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Arabidopsis defense mutant ndr1-1 displays accelerated development and early flowering mediated by the hormone gibberellic acid

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1	Gibberellic Acid Mediates Accelerated Development and Early Flowering in the Arabidopsis
2	<i>ndr1-1</i> Mutant

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14

15 Abstract

NONRACE-SPECIFIC DISEASE RESISTANCE (NDR1) is a widely characterized gene 16 17 that plays a key role in defense against multiple bacterial, fungal, oomycete and nematode pathogens in plants. NDR1 is required for activation of resistance by multiple NB and LRR-18 19 containing (NLR) protein immune sensors, and contributes to basal defense. The role of 20 NDR1 in positively regulating salicylic acid (SA)-mediated plant defense responses is welldocumented. However, ndr1-1 plants flower earlier and show accelerated development in 21 22 comparison to wild-type (WT) Arabidopsis plants, suggesting that NDR1 is a negative 23 regulator of flowering and growth. Exogenous application of gibberellic acid (GA) further

24 accelerates the early flowering phenotype in *ndr1-1* plants, while the GA biosynthesis 25 inhibitor paclobutrazol attenuated the early flowering phenotype of *ndr1-1*, but not to WT levels, suggesting partial resistance to paclobutrazol and enhanced GA response by *ndr1-1*. 26 27 Mass spectroscopy analyses confirmed that *ndr1-1* plants have 30-40% higher levels of GA₃ and GA4, while expression of GA metabolic genes GA2ox, GA3ox, GA20ox, and major 28 29 flowering regulatory genes GI, CO, FT, LFY and AP1 are also altered in the ndr1-1 mutant. Taken together, our discovery of crosstalk between phytohormone signaling and GA-30 regulated developmental and SA-regulated defense programs vis-à-vis the defense 31 32 regulatory gene NDR1 underscores the importance of elucidating these networks prior to manipulating them in crop plants. 33

34

35 Introduction

The NONRACE-SPECIFIC DISEASE RESISTANCE (NDR1) gene is a critical component of 36 the plant immune system, and is necessary for the activation of appropriate defense responses 37 against a wide array of plant pathogens, including the bacterial speck pathogen Pseudomonas 38 svringae^{1,2,3}, the downy mildew pathogen Perenospora parasitica^{1,4,5}, the fungal vascular wilt 39 pathogen Verticillium spp.^{6,7}, and the soybean root knot nematode Heterodera glycines⁸. NDR1 is 40 a glycosylphosphatidylinositol-anchored plasma membrane-localized protein that forms linkages 41 with the cell wall, and is important for mediating electrolyte leakage^{9,10,11,12}. Although NDR1 has 42 43 been widely characterized as a positive regulator of resistance gene-mediated defense responses, the biochemical function of NDR1 is not fully defined and rarely has it been implicated in other 44 45 plant processes apart from defense.

46 Though first discovered in Arabidopsis thaliana, homologs of Arabidopsis NDR1 (AthNDR1), including those from soybean, cotton, coffee and citrus are vital for defense^{3,7,8,13,14}. In 47 Arabidopsis, a loss-of-function mutation in NDR1 conferred by $a \sim 1.2$ kb deletion in its single 48 49 exon (*ndr1-1*) results in susceptibility to pathogens to which it is otherwise immune². Even though 50 multiple NB and LRR-containing proteins (NLRs), including the coiled-coil nucleotide-binding-51 site leucine-rich repeat (CC-NBS-LRR) type NLR-encoded genes RPM1, RPS2, and RPS5 require 52 NDR1 for activation of plant defense responses against the bacterial effectors avrRpm1, avrRpt2 and *avrPphB*, respectively^{1,2,5,12,15}, data indicating direct interaction of *NDR1* with these pathogen 53 54 avirulence proteins is lacking. Despite the lack of evidence for a direct interaction between NDR1 55 and NLR proteins, interaction between RIN4 (an effector targeted protein guarded by RPM1 and 56 *RPS2*) and *NDR1* has been reported and this interaction is integral for resistance against specific bacterial effectors^{16,17,18}. NDR1 has also been implicated in hypersensitive responses (HR) initiated 57 58 during incompatible plant-pathogen interactions in a salicylic acid (SA)-dependent manner, and 59 NDR1 function is associated with SA accumulation, systemic acquired resistance (SAR), and 60 reactive oxygen species (ROS) accumulation following pathogen challenge¹².

Both biotic and abiotic stresses cause alterations in the normal transition to flowering in 61 plants^{22,23}. For example, the defense-associated plant hormone SA is known to delay flowering 62 63 while ultraviolet light stress activates the transition to flowering in Arabidopsis in a SA-dependent manner²⁴. Given that SA-mediated defense signaling is dependent on functional NDR1, and that 64 65 key components of the SA defense pathway, including NDR1, are required for resistance against V. longisporum^{6,7,21}, it is not surprising that prior research efforts have noted a relationship between 66 plant development and early flowering on Verticillium wilt symptom appearance^{6,25,26,27}. 67 68 However, the mechanism(s) underpinning these relationship(s) remain largely undefined.

