Contrasting and conserved roles of NPR proteins in diverged land plant lineages

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Summary

The NPR proteins AtNPR1 and AtNPR3/AtNPR4 function as salicylic acid (SA) receptors in the model

eudicot *Arabidopsis thaliana*. AtNPR1 plays a central role in SA-induced transcriptional

reprogramming and thus positively regulates disease resistance against a variety of pathogens. NPR

homologs have been found in the genomes of nearly all land plant species sequenced to date, suggesting

that the function of NPR in the SA-mediated response is conserved in land plants. However, we know

relatively little about the molecular functions and physiological roles of NPR homologs in most plant

species. Our phylogenetic analysis of 194 NPR proteins from 68 land plant species shows that NPR

proteins can be classified into three significant clades: angiosperms NPR1/2, angiosperms NPR3/4, and

non-seed plants NPR. Uniquely, in Brassicaceae species, NPR genes have been duplicated to form four

Brassicaceae-specific subclades. Brassicaceae NPR1-like proteins have characteristically gained or lost

functional amino acid residues or protein motifs identified in *A. thaliana* NPR proteins, pointing to the

possibility of a unique evolutionary trajectory for the Brassicaceae NPR1-like proteins that has resulted

in peculiar functions. We find that the only NPR in the model liverwort *Marchantia polymorpha*,

MpNPR, is not the master regulator of SA-induced transcriptional reprogramming and rather negatively

regulates resistance against bacterial pathogens in this species, although Mp*NPR* expression could

complement the mutant phenotypes of At*npr1-1*. The transcriptome of Mp*npr* mutant plants suggested

potential roles of MpNPR in heat and far-red (FR) light responses. Indeed, Mp*npr* mutants displayed

enhanced thermomorphogenesis and reduced FR-induced shade avoidance. Furthermore, we identify

enhanced thermomorphogenesis in At*npr1-1* seedlings, suggesting a conserved role of NPR in the heat

response in land plants. Taken together, our results demonstrate that the SA-mediated disease resistance-

related function of NPR is not evolutionarily well conserved among land plant lineages. We suggest that

the common ancestor of land plants had acquired NPR to cope with highly fluctuating conditions,

including temperature and light quality, in terrestrial environments.

Introduction

Land plants deal with various environmental fluctuations or stresses such as shadiness, heat,

and drought. Likewise, land plants are constantly surrounded by various microbes and insects and have

developed sophisticated immune systems to fight off a wide range of pathogenic organisms. Plant

immune responses are controlled by diverse phytohormones such as salicylic acid (SA), jasmonic acid

(JA), and ethylene (ET), among which SA has indispensable roles in both local and systemic protection

against biotrophic and hemibiotrophic pathogens [1,2]. In *Arabidopsis thaliana*, NONEXPRESSOR OF

PATHOGENESIS-RELATED GENES1 (NPR1) is a central player in SA-mediated plant immunity.

AtNPR1 is responsible for the majority of SA- or benzothiadiazole S-methyl ester (BTH; a functional

analog of SA)-induced transcriptional reprogramming, positioning AtNPR1 as the master regulator of

the regulatory defense network induced by SA in *A. thaliana* [3,4]. Consistent with this, the controlled

expression of AtNPR1 in rice enhances resistance against bacterial and fungal pathogens without

compromising plant fitness [5], underlining the potential of NPR homologs as molecular targets or tools

for the engineering of disease-resistant plants.

AtNPR1 contains a Broad-complex, Tramtrack, and Bric-à-brac/poxvirus and zinc finger

(BTB/POZ) domain; Ankyrin repeats (ANKs); and a C-terminal NPR1-like-C domain [6–9]. The

genome of *A. thaliana* encodes four NPR proteins, AtNPR1, AtNPR2, AtNPR3, and AtNPR4. Besides,

A. thaliana has two BLADE-ON-PETIOLE (BOP) proteins, which are related to NPR proteins [10–12].

Although AtNPR2 is closely related to AtNPR1, the At*npr2* mutant behaves like a wild type in response

to SA, BTH, and bacterial pathogens [13]. However, expression of At*NPR2* can partially complement

the SA- and BTH-induced resistance phenotype of the At*npr1-1* mutant [13], suggesting functional

conservation between AtNPR1 and AtNPR2 as positive regulators of SA signaling. Meanwhile, the

At*npr3 npr4* double mutant displays enhanced resistance against bacterial and oomycete pathogens

associated with elevated basal pathogen-related (*PR*) gene expression, and AtNPR3 and AtNPR4 have

been shown to function as negative regulators of SA signaling [14,15].

AtNPR1, AtNPR3, and AtNPR4 have been demonstrated to function as SA receptors. The SA-

binding affinity of AtNPR proteins requires conserved arginine (Arg) residue in the C-terminal NPR1-

like-C domains [14,16,17]. An AtNPR1 mutant protein with the R432Q substitution failed to bind to

SA, and the At*npr1-1* mutant expressing this protein could not complement the SA-insensitivity

phenotype [14]. Similarly, *Brachypodium distachyon* NPR2, BdNPR2, was shown to possess SA

binding ability, which depends on the conserved Arg residue [18]. AtNPR3 and AtNPR4 can function

as transcriptional co-repressors, a function conferred by a repression motif, which is related to the

ethylene-responsive element binding factor (ERF)-associated amphiphilic repression (EAR) motif [19],

found at the C-terminal NPR1-like-C domains of AtNPR3 and AtNPR4 but not AtNPR1 [14]. Recent

structural analysis suggested that SA binding to AtNPR1 leads to formation of an "enhanceosome" [20].

The structural basis of how AtNPR3 and AtNPR4 function as transcriptional co-repressors remains to

be addressed.

AtNPR1 is a cysteine (Cys)-rich protein, and has been proposed to function as a redox sensor

[21]. In its inactive state, AtNPR1 forms oligomers through intermolecular disulfide bonds between Cys

residues that act to sequester the protein in the cytoplasm [22]. Importantly, Cys156 of AtNPR1 was

shown to be targeted by S-nitrosylation, which facilitates oligomerization [23]. Intriguingly, a recent

study indicated that the oligomerization of AtNPR1 reported to occur *in vitro* likely does not occur *in*

vivo [24]. Besides, AtNPR1, AtNPR3, and AtNPR4 were shown to regulate protein degradation by

recruiting the Cullin 3 E3 ubiquitin ligase, likely through their BTB/POZ domains [25].

The monophyletic bryophytes is a sister clade to tracheophytes [26–28]. The two plant lineages

diverged from the common ancestor of the land plants, which evolved from streptophyte algae about

500 million years ago [29,30]. Such taxonomic importance has placed bryophytes in a significant

position in the research of plant evolution and terrestrialization. Bryophytes consist of three divisions:

mosses, liverworts, and hornworts [31,32]. The genomes of model bryophytes, the moss *Physcomitrium*

patens, the liverwort *Marchantia polymorpha*, and the hornwort *Anthoceros agrestis*, encode two, one,

and no NPR homologs, respectively [27,33,34]. Notably, expression of *P. patens* Pp*NPR1*/Pp*3c21_7570*

can partially restore the *PR1* gene expression and disease resistance phenotypes of the At*npr1-1* mutant,

suggesting that the molecular properties of NPR proteins in bryophytes and angiosperms are

evolutionarily conserved at some level [35]. Accumulating evidence shows that ectopic expression of

At*NPR1* or NPR homologs in crops, including wheat, tomato, tobacco, and cotton, could alter disease

resistance, further supporting functional conservation of NPR proteins in many plant species [36–45].

