81D	AT4G37340
2	TPNM 3	tgg_49631	-8,0	Biotic stress (T. pratense, M. truncatula, A. thaliana)	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA37846.v2	Medtr6g034470.1	M. truncatula	-	AT2G34930
3	TPNM 3	tdn_152262	-7,9	-	-	-	-	-	-
4	TPNM 3	tdn_56712	-7,9	Biotic stress (T. pratense, M. truncatula)	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA30556.v2	Medtr8g027540.1	M. truncatula	-	-
5	TPNM 3	tdn_87762	-7,9	Biotic stress (T. pratense, M. truncatula, A. thaliana)	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA10533.v2	Medtr7g451400.1	M. truncatula	ATMCP1B, ATMCPB1	AT1G02170

6	TPNM	tdn_86129	-7,1	General cell functions (T. pratense, M.	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA10207.v2	Glyma.11G15450	G. max	RPB5E	AT3G54490
	3			truncatula, A. thaliana)		0.1			
7	TPNM 3	k55_46241	-6,9	Growth (T.pratense, M. truncatula, A. thaliana)	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA31452.v2	Medtr4g128150.1	M. truncatula	histone 4	AT2G28740
8	TPNM 3	tdn_55533	-6,2	Abiotic stress (T. pratense, M. truncatula, A. thaliana)	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA39263.v2	Medtr5g007790.1	M. truncatula	ATCRM1, ATXPO1	AT5G17020
9	TPNM 3	tgg_51443	-4,7	Growth (T. pratense, M. truncatula, A. thaliana)	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA37076.v2	Medtr5g019580.2	M. truncatula	UGT72E2	AT5G66690
10	TPNM 3	tdn_136706	-4,7	-	•	-	-	-	-
11	TPM1	tdn_140636	8,8	General cell functions (T. pratense, M. truncatula, A. thaliana)	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA28209.v2	Medtr8g005980.1	M. truncatula	C-NAD-MDH2	AT5G43330
12	TPM1	tdn_154158	8,9	General cell functions ( <i>T. pratense, M.</i> truncatula)	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA39482.v2	Medtr3g114970.2	M. truncatula	-	AT5G55150
13	TPM1	tdn_65187	9,1	Transposon (T. pratense, Prunus persica A. thaliana)	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA30115.v2	Prupe.4G011200. 1	Prunus persica	-	AT4G29090
14	TPM1	tdn_100956	9,2	Metabolism (T. pratense, Capsella rubella, A. thaliana)	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA9542.v2	Carubv10008027 m	Capsella rubella	AHA2	AT4G30190
15	TPM1	k63_21505	9,3	Biotic stress (T. pratense, M. truncatula, A. thaliana)	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA19467.v2	Medtr3g022400.1	M. truncatula	-	AT3G14470

16	TPM1	tdn_142681	9,3	Secondary metabolite biosynthesis (T.	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA15473.v2	Medtr8g074550.1	M. truncatula	-	AT2G18570
				pratense, M. truncatula, A. thaliana)					
17	TPM1	k45_6120	9,6	-	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA2166.v2	Medtr2g007510.1	M. truncatula	-	-
18	TPM1	tdn_52922	10,1	-	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA41271.v2	mrna20290.1- v1.0-hybrid	Fragaria vesca	-	AT1G21280
19	TPM1	tdn_65185	10,9	-	-	-	-	-	-
20	TPM1	tdn_109277	11,7	Transcription (T. pratense, M. truncatula, A. thaliana)	Tp57577_TGAC_v2_mRNA29560.v2	Medtr5g028610.1	M. truncatula	-	AT3G14460

265

Several functional groups show a similar pattern in the mown vs. unmown plants of all three locations: more genes related to biotic stress processes and metabolism were upregulated in the unmown locations (Fig. 1 B-D). In mown plants, more genes related to signaling and transposons were upregulated. Only a single functional group (growth) shows similar patterns in only the field locations suggesting that plants in the two field locations cope with very different habitat conditions and stress factors.

272 The photosynthesis- and phytohormone-related genes of field a show a similar pattern to the 273 greenhouse plants as do the development- and signaling related genes. Genes related to 274 development, general cell functions and transcription have similar patterns between field b and the 275 greenhouse grown plants, such that more transcription - and development-related genes are 276 upregulated in mown plants. DEG related to symbiosis were found upregulated in unmown plants 277 grown in the greenhouse, even though these plants were fertilized. And unexpectedly, senescence-278 related genes are upregulated in mown plants of field A. However, because our analysis cannot 279 discriminate between activating and repressing factors of senescence, we cannot conclude from our 280 data if the mown plants have activated or repressed their senescence program.

The largest group of differentially expressed genes is the one related to biotic stress with up to 38% differentially expressed genes in one location (field b, Fig. 1 C). This suggests that different biotic stresses act upon the mown vs. unmown plants. A similar phenomenon can be observed for growth related processes, where up to 24% genes were upregulated in the mown and unmown plants indicating that different growth programs are active in mown vs. unmown plants.

Taken together we can state that mown plants in all locations change their regulatory programs upon mowing to cope with different biotic factors suggesting that they massively change their metabolism and signaling processes. Further, transposons are more active in mown plants. Apart

from these conclusions, the molecular answer to substantial biomass loss differs between all threelocations.

291 To find similarly regulated genes between the treatments and/or locations, a Venn diagram was 292 generated to compare the number of shared significantly DEG within the "mown" samples and the 293 "not mown" samples (Fig. 1 E-F, Table S9). Within the "mown" samples we detected no overlap 294 between the groups with the exception of four genes that are differentially expressed and 295 upregulated in "mown" condition and are shared between the two field transcriptomes (FbM and 296 FaM (Fig. 1 E). Within the "not mown" samples also four genes are shared between the field 297 transcriptomes (FbNM and FaNM)) and one is shared between the field b and the greenhouse (Fig. 1 298 F). No genes are shared between all three samples, neither in the "mown" treatment, nor in the "not 299 mown" treatment. The genes that were shared between the transcriptomes belong to the main classes "growth", "phytohormone", "general cell functions", "biotic stress", "development" and 300 "transcription" (Table S9). 301

302 Two of the genes could not be annotated. The annotated genes include for example genes 303 tdn\_60472 (shared between FaM/FbM, class: phytohormone), that was found to be the homolog of the A. thaliana locus AT1G75750, describing a GA-responsive GASA1 protein homolog. Another A. 304 305 thaliana homolog was identified, Chitinase A (ATCHIA), shared between FaNM/FbNM (tdn\_129843, 306 class: biotic stress). In addition one gene was found, with a *T. pratense* annotation but no further 307 description or homologs to A. thaliana (k45\_6120, shared between FaM/FbM). This suggests that 308 the molecular mechanisms directing regrowth overlaid by other processes, such as stress response 309 which have a more dramatic impact on the number of DEG than growth processes have. The shared 310 genes between the field conditions and the almost complete absence of shared genes between field 311 and greenhouse indicates that the growth conditions in the field are more like each other, even 312 when the fields are far apart from each other than any field to a greenhouse.

