Expansion of a core regulon by transposable elements promotes Arabidopsis chemical diversity and pathogen defense

Brenden Barco* (1)(3), Yoseph Kim (2), and Nicole K. Clay (1)

*Correspondence should be addressed to B. Barco (brenden.barco@syngenta.com)

Affiliations:

(1) Department of Molecular, Cellular & Developmental Biology, Yale University, Kline Biology Tower 734, 219 Prospect St., New Haven, CT 06511

(2) Hopkins School, 986 Forest Rd, New Haven, CT 06515

Present address:

(3) Seeds Research, Syngenta Crop Protection, 9 Davis Dr., Durham, NC 27703

Abstract

Plants synthesize hundreds of thousands of ecologically specialized, lineage-specific

metabolites through biosynthetic gene duplication and functional specialization.

However, the rewiring of duplicated genes into existing regulatory networks remains

unclear. We show that the duplicated gene *CYP82C2* was recruited into the WRKY33

regulon and indole-3-carbonylnitrile (ICN) biosynthetic pathway through exaptation of a

retroduplicated LINE retrotransposon (*EPCOT3*) into a novel enhancer. The stepwise

development of a chromatin-accessible WRKY33-binding site on *EPCOT3* potentiated

the regulatory neofunctionalization of *CYP82C2* and the evolution of inducible defense

metabolite 4-hydroxy-ICN in *Arabidopsis thaliana.* Transposable elements (TEs) have

long been recognized to have the potential to rewire regulatory networks; these results

establish a more complete understanding of how duplicated genes and TEs contribute

in concert to chemical diversity and pathogen defense.

Plant secondary or specialized metabolites are essential for plant survival in co-evolving

biotic and fluctuating abiotic environments. The evolutionary process of chemical

innovation resulted in the collective synthesis of hundreds of thousands of ecologically

specialized, mostly lineage-specific metabolites (Chae et al., 2014; Weng et al., 2012;

Dixon and Strack, 2003; Wink, 2003). Plant specialized metabolic enzymes are

ultimately produced from primary metabolic enzymes through gene duplication and

subsequent functional divergence of one or both paralogs to produce enzymes with

altered expression patterns and/or protein functions (Ohno, 1970; Force *et al*., 1999;

Weng *et al.*, 2012). They are also often organized into transcription factor (TF) regulons

of co-regulated genes for optimal timing, amplitude, and tissue-specific pathway gene

expression and subsequent metabolite accumulation (Grotewold, 2005; Hartmann,

2007; Martin *et al.*, 2010; Tohge & Fernie, 2012; Omranian et al., 2015).

Changes in *cis*-regulatory modules such as enhancers and promoters can accelerate

the capture of duplicated genes into regulons, thus driving phenotypic diversity (Levine

and Davidson, 2005; Prud'homme *et al.*, 2007; Wray, 2007; Wittkopp & Kalay, 2012;

Rogers *et al.*, 2013). Enhancers consist of transcription factor binding sites (TFBSs) and

are derived either through mutation or co-option of a TFBS-carrying transposable

element (TE) (Spitz & Furlong, 2012; Wittkopp & Kalay, 2012). TE exaptations have

been hypothesized to be responsible for the rapid transcriptional rewiring of gene

regulatory networks in ancient lineages of vertebrates (Feschotte 2008; Bourque 2009;

Lynch *et al.*, 2011; de Souza *et al.*, 2013; Chuong et al., 2016) and plants (Hénaff *et al.*,

2014), but general understandings of the physiological significance of this rewiring are

greatly limited.

Bacteria elicit two primary immune defense modes in plants, pattern- and effector-

triggered immunity (PTI and ETI) (Jones & Dangl, 2006). Pathogenic bacteria

additionally compromise PTI via specific virulence effector proteins (effector-triggered

susceptibility, ETS; Jones & Dangl, 2006). PTI involves the extracellular perception of

conserved molecules known as microbe-associated molecular patterns (MAMPs),

whereas ETI involves the cytosolic perception of effectors. Although ETI results in the

formation of more rapid and robust pathogen-specific response including the

hypersensitive response (HR), a form of programmed cell death (Jones & Dangl, 2006),

both result in the ability of naïve host cells to generate, through non-self perception and

subsequent transcriptional reprogramming, pathogen-inducible specialized metabolites

necessary for defense (Hammerschmidt, 1999; Mansfield, 2000; Clay *et al.*, 2009).

Three pathogen-inducible tryptophan (Trp)-derived defense metabolites – camalexin, 4-

methoxyindol-3-ylmethylgucosinolate (4M-I3M), and 4-hydroxyindole-3-carbonylnitrile

(4OH-ICN) – have been shown to expand innate immunity in *Arabidopsis thaliana*

(Bednarek *et al.,* 2009; Clay *et al.,* 2009; Thomma *et al.,* 1999; Tsuji *et al.,* 1992;

Rajniak *et al.,* 2015). The three biosynthetic pathways share an early step, which is the

conversion of Trp to indole-3-acetaldoxime (IAOx) via the genetically redundant P450

monooxygenases CYP79B2 and CYP79B3 (Fig. 1a) (Hull *et al.*, 2000; Mikkelsen *et al.*,

2000; Bak *et al.*, 2001; Glawischnig *et al.*, 2004; Klein *et al.*, 2013; Rajniak *et al.*, 2015).