69 The fungal genus *Verticillium* includes several soil-borne pathogens, which infect plant roots, 70 and cause vascular wilt diseases in a variety of economically important crops worldwide^{19,20}. NDR1 was previously implicated in conferring resistance to Verticillium wilt in Arabidopsis and 71 Gossypium (cotton), since plants lacking a functional NDR1 were susceptible to the pathogen 6,7,21 . 72 73 In the present work, we tested the hypothesis that NDR1 plays a role in Verticillium-mediated 74 alterations in the transition to flowering in Arabidopsis. We discovered that the genetic mutation 75 in *ndr1-1* leads to de-repression of flowering in *Arabidopsis*, implying that *NDR1* is a negative regulator of flowering. Further, we provide evidence that the relief of negative regulation in ndr1-76 77 *l* mutant plants is mediated by an increased concentration of bioactive gibberellic acid (GA) and/or an enhanced response of GA-mediated signaling. We also demonstrate that major floral pathway 78 79 regulatory genes that control the transition to flowering in Arabidopsis are up-regulated in the 80 untreated *ndr1-1* background, underlying the early flowering phenotype observed in the mutant. Taken together, our discovery of the hitherto unknown role of NDR1 in regulating developmental 81 82 processes, including flowering time through GA response pathways, underscores the necessity of 83 understanding the interplay between development and defense prior to the utilization of regulatory genes such as NDR1 for enhancing disease resistance in crop plants through either traditional 84 85 breeding approaches or genetic modifications.

86

87 Results

88 *Verticillium* infection accelerates flowering in *ndr1-1* plants

To examine the putative linkage between early flowering and defense responses, we measured flowering time after *Verticillium* infection in various *Arabidopsis* mutants lacking functional defense genes. These mutants included those defective in SA and ethylene-mediated defense

signaling pathways, including eds16-1, npr1-1, etr1-1, and ndr1-1⁶. In the loss-of-function mutant 92 93 ndr1-1, multiple symptoms of Verticillium wilt, including accelerated flowering and a decrease in rosette size and bolt length are enhanced relative to these symptoms in the infected WT Col-0 94 95 plants. In accordance with our hypothesis, pathogen-challenged ndr1-1 plants not only displayed enhanced susceptibility, as previously reported⁶ to *Verticillium* strains (Fig. 1a), but also a 96 significant acceleration in flowering time relative to the pathogen-treated control plants (Fig. 1b, 97 c and d). Further, there was a significant decrease in the final main bolt length and number of 98 siliques on the main bolt (Fig. 1e and f) as well as visible reduction in plant size with all three 99 100 Verticillium strains tested (data shown in Fig. 1a for V. longisporium infection only).

101

102 Non-pathogen treated *ndr1-1* mutants display an early flowering phenotype

103 Subsequent analyses of *ndr1-1* plants together with the parental WT Col-0 plants in the absence of the pathogen revealed an early flowering phenotype in *ndr1-1* plants, indicating that the loss-104 105 of-function mutation in the NDR1 gene leads to negative regulation of flowering responses in 106 Arabidopsis (Fig. 2a). The ndr1-1 mutant plants transitioned to the reproductive phase/flowering 107 faster than the WT Col-0 plants as is evident from the appearance of the visible buds, subsequently 108 bolting earlier (i.e., produced seed bearing primary inflorescence) with early appearance of open 109 terminal flower, as well as exhibiting fewer rosette leaves than the WT Col-0 plants (Fig. 2d, e and 110 f). This is indicative of faster progression through intrinsic developmental processes, even in the 111 absence of any external signals/environmental cues (Fig. 2d and f). The average height of the bolts 112 of the *ndr1-1* mutant plants when the first terminal flower opened was also significantly greater 113 than the parental WT plants (Fig. 2h). A similar early flowering and faster bolting phenotype was 114 observed in plants grown under short day conditions (Supplementary Figure 1), underscoring the

fact that the genetic lesion in *ndr1-1* mutant releases an inhibition on flowering, irrespective of the photoperiod and thereby suggests a role for GA in the regulation of flowering through an autonomous pathway in addition to known roles in the elongation of the stem/bolt^{28,30,31}.

118

119 *Arabidopsis ndr1-1* mutants display accelerated development throughout the plant lifecycle

120 After the flowering phenotype was evaluated and scored, the plants were grown to maturity and the seeds collected. Plants were scored weekly for height of the main bolt as an indicator of 121 122 growth until maturity, when all of the visible growth ceased and the plants completely senesced. 123 More precisely, under our growth conditions all of the plants from ndr-1-1 and WT Col-0 had 124 flowered by the sixth week under long day conditions. Beginning at the fifth and sixth week of 125 growth, *ndr1-1* plants that had earlier grown noticeably taller than the parental WT Col-0 plants, 126 and henceforth displayed smaller increments of main bolt growth than the WT parents (Fig. 2a, b, c, g and i). Thus, at this later stage of growth, the *ndr1-1* plants displayed a slower incremental 127 growth while WT Col-0 grew vigorously at the comparable stage, consistent with the progression 128 129 of an overall faster intrinsic developmental program in ndr1-1 compared with the WT parents. The 130 more rapid *ndr1-1*-associated developmental program occurred without the input of additional 131 biotic or abiotic trigger/signal. Although *ndr1-1* mutants were taller than the WT plants during 132 early development due to their earlier and faster bolting (Fig. 2a), by the sixth week, WT plants 133 were of equal height to the *ndr1-1* plants (Fig. 2c and i) and by the eighth week had surpassed the 134 WT (Fig. 2d). Thus, at this later stage of growth, progression of an overall faster intrinsic developmental program in *ndr1-1* in comparison to the WT parents was evident. This rapid *ndr1-*135 136 *I*-associated developmental program occurs without the input of additional biotic or abiotic 137 trigger/signal.