Most genetic studies on *NPR* genes that have investigated their physiological roles in different

plant species have been carried out in *A. thaliana*. In one rare study in another plant species, in which

the authors employed RNAi-based Os*NPR1* knockdown lines in rice, it was reported that Os*NPR1* is

responsible for expression levels of 47% of BTH responsive genes [46]. However, it is not yet conclusive

whether OsNPR1 functions as the master regulator of SA signaling as in *A. thaliana*, because the study

was based on knockdown lines, and *O. sativa* has two other NPR proteins that may also contribute to

SA signaling [46]. Therefore, it is still possible that genes other than NPR factors play central roles in

SA signaling and that *NPR* genes primarily function in other pathways in plants. In this connection,

AtNPR1 was shown to positively regulate cold acclimation in SA- and TGA-independent manners [47].

Besides, AtNPR1 was described to suppress the unfolded protein response (UPR) independently from

SA by interacting with the UPR regulators bZIP28 and bZIP60 [48]. Here, we address the functional

conservation of NPR proteins in plants by utilizing the model liverwort *M. polymorpha* that possesses a

single NPR, MpNPR.

Results

Brassicaceae NPR1-like proteins possess a peculiar set of functionally important amino acid residues

Extensive studies of AtNPR proteins have identified protein motifs and amino acid residues

associated with the molecular mechanisms of how AtNPR proteins induce or repress the expression of

SA-responsive genes. To study functional conservation of NPR proteins across different plant species,

we performed comprehensive sequence analyses of NPR and BOP homologs. Amino acid sequences of

MpNPR (Mp1g02380) and AtBOP1 (At3g57130) were used for BLASTP search against 78 protein

databases covering algae, bryophytes, lycophytes, monilophytes, gymnosperms, and angiosperms

(Table S2). We identified 194 NPR and 123 BOP homologs in the genomes of 68 species covering the

significant lineages of land plants (Table S1). No NPR and BOP homologs were found in streptophyte

algae. We found that the exon-intron organization in the regions where the BTB/POZ domains are

encoded is highly conserved between NPR and BOP families (Figure S2). The phylogenetic tree shows

that NPR and BOP proteins from non-seed plants are closely related (Figure 1). This suggests that NPR

and BOP families diverged in the early stage of terrestrialization and may share a common ancestral

gene.

Phylogenetic analysis of 194 NPR proteins classified the NPR family into three significant

clades; Angiosperms NPR1/2, NPR3/4, and non-seed plants NPR (Figure 1A). The non-seed plants

clade consists entirely of NPR homologs from bryophytes and pteridophytes. NPR homologs from

angiosperms were clustered into the NPR1/2 and NPR3/4 clades, designated based on AtNPR1/AtNPR2

and AtNPR3/AtNPR4. The phylogenetic tree suggests that angiosperm NPR1/2 and NPR3/4 clades

diverged from the ancestral NPR by gene duplication (Figure 1A). Our comprehensive analysis,

including eight Brassicaceae species, revealed that *A. thaliana* gained a further four NPR proteins

through additional gene duplication that occurred after the divergence of the Brassicaceae family (Figure

1A). Consequently, NPR proteins from Brassicaceae species can be further classified into four

subclades: Brassicaceae NPR1-like to Brassicaceae NPR4-like (Figure 1A and S3B). Further expansions

of *NPR1-like* genes were observed in *Boechera stricta*, *Brassica rapa FPsc*, and *Eutrema salsugineum*,

while gene duplication of *NPR2-like*, *NPR3-like*, and *NPR4-like* was not observed except for *NPR3-like*

in *Brassica rapa FPsc* (Figure S3A). Intriguingly, one of the *Boechera stricta* NPR1-like proteins,

Bostr.29223s0069.1, was found to be integrated into the C-terminus of a Toll and IL-1 receptor (TIR)-

NLR (Figure S3C), which implies that Brassicaceae NPR1-like proteins are virulence targets of

pathogen effector molecules and, in turn, that, as supported by evidence from *A. thaliana*, Brassicaceae

NPR1-like proteins play crucial roles in plant immunity.

We then investigated the conservation of amino acids such as cysteine (Cys), serine (Ser), and

arginine (Arg) residues, which are associated with molecular functions of AtNPR1, together with

functional motifs including the EAR motif and SUMO-interaction motif (SIM) (Figure 1B to 1D and

S1). AtNPR1 forms an oligomer through intermolecular disulfide bonds in its inactive state to reside in

the cytoplasm, and several Cys residues were identified to be responsible for the oligomerization or

protein accumulation [22]. For instance, Cys156 is targeted by S-nitrosylation and is required for

AtNPR1 oligomerization [20,23]. Cys521 and Cys529 are critical for transition metal binding activity,

and oxidation is required for the SA-dependent co-activation activity of AtNPR1 [17,49]. We found that

Cys155 and Cys160, required for accumulation of AtNPR1 protein [22], were conserved in all 194 NPR

proteins (Figure 1B and S1). In contrast, Cys156 is conserved only in Brassicaceae NPR1-like and

NPR2-like subclades (Figure 1B and S1). Cys82 is involved in the oligomerization of AtNPR1 [20,22],

and we found that Cys82 is well conserved among NPR proteins in all clades and could be detected in

185 out of 194 NPR proteins (Figure S1). Cys521 and Cys529 are modestly conserved only in

Brassicaceae NPR1-like proteins (Figure S1). Arg432, required for SA binding in AtNPR1 [14], was

found to be well conserved among NPR proteins in all clades and was detected in 190 out of 194 NPR

proteins (Figure 1C and S1). The EAR motif (DLNxxP) of AtNPR3 and AtNPR4 was found to be

responsible for their transcriptional co-repressor activities [14]. Conversely, AtNPR1 was assumed to

function as a transcriptional co-activator due to the absence of this motif [50]. To our surprise, we found

that the EAR motif is conserved in most NPR proteins except for the Brassicaceae NPR1-like proteins

(Figure 1D and S1). Notably, the EAR motif is well conserved in Brassicaceae NPR2-like, NPR3-like,

and NPR4-like proteins (Figure S1). It is likely that Brassicaceae NPR1-like proteins have lost the EAR

motif during evolution. We observed occasional independent losses of the EAR motif in NPR proteins

from other plant species, including the single NPR in *M. polymorpha*, MpNPR (Figure 1D and Figure

S1). In short, Brassicaceae species have a unique set of NPR proteins, and Brassicaceae NPR1-like

proteins may have evolved unique molecular functions as positive regulators of SA-mediated immunity.

NPR negatively regulates the SA response and resistance against bacterial pathogens in M.

polymorpha

Based on the phylogenetic relationships of NPR proteins, functional characterization of NPR

proteins from bryophytes would be expected to shed light on the ancestral function of NPR and its

evolution. The acquisition of NPR has probably contributed to plant terrestrialization. However, the

absence of *NPR* genes in those hornworts for which genomes have been sequenced, namely, *Anthoceros*

agrestis, *Anthoceros punctatus*, and *Anthoceros angustus*, indicates that NPR is not indispensable for

the survival of plants in terrestrial environments. The model liverwort *M. polymorpha* has a single NPR,

which is an advantage for efforts aimed at addressing NPR functions. Since AtNPR1 plays a prominent

and vital role in SA responses in *A. thaliana*, a comparison of MpNPR and AtNPR1, both of which lack

the EAR motif, can contribute to understanding the conservation and diversification of NPR functions.

We thus generated CRISPR/Cas9-based NPR loss-of-function mutants in the *M. polymorpha* Tak-1

background. Two guide RNAs were used to target the first exon of Mp*NPR* near the region encoding

the BTB/POZ domain and resulted in 26-bp deletion (Mp*npr-1^{ge}*) and 1-bp insertion (Mp*npr-2^{ge}*),

respectively (Figure S4A). Both alleles resulted in a frameshift and early stop codons. We did not

observe obvious developmental defects of the Mp*npr* mutants under our growth conditions (Figure 2A).