The camalexin and 4OH-ICN pathways additionally share the conversion of IAOx to

indole-3-cyanohydrin (ICY) by partially redundant P450s CYP71A12 and CYP71A13

(Fig. 1a) (Nafisi *et al.*, 2007; Klein *et al.*, 2013; Rajniak *et al.*, 2015). CYP71A13 and

CYP71B15/PAD3 catalyze further reactions, leading to camalexin production, whereas

the flavin-dependent oxidase FOX1/AtBBE3 and P450 CYP82C2 convert ICY to 4OH-

ICN (Fig. 1a) (Nafisi *et al.*, 2007; Böttcher *et al.*, 2009; Rajniak *et al.*, 2015). 4M-I3M is

widely distributed across the mustard family (Brassicaceae), whereas camalexin is

restricted to the Camelineae tribe of Brassicaceae (Bednarek *et al.*, 2011). The

evolutionary conservation of 4OH-ICN has not yet been investigated.

Figure 1. 4OH-ICN is synthesized under ETI-like responses. (a). Schematic of

tryptophan (L-Trp)-derived specialized metabolism in *A. thaliana*. White arrows denote

the presence of additional enzymes. ICY, indole cyanohydrin; ANI, *aci*-nitro indole. (**b**)**.**

LC-DAD-FLD-MS analysis of camalexin (top), ICN (middle), and 4OH-ICN (bottom) in

seedlings elicited with indicated MAMPs and bacterial strains for 27 hr. Data represent

mean ± SE of 3-4 biological replicates. Different letters denote statistically significant

differences ($P < 0.05$, one-factor ANOVA coupled to Tukey's test). ICA-ME and 4OH-

ICA-ME are methanolic degradation products of ICN and 4OH-ICN, respectively. 4OH-

ICA is an aqueous degradation product of 4OH-ICN. For (**b**), source data are provided

as a Source Data file.

The TF WRKY33 has been shown to regulate the pathogen-inducible biosynthesis of camalexin in *A. thaliana* and its orthologs regulate numerous unrelated specialized metabolites in other flowering plant lineages (Qiu *et al.,* 2005; Liu *et al.,* 2015; Birkenbihl *et al.,* 2017; Schluttenhofer & Yuan, 2015). The group I class of WRKYs to which WRKY33 belongs is an ancient clade of regulators; orthologs in the green alga *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* may be ancestral to all higher plant WRKYs (Rinerson *et al.*, 2015; Schluttenhofer & Yuan, 2015). While all WRKY TFs bind to the W-box core sequence [TTGAC(T/C)], WRKY33 preferentially binds W-boxes that are within 500 nt of the 'WRKY33-specific' motif [(T/G)TTGAAT]) (Rushton *et al.,* 2010; Liu *et al.*, 2015).

Here, we show that a recent, lineage-specific TE exaptation resulted in the expansion of a core regulon within the framework of Arabidopsis Trp-derived defense metabolism. Specifically, the LINE retrotransposon *EPCOT3* retroduplicated from a WRKY33-TFBS-carrying progenitor and inserted upstream of the newly duplicated gene *CYP82C2*. Subsequent chromatin remodeling in *A. thaliana* led *EPCOT3* to become a *bona fide* enhancer with demonstrated biochemical, regulatory, physiological, and fitness-promoting characteristics by way of WRKY33-binding and pathogen-responsive *CYP82C2* transcription, 4OH-ICN biosynthesis, and antibacterial defense.

Results

4OH-ICN requires ETI-like responses. To identify the major Trp-derived specialized metabolites synthesized in ETI in *A. thaliana*, we compared host transcriptional and

metabolic responses to the PTI-eliciting bacterial MAMPs flg22, elf26, and fungal MAMP

chitosan; the PTI/ETS-eliciting pathogens *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *tomato* DC3000

(*Pto* DC3000 or *Pst*); *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *maculicola* ES4326 (*Pma*); and the

ETI-eliciting pathogens *Pst avrRpm1* (*Psta*), *Pst avrRpt2*, *Pst avrRps4*, *Pma* M2, and

Pma avrRpt2 under similar conditions as those of previous studies (Denoux *et al.*, 2008;

Clay *et al.*, 2009). *Psm* M2 is an ETI-eliciting strain from which the *avrRpm1* gene was

originally isolated (Debener *et al.*, 1991). Both flg22 and *Psta* induced genes involved in

4OH-ICN, camalexin and 4M-I3M biosynthesis, with 4OH-ICN and camalexin

biosynthetic genes having a higher level of induction than those of 4M-I3M in *Psta*-

inoculated plants (Supplementary Fig. 1a; Denoux *et al.*, 2008). In contrast to the

quantitative differences observed in transcriptional responses between PTI and ETI

(Tao *et al.*, 2003; Navarro *et al.*, 2004), the metabolite responses between PTI and ETI

differed largely qualitatively. 4M-I3M and the 4M-I3M precursor molecule 4OH-I3M were

present in uninfected plants and accumulated to modest levels at the expense of parent

metabolite I3M in flg22- and *Psta*-inoculated plants (Supplementary Fig. 1b) (Clay *et al.*,