138 Although the silique setting occurred earlier in the *ndr1-1* plants, they set fewer total siliques 139 on the main bolt as well as on the overall plant on average in comparison to WT Col-0 plants (Fig. 140 2j and k) and hence had correspondingly lower seed yield (Supplementary Figure 2a and b). These 141 results indicate that the *ndr1-1* mutation not only leads to early flowering in *Arabidopsis* but also 142 results in accelerated development, early completion of the life cycle, and reduced reproductive 143 potential. This aberrant development was also apparent from the early induction of whole plant senescence, a tightly regulated developmental process in plants, in *ndr1-1* plants in comparison to 144 WT Col-0 (Fig. 2a, b and c). 145

146

147 Genes promoting flowering are upregulated in *ndr1-1* plants

To begin to address the molecular basis of *ndr1-1* mutants-induced early flowering, expression 148 of regulatory genes that control the transition to flowering under normal growth conditions^{29,30,31} 149 150 were studied. The levels of GIGANTEA (GI), CONSTANS (CO), FLOWERING LOCUS T (FT), SUPPRESSOR OF CONSTANS1 (SOC1), LEAFY (LFY) and APETALA1 (AP1), transcripts were 151 152 markedly increased while that of the floral repressors TERMINAL FLOWER 1 (TFL1), SHORT VEGETATIVE PHASE1 (SVP1) and TEMPERANILLO 1 (TEM1) were markedly down-regulated 153 in the *ndr1-1* mutant plants relative to the wild type as early as eight days post-germination (dpg) 154 155 (Fig. 3a).

156

157 Increased expression of gibberellic acid regulation and GA biosynthesis in *ndr1-1* plants

Transition to flowering in plants is induced by the sensing of many environmental cues, including day length, vernalization, hormones, and various biotic and abiotic stresses^{22,23,24,29,30,31,32}. Among the phytohormones that have been shown to regulate floral 161 transition in the facultative long day *Arabidopsis* is the hormone Gibberellic Acid (GA)^{30,31,32}. GA 162 promotes flowering under non-inductive short day conditions as well as under long day 163 conditions^{30,33}. Since *ndr1-1* mutants exhibited accelerated flowering, increased bolt lengths, and 164 later displayed a phenotype reminiscent of the *spindly* mutation (early flowering, spindly 165 phenotype and negative regulator of the GA signaling)²⁸, we hypothesized that GA signaling might 166 also be altered in *ndr1-1* plants.

To examine whether GA synthesis and regulation may be impacted in *ndr1-1* plants, we assessed the expression levels of GA biosynthetic or regulatory genes 32,33,34,35,36 , in both *ndr1-1* and WT plants. Enhanced accumulation of transcripts of the GA biosynthetic genes *GA3Ox2* and *GA20Ox2* was observed in *ndr1-1* plants (Fig. 3b, right panel). There was also a concomitant decrease in the transcript levels of the GA catabolic genes *GA2Ox6* and *GA2Ox7*, which convert GA into an inactive form *in planta* 33,34,35 (Fig. 3b, left panel).

The flowering phenotype could be the result of enhanced GA sensing in the ndr1-1 mutant 173 174 relative to the WT, a higher accumulation of GA in the *ndr1-1* mutant, or a combination of both. 175 To determine if the early flowering phenotype in the untreated *ndr1-1* plants was caused by an 176 internal accumulation of bioactive GAs in conjunction with enhanced sensitivity to GA signaling, 177 we measured the *in planta* levels of GA₃ and GA₄, both of which are bioactive forms of GA that promote flowering in Arabidopsis^{33,36}. The levels of GA in the mutant and WT were quantified 178 179 under various growth conditions and at various stages of growth using HPLC and GC/MS-MS. In 180 planta concentrations of the active GAs, GA₃ and GA₄, were significantly higher in ndr1-1 plants by the third week of growth relative to the WT Col-0 plants (Fig. 3c). 181

182

183 Exogenous application of GA further enhances the floral transition in *ndr1-1* plants

We further explored the role of GA in the induction of early flowering in ndr1-1 plants. Our first approach was to test whether the ndr1-1 plants still retained responsiveness to external application of GA, which is known to accelerate flowering, or if the GA response was already saturated due to the enhanced levels of GA *in planta* due to feedback regulation^{33,34}.

188 Application of exogenous GA to *ndr1-1* plants reduced the time to floral transition. Though a 189 reduction in time to flowering in response to GA was observed in the *ndr1-1* mutants, the effect 190 of external application of GA towards the acceleration in bolting and flowering time was more 191 pronounced in WT Col-0 plants around the fourth week by which time the *ndr1-1* plants began to 192 show slower incremental growth (Fig. 4a, b, d and e). Exogenous application of GA significantly 193 accelerated the flowering time in the GA treated ndr1-1 plants compared with the untreated ndr1-194 *I* plants (Fig. 4a, top panel) and (Fig. 4b and c), though this difference was for shorter duration 195 compared to the effect of GA treatment in WT Col-0 plants. This suggests that the *ndr1-1* plants 196 retain responsiveness to exogenously applied GA at early stages of development. Exogenous 197 application of GA significantly accelerated flowering in *ndr1-1* plants, but this phenotypic 198 difference was short-lived relative to the response of the WT Col-0 plants (Fig. 5b) due to rapid 199 growth of plants in the long-day growth conditions as well as the effect of GA application.