313

#### 314 Gibberellins are major players in the regrowth reaction

315

As phytohormones play a major role in the regulation of development and stress response, we 316 317 identified DEGs related to phytohormone synthesis, homeostasis, transport, and signaling within all transcriptome comparisons (Table 1). DEG links for all major classes of phytohormones were 318 319 identified, except for strigolactone. DEGs association to four phytohormones was most abundant: 320 abscic acid (ABA, 8 DEGs), gibberellins (GA, 8 DEGs), salicylic acid (SA, 6 DEGs), and auxin (AUX, 5 DEGs) (Fig. 1 G). While ABA and SA are mainly involved in response to biotic and abiotic stresses, and 321 322 AUX is known to play a major role in growth and development, we identified GA as a novel candidate 323 phytohormone for regrowth response.

To learn more about the role of GA in the regrowth response, we identified 32 GA-related genes out of 151 within the transcriptomes of the greenhouse and the field grown plants, matching our selection criteria (TPM <5, involved in GA biosynthesis, signaling, GA responsive genes or catabolism, displaying certain expression patterns Fig. 3 A) and classified them according to their function in the GA biosynthesis and signaling processes (Table S13). Ranges of expression strength were calculated and color coded to compare expression patterns (Fig. 3 A).

330

Fig. 3: Analysis of GA related contigs and regrowth processes. A) Differentially expressed GA-related contigs within the *T. pratense* transcriptomes. Ranges of expression were calculated (0-39.99% blue (low expression), 40-59.99% grey (neutral expression), 60-100% yellow (high expression)) according to their TPM values. On the left, the gene names of the *T. pratense's* closest *A. thaliana* homologs are given if available. B) and C) show morphological changes in leaves after GA treatment. B) leaflet area in cm<sup>2</sup>, C) length of petioles in cm. The graphs show average values for each sampling date and 95% confidence interval. GA treated plants, blue; control plants, orange.

338

339 Five genes predicted to be involved in GA biosynthesis and signaling show similar expression 340 differences between mown and unmown plants from at least two of the three locations: tdn\_142825 (AT2G46590) and the homologs of ZHD1, GID1B, MPT1, and MPT3. Further, homologs 341 342 of three GA responsive genes (tdn 75969 (MYB 44, AT5G67300), tdn 157683 (Os04g0670200, AT1G47128), and XERICO and homologs of two GA catabolism genes (GA2OX1, GA2OX8) react 343 towards mowing. Interestingly, we also find many differences in expression between the field sites 344 345 in the GA related genes suggesting fundamental differences in the living conditions between the two 346 field sites that also impact regrowth after biomass loss.

When considering only the greenhouse grown plants, homologs of GA biosynthesis genes were not differentially regulated, but genes most likely involved in GA signaling such as *MPT1*, *MPT3*, and *SOC1* are down regulated in mown plants. Five homologs of GA responsive genes are upregulated in the mown plants, while three, among them *XERICO*, are down regulated. Further, of the three *GA2OXIDASE8* homologs encoded by the *T. pratense* genome, two are differentially expressed, one up- and the other down regulated upon mowing. Also, one *GA2OXIDASE1* homolog is down regulated in mown plants.

In summary, this suggests a highly dynamic response of several GA-related genes to mowing *or T. pratense*. Interestingly, we were unable to identify larger changes in the GA biosynthesis pathway of the greenhouse plants, but in GA catabolism genes, suggesting that GA availability in response to mowing is regulated by catabolism and signaling rather than by biosynthesis. Further, we identified two contrastingly regulated sets of genes acting in the mowing response.

#### 359 GA treatment after mowing induces specific changes to the regrowth response

361 Identification of several GA related genes that changed expression suggested an involvement of GA 362 in the regulation of development after mowing. We were interested to corroborate this hypothesis 363 experimentally and treated T. pratense plants with GA after mowing. Weekly GA application during the regrowth process led to significant and specific changes in morphology (Fig. 3 B, C). Previous 364 365 work suggested that regrowing plants produce smaller and rounder leaflets with shorter petioles 366 than uncut plants [25]. Number of leaves, shoots and inflorescences, leaf area and the roundness of 367 leaflets were measured (Fig. 3 B, C, Suppl. Fig. 3). The first visible effects of GA treatment were 368 recognized after 1.5 weeks, showing a significant difference in leaflet area between GA treated and 369 control plants. Later it was observed that the petioles of treated plants were in average twice as long 370 as petioles of untreated plants (16.7  $\pm$  1.9 cm and 8  $\pm$  1.2 cm, respectively). GA leaflets were with 4.7 371  $\pm$  0.9 cm<sup>2</sup> almost double the size than those of untreated plants (2.4  $\pm$  0.6 cm<sup>2</sup>). However, GA treated 372 plants grew only 30% more total leaf area than control plants, because the control plants had more 373 leaves than GA treated plants (Fig. S3 A, B, F, and G). Other morphological traits such as number of 374 inflorescences, leaves, and shoots remained unaffected by the GA treatment. In summary, mown 375 plants normally produce leaves with shorter petioles, restrict their leaflet area and their leaves 376 become rounder. GA treatment partially alleviated these developmental changes such that the mown, GA treated plants produced larger leaves with longer petioles while the leaf shape was 377 378 unaffected by GA treatment.

379

#### 380 **Discussion**

#### 381 **RNA-Seq and assembly**

383 The *de novo* assembly in combination with a reference-based approach for the annotation led to 384 44643 contigs of which 29781 could be annotated as plant-specific (Fig. S1). With the prior *de novo* 385 assembly it was possible to attain 4051 additional contigs that could be not found within the genome of *T. pratense* 1.0 (GCA\_000583005.2) [12,42]. The estimated genome size of *T. pratense* is 386 387 ~440 Mbp [28]. The *T. pratense* transcriptome data in study was ~55 Mbp in size, corresponding to 388 ~12.5% transcribed regions in the *T. pratense* genome, which is within the range of previously 389 published transcriptomes (~10% (42 Mbp) [56]). Interestingly, we found plant-specific, previously 390 unreported contigs suggesting that the T. pratense genome might need improvement in terms of 391 sequencing coverage and protein coding sequence annotation.