SA was shown to inhibit the growth of *M. polymorpha*, and thus we first investigated SA

sensitivity of the Mp*npr* mutants [51]. Tak-1 plants showed no responses in their growth at

concentrations up to 0.5 mM SA, while both Mp*npr* mutants displayed growth inhibition only at 0.1

mM SA (Figure 2A and 2B). Complemented alleles expressing Mp*NPR* under its own promoter in

Mp*npr-1^ge* partially rescued the SA hypersensitivity phenotype (Figure 3A, 3B and S4B). Moreover,

Mp*NPR*-overexpressing plants, *pro*Mp*EF1α::MpNPR-mCitrine*/Tak-1, displayed reduced sensitivity to

the SA treatment (Figure 3A and 3B). At*npr1* mutants are characterized by an SA-hypersensitive

phenotype due to hyperaccumulation of SA in these mutants [52]. Therefore, we next measured SA

levels in the Mp*npr* mutants to investigate whether the differential SA accumulation contributed to the

hypersensitive phenotype. Under our normal growth conditions, SA accumulated to the same levels in

the Tak1 and Mp*npr* mutants (Figure 2C). When plants were grown under SA-supplemented conditions,

we observed significantly lower and higher SA levels in Mp*npr-1^ge* and Mp*npr-2^ge* compared to Tak-1,

respectively. However, there was no correlation between the altered SA levels and the growth inhibition

phenotype (Figure 2A to 2C). In *M. polymorpha*, *dinor*-12-oxo-phytodienoic acid (dn-OPDA) functions

as bioactive jasmonate (JA), and antagonism between SA and dn-OPDA was reported [51,53,54].

Therefore, we also measured OPDA levels and found that these were not altered in the Mp*npr* mutants

(Figure 2D). Altogether, we concluded that MpNPR negatively regulates SA-dependent growth

inhibition.

AtNPR1 positively regulates SA-dependent defense gene expression, and thus At*npr1* mutants

display increased susceptibility to various bacterial pathogens [7,36,55]. Therefore, we investigated

whether and how MpNPR contributes to resistance against bacterial pathogens using recently

established pathosystems [56,57]. Two-week-old thalli of Tak-1 and Mp*npr* mutants were inoculated

with bioluminescent *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *tomato* DC3000 (*Pto*-lux), and bacterial growth was

measured at 3 days post-inoculation (DPI). *Pto*-lux growth in the Mp*npr* mutants was significantly

reduced compared to the growth in Tak-1 both at basal and apical regions of thalli (Figure 2E).

Furthermore, the transient transformation of thalli with *Agrobacterium* carrying *intron-GUSPlus*

revealed that Mp*npr-1^ge* is more resistant to bacterial infection than Tak-1 (Figure 2F and 2G). These

results indicate that MpNPR negatively regulates bacterial resistance in *M. polymorpha*, which implies

that MpNPR and AtNPR1 play opposite roles in SA-mediated defense response.

Molecular properties are conserved between MpNPR and AtNPR1

236   Taking an inter-species complementation approach, we next determined whether the molecular

properties of NPR proteins from *M. polymorpha* and *A. thaliana* are conserved. Expression of At*NPR1-*

mCitrine under the Mp*EF1α* promoter in Mp*npr-1^ge* rescued the SA-hypersensitivity phenotype (Figure

3A and 3B). Moreover, ~pro~Mp*EF1α::AtNPR1-mCitrine*/Mp*npr-1^ge* plants displayed reduced SA

sensitivity compared to Mp*NPR*-overexpressing plants, which is probably due to overaccumulation of

AtNPR1 (Figure 3A and 3B). Conversely, we expressed MpNPR under the cauliflower mosaic virus

(CaMV) 35S promoter in the At*npr1-1* mutant. Expression of Mp*NPR* and At*NPR1* rescued the SA

hypersensitive phenotype (Figure 3C). Line #4, which failed to express Mp*NPR*, was used as a control

(Figure 3C). The At*npr1-1* mutant possesses the GUS reporter, *BGL2::GUS*, that is responsive to SA

accumulation [58]. In plants treated with SA, GUS-staining was observed only in the complementation

lines (Figure 3D). Taken together, these results indicate that protein functions of MpNPR and AtNPR1

have been well conserved during evolution and that MpNPR can function as an SA receptor.

MpNPR is not a master regulator of SA-induced transcriptional reprogramming in M. polymorpha

250   In *A. thaliana*, the vast majority of SA-induced transcriptional reprogramming is governed by

AtNPR1, AtNPR3, and AtNPR4 [4]. Our results showing that in *M. polymorpha* there is potential only

a single SA receptor, MpNPR, would suggest that SA-induced transcriptional reprogramming will be

lost in the Mp*npr* mutants. To investigate the SA-induced transcriptional response in *M. polymorpha*

and the contributions of MpNPR to the response, 2-week-old Tak-1 and Mp*npr-1^ge* plants were treated

with 1 mM SA or Mock for 2, 6, and 12 hours and subjected to RNA-seq analysis (Figure S6A). The

number of differentially expressed genes (DEGs, Mock vs SA, $|\text{Log}_2\text{FC}| \geq 1$, adjusted $p < 0.05$) in SA-

treated Tak-1 peaked at 6 hours post-incubation (hpi) (Figure 4B), and thus we selected a 6 hpi dataset

for further analyses. Strikingly, the overall transcriptional response pattern in Mp*npr-1^ge* was found to

be very similar to the pattern in Tak-1 (Figure 4A). Similar results were obtained when 7-day-old

gemmae, which were grown in a liquid medium, were treated with SA and BTH (Figure S7). This

indicates that the NPR protein is not a master regulator of SA-induced transcriptional reprogramming

in *M. polymorpha*. Since the transcriptional response was rather pronounced in Mp*npr-1^{ge}* compared to

Tak-1 (Figure 4B), MpNPR may rather function as a repressor of SA-inducible transcription factors,

which is in agreement with the SA hypersensitivity and the bacterial pathogen resistance phenotypes of

the Mp*npr* mutants (Figure 2). Moreover, this implies that other, as yet unknown, molecules likely

function as SA receptors in *M. polymorpha*.

In Tak-1, 479 genes were up-regulated and 97 genes were down-regulated upon SA treatment

(Figure 4B). Gene Ontology (GO) analysis showed significant enrichment of defense-related GO terms,

including '*response to wounding*' and '*response to other organism*', and also GO terms related to

responses to various stimuli in up- and down-regulated DEGs (Figure 4C). In Mp*npr-1^{ge}*, 837 genes

were up-regulated and 887 genes were down-regulated upon SA treatment (Figure 4B). Subsequent GO

analysis revealed that GO terms '*response to wounding*' is not enriched from the DEGs in Mp*npr-1^{ge}*

(Figure 4D). The expression of some Mp*PR* genes [59] was induced by SA treatment, and this up-

regulation was slightly enhanced in Mp*npr-1^{ge}* compared to Tak-1 (Figure S6C). These results imply

that SA is involved in the defense response and that MpNPR contributes to the SA-dependent wounding-

related response.

MpNPR is involved in the heat and far-red light responses

To explore the biological processes that are mediated by NPR but are independent of the SA

response in *M. polymorpha*, we compared the transcriptomes of Mp*npr-1^{ge}* and Tak-1 in response to

each treatment. Under Mock- and SA-treated conditions, 350 and 802 genes were identified as DEGs

(Mp*npr-1^{ge}* vs Tak-1, $|Log_2FC| \geq 1$, adjusted $p < 0.05$), respectively (Figure 4E). Among the DEGs, 143

genes were shared in both Mock- and SA-treated conditions (Figure 4E and 4F). In this subset, 20 genes

showed significant changes in their expression patterns upon SA treatment (Figure 4F), and thus, we

defined 123 genes as MpNPR-dependent and SA-nonresponsive genes. Subsequent GO analysis

revealed that the biological processes '*response to heat*', '*response to temperature stimulus*', and

'*response to far red light*' are over-represented in these 123 genes (Figure 4G).