200

201 *ndr1-1* plants display enhanced paclobutrazol resistance

Since early flowering and accelerated development in ndr1-1 plants was associated with higher GA levels *in planta*, we tested whether this phenotype could be abolished by application of an inhibitor of GA biosynthesis. A single treatment of the GA biosynthesis inhibitor Paclobutrazol (PAC)^{32,35}, was applied to the base of both WT Col-0 and ndr1-1 plants during the second week of growth, and flowering time and rosette size were measured in both genotypes. 207 The application of PAC lengthened the time to flowering in both the WT Col-0 and *ndr1-1* 208 plants, indicating that GA biosynthesis was being effectively blocked in both genotypes (Fig. 5a, 209 b and c). Furthermore, the rosette sizes in both genotypes were similar to those observed following 210 PAC treatment, but bud initiation was much more rapid in the untreated ndr1-1 mutant compared 211 to either the untreated control WT Col-0 or the PAC-treated *ndr1-1* plants (Fig. 5a, top 212 panel/enlarged inset and Fig. 5b), indicating that initiation of the visible bud, rapid bolting in terms 213 of increased main bolt length and early opening of the terminal flowering phenotypes in the 214 untreated *ndr1-1* plants were most likely due to an initial higher GA content *in planta* and an 215 enhanced GA response (which though is slower than untreated plants) that was still functional at 216 an elevated level in the mutant ndr1-1 compared to the WT Col-0 despite the growth inhibition 217 imposed by PAC. This was again apparent from the observation that the mutant ndrl - l plants 218 though stunted as a result of the PAC treatment, still displayed the accelerated development 219 parameters including early flowering when compared with WT Col-0 plants (Fig. 5a, bottom 220 panel) as well as increased main bolt length and total silique number with respect to PAC treated 221 WT Col-0 plants (Fig. 5d and e).

222

223 External GA application rescues the PAC associated phenotype of the *ndr1-1* plants

To test the possibility that the *ndr1-1* plants not only had higher levels of intrinsic GA, but also retained an enhanced response to the hormone, PAC-treated or untreated plants were subjected to a regimen of exogenous foliar GA_3 application with water-treated plants serving as control treatment for the overall experiment. Plants were monitored for the accelerated development and early flowering. With repeated application of GA, the phenotypic differences initially observed in response to PAC between the untreated plants of both genotypes including rescue of the delay in 230 flowering and reduction of bolt length were reversed. But strikingly, the PAC + GA-treated ndrl-231 *l* plants retained a slight but significant acceleration in flowering time as well as marginal increase 232 in bolt length compared with the *ndr1-1* untreated plants (Fig. 6a, b and c). This subtle difference 233 indicates an enhancement in GA signaling in the ndr1-1 plants with repeated application of 234 external GA while in the presence of a GA biosynthetic inhibitor (Fig. 6b, c and d). This also 235 implies that *ndr1-1* mutants not only have a higher level of bioactive GA *in planta* but also retain 236 an enhanced GA response, with the latter phenotype more likely having a greater contribution 237 towards the various phenotypes observed over the entire developmental period of plants.

238

239 Genome sequence analysis of the *ndr1-1* mutant

The genome of the ndr1-1 mutant used in this study was sequenced revealing that the 5' UTR and a portion of the coding region of ndr1-1 were deleted (Supplementary Figure 3). There was no other detectable large insertion/deletion in our analysis, but rather only SNP differences between Col-0 and ndr1-1 samples attributable to multiple generations of self-fertilization. In further support that there was no second site mutation that influenced the ndr1-1 mutant phenotype, hundreds of ndr1-1 plants examined in these experiments did not reveal segregation for pathogen susceptibility or early flowering phenotype.

247

248 Discussion

In addition to the role of the *Arabidopsis NDR1* in SA-mediated plant defense responses, the findings presented herein demonstrate a role for *NDR1* in the regulation of GA-mediated development, including flowering. The early flowering phenotype observed in the *ndr1-1* plants was accompanied by an increase in the expression of the regulatory genes that control the transition to flowering and GA metabolic genes. Importantly, the whole genome sequence analyses of the ndr1-1 mutant revealed no major deletion or insertion mutations in the sequence, and there was no segregation observed for the susceptibility or early flowering phenotypes of the ndr1-1 mutant, suggesting a high improbability that a second site mutation was responsible for these stable phenotypes observed. Based on these results, we hypothesize that enhanced GA biosynthesis and signaling in ndr1-1 plants results in an early flowering phenotype.

259 Enhanced GA production and signaling in *ndr1-1* plants opens an exciting framework to study 260 the hormonal cross-talk between defense-related SA and other growth-regulating hormones under 261 normal growth and under abiotic and biotic stress. Our discovery of ndr1-1 as an early flowering 262 mutant implicates NDR1 as a negative regulator of flowering in Arabidopsis under untreated 263 conditions. The transition to flowering is further slightly but significantly accelerated in 264 *Verticillium*-challenged *ndr1-1* plants as opposed to the untreated *ndr1-1* plants, indicating that *NDR1* may additionally play a negative role during induction of flowering by pathogen infection 265 266 in the otherwise healthy plants.

We hypothesize that NDR1 acts as a major regulator of the balance between defense and development while helping to maintain cellular integrity, as a plasma membrane-localized integrin type protein^{9,10}. The role of *NDR1* in enhancing plant defense responses to pathogen challenge may come at the cost of slower growth, delayed development, and an extended vegetative state due to delayed/suppressed transition to flowering. Tradeoffs in resource usage between nutrition and defense in plants have been well characterized³⁷, and hormonal imbalances during pathogen infection have important implications for plant productivity³⁸.

274 Switching cellular programs from an extended vegetative state to a defense-primed and 275 accelerated reproductive state in the event of pathogen attack is an important consideration given

276 the sessile lifestyle of plants. We posit that such a strategy would, in theory, lead to a "relief of 277 repression" on growth, resulting in transition to an accelerated reproductive state during 278 pest/pathogen attack. This ultimately would result in enabling the plant to propagate seeds and 279 "escape" to the next generation. Based on our observation that ndr1-1 mutants have increased 280 concentrations of active GA relative to WT Col-0, as well as infected *ndr1-1* plants flowering 281 faster than uninfected *ndr1-1* plants, we hypothesize a potential role for GA in relief of repression 282 of floral transition during the priming of plant defense responses to Verticillium spp. Using these 283 observations as a foundation for further work in this area, we propose to explore the implication(s) 284 for cross-talk between SA, the classical defense-related hormone, additional plant hormones (e.g., 285 JA, ethylene), and the growth-regulating hormone GA, as summarized in Figure 7.