392

#### Cell walls are remodeled after mowing

393

394 Our data analysis shows that several plant TRFs are predominantly involved in the regrowth reaction 395 (Fig. 2 and S2). After massive biomass loss like mowing inflicts on *T. pratense*, plants firstly need to 396 seal wounded tissues. Several transcriptional regulators are known to play a role in the tissue 397 reunion processes were identified in Solanum lycopersicum, Cucumis sativus, and A. thaliana 398 (reviewed in [36]). Homologs of these genes were also identified to be differentially regulated in the 399 T. pratense transcriptome after mowing, such as several members of the Auxin Response Factor 400 (ARF) family or the No Apical Meristem (NAM) family member ANAC071. [57] suggested that high 401 levels of AUX induce the expression of ANACO71 via ARF6 and ARF8 (in the upper part of incised 402 stems), at the same time reduced AUX level directly after the cutting activate the expression of 403 RAP2.6L. In addition auxin signaling via ARF6 and ARF8 influences JA synthesis, via the activation of 404 DAD1, thus together with LOX2 increases RAP2.6L expression during tissue reunion in A. thaliana 405 [57]. Further it was demonstrated that ANAC071 can as a transcription factor initiate the expression 406 of members of xyloglucan endotransglucosylase/hydrolases family (XTH20 and XTH19) which 407 recombine hemicellulose chains to drives the cell proliferation during tissue reunion [58].

408 Interestingly, we were able to identify all members of the cell wall remodeling pathway mentioned 409 above, displaying distinct expression pattern with some of them upregulated in mown plants 410 including for example XTH32 (k69\_7012, upregulated in FbM, tdn\_94651, upregulated in GM, FaM 411 and FbM), XTH6 (tdn 91763, upregulated in GM), XTH8 (k71 5058, upregulated in GM, FbM), XTH9 (tdn 113578, upregulated in GM), XTHA (tdn 87930, upregulated in GM), LOX2 (tdn 156279, 412 413 upregulated FbM), and ARF8 (tdn\_156886 upregulated in GM, tdn\_156890 upregulated in GM) 414 (Table S10, S12 and S13). This is suggesting that the early steps in the regrowth reaction are 415 conserved in core eudicots and that the cell wall remodeling processes continue at least two weeks 416 after mowing.

#### 417 Biotic and abiotic stresses contribute to differential gene expression

418

419 RNA-Seq experiments create a large amount of raw data which requires significant downstream 420 analysis to provide a biologically meaningful dataset. We thus compared those 20 genes, that 421 differed most strongly in their expression between the different treatments and locations (see table 422 4-6 and Fig. 1 B-D). These comparisons revealed that the mown greenhouse plants show the highest 423 percentage of genes possibly involved in regrowth processes. Contrasting, the field transcriptomes 424 display patterns of abiotic and biotic stress reactions. Comparisons of the top 20 DEG of the 425 unmown field transcriptomes showed that plants grown on field a and b face biotic stress more than 426 abiotic stress. One of the upregulated genes in field a is a chitinase homolog suggesting that those 427 plants are under attack of fungi and/or insects. Follow-up analyses to correlate environmental 428 conditions, biotic and abiotic stresses monitored within the Biodiversity Exploratories with 429 differential gene expression at the two field locations would be an interesting project but are 430 beyond the scope of this work. In contrast, the top 20 DE transcripts of the greenhouse plants 431 include phytohormone- and transcription-related genes, but also a high proportion of biotic and 432 abiotic stress-related genes. This suggests that also these plants have to cope with stresses, but to a

433 lesser extent. Thus, their regrowth reaction is more visible within the top 20 DEG. Generally, the 434 non-mown plants show a much higher number of upregulated biotic stress-related genes during a 435 phase in their life when senescence commences and they become more susceptible to pathogen 436 attacks. The mown plants during their regrowth phase are not senescing and their younger organs 437 seem be less affected by pathogens.

- 438
- 439

#### 440 GA related genes influence regrowth of *T. pratense*

441 GAs are involved in multiple aspects of plant development like cell elongation, flowering time 442 regulation, and seed germination. Consequently, genes encoding for proteins involved in the 443 synthesis, perception, and catabolism of the various GAs influence plant form. The RNA-Seq data 444 presented showed a high abundance of GA associated genes (Fig. 1 G and 3) which might explain the 445 morphological changes to mowing, such as rounder leaves, temporary dwarf-like appearance, and 446 higher cumulative biomass production in mown plants [25]. Two of the genes, expressed higher in 447 mown plants than in control clover plants are GA200X1 and GA200X2. They are key enzymes of GA 448 synthesis by producing precursors of the active GA forms (reviewed in [59]) and a deficiency in their 449 activity is correlated with a dwarfed growth phenotype in A. thaliana and O. sativa [60,61]. These 450 mutants show also slow down cell division and expansion rate [62]. The upregulation of GA200X2 in mown plants may meet the enhanced demand of active GA to promote and sustain the regrowth to 451 452 increase cell division and elongation. Similar to an increased GA synthesis, the expression of genes 453 involved in reception of GA, such as the ortholog of AtGID1B is enhanced in mown plants. In A. 454 thaliana, loss-of-function mutants of this GA receptor show a dwarfed phenotype [63] and over-455 expression of GID1 in Medicago sativa promotes biomass accumulation and leaf roundness [64].

456 In contrast to these GA responsive genes, GA2OX2 and GA2OX8 are involved in GA catabolism [65] 457 and high levels of GA are known to activate the expression of degrading enzymes [66]. Both genes 458 are expressed higher in not mown control plants than in mown plants and they inactivate the 459 bioactive GAs GA2OX over-expression results in stunted plants and delayed flowering time [67,68]. 460 While mown clover plants show a higher expression of genes associated with growth activation, the 461 ABA biosynthesis regulator XERICO is higher expressed in unmown plants (Table S13). It is a direct 462 target of the DELLA protein RGL2 and in addition negatively regulated by GID1B [69,70]. Thus, 463 XERICO might restrict GA mediated growth to confer the drought adaptation of the not mown plants 464 as more water is lost through the high leaf biomass.

In summary, mowing seems to trigger differential gene expression of GA activating enzymes and catabolic enzymes suggesting a dynamic GA response, but the gene expression patterns were not informative in respect to the consequences for the phenotype. When analyzing the morphological effects of GA application to mown plants (Fig. 3 A-C) we could show that external GA application lead to the disappearance of specific traits typical of the mowing response. Mown plants develop shorter petioles and produce a smaller leaf size area [25], but when treated with GA, leaves and petioles grow up the size seen in unmown plants.

472 The growth promoting abilities of GAs by cell expansion and proliferation via stimulating the 473 degradation of growth-repressing DELLA proteins are well established [62]. The length increase of 474 petioles in GA treated mown plants is in line with reported data from non-mown Pisum sativum 475 (pea) plants, but in those, leaf sizes remained unchanged after GA treatment [71], suggesting a more 476 specific role for GA in the regrowth reaction after biomass loss. Moreover, it was shown in A. 477 thaliana previously, that elevated GA concentrations enhance cell division rates in the distal end of 478 leaves (reviewed in [72]). If these results are transferred to *T. pratense* GA treatment should result in 479 longer leaflets after GA treatment of mown plants. However, the leaf shape did not change, only the

size increased suggesting a regrowth-specific shift of growth pattern which is unaffected by GA but
similar to leaf shape of juvenile plants [25].

