

Endogenous Gibberellins in Flushing Buds of Three Deciduous Trees: Alder, Aspen, and Birch

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Abstract. Endogenous gibberellins (GAs) were extracted from flushing (expanding) vegetative buds of river alder (*Alnus tenuifolia*), European white birch (*Betula pendula*), and aspen (*Populus tremuloides*) and identified by gas chromatography-mass spectrometry with full scans and/or selected ion monitoring. Five 13-hydroxylated GAs were detected from the three trees: GA₁, 8, and 20 from alder, GA₁, 8, 19 and 20 from aspen and GA₁, 8, 19, 20, and 29 from birch. Thirteen other GAs previously detected in *Salix* or common in other plants were specifically investigated but not detected. The presence of GA₁, its probable precursors GA₁₉ and GA₂₀, and its probable metabolite, GA₈, suggests that the early 13-hydroxylated GA biosynthetic pathway is dominant in vegetative buds of these trees. Abundant endogenous GAs of these trees are similar to the principal GAs of willows (various *Salix* spp.) and poplars (various *Populus* spp.). This suggests similarities in the GA physiology and is consistent with a common role of GA₁ as a regulator of shoot growth in woody angiosperms.

Gibberellins (GAs) have been identified from both angiosperm and gymnosperm trees (Davies et al. 1985, Dunberg and Odén 1983, Koshioka et al. 1985, Rood et al. 1988). Nonhydroxylated GAs and 3-hydroxylated GAs such as GA₄ and GA₉ are abundant in conifers (Pharis and Kuo 1977, Odén et al. 1987), while 13-hydroxylated GAs, such as GA₁₉ and GA₂₀ are more abundant in angiosperm trees including apple (Koshioka et al. 1985), poplar (Rood et al. 1988) and *Salix* (willow) (Davies et al. 1985, Junttila and Jensen 1988).

Phinney (1985) has suggested that GA₁ is the primary effector GA for stem elongation in maize and probably other plants. Among woody plants, GA physiology is probably best understood in *Salix* in which GA₁ is apparently the bioactive GA that regulates shoot elongation (Junttila and Jensen 1988). In *Salix*, GA₁ probably originates principally from GA₂₀ (Rood and Junttila 1989), which in turn probably principally originates from GA₁₉, the common precursor of GA₂₀ in numerous crop plants (Graebe, 1987). Junttila et al. (1992) have also shown that in *Salix* GA₁ can also be formed from GA₉ via hydroxylation through GA₂₀. Shoot growth in *Salix* is partly controlled by photoperiod (Junttila 1980) which apparently influences the conversion of GA₁₉ to GA₂₀ (Junttila and Jensen 1988) but not GA₂₀ to GA₁ (Rood and Junttila 1989).

The principal GAs of a fast-growing interspecific poplar hybrid are GA₁, GA₁₉, and GA₂₀ (Rood et al. 1988), the same as in *Salix*. Levels of GA-like substances were positively correlated with height in different poplar species and hybrids, supporting a regulatory role of GAs in the control of shoot elongation in another member of the Salicaceae (Bate et al. 1988).

Shoot growth of other fast-growing angiosperm trees is also under photoperiodic control, and this control has been proposed to be through the regulation of GA metabolism (Junttila 1993). Junttila (1993) recently demonstrated that exogenously applied GA₁ was more effective than GA₂₀ or particularly, GA₁₉ at overcoming shoot growth cessation in birch (*Betula pubescens*) and alder (*Alnus glutinosa*) caused by short days. This result as well as the recovery of shoot growth following the application of two growth retardants lead Junttila (1993) to propose that GA₁ is the bioactive GA regulating shoot elongation in alder and birch, as it apparently is in *Salix*.