2009). By comparison, ICN, 4OH-ICN, and camalexin were absent in uninfected plants

and at low-to-undetectable levels in plants treated with saturating concentrations of the

bacterial MAMPs flg22 and elf26 (10 μM; Felix *et al.*, 1999; Zipfel *et al.*, 2006). In

contrast, ICN, 4OH-ICN and camalexin accumulated to high levels upon inoculation with

ETI-inducing pathogens (Fig. 1b; Supplementary Fig. 1c). Furthermore, camalexin, ICN,

and 4OH-ICN metabolism was greatly diminished, and indole glucosinolate levels were

mostly unchanged in the *rpm1* mutant, which is impaired in ETI recognition of *Psta*

(Bisgrove *et al.*, 1994) (Supplementary Fig. 1b-c). By contrast, camalexin and ICN were

absent in uninfected plants and largely at low-to-undetectable levels in plants treated

with MAMPs and PTI/ETS-eliciting pathogens, with 4OH-ICN not detected in most

cases. One exception was the fungal MAMP chitosan. 150 μg/mL chitosan induced high

levels of camalexin and detectable levels of ICN, consistent with previous observations

of camalexin biosynthetic genes upregulation (Fig. 1b) (Povero *et al.*, 2011). Higher

chitosan concentrations ($\geq$200 μg/mL) have been shown to induce HR-like cell death in

Arabidopsis (Cabrera et al., 2006), a phenomenon commonly observed for ETI (Jones

and Dangl, 2006). To our surprise, 300 μg/mL chitosan additionally induced detectable

levels of 4OH-ICN (Fig. 1b). These results suggest that 4OH-I3M, 4M-I3M, camalexin,

and ICN are synthesized in response to multiple PTI elicitors, whereas 4OH-ICN

biosynthesis is specific to ETI-like responses.

WRKY33 is required to activate 4OH-ICN in response to *Psta*. 4OH-ICN biosynthetic

genes are highly co-expressed with each other (Rajniak *et al.*, 2015) and with camalexin

biosynthetic genes (Supplementary Fig. 1d), which are in the WRKY33 regulon (Qiu *et*

al., 2008; Birkenbihl *et al.*, 2012). To determine whether 4OH-ICN biosynthetic genes

are also in the WRKY33 regulon, we compared camalexin, ICN and 4OH-ICN levels

between wild-type and a *wrky33* loss-of-function mutant that encodes two differently

truncated proteins (Fig. 2a; Zheng *et al.*, 2006). Consistent with a previous report (Qiu

et al., 2008), *wrky33* was impaired in camalexin biosynthesis in response to *Psta* and

Pst avrRps4 (Fig. 2b; Supplementary Fig. 2a). The *wrky33* mutant was similarly

impaired in 4OH-ICN biosynthesis (Fig. 2b; Supplementary Fig. 2a). These results

indicate that WRKY33 is required for camalexin and 4OH-ICN biosynthesis in response

to multiple ETI elicitors.

Figure 2. Intraspecific variation in *WRKY33* affects 4OH-ICN and immunity. (a)
Schematic of WRKY33 proteins in Col-0, Col-0 *wrky33*, L*er*-1 and Di-G. Black boxes
denote WRKY domains (W), nuclear localization signal (NLS), or C-terminal domain
(CTD). (**b**) LC-DAD-MS analysis of camalexin, ICN, and 4OH-ICN in seedlings
inoculated with *Psta* for 24 hr. Data represent mean ± SE of four replicates. (**c**) Bacterial
growth analysis of *Pst* in surface-inoculated leaves. Middle and right panels were pre-
treated with 20 μM dex for 6-8 hr. Data represent mean ± SE of 4 (left), 6-11 (middle),
and 6-8 (right) biological replicates. CFU, colony-forming units. Different letters in (**b-c**)
denote statistically significant differences ($P < 0.05$, one-factor ANOVA coupled to

Tukey's test). Experiments in (**b-c**) were performed at least twice, producing similar

results. For (**b-c**), source data are provided as a Source Data file.

To confirm that *WRKY33* is required to activate the 4OH-ICN pathway, we used a two-

component glucocorticoid-inducible system to generate *wrky33* plants that in the

presence of the glucocorticoid hormone dexamethasone (dex) express a wild-type copy

of WRKY33 with a C-terminal fusion to 1x flag epitope (*wrky33/DEX:WRKY33-flag*;

Supplementary Fig. 2b-c). Induced expression of *WRKY33-flag* restored camalexin and

4OH-ICN biosynthesis in *Psta*-challenged *wrky33* plants to greater than wild-type levels

(Supplementary Fig. 2d). These results indicate that *WRKY33* is required to activate

camalexin and 4OH-ICN biosynthesis in response to *Psta*.

Intraspecific variation in *WRKY33* affects 4OH-ICN synthesis and pathogen

defense. Intraspecific variation in TFs can contribute to gain or loss of phenotypes,

such as branching in maize (Studer *et al.*, 2011) or pelvic loss in three-spined

stickleback fish (Chan *et al.*, 2010). In addition, the wide variation in camalexin

biosynthesis reported among natural accessions of *A. thaliana* (Kagan &

Hammerschmidt, 2002) suggests that a similar variation in 4OH-ICN biosynthesis may

exist. To identify additional transcriptional activators of 4OH-ICN biosynthesis that

otherwise might be refractory to traditional genetic approaches, we compared

intraspecific variation in *Psta*-induced camalexin, ICN and 4OH-ICN among 35 re-

sequenced accessions and *wrky33* (Col-0 accession). We found camalexin and 4OH-

ICN levels to be positively correlated among accessions ($R^2 = 0.37$; Supplementary Fig.