482 Interestingly, GA treatment of mown T. pratense plants does not generally lead to stronger 483 longitudinal growth as leaves retained the round shape characteristic for untreated mown plants. 484 These regrowth-specific characteristics can also be found in other species, for example in A. thaliana, Fragaria ananassa, Duchesnea indica and G. max GA treatment causes elongated petioles 485 486 and increased leaf sizes and a more erect growth habit [73-76]. This proposes a new method to 487 increase the accumulation of biomass, suitable for animal fodder. Previous experiments with the 488 grasses Leymus chinensis and Lolium perenne showed GA action to be limited by N fertilization [77,78]. Red clover, living in symbiosis with nitrogen fixing bacteria, is not dependent on additional N 489 490 fertilization and can produce high-protein content biomass without fertilizer on poor soils.

491

492

#### 493 Acknowledgements

494 We thank Andrea Weisert for excellent technical help and Dietmar Haffer for skillfully raising the 495 plants. We also thank Volker Wissemann and Birgit Gemeinholzer for continuous discussions on the 496 project. We thank Hermann Finke for his help during visualization.

497

### 498 **References**

Isobe S, Klimenko I, Ivashuta S, Gau M, Kozlov NN. First RFLP linkage map of red clover (
 Trifolium pratense L.) based on cDNA probes and its transferability to other red clover
 germplasm. Theor Appl Genet. 2003; 108: 105–112. doi: 10.1007/s00122-003-1412-z.

- Isobe S, Sawai A, Yamaguchi H, Gau M, Uchiyama K. Breeding potential of the backcross
   progenies of a hybrid between Trifolium medium × T. pratense to T. pratense. Can. J. Plant Sci.
   2002; 82: 395–399. doi: 10.4141/P01-034.
- Eriksen J, Askegaard M, Søegaard K. Complementary effects of red clover inclusion in ryegrass white clover swards for grazing and cutting. Grass Forage Sci. 2014; 69: 241–250.
   doi: 10.1111/gfs.12025.
- Young ND, Debellé F, Oldroyd GED, Geurts R, Cannon SB, Udvardi MK, et al. The Medicago
   genome provides insight into the evolution of rhizobial symbioses. Nature. 2011; 480: 520–524.
   doi: 10.1038/nature10625.
- 5. Sato S, Nakamura Y, Kaneko T, Asamizu E, Kato T, Nakao M, et al. Genome Structure of the 512 Legume, Lotus japonicus. Theor Appl Genet. 2008; 15: 227–239. doi: 10.1093/dnares/dsn008.
- 513 6. Schmutz J, Cannon SB, Schlueter J, Ma J, Mitros T, Nelson W, et al. Genome sequence of the
  514 palaeopolyploid soybean. Nature. 2010; 463: 178–183. doi: 10.1038/nature08670.
- 515 7. Schmutz J, McClean PE, Mamidi S, Wu GA, Cannon SB, Grimwood J, et al. A reference genome
- 516 for common bean and genome-wide analysis of dual domestications. Nat Genet. 2014; 46: 707–
- 517 713. doi: 10.1038/ng.3008.

Varshney RK, Song C, Saxena RK, Azam S, Yu S, Sharpe AG, et al. Draft genome sequence of
 chickpea (Cicer arietinum) provides a resource for trait improvement. Nat Biotechnol. 2013; 31:
 240–246. doi: 10.1038/nbt.2491.

- 521 9. Lonardi S, Muñoz-Amatriaín M, Liang Q, Shu S, Wanamaker SI, Lo S, et al. The genome of
  522 cowpea (Vigna unguiculata L. Walp.). Plant J. 2019; 98: 767–782. doi: 10.1111/tpj.14349.
- Kaur P, Bayer PE, Milec Z, Vrána J, Yuan Y, Appels R, et al. An advanced reference genome of
  Trifolium subterraneum L. reveals genes related to agronomic performance. Plant Biotechnol J.
  2017; 15: 1034–1046. doi: 10.1111/pbi.12697.

526	11.	Dluhošová J, Ištvánek J, Nedělník J, Řepková J. Red Clover (Trifolium pratense) and Zigzag Clover
527		(T. medium) - A Picture of Genomic Similarities and Differences. Front Plant Sci. 2018; 9: 724.
528		doi: 10.3389/fpls.2018.00724.

- 12. Ištvánek J, Jaros M, Krenek A, Řepková J. Genome assembly and annotation for red clover
  (Trifolium pratense; Fabaceae). Am J Bot. 2014; 101: 327–337. doi: 10.3732/ajb.1300340.
- 13. Vega JJ de, Ayling S, Hegarty M, Kudrna D, Goicoechea JL, Ergon Å, et al. Red clover (Trifolium
  pratense L.) draft genome provides a platform for trait improvement. Sci Rep. 2015; 5: 17394.
- 533 doi: 10.1038/srep17394.
- 14. Jahufer MZZ, Ford JL, Widdup KH, Harris C, Cousins G, Ayres JF, et al. Improving white clover for

535 Australasia. Crop Pasture Sci. 2012; 63: 739. doi: 10.1071/CP12142.

- 15. Barrett BA, Faville MJ, Nichols SN, Simpson WR, Bryan GT, Conner AJ. Breaking through the feed
  barrier: options for improving forage genetics. Anim. Prod. Sci. 2015; 55: 883.
  doi: 10.1071/AN14833.
- 539 16. Řepková J, Nedělník J. Modern Methods for Genetic Improvement of Trifolium pratense. Czech
  540 Journal of Genetics & Plant Breeding. 2014: 92–99.
- 541 17. Řepková J, Nedělník J. Modern methods for genetic improvement of Trifolium pratense. Czech
  542 J. Genet. Plant Breed. 2014; 50: 92–99. doi: 10.17221/139/2013-CJGPB.
- 543 18. Dias PMB, Julier B, Sampoux J-P, Barre P, Dall'Agnol M. Genetic diversity in red clover (Trifolium
  544 pratense L.) revealed by morphological and microsatellite (SSR) markers. Euphytica. 2008; 160:
  545 189–205. doi: 10.1007/s10681-007-9534-z.
- Annicchiarico P, Proietti S. White clover selected for enhanced competitive ability widens the
  compatibility with grasses and favours the optimization of legume content and forage yield in
  mown clover-grass mixtures. Grass Forage Sci. 2010; 140: no-no. doi: 10.1111/j.13652494.2010.00749.x.

Ford JL, Barrett BA. Improving red clover persistence under grazing. Proceedings of the NZ
 Grassland Association. 2011; 73: 119–124.