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Junttila's (1993) studies suggest the common importance and regulation of GA₁ in the shoots of alder, birch, and willow. However, this proposed role of GA₁ and importance of conversion from GA₁₉ and GA₂₀ is somewhat speculative since the endogenous GAs of birch and alder have not been identified. Junttila's (1993) hypothesis would result in two testable predictions. Firstly, GA₁, and two of its biosynthetic precursors, GA₁₉ and GA₂₀, should be abundant in the shoots of other angiosperm trees. Secondly, these GAs should be particularly abundant in flushing vegetative buds, the shoot structures that respond to increasing day length with the commencement of growth. Consequently, the present study investigated the endogenous GAs of flushing vegetative buds of alder, aspen, and birch.

Materials and Methods

Plant Materials

Branches of alder, *Alnus tenuifolia* Nutt. [syn. *A. incana* (L.) Moench, (Kujit 1982)], and aspen, *Populus tremuloides* Michx., were collected from the eastern slopes of the Canadian Rockies near the University of Lethbridge Westcastle field station (49°29'N and 114°25'W) on May 1, 1993, during the early stages of bud flushing. Branches from cultivated birch trees, *Betula pendula* Rott, with unexpanded vegetative buds were harvested at Lethbridge (latitude 49°41'N and longitude 112°51'W) on May 2, 1993. Branches were placed in water at the University of Lethbridge greenhouse with a temperature of about 22°C. After 48 h (aspen and birch) or 96 h (alder), expanding vegetative buds were excised, frozen in liquid nitrogen, and lyophilized for 7 days.

Analyses of Endogenous GAs

Expanding vegetative buds (with dry weights ranging from 1.42 to 4.67 g) were ground in cold 80% aqueous methanol (MeOH) using a mortar and pestle and subsequently homogenized using a polytron probe. After 12 h of extraction at 4°C, samples were filtered under vacuum. After the addition of 0.1 M phosphate buffer (pH 8.0), the MeOH was removed *in vacuo* at 35°C, the aqueous extract was adjusted to pH 9 using 2 N KOH, and the extract was partitioned twice against water-saturated diethyl ether, which was discarded. The aqueous extract was adjusted to pH 7 using 1 N HCl, slurried with poly-N-polyvinylpyrrolidone, and vacuum filtered. The filtrate was acidified to pH 3 and partitioned three times against water-saturated ethyl acetate (EtOAc). The EtOAc extract was frozen and filtered to remove water, and the EtOAc was removed *in vacuo*.

Prior to further purification by step-elution silicic acid partition chromatography (Durley et al. 1972, Rood et al. 1983) and C₁₈ reversed-phase HPLC (Koshioka et al. 1983), standards of [1,2-³H]GA₁ and [1,2-³H]GA₄ (0.25 KBq each, specific activity: 1.2TBq/mmol, Amersham, Oakville, Ontario) were added to the extracts. Fractions were grouped based on the retention times of authentic ³H-GA standards, published reports (Koshioka et al.

1983) and the elution of endogenous GAs from other tissues previously analyzed (Dobert et al. 1992, Zanewich and Rood 1993). After drying under vacuum, HPLC samples were methylated and silylated (Rood et al. 1987) and analyzed using GC-MS with both full scan and selected ion monitoring (SIM) programs on a Hewlett Packard 5890 Series II gas chromatograph (containing a 15 m × 0.25 mm J&W Scientific DB5MS fused capillary column [Chromatographic Specialties, Brockville, Ontario]) and 5970 series mass spectrometer (Zanewich and Rood 1993).

For SIM analyses, appropriate fractions were probed for those GAs indicated in Table 1 in addition to GA₃, 4, 5, 7, 9, 17, 24, 27, 34, 36, 44, 51, and 53, other GAs that have been found in woody angiosperms or are metabolically related GAs. GA identifications were based on comparison with Kovats Retention Indices (KRI) (Gaskin et al. 1971) and ion abundances of authentic GA standards, published data (Crozier and Durley 1983, Hedden 1986, Takahashi et al. 1986), and the GC-MS behavior of GAs previously identified from other tissues (Dobert et al. 1992, Zanewich and Rood 1993).