To examine whether MpNPR is involved in the response to heat, we grew plants at high ambient

temperatures, which was previously shown to induce folding and bending of *M. polymorpha* thalli as a

thermomorphogenic response [60]. As reported, enhanced three-dimensional (3D) growth of Tak-1

thalli was observed, resulting in reduced projected thallus area, when plants were grown at 30 °C (Figure

5A). The Mp*npr* mutants displayed enhanced folding and bending with smaller projected thallus area

compared to Tak-1 (Figure 5A), indicating that MpNPR negatively regulates thermomorphogenesis in

M. polymorpha. Then, we asked whether AtNPR1 also plays a role in thermomorphogenesis in *A.*

thaliana. Strikingly, we found that the At*npr1-1* mutant and the At*npr1-1 npr3-2 npr4-2* triple mutant

display enhanced hypocotyl elongation compared to a wild type Col-0 and the At*npr3-2 npr4-2* double

mutant at 28 °C but not at 22 °C (Figure 5B). The *pif4-101* mutant was used as a control (Figure 5B).

These results indicate that both MpNPR and AtNPR1 function as negative regulators of

thermomorphogenesis.

We further investigated the possible contribution of MpNPR to FR responses in *M. polymorpha*.

When plants were grown in a condition supplemented with FR light, enhanced upward growth of thalli

was observed, which is similar to shade avoidance responses in angiosperms (Figure 5C and 5D) [61–

63]. The Mp*PIF* knockout and overexpressing plants were used as controls (Figure 5C and 5D). We

found that Mp*npr* mutants display reduced upward growth compared to Tak-1 under the FR condition

(Figure 5C and 5D). The complemented allele displayed a trend toward rescuing the phenotype but was

not statistically significant (Figure 5C and 5D), which can be due to insufficient expression of MpNPR

in this plant compared to Tak-1 (Figure 3A and 5B). This observation supports the hypothesis that

MpNPR is involved in FR responses in *M. polymorpha*.

Discussion

Our phylogenetic analysis of 194 NPR proteins from 68 land plant species revealed that NPR

proteins from angiosperms can be classified into two paralogous clades, NPR1/2 and NPR3/4,

presumably diverged from an ancestral NPR (Figure 1). Two *NPR* genes were found in the genome of

Amborella trichopoda, the single extant species of the sister lineage to all other angiosperms, and these

genes, AmTr_v1.0_scaffold00036.47 and AmTr_v1.0_scaffold00032.72, were classified into the

NPR1/2 and NPR3/4 clades, respectively (Table S1). Meanwhile, NPR proteins from gymnosperms

formed a single cluster related to neither clade (Figure 1). This suggests that gene duplication of NPR

led to the emergence of the two paralogous clades, seemingly associated with the epsilon whole-genome

duplication (WGD) [64]. Interestingly, the analysis showed that the AtNPR1/AtNPR2 and

AtNPR3/AtNPR4 pairs most likely arose from a recent Brassicaceae-specific WGD event [65,66],

suggesting their functional redundancy in each clade. Indeed, AtNPR3 and AtNPR4 function

redundantly, and AtNPR2, but not AtNPR3 and AtNPR4, can complement At*npr1-1* mutant phenotypes

[13,15]. Moreover, rice OsNPR1/NH1 and cacao TcNPR1, which belong to the NPR1/2 clade, could

complement At*npr1* mutant phenotypes, and overexpression of OsNPR1/NH1 in rice resulted in

enhanced resistance against the bacterial pathogen *Xanthomonas oryzae* pv. *oryzae* [67]. This suggests

functional conservation among NPR proteins in the NPR1/2 clade. Similarly, cacao TcNPR3, which

belongs to the NPR3/4 clade, could complement At*npr3-3* mutant phenotypes, and CRISPR/Cas9-based

mutagenesis of *TcNPR3* in cacao resulted in enhanced resistance against the cacao pathogen

Phytophthora tropicalis, suggesting functionally conserved roles for NPR proteins in the NPR3/4 clade

as negative regulators of defense responses [68,69]. However, there is a contradictory report which

showed that overexpression of *Nicotiana glutinosa* NgNPR3, an AtNPR3 homolog, in *Nicotiana*

tabacum cv. Samsun enhanced resistance to *Alternaria alternata*, *Pseudomonas solanacearum*, and

potato virus Y [70]. Nevertheless, assuming that NPR proteins from the paralogous clades NPR1/2 and

NPR3/4 have acquired opposed or different functions, an obvious question arises of whether and how

NPR proteins in the non-seed plants clade, which can be remnants of NPR in the common ancestor of

land plants, play roles in SA signaling and defense responses. A single study reported that *P. patens*

PpNPR1 partially complements phenotypes of At*npr1-1* but not of At*npr3 npr4* [35]. Together with our

finding that AtNPR1 and MpNPR are interchangeable, it is likely that the molecular properties of non-

seed plant NPR proteins and NPR proteins in NPR1/2 clade are highly conserved during evolution. If

so, a remaining question is whether the molecular properties of NPR proteins in the NPR3/4 clade are

distinct from non-seed plant NPR proteins. Further genetic studies in many other plant species and inter-

species complementation assays will enhance our understanding of the functional conservation and

diversification of NPR proteins.

There is compelling evidence that AtNPR1 is the master regulator of SA- or BTH-induced

transcriptional reprogramming in *A. thaliana*. However, there is as yet no hint that other Brassicaceae

NPR1-like proteins or NPR proteins in the NPR1/2 clade also function as master regulators in their

respective species. In order to genetically engineer *NPR* genes to manipulate disease resistance, it is

crucial to understand the molecular functions of NPR proteins in other plant species. Further, it remains

unclear how AtNPR3 and AtNPR4 have evolved to become transcriptional co-repressors with opposite

roles to AtNPR1. One model that has been proposed is that the EAR motif located in the NPR1-like-C

domain of AtNPR3 and AtNPR4 differentiates them from AtNPR1, which lacks the EAR motif [14].

We found that the EAR motif found in AtNPR3 and AtNPR4 is perfectly conserved in all Brassicaceae

NPR2-like proteins, which suggests that Brassicaceae NPR2-like proteins can rather function as

transcriptional co-repressors instead of co-activators like AtNPR1. However, as mentioned above,

AtNPR2 was shown to complement At*npr1-1* mutant phenotypes. Conservation of the EAR motif in

Brassicaceae NPR2-like proteins suggested to us that AtNPR1 or Brassicaceae NPR1-like proteins have

presumably lost the EAR motif during evolution. To evaluate this hypothesis, we expanded our analysis

of functional protein sequences to all 194 NPR proteins. As expected, we found that the EAR motif is

widely conserved in NPR proteins from gymnosperms and all three major clades except for Brassicaceae

NPR1-like subclade (Figure S1). It is formally possible that other NPR proteins have acquired the EAR

motif independently during evolution, but we suggest that the more reasonable assumption is that

Brassicaceae NPR1-like proteins have lost the EAR motif after a Brassicaceae-specific WGD event. As

mentioned above, rice OsNPR1/NH1, cacao TcNPR1, and *P. patens* PpNPR1 could complement

phenotypes in At*npr1* mutants [35,67,71], and these three NPR proteins carry the EAR motif. These

observations indicate that the EAR motif is not by itself sufficient for the co-repressor or co-activator

function of NPR proteins. One plausible explanation could be that the EAR motif is controlled by

phosphorylation. We found that SP or TP sites in most NPR proteins of dicots in the NPR1/2 clade were

substituted with non-phosphorylable hydrophobic residues (A/V/L/I/M) (Figure S1). Although we have

no direct evidence that these sites are targeted by phosphorylation, these clade-specific mutations may

further explain how the EAR motif determines protein function.