3a), lending further support to their co-regulation by WRKY33. Accession Dijon-G (Di-G)

was identified to produce less camalexin and 4OH-ICN and more ICN than its near-

isogenic relatives, the Landsberg accessions L*er*-0 and L*er*-1 (Fig. 2b; Supplementary

Fig. 3a-b). In addition, differences observed in the metabolite response between

Landsberg accessions and Di-G most closely resembled those between Col-0 and

wrky33 mutant (Fig. 2b; Supplementary Fig. 3a). These results led us to hypothesize

that genetic variation in a regulatory gene, as opposed to an immune signaling gene, is

responsible for the metabolite phenotypes observed in Di-G. To test this hypothesis,

genetic variation between Di-G and three sequenced Landsberg accessions (La-0, L*er*-

0, and L*er*-1) were used to identify 354 genes that were differentially mutated to high

effect in Di-G (Supplementary Fig. 3c). Twenty-eight of these mutated Di-G genes were

annotated by Gene Ontology to have roles in defense, including *WRKY33*

(Supplementary Table 1). We confirmed by Sanger sequencing that Di-G *WRKY33*

harbors a nonsense mutation early in the N-terminal DNA-binding motif (Fig. 2a), likely

abolishing protein function. Our findings indicate that camalexin and 4OH-ICN are

sensitive to intraspecific variation in *WRKY33*.

Camalexin and 4OH-ICN promote plant fitness by contributing non-redundantly to

pathogen defense against the fitness-reducing *Pst* (Kover & Scaal, 2002; Rajniak *et al*.,

2015). To confirm that disease resistance to *Pst* is also sensitive to intraspecific

variation in *WRKY33*, we measured bacterial growth in adult leaves of *wrky33* and Di-G

and their respective (near-)isogenic accessions Col-0 and L*er*-1. *wrky33* and Di-G were

more susceptible to *Pst* than their (near)isogenic relatives and comparable to the 4OH-

ICN biosynthetic mutant *cyp82C2* (Fig. 2c; Rajniak *et al*., 2015).

We additionally generated *wrky33* plants that in the presence of dex express a wild-type

copy of WRKY33 with a C-terminal fusion to a larger 6x myc epitope

(*wrky33/DEX:WRKY33-myc*; Supplementary Fig. 4a-c). Induced expression of

WRKY33-myc complemented *wrky33* and Di-G to Col-0 and L*er*-1 levels of resistance

to *Pst*, respectively (Fig. 2c). Additionally camalexin and ICN levels complemented

and/or exceeded Col-0 and L*er*-1 levels in *Psta*-challenged *wrky33/DEX:WRKY33-myc*

and *Di-G/DEX:WRKY33-myc* plants, respectively (Supplementary Fig. 4d-e). Together,

our results support a role of *WRKY33* in pathogen defense as an activator of Trp-

derived specialized metabolism.

WRKY33 activates 4OH-ICN biosynthesis. To confirm that the 4OH-ICN biosynthetic

pathway is in the WRKY33 regulon, we first compared *WRKY33*, *CYP71A13,*

CYP71B15, FOX1 and *CYP82C2* transcript levels among WT, *wrky33,*

wrky33/DEX:WRKY33-flag, and *wrky33/DEX:WRKY33-myc*. Consistent with previous

reports (Qiu *et al.*, 2008), *CYP71A13*, *CYP71B15*, and *FOX1* expression was down-

regulated in *wrky33* plants in response to *Psta* and upregulated in both

wrky33/DEX:WRKY33-flag and *wrky33/DEX:WRKY33-myc* (Fig. 3a) (Supplementary

Fig. 4f, 5a). Interestingly, *CYP82C2* expression and 4OH-ICN production were restored

in *wrky33/DEX:WRKY33-flag* but not *wrky33/DEX:WRKY33-myc* or Di-

G*/DEX:WRKY33-myc* plants (Fig. 2d, 3a) (Supplementary Fig. 4d-f), likely due to the

interference of the larger myc tag with the WRKY33 C-terminus, a region previously

linked with transactivation activity (Zhou *et al.*, 2015). These transcriptional and

metabolic findings indicate that WRKY33 mediates camalexin and 4OH-ICN

biosynthesis in response to pathogen effectors.

Figure 3. WRKY33 directly activates 4OH-ICN biosynthetic genes. (**a**) qPCR

analysis of 4OH-ICN regulatory and biosynthetic genes in seedlings inoculated with 20

*µ*M dex and *Psta* for 9 and 12 hr. Different letters denote statistically significant

differences ($P < 0.05$, one-factor ANOVA coupled to Tukey's test). Lowercase and

uppercase letters denote comparisons across 9 and 12 hr timepoints, respectively. Data

represent mean ± SE of 4-6 replicates. (**b**) Schematic of *FOX1* and *CYP82C2* loci,

indicating nt positions of W-box-containing regions (W). (**c**) ChIP-PCR analysis of W-

box-containing regions upstream of *FOX1* and *CYP82C2* in *wrky33/DEX:WRKY33-flag*

plants co-treated with 20 μM dex (D) or mock solution (M) and *Psta* for 9 hr. Dashed line

represents the 5-fold cutoff between weak and strong TF-DNA interactions. Data

represent mean ± SE of four replicates. For (**a**,**c**), source data are provided as a Source

Data file.