286 Historically, plant breeding for major disease resistance genes, including NDR1, comes at the 287 cost of altered flowering response and overall productivity, phenotypes that could effectively negate the benefits of fortified resistance to pathogens. Apart from assigning new roles to a key 288 regulator of defense signaling in plants, our findings also shed light on a new mechanism 289 290 associated with hormone regulation of one of the major defense regulators in plants. This latter 291 finding reinforces the fact that precaution must be taken to understand gene functions and 292 regulatory activities of any gene product before targeting them as candidates for crop 293 improvement.

294

295 Methods

296 Plant growth conditions

297 Arabidopsis thaliana seeds were surface-disinfected with 10% (v/v) commercial bleach
298 solution with a few drops of 10% SDS (Sigma) and subsequently washed at least thrice and

299 incubated at 4°C in sterile water in the dark for 3-7 days to break dormancy. Sterilized and cold-300 treated seeds were mixed in 0.01% top agar (Difco Agar, Beckton, Dickinson and Company, MD, 301 USA) and were directly sown into Sunshine Plant Growth Soil Mix No.1 in trays. The plants were 302 grown under either short day (S/D) photoperiod (10/14 h) or, long day (L/D) photoperiod (14/10 h)- day/night (D/N) cycle with a 22°C/20°C D/N temperature cycle in climate controlled growth 303 chambers (Conviron, Winnipeg, Canada). Lighting was provided by cool white light emitting bars 304 at a fluence rate of 130-150 µmol photons s⁻¹ m⁻² under both light regimes. Some experiments 305 306 were repeated under greenhouse conditions where plants received natural light supplemented with 307 overhead mercury lamps at night to maintain 16/8 h D/N cycle as required. Greenhouse 308 temperature was maintained at 22 +2 °C for all experiments. All plants were fertilized once every 309 two weeks (Jack's Classic, J. R. Peters, Inc., PA), starting from the second week of growth until 310 the completion of senescence. For bolt measurements, plants were grown in growth chambers for 311 at least eight weeks, then moved to greenhouse. Intact plants were allowed to dry, and final 312 measurement were taken soon thereafter.

313

314 Pathogen culture and plant treatment

Two species of vascular wilt pathogens were used in this study. *Verticillium dahliae* from lettuce has a broad host range and the host range of *Verticillium longisporium* is restricted to plants in the brassicaceae^{6,19,20,26,39}. Lettuce isolates of *V. dahliae* used in this study included VdLs.16 (California isolate, 1996) and VdLs.17 (ATCC accession MYA-4575) which represent races 1 and 2, respectively. The isolate of *V. longisporum* from cauliflower used was VlBob.70 (CA, 1990)⁴⁰. All *Verticillium* isolates used in the study were grown at room temperature on potato dextrose agar (PDA) (Difco, Beckton, Dickinson and Company, Maryland, USA) supplemented with 322 cholarmphenicol (0.05g/l) (Fisher Scientific) and Streptomycin Sulfate (0.05g/l) (Mediatech, Inc., 323 Herndon, Virginia) from a 20% glycerol stock culture stored at -80°C. After a week of growth, 324 fresh agar plugs with visible mycelia were transferred on to freshly prepared PDA plates that were 325 grown at room temperature for 2 weeks before use. Pathogen treatments consisted of Verticillium 326 conidia suspensions prepared by flooding the 2-week-old cultures on PDA with sterile distilled 327 water and conidial counts were determined with a hemocytometer and a compound microscope 328 (Olympus BX60, Japan) and adjusted to a concentration of 1×10^7 conidia/ml in distilled water. 329 Conidial suspensions were stirred to prevent settling of conidia and 5 ml of the conidia suspension 330 was dispensed into the potting mix near the crown of the plant during the second week of plant 331 growth. Whenever the experiment was carried out under greenhouse conditions, natural day light 332 was augmented with mercury lamps to maintain long day conditions with a 16/8 h D/N cycle.

For gene expression analysis in plant tissues that were inoculated with a pathogen, samples were collected at the indicated days post inoculation (dpi) and immediately placed in liquid nitrogen and stored in a -80°C freezer until further use. All experiments were carried out at least two times with similar results in climate controlled growth chambers and greenhouses, unless mentioned otherwise.

338

339 Plant flowering time and growth measurement

Arabidopsis flowering time was measured by scoring the plants with open terminal flowers (TFO), as described previously²⁴. The number of rosette leaves (RLN) were counted after all the plants in both the genotypes flowered. Around 25 plants of both WT Col-0 and *ndr1-1* were used throughout the study for each experimental replicate unless indicated otherwise. Main bolt length (MBL) was measured beginning on the day of plant flowering. Subsequently, the process was

345 repeated every week for all the bolting plants in a population until all of the plants flowered, ceased 346 visible growth, and started to senesce. Plants were moved to a greenhouse to dry out completely 347 and the final tallies of MBL, silique per main bolt (SMB), and total silique number (TSN) were 348 recorded for all the plants in both genotypes. The average MBL over the duration of growth and 349 average of the number of SMB was used as a quantitative indicator of growth, beginning at the 350 time of bolt initiation, and during the subsequent days until visible growth ceased. Genotypes 351 susceptible to Verticillium spp. showed stunted bolts and reduced rosette size among other disease 352 features, as previously described in other plant-pathogen systems^{6,26}.

353

For analysis of the expression of the genes regulating flowering time, 7-to-9-day-old soil sown seedlings were grown in climate controlled growth chambers under long day conditions of a 14/10 h D/N cycle and were harvested for analysis at the end of the light period. At least 50-70 seedling samples of the respective plant genotypes were collected for the gene expression analyses. All of the experiments and measurement criteria were replicated at least three times with similar results.