The remarkable conservation of the Arg residue among NPR proteins, which is required for SA

binding in AtNPR1, AtNPR3, and AtNPR4 [14,16,17], seemingly suggests that NPR proteins generally

function as SA receptors in plants. However, unexpected conservation of the EAR motif made it difficult

for us to predict how NPR proteins coordinate the SA response in non- Brassicaceae plant species. Rice,

O. sativa, has three NPR proteins, OsNPR1/OsNH1, OsNPR2/OsNH2, and OsNPR3 [67], of which

OsNPR1/OsNH1 belongs to the NPR1/2 clade and OsNPR2/OsNH2 and OsNPR3 belong to the NPR3/4

clade (Figure S1). Overexpression of these three genes in rice suggested that only OsNPR1/OsNH1

functions as a positive regulator of defense responses [67], that is, OsNPR1/OsNH1 but not

OsNPR2/OsNH2 or OsNPR3, is a transcriptional co-activator of SA signaling. Accordingly, RNAi-

mediated knockdown of Os*NPR1* in rice resulted in impairment of BTH-induced transcriptional

reprogramming, but the observed impairment was not as striking as in At*npr1* mutants [46]. It is

important to generate and analyze Os*npr1* knockout plants, but there is a possibility that release of

transcriptional repression by OsNPR2/OsNH2 and OsNPR3 makes a large contribution to the SA

response. Analysis of a Os*npr1 npr2 npr3* triple mutant would clarify the contribution of NPR to SA

signaling in rice. We found that two NPR proteins in *P. patens* carry the EAR motif but that the single

NPR in *M. polymorpha* lacks this motif (Figure 3B and S1). The observation that the expression of

MpNPR or PpNPR1 in At*npr1-1* can restore the SA response suggests that bryophyte NPR proteins

function as SA receptors and transcriptional co-activators in *A. thaliana*, irrespective of the conservation

of EAR motif.

It is striking that mutation of the single *NPR* gene in *M. polymorpha*, Mp*NPR*, did not result in

diminished SA-induced transcriptional responses, although MpNPR can function as a transcriptional co-

activator in *A. thaliana*. Our transcriptomic analysis suggests that MpNPR functions as a transcriptional

co-repressor in *M. polymorpha* (Figure 4B, 4C, and S6B). In a similar fashion, the Mp*npr* mutants

displayed enhanced resistance against bacterial pathogens (Figure 2E–G). This is an interesting

observation because it implies that NPR is not important for *M. polymorpha* resistance against biotrophic

or hemi-biotrophic pathogens. Together with the evidence that hornworts have lost the *NPR* gene [27],

NPR may play a less important role in disease resistance in bryophytes. It would be instructive to

investigate the functions of NPR in mosses in the future, but we speculate that plants have acquired the

NPR gene during terrestrialization initially for purposes other than SA-mediated immunity. Our analyses

highlighted that Brassicaceae species have evolved a unique NPR repertoire. Marked changes to amino

acid sequence were observed to have accumulated in Brassicaceae NPR1-like proteins (Figure S1).

Considering the importance of AtNPR1 in SA signaling and the immune system in *A. thaliana*, this

finding is rather surprising. Among four Brassicaceae-specific subclades, further lineage-specific

expansion of NPR1 was observed (Figure S3A). This may suggest that Brassicaceae *NPR1-like* genes

are experiencing selective pressures. In this respect, AtNPR1 was shown to be targeted by the *P.*

syringae type III effector AvrPtoB and *Phytophthora capsici* effector RxLR48 [72,73], further

confirming the significance of AtNPR1 in immunity in *A. thaliana*. Effector targets are occasionally

integrated into NLR proteins as decoys to counteract pathogen infection [74]. Strikingly, we found that

one of the *Boechera stricta* NPR1 homologs, Bostr.29223s0069.1, is integrated into the C-terminus of

TIR-NLR (Figure S3C). Interestingly, BLASTP comparison of this TIR-NLR against the *A. thaliana*

database returned SNC1 (suppressor of *npr1-1*, constitutive 1) as a best hit [75]. The expression of the

TIR-NLR-NPR as a full-length protein needs to be confirmed, but this information seemingly suggests

that Brassicaceae NPR1-like proteins generally play a key role in SA-mediated immunity in

Brassicaceae species.

What then might have been the ancestral functions of NPR in the common ancestor of land

plants? Our transcriptomic analysis suggested potential roles of MpNPR in heat and FR signaling in *M.*

polymorpha. We indeed found that the Mp*npr* mutants display enhanced thermomorphogenesis and

reduced FR-induced shade avoidance (Figure 5A, 5C, and 5D). Importantly, we revealed that At*npr1-1*

also displays enhanced thermomorphogenesis (Figure 5B), implying that a function of NPR in

thermomorphogenesis is conserved in the only two sister lineages of land plants, bryophytes and

tracheophytes, and is thus ancient. Considering that adaptation to fluctuating temperatures was crucial

for plant terrestrialization, it is attractive to hypothesize that plants initially acquired *NPR* genes to deal

with varying abiotic components, including temperature and light quality, rather than potentially

detrimental microbes. In comparison with the NPR family, the BOP family seems to have undergone

less expansion during land plant evolution. The genome of *A. trichopoda* encodes a single *BOP* gene

[64], suggesting that *BOP* was not duplicated at the epsilon WGD event. In this regard, the two BOP

proteins encoded in the *A. thaliana* genome function redundantly [10,76,77]. Nevertheless, analyzed

plant species encode between zero and five copies of BOP, suggesting lineage-specific expansion and

loss of BOP. The function of *BOP* genes in bryophytes is not yet known, and disruption of all three *BOP*

genes in the moss *P. patens* did not cause any observable developmental phenotypes [78]. It is intriguing

that *Marchantia* liverworts have kept the *NPR* gene but lost the *BOP* gene, while *Anthoceros* hornworts

have lost the *NPR* gene but kept the *BOP* gene [27,33]. This may imply that *BOP* and *NPR* genes have

shared functions that were required for the survival of liverwort and hornwort lineages during evolution.

In *A. thaliana*, two BOPs have been shown to play a role in thermomorphogenesis [79], suggesting that

AtNPR1 and AtBOP1/2 have shared functions in thermomorphogenesis. Functional analysis of *BOP*

genes in hornworts and sophisticated inter-species and intra-species complementation analysis would

shed light on the ancestral shared functions of NPR and BOP proteins or of a hypothetical ancestral

protein that diverged into NPR and BOP.

Methods

Key resources table

Reagent or Resources	Source	Identifier
Bacterial and virus strains		
Escherichia coli DH5a	Widely distributed	N/A
Agrobacterium tumefaciens GV3101, GV2260, EHA101	Widely distributed	N/A
Pseudomonas syringae pv. *tomato* DC3000 P_{kan}:lux (*Pto*-lux)	[57]	N/A
Chemicals, peptides, and recombinant proteins		
SuperScript IV Reverse Transcriptase	ThermoFisher	Cat#18090010
In-Fusion HD cloning kit	TaKaRa	Cat#639650
NEBuilder HiFi DNA Assembly Master Mix	NEB	Cat#E2621S
LR Clonase II Plus enzyme	ThermoFisher	Cat#11791020
RNeasy Plant Mini Kit	Qiagen	Cat#74904
Experimental models: Organisms/strains		
Marchantia polymorpha: Tak-1	Takayuki Kohchi, Kyoto University	N/A
Marchantia polymorpha: Mp*npr-1^ge*	This study	N/A
Marchantia polymorpha: Mp*npr-2^ge*	This study	N/A
Marchantia polymorpha: Mp*pif^ko*	[80]	N/A
Marchantia polymorpha: _pro_Mp*EF1α*:Mp*PIF*/Tak-1	[81]	N/A
Marchantia polymorpha: _pro_Mp*NPR*:Mp*NPR*/Mp*npr-1^ge*	This study	N/A
Marchantia polymorpha: _pro_Mp*EF1α*:Mp*NPR-mCitrine*/Tak-1	This study	N/A
Marchantia polymorpha: _pro_Mp*EF1α*:At*NPR1-mCitrine*/Mp*npr-1^ge*	This study	N/A
Arabidopsis thaliana: Col-0	Widely distributed	N/A
Arabidopsis thaliana: npr1-1	[58]	N/A
Arabidopsis thaliana: npr3-1 npr4-2	[15]	N/A