Estimates of relative endogenous GA content were made by first finding the abundance of the molecular ions or base peak (m/z 508, 596, 436, and 420, respectively) from a mixture of 10 ng of each of [²H₂]GA₁, 8, 19, and 20, and expressing these relative to the abundance of the molecular ion of [²H₂]GA₂₀. [²H₂]GAs were obtained from L. N. Mander, Australian National University. These values were then used to estimate the relative quantities of endogenous GAs, relative to GA₂₀, in analyses of each of the trees. This comparison should account for differences in derivatization and fragmentation following ionization but does not consider differential purification recovery.

Results and Discussion

Fractions from C₁₈ reversed-phase HPLC were combined in eight different groups of GC-SIM analyses. Ions for eighteen different GAs, including common 13-hydroxylated-, nonhydroxylated-, and 3-hydroxylated-GAs were monitored from the appropriate HPLC groupings. Five different GAs, GA₁, 8, 19, 20, and 29, were detected from alder, aspen, and/or birch buds (Table 1), with identifications being based on combined information including appropriate HPLC retention time, KRI values, and mass spectra or selected ion abundances similar to authentic GA standards and published values. Gibberellins A₁, A₈, and A₂₀ were identified from the vegetative buds of all three trees. GA₁₉ was present in birch and aspen tissue but undetectable in the alder sample. A common 2β-hydroxylated metabolite of GA₂₀, GA₂₉, was detected only from the birch buds.

The relative quantities of the GAs detected were apparently GA₈ > GA₂₀ > GA₁ in alder, GA₈ > GA₂₀ > GA₁₉ > GA₁ in aspen, and GA₂₀ > GA₁ > GA₁₉ > GA₈ in birch (Table 2). Consistent with this assessment, quantities of GA₂₀ were sufficient for identification by full scan GC-MS. However, the comparison of GA abundances across the trees may be confounded since alder and aspen were har-

Table 1. Me-TMSi gibberellins (GAs) identified by capillary gas chromatography-selected ion monitoring (GC-SIM) or mass spectrometry (GC-MS) from alder, aspen, and birch vegetative buds.

GA	HPLC fraction	KRI ^a	Ion m/z and (relative abundance)						
Alder									
GA ₁	24–26	2649	506 (100)	491 (16)	448 (21)	447 (9)	416 (6)	390 (4)	377 (24)
GA ₈	14–18	2768	594 (100)	579 (6)	565 (2)	547 (2)	553 (2)	535 (5)	448 (22)
				379 (12)	375 (33)				
GA ₂₀	30–32	2499	418 (100)	403 (10)	387 (trc) ^b	375 (20)	359 (20)	301 (4)	
Aspen									
GA ₁	22–24	2648	506 (100)	491 (11)	448 (21)	447 (23)	416 (5)	390 (20)	377 (25)
GA ₈	14–17	2771	594 (100)	579 (4)	565 (1)	553 (12)	547 (1)	535 (4)	448 (26)
GA ₁₉	31–33	2601	462 (4)	434 (100)	447 (23)	431 (20)	402 (43)	375 (58)	
GA ₂₀	28–30	2486	418 (100)	403 (16)	387 (6)	375 (76)	359 (19)	301 (11)	
Birch									
GA ₁	22–24	2649	506 (100)	491 (9)	448 (27)	447 (20)	416 (4)	390 (8)	377 (19)
GA ₈	14–17	2768	594 (100)	579 (6)	565 (2)	553 (2)	535 (7)	519 (15)	448 (31)
				379 (12)					
GA ₁₉	31–33	2603	462 (10)	434 (100)	447 (trc) ^b	431 (5)	402 (44)	375 (40)	374 (60)
				345 (56)					
GA ₂₀	28–31	2489	418 (100)	403 (15)	387 (2)	375 (75)	359 (16)	301 (2)	
GA ₂₉	14–17	2651	506 (100)	491 (10)	477 (trc) ^b	447 (7)	389 (20)	375 (68)	

^a Kovats Retention Index. Samples were analyzed on a DB5MS capillary column.