359

360 Chemical treatments

Bioactive GA₃ (Sigma-Aldrich) or Paclobutrazol (PAC; Alfa Aesar) were used at final working concentrations of either 50 μ M or 100 μ M for GA₃ in tap water containing 0.015% Silwett-S77 (Lehle seeds, Texas, USA) and 35mg/l of PAC in tap water. The GA₃ solution was applied as a fine spray (with a store brought spray bottle) until the plants dripped with the sprayed solution. Paclobutrazol was applied as a solution directly to the soil in the pot containing the seedlings of each genotype at a rate of 5ml/pot for all the experiments, beginning at the second week of growth, unless otherwise noted. When GA₃ and PAC treatments were administered simultaneously, PAC was first applied to the soil followed immediately with a foliar spray of GA₃. One application of PAC was enough to induce the difference between the *ndr1-1* and the wild genotypes, while GA₃ sprays were administered twice within one week till the plants ceased any visible growth and distinctly displayed senescence.

373

374 Statistical analysis of phenotype data

The Welch's *t*-test was used as a two-sided test for comparison of mean using the R statistical software (R Core Team 2017)⁴⁵. A *P*-value of < 0.05 was considered to be statistically significant.

377

378 Gene expression analyses

379 Arabidopsis seedlings or leaf samples were collected in 1.5 ml centrifuge tubes and flash frozen in liquid nitrogen at indicated time points. Samples were collected from 50-70 individual plants 380 per treatment for each time point and used for gene expression analysis. Total plant RNA was 381 382 isolated using Trizol reagent (Invitrogen) and quantified using a Nanodrop spectrophotometer 383 (ThermoFisher). Total RNA (10 µg) was reverse transcribed into cDNA using SuperScriptIII reverse transcriptase (Invitrogen) for reverse transcription quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR) analyses. 384 385 The RT-qPCR assays were performed on a LightCycler480 II (Roche, Germany) using ABI 386 TaqMan Gene Expression Master Mix (ThermoFisher). The relative expression of each gene of 387 interest was calculated using the REST software (Qiagen). The TaqMan probes used were obtained 388 from ThermoFisher, and the assay identification numbers for assays are attached in supplementary 389 information section.

391 Plant genotypes and mutant information

392 Both the ndr1-1 and WT Col-0 seeds were initially obtained from the Arabidopsis Biological 393 Resource Center (ABRC; Columbus, Ohio, USA). The homozygous ndr1-1 mutant is in the Col-394 0 background and is a loss of function mutant. To synchronize the seed quality and seed age, seeds 395 of *ndr1-1* and WT Col-0 were also obtained by allowing the soil grown plants to self-fertilize and 396 senesce, followed by seed drying on the plants for at least 40-60 days. Both genotypes were grown 397 on the same tray under similar growth conditions throughout. Seeds were collected from at least two generations of plants as described above. For the experiments described above, similar results 398 399 were obtained using these seeds in multiple replicates. The mutant genotype was confirmed each 400 time by qPCR and by sequencing for the absence of deleted region in the *ndr1-1* mutant (citation).

401 DNA Extraction and Whole Genome Sequencing

DNA was extracted from four-week old Arabidopsis plants as described⁴¹ and quantified. The 402 whole genome of the *ndr1-1* mutant genotype was sequenced by Illumina MeSeq platform with 403 paired end 150nt mode in the Genomics Core Facility at Michigan State University (xxx, MI). 404 405 Raw DNA sequencing reads were filtered and trimmed using Trimmomatics v0.33⁴² and mapped to Arabidopsis reference genome TAIR10 using bowtie2 v2.2.6⁴³. For visualization purposes 406 alignments of ndr1-1 and Col-0 genome were visualized in the genome viewer Tablet⁴⁴ 407 (Supplementary Figure 3). Raw read sequence of *ndr1-1* is deposited to NCBI short read archive 408 409 (SRA) under BioProject PRJNA489296.

410

411 Measurements of gibberellic acid

GA₃ was measured by Shimadzu Liquid Chromatograph 2030-C model coupled with a UV detector
at 208 nm. It consists of a multi-solvent delivery system, a water in-line Degasser AF and water

temperature control system. Shimadzu C18 column (2.7 μ m particle size, 150 mm x 4.6 mm i.d.) was used at a flow rate of 1.0 ml min-1. The sample injection volume was 20 μ L and oven temperature was maintained at 20°C. The mobile phase was acetonitrile-water at a ratio of 25:75 (v/v). GA₃ concentration was calculated from external standard curves.

GA₄ and GA₉ were measured by using Shimadzu LC-MS/MS 8050 equipped with C18 reversed phase column (3 μ m particle size, 50 mm x 4.6 mm i.d.) by using acetonitrile-water at ratio of 5:95 (v/v) as the mobile phase. GA₄ and GA₉ were ionized by Electro Spray Ionization mode with heat block temperature of 400°C and interface temperatures of 300°C. The DL temperature was 300° C and the interface voltage was +3.5 kV. LC MS/MS confirmation transition conditions for GA4 and GA₉ were 331>287 and 315>253, respectively. Hormone quantification was performed using external standard curves for GA4 and GA₉ from plant total extracts.

425

426

427 Additional Information

428 **Competing Interests:** We declare that the authors have no competing interests as defined by 429 Nature Research, or other interests that might be perceived to influence the results and/or 430 discussion reported in this paper.