Arabidopsis thaliana: npr1-1 npr3-2 npr4-2	[14]	N/A
Arabidopsis thaliana: pif4-101	[82]	N/A
Arabidopsis thaliana: pro35S:AtNPR1-GFP/npr1-1	[83]	N/A
Arabidopsis thaliana: pro35S:MpNPR/npr1-1	This study	N/A
Oligonucleotides		
Oligonucleotides used in this study can be found in Table S3	This study	N/A
Recombinant DNA		
pENTR4	ThermoFisher	Cat#A10465
pENTR4-MpNPR	This study	N/A
pENTR4-proMpNPR:MpNPR	This study	N/A
pENTR4-AtNPR1	This study	N/A
pMpGWB301	[84]	Addgene Cat#68629
pMpGWB301-proMpNPR:MpNPR	This study	N/A
pMpGWB308m	This study	N/A
pMpGWB308m-proMpEF1a:MpNPR-mCitrine	This study	N/A
pMpGWB308m-proMpEF1a:AtNPR1-mCitrine	This study	N/A
pMpGE_En01 and *pMpGE_En03*	[85]	Addgene Cat#71535
pMpGE_En01-MpNPRgRNA1	This study	N/A
pMpGE_En03-MpNPRgRNA2	This study	N/A
pMpGE010 and *pMpGE011*	[85]	Addgene Cat71536
pMpGE011-MpNPRgRNA1	This study	N/A
pMpGE010-MpNPRgRNA2	This study	N/A
pBAR-35S	Widely distributed	GenBank AJ251014.1
pBAR-35S-pro35S:MpNPR	This study	N/A
pMpGWB303-pro35S:intron-GUSPlus	[56]	N/A
Deposited data		
Sequencing raw reads for RNA-Seq analyses	This study	BioProject PRJNA857977 and PRJNA858257
Software and algorithms		
MEGA X	[86]	https://www.megasoftware.net/
Clustal Omega	[87]	http://www.clustal.org/omega/
iTOL	[88]	https://itol.embl.de/
Omega 5.50 R4	BMG LABTECH	https://www.bmglabtech.com/microplate-reader-software/
R 4.0.4	R Core Team	https://www.r-project.org/
RStudio	RStudio Team	https://www.rstudio.com/
fastp	[89]	https://github.com/OpenGene/fastp
STAR aligner	[90]	https://github.com/alexdobin/STAR
DESeq2	[91]	https://doi.org/doi:10.18129/B9.bioc.DESeq2
PANTHER 16.0	[92]	http://www.pantherdb.org/
Prism 8	GraphPad	https://www.graphpad.com/prism

Lead contact and materials availability

444   Further information and requests for genetic stocks, gene constructs, resources and reagents

445 reported in this study should be directed to and will be provided by the Lead Contact, Hirofumi

446 Nakagami (nakagami@mpipz.mpg.de).

Experimental model and subject details

Marchantia polymorpha accession Tak-1 [93] was used as a wild type throughout this study.

For cultivation, gemmae were grown on half-strength Gamborg's B5 (GB5) basal media containing 1%

agar at 22°C under continuous white light (60 to 70 μmol m^{-2} s^{-1}). Sodium salicylate (Sigma-Aldrich)

was added to the media for SA-supplemented conditions to achieve desired concentrations. For far-red

(FR) light irradiances, gemmae were cultivated in the growth chamber (Percival Scientific), maintaining

continuous white light (400 to 700 nm, 65 μmol m^{-2} s^{-1}) equipped with FR LEDs (700 to 780 nm, 65

μmol m^{-2} s^{-1}) at 22°C. Light properties were measured by LI-250A light meter (LI-COR) equipped with

LI-190R quantum sensor (LI-COR) or SKR110 R/FR sensor (Skye instruments).

Arabidopsis thaliana ecotype Col-0 was used as a wild type in this study. For cultivation of *A.*

thaliana, seeds were surface-sterilized by vapor gas (Sodium hypochlorite containing 3% [v/v] HCl) for

4 hours and placed on half-strength Murashige and Skoog (MS) media containing 1% agar. Seeds were

then incubated at 4°C in the dark for 2 days before germination. Germinated seedlings were cultivated

at 22°C under continuous white light (60 to 70 μmol m^{-2} s^{-1}). For the SA sensitivity test, sodium

salicylate (Sigma-Aldrich) was added to the media to achieve desired concentrations.

Method details

Cloning and Plasmid Construction

To generate Mp*npr-1^{ge}* and *Mpnpr-2^{ge}* using CRISPR/Cas9 system, the first exon of Mp*NPR*

was targeted (Figure S4A). The double-strand oligonucleotides containing the target sequences were

synthesized and cloned into *pMpGE_En01* or *pMpGE_En03* using In-Fusion HD cloning kit (TaKaRa)

and BsaI restriction sites in *pMpGE_En03*, respectively. Generated entry clones were subsequently used

for the recombination into destination vectors *pMpGE011* and *pMpGE010* by Gateway LR clonase

(ThermoFisher) as manufacturer's instruction.

For complementation of *M. polymorpha* Mp*npr* mutants, the full-length CDS of Mp*NPR*

(Mp1g02380) and At*NPR1* (At1g64280) were first amplified from cDNA of *M. polymorpha* Tak-1 and

A. thaliana Col-0, respectively. For the MpNPR promoter, 5.6 kb upstream of ATG was amplified from

Tak-1 genomic DNA. The amplified fragments were assembled in *pENTR4* (ThermoFisher) using HiFi

assembly master mix (NEB), followed by recombination into *pMpGWB301* or *pMpGWB308m*

(modified version of *pMpGWB308* [84], replacing Citrine to mCitrine) using Gateway LR clonase

(ThermoFisher). For complementation of *A. thaliana* At*npr1-1* mutant, the full-length CDS of Mp*NPR*

was amplified from cDNA of *M. polymorpha* ecotype BoGa and cloned into *pBAR-35S* using XmaI and

XbaI restriction sites.

M. polymorpha transformation

The resulting constructs were transformed into *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* GV3101, GV2260

or EHA101 by electroporation. Subsequent transformations were carried out as described before [94].

Obtained transformants were grown on half-strength GB5 basal media containing 1% agar

supplemented with 100 μg/mL cefotaxime and 10 μg/mL hygromycin B or 0.5 μM chlorsulfuron to

screen non-chimeric transgenic gemmae.

GUS histochemical assay

10-day-old Mock- and 0.1 mM SA-grown *A. thaliana* seedlings were submerged in GUS

staining solution consisting of 0.5 mg/mL X-Gluc (5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl-beta-D-glucuronic acid),

0.1% Triton X-100, 10 mM EDTA, 0.5 mM potassium ferricyanide, 0.5 mM potassium ferrocyanide in

100 mM sodium phosphate buffer (pH 7.0), followed by vacuum infiltration for 20 min. After incubation

in the dark at 37°C for overnight, leaves were destained by serial incubation in 30 %, 50 %, 70 % ethanol

for a minimum of 1 hour each before observation.