- 552 21. Naydenova G, Hristova T, Aleksiev Y. Objectives and approaches in the breeding of perennial
  553 legumes for use in temporary pasturelands. Bio Anim Husb. 2013; 29: 233–250.
  554 doi: 10.2298/BAH1302233N.
- 555 22. Tiffin P. Mechanisms of tolerance to herbivore damage:what do we know. Evolutionary
  556 Ecology. 2000; 14: 523–536. doi: 10.1023/A:1010881317261.
- Diaz S, Lavorel S, McIntyre SUE, Falczuk V, Casanoves F, Milchunas DG, et al. Plant trait
  responses to grazing ? a global synthesis. Global Change Biol. 2007; 13: 313–341.
  doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2486.2006.01288.x.
- van Minnebruggen A, Roldán-Ruiz I, van Bockstaele E, Haesaert G, Cnops G. The relationship
  between architectural characteristics and regrowth in Trifolium pratense (red clover). Grass
  Forage Sci. 2015; 70: 507–518. doi: 10.1111/gfs.12138.
- 563 25. Herbert DB, Ekschmitt K, Wissemann V, Becker A. Cutting reduces variation in biomass
  564 production of forage crops and allows low-performers to catch up: A case study of Trifolium
  565 pratense L. (red clover). Plant Biol (Stuttg). 2018; 20: 465–473. doi: 10.1111/plb.12695.
- 26. Conaghan P, Casler MD. A theoretical and practical analysis of the optimum breeding system
  for perennial ryegrass. Irish Journal of Agricultural and Food Research. 2011; 50: 47–63.
- 568 27. Ortega F, Parra L, Quiroz A. Breeding red clover for improved persistence in Chile: a review.
  569 Crop Pasture Sci. 2014; 65: 1138. doi: 10.1071/CP13323.
- Sato S, Isobe S, Asamizu E, Ohmido N, Kataoka R, Nakamura Y, et al. Comprehensive structural
  analysis of the genome of red clover (*Trifolium pratense* L.). DNA Res. 2005; 12: 301–364.
  doi: 10.1093/dnares/dsi018.

- 573 29. Shimizu-Sato S, Tanaka M, Mori H. Auxin-cytokinin interactions in the control of shoot
  574 branching. Plant Mol Biol. 2009; 69: 429–435. doi: 10.1007/s11103-008-9416-3.
- 57530. Stafstrom J. Influence of Bud Position and Plant Ontogeny on the Morphology of Branch Shoots
- 576 in Pea (Pisum sativum L. cv. Alaska). Annals of Botany. 1995; 76: 343–348.
  577 doi: 10.1006/anbo.1995.1106.
- 31. Briske DD, Richards JH. Plant responses to defoliation: a physiological, morphological and
  demographicevaluation. In: Bedunah DJ, Sosebee RE, editors. Wildland plants. Physiological
  ecology and developmental morphology. 1st ed. Denver, Colo.: Society for Range Management;
  1995. pp. 635–710.
- 582 32. Kotova LM, Kotov AA, Kara AN. Changes in Phytohormone Status in Stems and Roots after
  583 Decapitation of Pea Seedlings. Russian Journal of Plant Physiology. 2004; 51: 107–111.
  584 doi: 10.1023/B:RUPP.0000011309.47328.23.
- Li S, Strid Å. Anthocyanin accumulation and changes in CHS and PR-5 gene expression in
  Arabidopsis thaliana after removal of the inflorescence stem (decapitation). Plant Physiology
  and Biochemistry. 2005; 43: 521–525. doi: 10.1016/j.plaphy.2005.05.004.
- Scholes DR, Wszalek AE, Paige KN. Regrowth patterns and rosette attributes contribute to the
  differential compensatory responses of Arabidopsis thaliana genotypes to apical damage. Plant
  Biol (Stuttg). 2016; 18: 239–248. doi: 10.1111/plb.12404.
- 591 35. Fischer M, Bossdorf O, Gockel S, Hänsel F, Hemp A, Hessenmöller D, et al. Implementing large-
- 592 scale and long-term functional biodiversity research: The Biodiversity Exploratories. Basic and
- 593 Applied Ecology. 2010; 11: 473–485. doi: 10.1016/j.baae.2010.07.009.
- 36. Asahina M, Satoh S. Molecular and physiological mechanisms regulating tissue reunion in
  incised plant tissues. J Plant Res. 2015; 128: 381–388. doi: 10.1007/s10265-015-0705-z.

596	37.	Blazquez MA	A, Gre	een R, Nilsso	on O,	Sussmar	n MR, Weige	l D. Gib	berellir	ns prom	ote flo	owering of
597		arabidopsis	by	activating	the	LEAFY	promoter.	Plant	Cell.	1998;	10:	791–800.
598		doi: 10.1105	/tpc.:	10.5.791.								

- 38. Bolger AM, Lohse M, Usadel B. Trimmomatic: a flexible trimmer for Illumina sequence data.
  Bioinformatics. 2014; 30: 2114–2120. doi: 10.1093/bioinformatics/btu170.
- 39. Haas BJ, Papanicolaou A, Yassour M, Grabherr M, Blood PD, Bowden J, et al. De novo transcript
  sequence reconstruction from RNA-seq using the Trinity platform for reference generation and
  analysis. Nat Protoc. 2013; 8: 1494–1512. doi: 10.1038/nprot.2013.084.
- Grabherr MG, Haas BJ, Yassour M, Levin JZ, Thompson DA, Amit I, et al. Full-length
  transcriptome assembly from RNA-Seq data without a reference genome. Nat Biotechnol. 2011;
  29: 644–652. doi: 10.1038/nbt.1883.
- 607 41. Schulz MH, Zerbino DR, Vingron M, Birney E. Oases: robust de novo RNA-seq assembly across
  608 the dynamic range of expression levels. Bioinformatics. 2012; 28: 1086–1092.
  609 doi: 10.1093/bioinformatics/bts094.
- 42. Ištvánek J, Dluhošová J, Dluhoš P, Pátková L, Nedělník J, Řepková J. Gene Classification and
  Mining of Molecular Markers Useful in Red Clover (Trifolium pratense) Breeding. Front Plant
  Sci. 2017; 8. doi: 10.3389/fpls.2017.00367.
- 43. Bekel T, Henckel K, Küster H, Meyer F, Mittard Runte V, Neuweger H, et al. The Sequence
  Analysis and Management System SAMS-2.0: Data management and sequence analysis
  adapted to changing requirements from traditional sanger sequencing to ultrafast sequencing
  technologies. Journal of Biotechnology. 2009; 140: 3–12. doi: 10.1016/j.jbiotec.2009.01.006.
- 617 44. Boutet E, Lieberherr D, Tognolli M, Schneider M, Bairoch A. UniProtKB/Swiss-Prot. Methods
  618 Mol Biol. 2007; 406: 89–112.