We then tested for WRKY33-binding to W-box-containing regions upstream of

camalexin and 4OH-ICN biosynthetic genes in dex-treated and *Psta*-infected

wrky33/DEX:WRKY33-flag seedlings by chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP)-PCR.

WRKY33 has been shown to bind to a W-box region upstream of *CYP71A12* (Birkenbihl

et al., 2017), a region that also contains three WRKY33-specific motifs and is consistent

with WRKY33's reported binding site preference (Liu *et al.*, 2015). We additionally

observed that *Psta*-induced WRKY33 bound strongly (greater than 5-fold enrichment) to

a single W-box region upstream of *FOX1* and *CYP82C2* (W2 and W4, respectively; Fig.

3b-c; Supplementary Fig. 5b). Both regions also contain one to three WRKY33-specific

motifs. Together with our expression analysis, our findings indicate that WRKY33 uses

preferred WRKY33-binding sites to directly activate 4OH-ICN biosynthetic genes in

response to pathogen effectors.

Interestingly, *Psta*-induced WRKY33 did not bind to the W5 region upstream of

CYP82C2 (Fig. 3c), a W-box region that does not contain any WRKY33-specific motifs

and is just upstream of neighboring gene of unknown function *At4g31960* (Fig. 3b).

WRKY33 reportedly binds to W5 in response to flg22 and *B. cinerea* (Liu *et al.*, 2015;

Birkenbihl *et al.*, 2017). By contrast, *Psta*-induced WRKY33 bound strongly to W1

region upstream of *CYP71B15* (Supplementary Fig. 5c-d), a W-box region that also

does not contain any WRKY33-specific motifs. WRKY33 reportedly binds to a region

encompassing W1 in response to flg22 and *Psta* (Qiu *et al.*, 2008; Birkenbihl *et al.*,

2012). These findings suggest that WRKY33 may use W-box extended motifs or novel

specificity motifs to target camalexin biosynthetic genes in response to pathogen

effectors, or 4OH-ICN biosynthetic genes in response to MAMPs or fungal pathogens.

***CYP82C2* underwent regulatory neofunctionalization**. CYP82C2 catalyzes the last

step in 4OH-ICN biosynthesis, hydroxylating ICN to form 4OH-ICN (Rajniak *et al.*,

2015), and likely was the last 4OH-ICN pathway gene to be recruited to the WRKY33

regulon in *A. thaliana*. To explore the phylogenetic distribution pattern of 4OH-ICN

biosynthesis, we profiled ICN and 4OH-ICN metabolites in close and distant relatives of

A. thaliana in response to *Psta*. While ICN biosynthesis was observed across multiple

close relatives, 4OH-ICN was only detected in *A. thaliana* (Fig. 4a; Supplementary Fig.

6a). This result suggests that 4OH-ICN manifests a species-specific diversification of

pathogen-inducible Trp-derived metabolism in the mustard family.

Figure 4. Regulatory neofunctionalization of *CYP82C2*. (**a**) (Left) Phylogenetic

species tree. (Right) HPLC-DAD analysis of 4OH-ICN in seedlings inoculated with *Psta*

for 30 hr. Data represent mean ± SE of three independent experiments (n = 4 biological

replicates), each with *A. thaliana* as a positive control. 4OH-ICA and 4OH-ICA-ME are

aqueous and methanolic degradations products of 4OH-ICN, respectively. DW, dry

weight; n.d., not detected. (**b**) (Left) phylogenetic species tree. (Right) Synteny map of

the *CYP82C* genes. Grey arrows or rectangles represent non-*CYP82C* genes. Grey

dotted lines represent large (>500 nt) sequence gaps. (**c-d**) qPCR analysis of 4OH-ICN

and sideretin biosynthetic genes in seedlings inoculated with *Psta* (**c**) or grown in iron-

deficient medium (**d**). Data represents the mean ± SE of four biological replicates.

Asterisks denote statistically significant differences of stress-treated relative to

untreated samples ($P < 0.05$, two-tailed t-test). For (**a**,**c-d**), source data are provided as

a Source Data file.

In *A. thaliana*, *CYP82C2* resides in a near-tandem cluster with paralogs *CYP82C3* and

CYP82C4 (Fig. 4b). We performed phylogenetic and syntenic analyses to identify

putative *CYP82C2* orthologs in ICN-synthesizing species. All identified homologs are

syntenic to *CYP82C2* or *CYP82C4*, and encode proteins with >88% identity to one

another (Fig. 4b; Supplementary Fig. 6b-c). *CYP82C3* is present only in *A. thaliana*, and

although more similar to *CYP82C2* than *CYP82C4* in sequence, it is not functionally

redundant with *CYP82C2* (Fig. 4b; Supplementary Fig. 6b; Rajniak *et al.*, 2015).

CYP82C4 is required for the biosynthesis of sideretin, a widely conserved,

phenylalanine-derived metabolite required for iron acquisition (Rajniak *et al.*, 2018).