^b Trace ion abundance.

Table 2. Estimates of relative content of endogenous GAs from alder, aspen, and birch vegetative buds.

Gibberellin	Relative GA amount		
	Alder	Aspen	Birch
GA ₁	0.6×	0.4×	0.9×
GA ₈	2.8×	1.7×	0.2×
GA ₁₉		0.6×	0.6×
GA ₂₀	1×	1×	1×

Note. Amounts are normalized relative to the abundance of GA₂₀ with detection efficiencies based on prior analyses of [²H₂]GA_{1,3,8,19,20}. Relative contents are not comparable between tree species.

vested from a montane site, whereas birch tissue was from a cultivated tree growing in an adjacent prairie region. It must also be recognized that the present assessment of comparative GA abundances is imprecise since internal standards were not included during initial GA extraction and purification. Instead, prior to and following endogenous GA analyses, deuterated GA standards were analyzed to derive correction factors that were then used to assess relative endogenous GA content.

The presence of GA₁ and its probable precursor, GA₂₀ (Rood and Junttila 1989), suggests that the early 13-hydroxylation biosynthetic pathway was dominant in these three tree species, at least with respect to the vegetative buds. GA₈ is a common metabolite from GA₁ and its occurrence in buds

from the three trees is consistent with the abundance of GA₁, GA₄₄ and GA₅₃, two other 13-hydroxylated GAs that are probable precursors of GA₁₉, were not detected in any samples. The apparent abundance of GA₁, 19, and 20 but scarcity of the earlier biosynthetic precursors such as GA₄₄ or GA₅₃ suggest that vigorously growing flushing buds might represent a site of GA₁ action where GA biosynthesis is not limited prior to GA₁₉. However, alternate explanations such as GA₁₉ translocation are possible.

The abundance of GA₁, 19, and 20 in the flushing buds of these three trees is consistent with previous reports based on actively growing young shoots and seedlings of hybrid poplar, *Populus balsamifera* X *P. deltoides* (Rood et al. 1988), and *Salix* (Davies et al. 1985). It is thus likely that there are commonalities of GA physiology in these fast-growing angiosperm trees.

The abundance of GA₂₀ and GA₁ also suggests that these GAs are physiologically important and could regulate bud flushing and shoot growth in these three trees. The apparently greater abundance of GA₂₀ than GA₁₉ suggests that the conversion of GA₁₉ to GA₂₀ is not blocked, a conclusion that is consistent with the proposal that long-day conditions induce bud flushing and shoot growth in some woody angiosperms at least partially by promoting the conversion of GA₁₉ to GA₂₀ (Junttila and Jensen 1988; Junttila 1993).

The apparent absence of non-13-hydroxylated

GAs is noteworthy. GAs including GA₄, 9, and 24, are abundant in some tissues of other plants (Zanewich and Rood 1993), and GA₄ could provide an alternate biosynthetic precursor for GA₁ (Junttila 1993, Rood and Hedden 1994). Their scarcity in the vegetative buds suggest that the 13-hydroxylated GAs are more important for leaf and branch growth in alder, aspen, and birch. The abundance of 13-hydroxylated GAs and scarcity of non-13-hydroxylated GAs in alder, aspen, and birch is similar to *Salix* (Davies et al. 1985) and poplar (Rood et al. 1988).

In conclusion, five 13-hydroxylated GAs were identified from flushing vegetative buds of alder, aspen, and birch. This suggests that the early 13-hydroxylation biosynthetic pathway is prominent and physiologically important in growing leaves and branches of these trees. The occurrence of these GAs and the apparently high levels of GA₁ and GA₂₀ are consistent with the proposal that bud flushing and shoot elongation are controlled by GA₁ and suggests that there are commonalities of GA physiology in the fast-growing angiosperm trees, alder, aspen, birch, poplar, and *Salix*.

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