- 45. Bairoch A, Apweiler R. The SWISS-PROT protein sequence data bank and its supplement
  TrEMBL. Nucleic Acids Res. 1997; 25: 31–36. doi: 10.1093/nar/25.1.31.
- 46. Goodstein DM, Shu S, Howson R, Neupane R, Hayes RD, Fazo J, et al. Phytozome: a comparative
  platform for green plant genomics. Nucleic Acids Res. 2012; 40: D1178-86.
  doi: 10.1093/nar/gkr944.
- 47. Wu TD, Watanabe CK. GMAP: a genomic mapping and alignment program for mRNA and EST
  sequences. Bioinformatics. 2005; 21: 1859–1875. doi: 10.1093/bioinformatics/bti310.
- 626 48. Pérez-Rodríguez P, Riaño-Pachón DM, Corrêa LGG, Rensing SA, Kersten B, Mueller-Roeber B.
- 627 PInTFDB: updated content and new features of the plant transcription factor database. Nucleic
- 628 Acids Res. 2010; 38: D822-7. doi: 10.1093/nar/gkp805.
- 49. Li B, Dewey CN. RSEM: accurate transcript quantification from RNA-Seq data with or without a
  reference genome. BMC Bioinformatics. 2011; 12: 323. doi: 10.1186/1471-2105-12-323.
- 50. Love MI, Huber W, Anders S. Moderated estimation of fold change and dispersion for RNA-seq
  data with DESeq2. Genome Biol. 2014; 15: 550. doi: 10.1186/s13059-014-0550-8.
- 51. The UniProt Consortium. UniProt: the universal protein knowledgebase. Nucleic Acids Res.
  2016; 45: D158-69. doi: 10.1093/nar/gkw1099.
- 52. NCBI Resource Coordinators. Database resources of the National Center for Biotechnology
  Information. Nucleic Acids Res. 2016; 44: D7-19. doi: 10.1093/nar/gkv1290.
- 637 53. Berardini TZ, Reiser L, Li D, Mezheritsky Y, Muller R, Strait E, et al. The Arabidopsis Information
  638 Resource: Making and Mining the 'Gold Standard' Annotated Reference Plant Genome.
  639 Genesis. 2015; 53: 474–485. doi: 10.1002/dvg.22877.
- 640 54. Altschul SF, Gish W, Miller W, Myers EW, Lipman DJ. Basic local alignment search tool. Journal
  641 of Molecular Biology. 1990; 215: 403–410. doi: 10.1016/S0022-2836(05)80360-2.

- 642 55. Götz S, García-Gómez JM, Terol J, Williams TD, Nagaraj SH, Nueda MJ, et al. High-throughput
  643 functional annotation and data mining with the Blast2GO suite. Nucleic Acids Res. 2008; 36:
  644 3420–3435. doi: 10.1093/nar/gkn176.
- 56. Yates SA, Swain MT, Hegarty MJ, Chernukin I, Lowe M, Allison GG, et al. De novo assembly of
  red clover transcriptome based on RNA-Seq data provides insight into drought response, gene
  discovery and marker identification. BMC Genomics. 2014; 15: 453. doi: 10.1186/1471-216415-453.
- 57. Pitaksaringkarn W, Ishiguro S, Asahina M, Satoh S. ARF6 and ARF8 contribute to tissue reunion
  in incised Arabidopsis inflorescence stems. Plant Biotechnology. 2014; 31: 49–53.
  doi: 10.5511/plantbiotechnology.13.1028b.
- 58. Pitaksaringkarn W, Matsuoka K, Asahina M, Miura K, Sage-Ono K, Ono M, et al. XTH20 and
  XTH19 regulated by ANAC071 under auxin flow are involved in cell proliferation in incised
  Arabidopsis inflorescence stems. Plant J. 2014; 80: 604–614. doi: 10.1111/tpj.12654.

55 59. Salazar-Cerezo S, Martínez-Montiel N, García-Sánchez J, Pérez-y-Terrón R, Martínez-Contreras

656 RD. Gibberellin biosynthesis and metabolism: A convergent route for plants, fungi and bacteria.

657 Microbiological Research. 2018; 208: 85–98. doi: 10.1016/j.micres.2018.01.010.

- 658 60. Rieu I, Ruiz-Rivero O, Fernandez-Garcia N, Griffiths J, Powers SJ, Gong F, et al. The gibberellin
  biosynthetic genes AtGA20ox1 and AtGA20ox2 act, partially redundantly, to promote growth
  and development throughout the Arabidopsis life cycle. Plant J. 2008; 53: 488–504.
  doi: 10.1111/j.1365-313X.2007.03356.x.
- 662 61. Spielmeyer W, Ellis MH, Chandler PM. Semidwarf (sd-1), "green revolution" rice, contains a
  663 defective gibberellin 20-oxidase gene. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2002; 99: 9043–9048.
  664 doi: 10.1073/pnas.132266399.

- 665 62. Achard P, Gusti A, Cheminant S, Alioua M, Dhondt S, Coppens F, et al. Gibberellin Signaling
  666 Controls Cell Proliferation Rate in Arabidopsis. Current Biology. 2009; 19: 1188–1193.
  667 doi: 10.1016/j.cub.2009.05.059.
- 668 63. luchi S, Suzuki H, Kim Y-C, luchi A, Kuromori T, Ueguchi-Tanaka M, et al. Multiple loss-of 669 function of Arabidopsis gibberellin receptor AtGID1s completely shuts down a gibberellin signal.
- 670 Plant J. 2007; 50: 958–966. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-313X.2007.03098.x.
- 671 64. Wang X, Li J, Ban L, Wu Y, Wu X, Wang Y, et al. Functional characterization of a gibberellin
  672 receptor and its application in alfalfa biomass improvement. Sci Rep. 2017; 7: 41296.
  673 doi: 10.1038/srep41296.
- 674 65. Thomas SG, Phillips AL, Hedden P. Molecular cloning and functional expression of gibberellin 2675 oxidases, multifunctional enzymes involved in gibberellin deactivation. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A.
  676 1999; 96: 4698–4703. doi: 10.1073/pnas.96.8.4698.
- 66. Yamaguchi S. Gibberellin metabolism and its regulation. Annu Rev Plant Biol. 2008; 59: 225–
  251. doi: 10.1146/annurev.arplant.59.032607.092804.
- 679 67. Curtis IS, Hanada A, Yamaguchi S, Kamiya Y. Modification of plant architecture through the
- expression of GA 2-oxidase under the control of an estrogen inducible promoter in Arabidopsis
  thaliana L. Planta. 2005; 222: 957–967. doi: 10.1007/s00425-005-0037-7.
- 68. Sakamoto T, Kobayashi M, Itoh H, Tagiri A, Kayano T, Tanaka H, et al. Expression of a gibberellin
  2-oxidase gene around the shoot apex is related to phase transition in rice. Plant Physiol. 2001;
  125: 1508–1516. doi: 10.1104/pp.125.3.1508.
- 685 69. Ariizumi T, Hauvermale AL, Nelson SK, Hanada A, Yamaguchi S, Steber CM. Lifting della
  686 repression of Arabidopsis seed germination by nonproteolytic gibberellin signaling. Plant
  687 Physiol. 2013; 162: 2125–2139. doi: 10.1104/pp.113.219451.