CYP82C4 has syntenic orthologs in the mustard family, correlating with the distribution

of sideretin biosynthesis (Fig. 4b; Supplementary Fig. 6b**;** Rajniak *et al.*, 2018). By

contrast, *CYP82C2* has syntenic orthologs only within the *Arabidopsis* genus (Fig. 4b;

Supplementary Fig. 6b). These results suggest that *CYP82C2* duplicated from

CYP82C4 prior to the formation of the *Arabidopsis* genus and then acquired a new

expression pattern and/or catalytic function prior to *A. thaliana* speciation approx. 2

million years later (Hu *et al.*, 2011; Hohmann *et al.*, 2015).

CYP82C2 and CYP82C4 were previously characterized to 5-hydroxylate with equal

efficiency the specialized metabolite 8-methoxypsoralen, a molecule structurally

reminiscent of ICN and sideretin (Kruse *et al.*, 2008). The apparent similarities in

substrate specificity and catalytic function suggest that *CYP82C2* may have diverged

from *CYP82C4* in expression but not protein function. To test this, we first compared the

expression of *CYP82C2* and *CYP82C4* in *A. lyrata* and *A. thaliana* in response to *Psta*.

4OH-ICN biosynthetic genes *CYP79B2, CYP71A12* and *FOX1* were upregulated in both

species, consistent with the common presence of ICN (Fig. 4a and c). By contrast,

CYP82C2 levels were respectively upregulated and unchanged in *A. thaliana* and *A.*

lyrata, correlating with the distribution of 4OH-ICN in these species (Fig. 4a and c).

CYP82C4 expression was unchanged in both species (Fig. 4c). These results indicate

that 4OH-ICN biosynthesis is linked with pathogen-induced expression of *CYP82C2*.

We then compared the aligned upstream sequences of *CYP82C2* and *CYP82C4* in *A.*

lyrata and *A. thaliana* and observed good sequence conservation among orthologs but

poor conservation among paralogs (Supplementary Fig. 6d), indicating that sequences

upstream of *CYP82C4* and *CYP82C2* were independently derived. We performed

expression analysis in *A. thaliana* to confirm that *CYP82C2* and *CYP82C4* have

different expression patterns. *CYP82C2* expression is upregulated in response to *Psta*

and unchanged under iron deficiency (Fig. 4c-d; Supplementary Fig. 1a**;** Rajniak *et al*.,

2015). Conversely, *CYP82C4* is upregulated under iron deficiency and unchanged in

response to *Psta* (Fig. 4c-d; Murgia *et al*., 2011; Rajniak *et al*., 2018). Finally, *CYP82C4*

was unchanged in *Psta*-challenged *wrky33* and *wrky33/DEX:WRKY33-flag*

(Supplementary Fig. 6e). Our findings suggest that *CYP82C2* diverged from *CYP82C4*

by acquiring WRKY33 regulation for its pathogen-induced expression.

We next assessed dN/dS ratios along branches of the CYP82C phylogenetic tree

(Supplementary Fig. 6b) and found good support for purifying selection acting on

CYP82C enzymes (ω=0.21), and no support for positive selection acting on CYP82C2/3

enzymes (Supplementary Table 2). Lastly, we identified non-conserved amino acid

residues among CYP82C homologs and mapped this information onto a homology

model of CYP82C2. The protein inner core, which encompasses the active site and

substrate channel, is highly conserved among CYP82C homologs (Supplementary Fig.

6f), and is consistent with CYP82C2 and CYP82C4's reportedly redundant catalytic

functions (Kruse *et al.*, 2008). Altogether, our findings suggest that *CYP82C2*

underwent regulatory neofunctionalization (Moore & Purugganan, 2005), diverging from

CYP82C4 in expression but not protein function.

TE *EPCOT3* is a *CYP82C2* enhancer. WRKY33 regulation of *CYP82C2* is mediated by

a WRKY33-TFBS in the W4 region (Figs. 3 and 5a; Supplementary Fig. 5c). Preferential

WRKY33-binding at this region should also be influenced by chromatin features

associated with *cis*-regulatory elements like enhancers and basal promoters (Slattery *et*

al., 2014). To investigate how *CYP82C2* acquired WRKY33-binding for its pathogen-

induced expression, we compared the aligned upstream sequences of *CYP82C*

homologs in ICN-synthesizing species. We observed three large upstream sequences

specific to *A. thaliana CYP82C2*, hereafter named <u>E</u>ighty-two-C2 <u>P</u>romoter <u>C</u>ontained

<u>O</u>nly in A. <u>T</u>haliana1-3 (*EPCOT1–3*; Fig. 5a). *EPCOT3* in particular is a 240nt region

that completely encompasses W4 (Fig. 5a), indicating that the WRKY33's regulation of

CYP82C2 in response to *Psta* may be species-specific. Further bioinformatics analysis

revealed that *EPCOT3* has the epigenetic signature of an active enhancer (Roudier *et*

al., 2011; Liu *et al.*, 2018). Relative to neighboring sequences, *EPCOT3* is enriched with

activating histone mark H3K4me2 and lacks the repressive histone mark H3K27me3

(Fig. 5b) (Heintzman *et al.*, 2007; Hoffman *et al.*, 2010; Roudier *et al.*, 2011; Bonn *et al.*,

2012; Wang *et al.*, 2014). Our findings suggest that *EPCOT3* functions as an enhancer

that mediates WRKY33-binding and activation of *CYP82C2* in response to pathogen

effectors.