Phylogenetic analyses

Amino acid sequences of 317 homologs of MpNPR and AtBOP1 (Table S1) were aligned using

Clustal Omega with default parameters. To assess the reliability of a phylogenetic tree, the alignment

was further calculated using the Maximum Likelihood method with a bootstrap value of 1000 in MEGA

software [86].

Phytohormones measurements

M. polymorpha thalli were grown on Mock and 0.1 mM SA for 14 days before homogenization.

Phytohormones were extracted with methyl-tert-butyl ether (MTBE), reversed phase-separated using an

ACQUITY UPLC system (Waters Corp.) and analysed by nanoelectrospray ionization (nanoESI)

(TriVersa Nanomate, Advion BioSciences) coupled with an AB Sciex 4000 QTRAP tandem mass

spectrometer (AB Sciex) employed in scheduled multiple reaction monitoring modes [95]. For SA

measurement, the following mass transition was included 137/93 [declustering potential (DP) -25 V,

entrance potential (EP) -6 V, collision energy (CE) -20 V].

Bioluminescence-based bacteria quantification

Bacterial quantification in infected thallus was carried out as described before [57]. Briefly, *M.*

polymorpha were grown on autoclaved cellophane disc on half-strength GB5 media for 2 weeks. In the

meantime, *Pto*-lux was cultivated in King's B medium containing 30 μg/mL rifampicin to achieve 1.0

of OD_{600}. The saturated bacteria culture was subsequently washed and resuspended in Milli-Q water to

prepare bacteria suspension with 0.01 of OD_{600}. Next, 2-week-old thalli were submerged in the bacteria

suspension followed by vacuum for 5 min and incubated for 0 to 3 days on humid filter papers. After

incubation, thallus discs (5 mm diameter) were punched from the basal and apical region using a sterile

biopsy punch (pfm medical) and transferred to a 96-well plate (VWR). The bioluminescence was

measured in the FLUOstar Omega plate reader (BMG Labtech).

Agrobacterium-mediated transient transformation

Transient transformation was carried out as described before [56]. A single colony of

Agrobacterium tumefaciens strain GV3101::pMP90 harboring *pro35S:intron-GUSPlus* was inoculated

into Luria-Bertani medium containing spectinomycin antibiotics and cultured for 2 days at 28°C.

Bacterial cells were collected from 1 ml culture by centrifugation, suspended in 5 ml of 0M51C medium

[96,97] containing 2% sucrose and 100 μM 3,5-dimethoxy-4-hydroxyacetophenone (acetosyringone)

and cultured for 5 hours at 28 °C. In parallel, Tak-1 and Mp*npr-1^{ge}* gemmae were cultured on the agar

plates for 14 days at 22 °C under continuous light. The bacterial culture was diluted with 0M51C

medium containing 2 % sucrose and 100 μM acetosyringone to be at 0.02 of OD600, and then thalli

were transferred into the 50 ml bacterial suspension. The thalli and *Agrobacterium* were co-cultured at

22 °C under continuous light for 3 days with shaking (120 rpm).

RNA-Seq and data analysis

Total RNA was isolated from 2-week-old *M. polymorpha* Tak-1 and Mp*npr-1*[ge] treated with Mock or 1 mM SA for 2, 6, and 12 hours. For RNA-Seq analysis of 7-day-old gemmae grown in liquid half-strength GB5 medium with 0.1% (w/v) sucrose at 22 °C under continuous light with shaking (120 rpm), total RNA was isolated from *M. polymorpha* Tak-1 and Mp*npr-1*[ge] gemmae treated with Mock (water), 1 mM SA, Mock (DMSO), and 0.5 mM BTH for 24 hours. Library preparation and sequencing were performed by the Max Planck-Genome-center, Cologne (https://mpgc.mpipz.mpg.de), on the Illumina HiSeq 3000 platform. Raw reads were processed by fastp [89] for quality control and trimming. The *M. polymorpha* genomes and gene annotations (MpTak_v6.1) [98] were used for mapping reads and counting transcripts per gene in STAR aligner [90]. The genes with less than the average of 10 read counts were excluded, and the log2 fold difference of the gene expression between conditions was calculated in R package DESeq2 [91]. Genes with statistical significance (FDR adjusted p-value < 0.05) were selected for further analyses.

Quantification and statistical analysis

Statistical details, including sample numbers, error bars, and p-value cut-offs, were shown in corresponding figure legends. Unless otherwise specified, all statistical significances were calculated using the R function pairwise.t.test with pooled SD. The Benjamini–Hochberg method was then used for correcting the multiple hypothesis testing. Linear regression and calculation of correlation coefficients were performed using the R function lm and cor, respectively.

Data availability

Sequencing raw reads used in transcriptomic analyses in this study have been deposited under the accession BioProject PRJNA857977 and PRJNA858257.

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British Columbia, Canada) for providing At*npr1-1*, At*npr3-2 npr4-2*, and At*npr1-1 npr3-2 npr4-2* seeds, George Coupland (MPIPZ, Germany) for providing At*pif4* seeds, and Sabine Freitag (University of Göttingen, Germany) for expert technical assistance. We thank Neysan Donnelly (MPIPZ, Germany) for editing the manuscript.

Author contributions

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Figure legends

Figure 1. Phylogenetic analysis and amino acid conservation of 194 NPR and 123 BOP proteins from 68 plant species.

(A) Unrooted phylogenetic tree showing that 194 NPR proteins were clustered into four major clades; angiosperms NPR1/2, angiosperms NPR3/4, non-seed plants NPR, and gymnosperms NPR clades. Brassicaceae NPR1- to 4-like subclades were further clustered into angiosperm NPR clades. (B–D) Conservation of functional amino acids and motifs associated with the molecular functions of AtNPR1. Cysteines required for AtNPR1 accumulation and oligomerization (B), Arg432 responsible for SA binding in AtNPR1 (C), and the EAR motif (DLNxxP) responsible for transcriptional co-repression activity (D) are shown.

Figure 2. Phenotypic analyses of Mp*npr* mutants in SA and SA-induced immune responses.

(A, B) SA hypersensitivity in the growth of Mp*npr-1^{ge}* and Mp*npr-2^{ge}* compared to Tak-1. Scale bar, 1 cm (n = 8). (C, D) SA and jasmonate measurements in Tak-1 and Mp*npr* mutants grown on mock and SA-supplemented conditions (n = 5). (E) Quantification of bacterial growth in the basal and apical thallus, inoculated with the bioluminescent *Pto*-lux (n = 8). DPI, days post-inoculation. (F–G) Transient transformation of Tak-1 and Mp*npr-1^{ge}* using *Agrobacterium* carrying *intron-GUSPlus* (n = 6). (B–E, G) Different letters represent statistical significances (Tukey's test; $p < 0.01$). Error bars indicate SD.

Figure 3. Inter-species complementation analysis in *M. polymorpha* and *A. thaliana*.

(A, B) Complementation of SA hypersensitivity in Mp*npr-1^{ge}* by introducing $_{pro}$Mp*NPR:*Mp*NPR* and $_{pro}$Mp*EF1a:*At*NPR1-mCitrine*. Scale bar, 1 cm (n = 8). (C) Complementation of SA hypersensitivity in At*npr1-1* by expression of $_{pro}$*35S:*Mp*NPR* (n = 3). (D) GUS staining results showed that Mp*NPR* overexpression restored SA-induced *BGL2::GUS* expression in At*npr1-1*. Scale bars, 1 mm. (B, C) Different letters represent statistically significant differences (Tukey's test; $p < 0.01$). Error bars indicate SD.

Figure 4. RNA-Seq analysis comparing SA-induced transcriptional reprogramming in Tak-1 and Mp*npr-1^{ge}*.