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550

551 Author Contributions

552 N.D., S.J.K., D.P.G.S., and K.V.S. wrote the main manuscript text; N.D., S.J.K., and K.V.S.

553 conceived experiments; N.D. and D.P.G.S. conducted experiments; A.A. performed RT-qPCR

analyses of gene expression; H.A. performed mass spectrometry analysis; N.D. prepared all

figures. All authors approved the final version of the manuscript.

556

557 Figure legends

558 Figure 1: Arabidopsis ndr1-1 mutants are susceptible to Verticillium and display accelerated 559 flowering upon infection. Phenotype of the V. longisporum (VIBob.70)-treated WT Col-0 (left) 560 with respect to the susceptible ndr l - l mutant (right) shown at three weeks post inoculation (a). 561 Average time to flower in terms of rosette leaf number (RLN) (b), average time to flower in terms of appearance of the visible bud (VB) (c) and the appearance of open terminal flower (TFO) (d) 562 on the main axis is shown as days post germination (dpg) for the genotypes treated with 563 564 Verticillium dahliae (VdLs.16 and VdLs.17) and VlBob.70 (Vl) and water treated control (mock), 565 for both WT Col-0 and *ndr1-1*. Average final main bolt length (MBL) for WT Col-0 and *ndr1-1* 566 treated with the above pathogens after the plants ceased any visible growth (e). Average number 567 of siliques on the main branch (SMB) for WT Col-0 and *ndr1-1* treated with the above pathogens 568 after the plants ceased any visible growth (f). Figures shown above are representative of data from 569 one experiment. The experiments were repeated at least twice with similar results with 20-25 plants per genotype. * P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01, *** P < 0.005, **** P < 0.001 (two-sided Welch's t-test). 570 Bar, SD. 571

573 Figure 2: Early flowering and accelerated development of the Arabidopsis *ndr1-1* mutant.

574 The early flowering phenotype of *ndr1-1* plants (left) with respect to Columbia (Col, right) at four 575 weeks (a), six weeks (b) and eight weeks (c) of growth. The ndrl-l plants flower early and bolt 576 faster (a) but the growth is slowed eventually with respect to WT Col-0 (b) and is eventually 577 overtaken by the WT Col plants (c). Average time to flower in terms of appearance of the visible 578 bud (VB) (d) and when the first terminal flower opened (TFO) (e) on the main axis is shown as 579 days post germination (dpg) for genotypes shown in the figure. Average number of leaves/plant 580 (both rosette leaf number and cauline leaf number) is as shown (f). Average final Main bolt length 581 (MBL) at the time of flowering is shown in (g). Main bolt length (MBL) at the time of opening of 582 the terminal flower is shown in (h). Average MBL at the indicated time points for both the 583 genotypes until plant senescence and cessation of growth (i). Average number of siliques per main 584 bolt (SMB) at the cessation of growth (i) and the total number of siliques per plant (TSN) is shown in (k). Figures shown above are representative of data from one experiment. Approximately 20-585 586 25 plants per genotype were used for the measurements and the experiment was repeated at least twice with similar results. * P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01, *** P < 0.005, **** P < 0.001 (two-sided 587 588 Welch's t-test). Bar, SD.

589

Figure 3: Analyses of flowering time and gibberellic acid biosynthetic gene expression and
gibberellic acid levels in *ndr1-1* Arabidopsis plants. Reverse transcription-quantitative PCR
(RT-qPCR) analyses of gene expression were performed for genes controlling the transition to
flowering including the positive regulators *CONSTANS (CO)*, *FLOWERING LOCUS T (T)*, *SUPPRESSOR OF CONSTANS 1 (SOC1)*, *LEAFY (LFY)* and *APETALA 1 (AP1)*. The expression
was normalized with respect to *UBIQUITIN 10 (UBC10)* gene (a). At least 50-70 seedlings per

596 genotype from soil grown plants under long day conditions were used and the experiments were 597 replicated at least twice with similar results. Error bars represent the standard error between these replicates for each gene tested. RT-qPCR was also performed on selected genes involved in 598 biosynthesis of the bioactive GAs including GA3ox and GA20ox (right panel), and genes involved 599 in the deactivation of bioactive GA by 2- β hydroxylation including GA2ox6 and GA2ox7 (left 600 601 panel) (b). Bioactive GA levels in planta (c). Aerial parts of 20-30 2 to 3-week-old, long-day 602 grown plants were harvested mid-day in liquid nitrogen, and were processed as described in the 603 methods. Bioactive forms of GA, GA₃ and GA₄, were measured by HPLC and GC-MS using 604 known standards and as described in methods. The error bars represent the standard error of the 605 average of two independent biological replicates.

606

607 Figure 4: ndr1-1 mutants retain enhanced gibberellic acid responses. Col and ndr1-1 plants 608 were sprayed with 100 µM GA₃ dissolved in water containing 0.015% Silwett-77 (top panel) and with just water containing 0.015% Silwett-77 (bottom panel) for control treatment (mock) (a). 609 610 Average time to flower in terms of the terminal flower open (TFO) and when the first terminal 611 flower opened (TFO) on the main axis is shown as days post germination (dpg) for the genotypes 612 shown in the figure (b). Average rosette leaf number (RLN) is shown in (c), while average main 613 bolt length (MBL) and average silique number on the main bolt (SMB) at 37 dpg is shown in (d) 614 and (e) respectively. Figures shown above are representative of data from one experiment. 615 Approximately 20-25 plants per genotype were used for the measurements and the experiment was repeated at least twice with similar results. * P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01, *** P < 0.005, **** P < 0.001616 617 (two-sided Welch's t-test). Bar, SD.