Figure 5. TE *EPCOT3* is a *CYP82C2* enhancer. (a) mVISTA plot of *CYP82C2*

upstream sequence, indicating nt positions of unique (*EPCOT1–3;* gray boxes) and

conserved regions (≥70% sequence identity; pink) among homologous sequences. Also

indicated are positions of W-boxes (green) and WRKY33-specific motifs (blue) that are

present (solid lines) or absent (dashed lines) in each homologous sequence, previously

known WRKY33-TFBSs (diamonds) and ChIP-tested regions (W1-5). TSS,

transciptional start site; *Al, Arabidopsis lyrata; Ah, Arabidopsis halleri*; *Cr, Capsella*

rubella; *Bs, Boechera stricta; Cg, Capsella grandiflora*. (**b**) Epigenetic map of *CYP82C2*

upstream sequence, indicating nt positions of significant amounts of H3K4me2 (blue-

gray bars), and H3K27me3 (purple bars). (**c**) (Left) Schematic of *EPCOT3* and related

LINE retrotransposons in *A. thaliana* drawn to scale, indicating nt positions of *CYP82C2*

and reverse transcriptase (RT) domain. A more detailed tree is available as

Supplementary Text 1. (Right) Phylogenetic maximum likelihood tree. Dashed box

represent region containing W-boxes (green lines) and/or WRKY33-binding motifs (blue

lines) within *EPCOT3, EPL1* and *EPL2*. (**d**) (Upper left) Schematic of *CYP82C2* and

AlCYP82C2 transgenic loci used for WRKY33 transactivation experiments. Black box at

far left represents coding sequences of neighboring genes (*AT4G31960* at *CYP82C2*

locus, *AlCYP82C4* at *AlCYP82C2* locus). (Lower left) RT-PCR images of *CYP82C2*,

AlCYP82C2, and *NbACTIN1* in *N. benthamiana* leaves co-transfected with

DEX:WRKY33-flag and the *CYP82C2* or *AlCYP82C2* locus and incubated with 1 µM

flg22 and either mock solution (0.5% DMSO) or 20 µM dex for 30 hr (*CYP82C2* and

AlCYP82C2) or 24 hr (*NbACTIN1*). Data represents five biological replicates. (Lower

right) RT-PCR images of *CYP82C2*, *AlCYP82C2*, and *EIF4A1* in *A. thaliana cyp82C2-2*

mutant protoplasts transfected with the wild-type *CYP82C2* or *AlCYP82C2* locus and

elicited with 1 µM flg22 for 6 hr. As transcription is present downstream of the T-DNA

insertion in the *cyp82C2-2* mutant, primers for RT-PCR were selected corresponding to

a downstream region (*CYP82C2* + *cyp82c2-2*, second row) as well as a region flanking

the *cyp82C2-2* insertion (*CYP82C2*, first row). See Supplementary Table 6 for more

information. Data represents four biological replicates. (**e**) ChIP-PCR analysis of W-box-

containing regions (W) within *EPL1* and *EPL2* in *wrky33/DEX:WRKY33-flag* plants co-

treated with 20 μM dex (D) or mock solution (M) and *Psta* for 9 hr. Data represent mean

$\pm$ SE of four replicates. Dashed line represents the 5-fold cutoff between weak and

strong TF-DNA interactions. For (**d-e**), source data are provided as a Source Data file.

EPCOT3 contains a 3' poly-A tail and is flanked by variable-length target site

duplications (Fig. 5c; Supplementary Fig. 7a), which are hallmarks of eukaryotic LINE

retrotransposons (Malik *et al.*, 1999). LINE retrotransposition (reverse transcription and

integration) results in frequent 5'-truncation of retrocopies (Luan *et al.*, 1993). We

identified eleven variably truncated retrocopies similar to *EPCOT3* throughout the

genome, including *Ta22*, one of the first LINEs characterized in *A. thaliana* (Fig. 5c;

Supplementary Fig. 7a-b, Supplementary Table 3; Wright *et al.*, 1996). *EPCOT3*-related

LINEs were sorted into two groups roughly correspondent to their phylogenetic

placement: *EPCOT3-LIKE* (*EPL*) for those with high identity (>65%) to *EPCOT3* and

Ta22 or *Ta22-LIKE* (*Ta22L*) for the remainder (Supplementary Fig. 7a; Supplementary

Table 3). Only *Ta22* and *Ta22L1* are full-length LINEs (Fig. 5c), presumably encoding

the proteins necessary for their own transposition and for the transposition of

nonautonomous family members like *EPCOT3*. We also identified two syntenic species-

specific *Ta22L*s, but no *EPL*s, in *A. lyrata* (Supplementary Table 3). To confirm the

involvement of *EPCOT3* in species-specific expression of *CYP82C2*, we introduced

WRKY33 into *N. benthamiana* leaves and *A. thaliana cyp82C2* protoplasts transfected

with either the *A. thaliana* and *A. lyrata CYP82C2* loci (including genes plus 3000 bp

upstream sequence, Fig 5d). We observed transactivation by WRKY33 of the *A.*

thaliana sequence, but not that of *A. lyrata* (Fig. 5d; Supplementary Fig. 7d). Altogether,

these data indicate that *EPCOT3* and *EPL*s arose from retrotransposition following the

speciation of *A. thaliana* and that the *EPCOT3*-containing *A. thaliana CYP82C2*

promoter is sufficient to confer WRKY33-mediated transcription of *CYP82C2*.