(A) Heatmap of 425 SA-induced DEGs (|log2FC| ≥ 1, adjusted $p < 0.05$, 6 hpi) identified in Tak-1 and correlated genes in Mp*npr-1^{ge}*. (B) Number of SA-induced DEGs (|log2FC| ≥ 1, adjusted $p < 0.05$) in Tak-1 and Mp*npr-1^{ge}* for 2, 6, and 12 hpi. (C, D) GO enrichment analyses using SA-induced DEGs in Tak-1 (C) and Mp*npr-1^{ge}* (D). Top 10 GO terms beginning with 'response to' are shown (FDR < 0.001). (E) Venn diagram showing numbers of DEGs induced by Mp*npr-1^{ge}* in each treatment (|log2FC| ≥ 1, adjusted $p < 0.05$, 6 hpi). (F) Heatmap of 143 DEGs identified in E, showing MpNPR-dependent and SA-irresponsive DEGs except for 20 genes (arrowhead). (G) GO enrichment analysis using 123 DEGs identified in F.

Figure 5. Putative roles of MpNPR in thermomorphogenesis and shade avoidance syndrome in *M. polymorpha*.

(A) Enhanced thermomorphogenesis in Mp*npr* mutants compared to Tak-1 at 30 °C. Twenty-day-old thalli are shown. Scale bar, 1 cm. (B) Hypocotyl length of At*npr* mutants grown at 22 and 28 °C for 6 days (n ≥ 6). (C) Representative pictures of *M. polymorpha* thalli viewed from the side. Scale bar, 0.5 cm. (D) Thallus elevation angles quantified from 2-week-old *M. polymorpha* grown with or without far-red light (n = 9). Different letters represent statistically significant differences (Tukey's test; $p < 0.01$). Error bars indicate SD.

Supplemental information

Figure S1   Phylogenetic tree showing the conservations of functional residues and motifs of 194 NPR proteins, related to Figure 1

Figure S2   The exon-intron organization in the BTB/POZ-encoding regions are highly conserved between NPR and BOP families

Figure S3   Gene duplications in Brassicaceae-specific NPR subclades and integration of *Boechera stricta* NPR1 homolog into TIR-NLR protein, related to Figure 1A

Figure S4   Generation of Mp*npr* mutants using CRISPR/Cas9 system and complementation of the SA-hypersensitivity phenotype in the mutants

Figure S5   BTH sensitivity was unchanged in Mp*npr* mutants compared to Tak-1

Figure S6   RNA-Seq analysis comparing Tak-1 and Mp*npr-1^{ge}* thalli in Mock and SA conditions

Figure S7   RNA-Seq analysis comparing Tak-1 and Mp*npr-1^{ge}* gemmae in Mock, SA, and BTH conditions

Table S1   NPR and BOP homologs used for phylogenetic analysis

Table S2   Reference genomes of species used in BLASTP

Table S3   Oligonucleotides used in this study

References

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Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Supplementary Figure S1

Supplementary Figure S1. Phylogenetic tree showing the conservations of functional residues and motifs of 194 NPR proteins, related to Figure 1.

Presence and absence of functional residues and motifs are shown by closed and open circle, respectively. In SP/TP mutations, substitutions with non-phosphorylatable hydrophobic residues (A/V/L/I/M) are colored in green.

Supplementary Figure S1 (Continued)

Supplementary Figure S2

NPRs

BOPs

| UTR | CDS | BTB/POZ | ANK | NPR1_like_C | 1 kbp |

Supplementary Figure S2. The exon-intron organization in the BTB/POZ-encoding regions are highly conserved between NPR and BOP families

Supplementary Figure S3

A

	NPR1	NPR2	NPR3	NPR4
Arabidopsis halleri	1	1	1	1
Arabidopsis lyrata	1	1	1	1
Arabidopsis thaliana	1	1	1	1
Boechera stricta	4	1	1	1
Brassica oleracea capitata	1	1	1	0
Brassica rapa FPsc	3	1	2	1
Capsella grandiflora	1	1	1	1
Capsella rubella	1	1	1	1
Eutrema salsugineum	2	1	1	1

B

- AtNPR3
- Bostr.5342s0021.1
- AtNPR4
- Bostr.30275s0444.1
- AtNPR2
- Bostr.7867s0431.1
- AtNPR1
- Bostr.29223s0082.1
- Bostr.29223s0068.1
- Bostr.29223s0069.1
- Bostr.29223s0093.1

C

Bostr.29223s0069.1 — | TIR | | NB-ARC | | LRR | | BTB/POZ | | ankyrin repeats | NPR1_like_C |

Supplementary Figure S3. Gene duplications in Brassicaceae-specific NPR subclades and integration of *Boechera stricta* NPR1 homolog into TIR-NLR protein, related to Figure 1A.

(A) Number of NPRs in Brassicaceae species suggesting the selective pressures or expansions of Brassicaceae NPR-like genes. (B) Phylogenetic analysis of *Boechera stricta* NPR homologs. (C) Schematic of domains showing that Bostr.29223s0069.1 is integrated into the C-terminus of TIR-NLR proteins in *Boechera stricta*.

Supplementary Figure S4

A

```
                5'                                                              3'
        Tak-1   GAGTGCGCTAATTTAAGTCAGTTCACAGGAAGGTGTTACTACCAGAGATTAGG
        Mpnpr-1ge  GAGTGCGCTAATTTAAGTCAGTT------------------------TAGG
                                        26 bp deletion
```

```
                5'                              3'
        Tak-1   TCCCGTTACACCGTTGTATCCTGT-CGGCACGGT
        Mpnpr-2ge  TCCCGTTACACCGTTGTATCCTGTTCGGCACGGT
                                        1 bp insertion
```

B

C

Supplementary Figure S4. Generation of Mp*npr* mutants using CRISPR/Cas9 system and complementation of the SA-hypersensitivity phenotype in the mutants.

(A) Schematic of sgRNA target sites in the first exon of Mp*NPR*. Black, white and gray boxes indicate exons, introns, and UTRs, respectively. Mp*npr-1ge* and Mp*npr-2ge* resulted in 26 bp deletion and 1 bp insertion, respectively. (B) Complementation of SA-hypersensitivity in individual transgenic lines expressing $_{pro}$Mp*NPR*:Mp*NPR*. Two-week-old *M. polymorpha* grown on mock and 0.1 mM SA conditions are shown. Scale bar, 1 cm. (C) Quantification of thallus projected area shown in B. Different letters represent statistical significances (Tukey's test; $p < 0.01$). Error bars indicate SD (n = 10).

Supplementary Figure S5

Supplementary Figure S5. BTH sensitivity was unchanged in Mp*npr* mutants compared to Tak-1.

(A) Ten-day-old *M. polymorpha* grown BTH conditions showing that BTH sensitivity was unchanged in Mp*npr* mutants compared to Tak-1. Scale bar, 1 cm. (B) Quantification of thallus projected area shown in A. Different letters represent statistical significances (Tukey's test; $p < 0.01$). Error bars indicate SD (n = 12).

Supplementary Figure S6

Supplementary Figure S6. RNA-Seq analysis comparing Tak-1 and Mp*npr-1^ge* thalli in Mock and SA conditions.
(A) Schematic of thalli preparation for RNA-Seq analysis. (B) UpSet plot showing the number of unique and conserved DEGs (Mock vs SA, |Log2FC| ≥ 1, adjusted $p < 0.05$) in each dataset. Linked dots indicate that datasets share the DEGs. Comparisons showing more than 20 DEGs are shown. (C) Heatmap of selected Mp*PR* gene expressions in individual samples.

Supplementary Figure S7

Supplementary Figure S7. RNA-Seq analysis comparing Tak-1 and Mp*npr-1^ge* gemmae in Mock, SA, and BTH conditions.

Heatmap of DEGs (|log2FC| ≥ 1, adjusted p < 0.05) in Tak-1 and Mp*npr-1^ge* gemmae upon SA (left) and BTH (right) treatments compared to each mock conditions.