619

620 Figure 5: ndr1-1 plants display enhanced paclobutrazol (PAC) resistance. The gibberellic acid 621 (GA) biosynthesis inhibitor paclobutrazol (PAC) was applied as a 35 mg/l solution in water. Top 622 panel shows the visible difference in emergence of the floral bud as it appears to the naked eye 623 from representative plant samples treated with PAC (a). Average time to flower in terms of 624 appearance of visible buds (VB) (b). Average total leaf number [both rosette (RL) and cauline 625 leaves (CL)] is shown in (c), while the average main bolt length at flowering at the cessation of 626 any visible growth and the total silique number from the whole plant is shown in (d) and (e) 627 respectively. Figures shown above are representative of data from one experiment. Approximately 628 20-25 plants per genotype were used for the measurements and the experiment was repeated at least twice with similar results. * P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01, *** P < 0.005, **** P < 0.001 (two-sided 629 630 Welch's t-test). Bar, SD.

631

632 Figure 6: Hormonal (GA) rescue of PAC mediated growth inhibition confirms enhanced GA 633 reception as the basis of early flowering phenotype of *ndr1-1* plants. The gibberellic acid 634 response inhibitor (PAC) was applied as a 35mg/l solution in water directly to the pots (middle 635 and right panels) (a). For GA treatment, plants shown in the same panels were treated twice per 636 week with either 100 µM GA₃ dissolved in water containing 0.015% Silwett-77 (middle and right panel) or with water containing 0.015% Silwett-77 (left panel) as a control treatment. Flowering 637 638 time is shown as the average time to flower for the terminal flower to open (TFO) for WT Col-0 639 and *ndr1-1* treated with either GA, or in combination with PAC, along with water treated plants 640 as a control (mock) is shown in (b) while the total rosette leaf number (RLN) after all the plants flowered is shown in (c). Main bolt length (MBL) was monitored weekly at indicated days post-641

642 germination (dpg) for comparing the growth between WT Col and *ndr1-1* plants subjected to the 643 GA and PAC treatments (d). Figures shown above are representative of data from one experiment. 644 Approximately 20-25 plants per genotype were used for the measurements and the experiment was 645 repeated at least twice with similar results. * P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01, *** P < 0.005, **** P < 0.001646 (two-sided Welch's t-test). Bar, SD.

647

Figure 7: Model depicting the effect of the *ndr1-1* mutation on physiological processes 648 649 relative to the previously defined role of NDR1. A loss-of-function (ndr1-1) mutation in NDR1 650 diminishes/abrogates the hypersensitive response (HR) and systemic acquired resistance (SAR) 651 known to involve Salicylic Acid (SA) pathway, and also reduces the accumulation of SA in 652 response to pathogens. In this study, we demonstrate that the levels of the phytohormone GA are 653 elevated in untreated *ndr1-1* plants, a phenomenon we hypothesize contributes to the early 654 flowering phenotype. We also demonstrate that *ndr1-1* plants have accelerated growth and display 655 early senescence as a result of the NDR1 deletion. Dotted lines represent findings from this current 656 study, while the solid lines represent established results from multiple research groups since the 657 discovery of the effect of *ndr1-1* on defense responses in *Arabidopsis*.

658

659 Supplementary Figure S1: Early flowering of *Arabidopsis ndr1-1* plants under short day 660 conditions.

Early flowering phenotype of *ndr1-1* plants (right) in comparison to the WT Col (left) at seven weeks of growth. The early flowering phenotype was observed in more than three replicates with at least 15-25 plants per genotype. Growth differences under short day conditions (10/14 h light/dark cycle) with *ndr1-1* plants flowering early and bolted faster with respect to WT Col-0
plants, similar to the differences observed under long day conditions (14/10 h light/dark cycle).

Supplementary Figure S2: Arabidopsis plants with ndr1-1 mutation have reduced seed yield.
Average total seed weight in ndr1-1 compared to WT Col-0 plants, represented as grams per
similar number of plants tested (a). This phenotype was observed in multiple replicates under our
growth conditions with at least 15-25 plants per genotype. Total seed weight was determined in
grams for the same number of plants of either WT Col-0 or ndr1-1 plants (b). Similar results were
also obtained with plants grown under long day conditions in both climate controlled growth
chambers and green house.

674

675 Supplementary Figure S3: Illumina genome sequencing of the *ndr1-1* mutant.

Sequencing of genomic DNA (gDNA) from 4-week-old leaves from the *ndr1-1* mutant reveals a deletion of 1,233 base pairs (bp), encompassing 596 bp deletion, 5' of the *NDR1* UTR. The wildtype Col-0 genome sequence was used as a reference for mapping reads from the *ndr1-1* mutant. Read depth is illustrated based on the linear sequence (i.e., rows), with colors denoting individual nucleotides (green="A", purple="T", red="G", and orange="C"). Nucleotide positions on chromosome 3 are shown as points of reference for the location of the *NDR1* deletion.

682

683 Supplementary Table 1: List of all the TaqMan assay ID numbers used for reverse

684 transcription-quantitative PCR analysis in this study.

685

Gene Name	ATG Number	TaqMan Assay ID
GI	AT1G22770	At02305659_g1
СО	AT5G15840	At02200179_g1
FT	AT1G65480	At02224075_g1
SOC1	AT2G45660	At02263351_m1
LFY	AT5G61850	At02270390_m1
AP1	AT1G69120	At02226237_g1
NDR1	AT3G20600	At02262314_s1
GA3 OX1	AT1G15550	At02155986_g1
GA3 OX2	AT1G80340	At02289801_g1
GA20 OX1	AT4G25420	At02238367_g1
GA20 OX2	AT5G51810	At02320185_g1
GA2 OX6	AT1G78440	At02259101_m1
GA2 OX7	AT1G30040	At02272024_m1
UBC10	AT5G533000	At02234192_gH