688	70. Zentella R, Zhang Z-L, Park M, Thomas SG, Endo A, Murase K, et al. Global analy	sis of della
689	direct targets in early gibberellin signaling in Arabidopsis. Plant Cell. 2007; 19:	3037–3057.
690	doi: 10.1105/tpc.107.054999.	

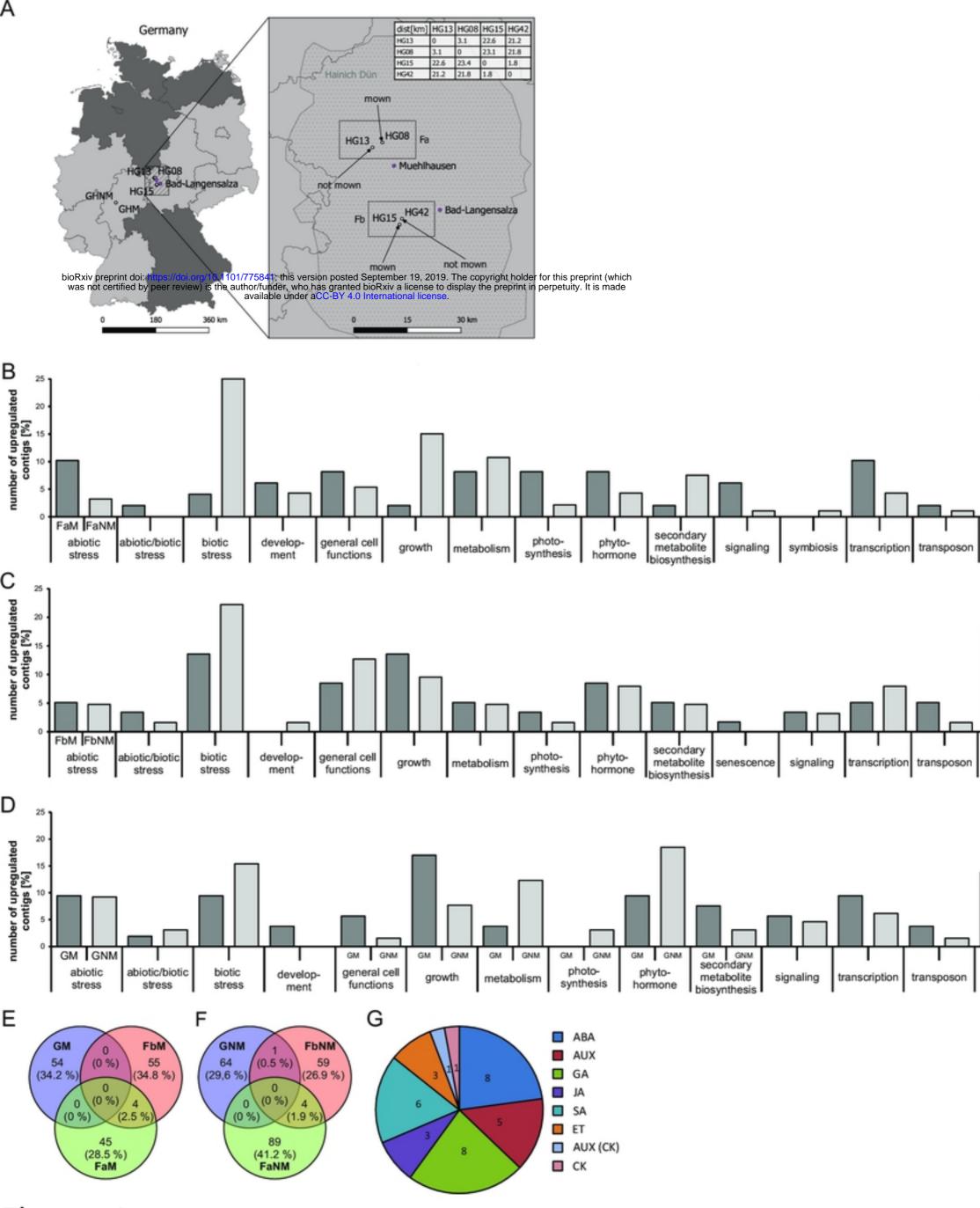
- 691 71. DeMason DA, Chetty VJ. Interactions between GA, auxin, and UNI expression controlling shoot
- ontogeny, leaf morphogenesis, and auxin response in Pisum sativum (Fabaceae): or how the
- 693 uni-tac mutant is rescued. Am J Bot. 2011; 98: 775–791. doi: 10.3732/ajb.1000358.
- Nelissen H, Gonzalez N, Inzé D. Leaf growth in dicots and monocots: so different yet so alike.
  Curr Opin Plant Biol. 2016; 33: 72–76. doi: 10.1016/j.pbi.2016.06.009.
- 696 73. Guttridge CG, Thombson PA. The Effect of Gibberellins on Growth and Flowering of Fragaria
- 697 and Duchesnea. J Exp Bot. 1964; 15: 631–646. doi: 10.1093/jxb/15.3.631.
- Leite VM, Rosolem CA, Rodrigues JD. Gibberellin and cytokinin effects on soybean growth. Sci.
  agric. (Piracicaba, Braz.). 2003; 60: 537–541. doi: 10.1590/S0103-90162003000300019.
- 700 75. Tsukaya H, Kozuka T, Kim G-T. Genetic control of petiole length in Arabidopsis thaliana. Plant
  701 Cell Physiol. 2002; 43: 1221–1228. doi: 10.1093/pcp/pcf147.
- 702 76. Hisamatsu T, King RW, Helliwell CA, Koshioka M. The involvement of gibberellin 20-oxidase
  703 genes in phytochrome-regulated petiole elongation of Arabidopsis. Plant Physiol. 2005; 138:
  704 1106–1116. doi: 10.1104/pp.104.059055.
- 705 77. Cai Y, Shao L, Li X, Liu G, Chen S. Gibberellin stimulates regrowth after defoliation of sheepgrass
  706 (Leymus chinensis) by regulating expression of fructan-related genes. J Plant Res. 2016; 129:
  707 935–944. doi: 10.1007/s10265-016-0832-1.
- 708 78. Morvan-Bertrand A, Ernstsen A, Lindgard B, Koshioka M, Le Saos J, Boucaud J, et al.
  709 Endogenous gibberellins in Lolium perenne and influence of defoliation on their contents in
  710 elongating leaf bases and in leaf sheaths. Physiol Plant. 2001; 111: 225–231.
  711 doi: 10.1034/j.1399-3054.2001.1110214.x.

## 712 Supplement Figures

Figure S1: Annotation Overview: A: Distribution of transcripts that could be mapped to the *T*. *pratense* genome, to a known locus and were annotated with *T. pratense* genome identifier. B: Distribution of transcripts that could be mapped to an unknown *T. pratense* gene locus. C: Distribution of transcripts that could not be mapped o the *T. pratense* genome. D: Distribution of transcripts of whole transcriptome representing all 12 libraries.

Figure S2 Differential expression of putative transcription factors of *T. pratense*. The Y axis denotes the number of expressed TF family members, the x axis shows the treatments and TF families. Orange bars indicate that >10% of the TF members are differentially expressed between the treatments, the red bars indicates that >5% are differentially expressed.

Figure S3: Plant architectural characteristics and growth habit of GA treated plants. A-E Measured, counted or calculated plant characteristics during phenotypic monitoring experiments. GA treated plants, blue; control plants, orange. Graphs show average values and 95% confidence intervals. Time is shown in weeks. Growth habit of control plants (left side) vs GA treated plants (right side), after approximately 2 weeks of GA treatment and regrowth (F), and after 4 weeks (G).



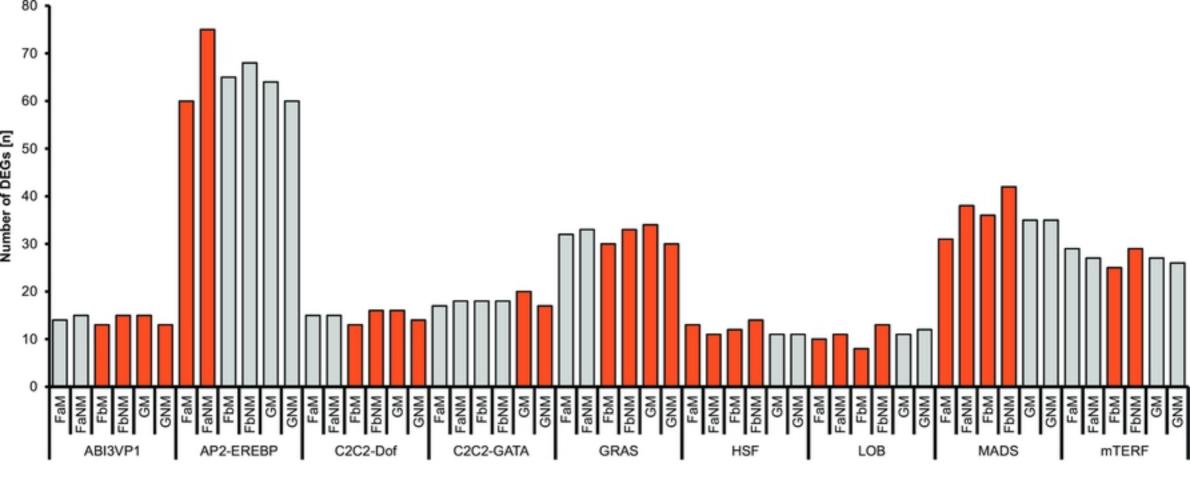
L

na

na

na

Figure 1



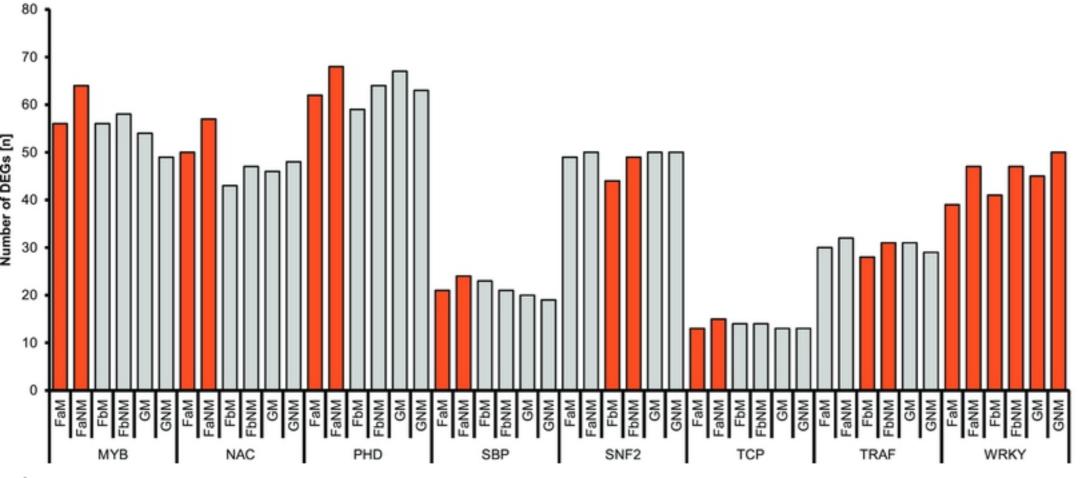


Figure 2

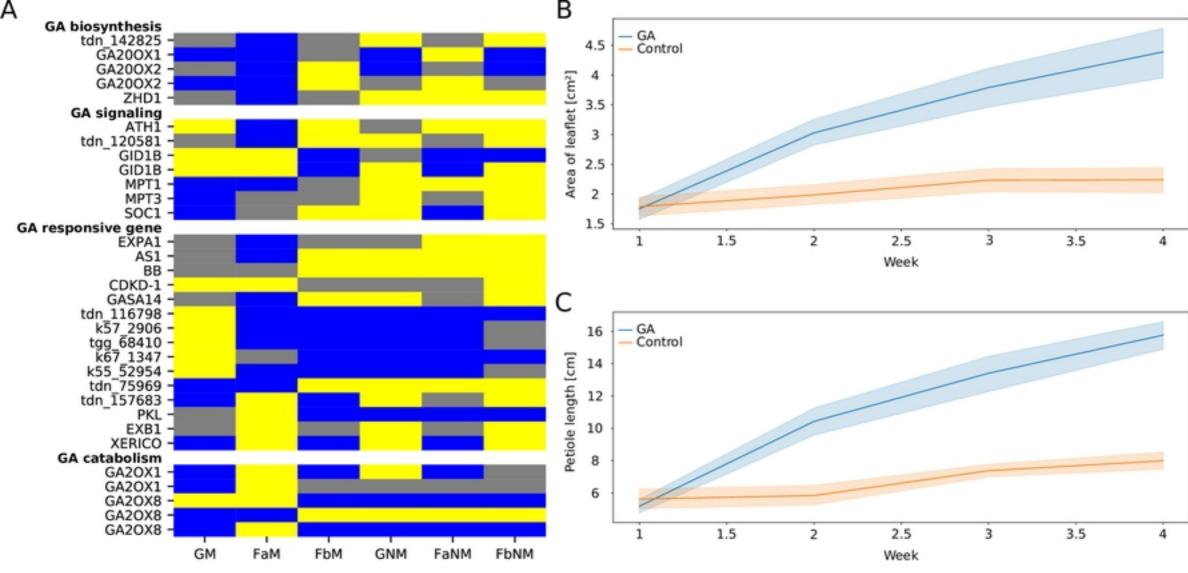


Figure 3