Of the *EPL* retrocopies, *EPL1* is most similar to *EPCOT3* (85.4% identity), sharing the

W-box and WRKY33-specific motif, whereas *EPL2* is less similar (67%) and lacks the

WRKY33-specific motif (Fig. 5c; Supplementary Table 3, Supplementary Fig. 7a). *EPL1*

and *EPL2* are much less truncated than *EPCOT3* (Fig. 5c), and lack epigenetic

signatures typical of *cis*-regulatory sequences (Supplementary Fig. 7c) (Roudier *et al.*,

2011; Liu *et al.*, 2018). To investigate whether the sequence information and chromatin

features associated with *EPL*s are sufficient for WRKY33-binding, we tested for

WRKY33-binding to *EPL* sequences homologous to the W4 region of *EPCOT3* in dex-

treated, *Psta*-infected *wrky33/DEX:WRKY33-flag* plants by ChIP-(q)PCR. Compared to

EPCOT3 (Fig. 3c), WRKY33 respectively bound weakly or not at all to *EPL1* and *EPL2*

(Fig. 5e; Supplementary Fig. 7e). Our findings suggest the following history: (1) *EPL1*

likely retroduplicated from *EPL2* or its progenitor, which already contained a W-box; (2)

EPL1 then acquired a WRKY33-specific motif by mutation; (3) *EPCOT3* retroduplicated

from *EPL1* and then acquired epigenetic signatures of an enhancer, thereby allowing

selection to act on standing variation rather than *de novo* mutation for *CYP82C2*

recruitment into the 4OH-ICN biosynthetic pathway.

Discussion

TEs were originally conceived to act as "controlling elements" of several loci in the

genome (McClintock, 1956), and exaptation of TEs into *cis*-regulatory modules has

been hypothesized to be responsible for the rapid transcriptional rewiring in more

ancient lineages of vertebrates (Feschotte 2008; Bourque 2009; de Souza et al., 2013).

However, few (if any) evolutionarily recent TE exaptation events in vertebrates and

higher plants have been demonstrated to have biochemical, regulatory, physiological

and fitness-promoting functions (de Souza et al., 2013). With well over a dozen

genomes available including the genetic model *A. thaliana*, the mustard family presents

an excellent system for examining such events. In this study, we show that *EPCOT3* is

a TE-derived enhancer that mediates WRKY33-binding, pathogen-responsive

transcription of *CYP82C2,* synthesis of the species-specific metabolite 4OH-ICN, and

pathogen defense (Fig. 6). These results provide the first instance of a recent TE

exaptation responsible for the rewiring of a new gene into an ancient regulon, ultimately

leading to a positive effect on fitness.

Figure 6. Model of regulatory neofunctionalization of *CYP82C2*.

Although the *EPL1/EPCOT3* progenitor retrotransposed a preferred WRKY33-TFBS in

the form of *EPCOT3* upstream of *CYP82C2*, a further series of epigenetic modifications

were needed to facilitate optimal access of *EPCOT3* by WRKY33 (Fig. 6). *EPL1* exists

in a silenced heterochromatin state (Supplementary Fig. 7c), typical for TEs (Slotkin &

Martienssen, 2007), and is bound weakly by WRKY33 (Fig. 5e), whereas *EPCOT3* is in

an open chromatin state (Fig. 5b; Roudier *et al.*, 2011; Liu *et al.*, 2018) and bound

strongly by WRKY33 (Fig. 3c). The more severe 5'-truncation of *EPCOT3* could account

for its release from TE silencing mechanisms, and the initially weak WRKY33-binding

could provide a 'seed' for chromatin remodelers to drive the exaptation of newly

retrotransposed *EPCOT3* into a *bona fide* enhancer. Further epigenomic sampling

within *Arabidopsis* is needed to better clarify the epigenetic transformations underlying

the *EPCOT3* exaptation event.

Compared to closely-related Landsberg accessions (Supplementary Fig. 3; Hardtke *et*

al., 1996), Di-G synthesizes less camalexin and 4OH-ICN (Fig. 2b; Kagan &

Hammerschmidt, 2002), is more susceptible to a range of bacterial and fungal

pathogens (Fig. 2c) (Hugouvieux *et al.*, 1998; Kagan & Hammerschmidt, 2002;

Mukherjee *et al.*, 2009), and is more sensitive to the phytohormone ethylene (Chatfield

et al., 2008). WRKY33 has been implicated in camalexin biosynthesis (Qiu *et al.*, 2008),

antifungal defense (Zheng *et al.*, 2006), and ethylene biosynthesis (Li *et al.*, 2012). We

identified WRKY33 as causal for some if not all of these phenotypes in Di-G. This is the

first report of WRKY33's involvement in antibacterial defense and is consistent with the

contribution of camalexin and 4OH-ICN towards antibacterial defense (Rajniak *et al.*,

2015).

WRKY33 is an ancient transcription factor responsible for many fitness-promoting traits

in plants, thus it is unexpected that an *A. thaliana* accession would have a naturally

occurring *wrky33* mutation (C536T transversion). Di-G is the sole member of 1,135

sequenced accessions to have a high-effect single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) in

WRKY33 (1001 Genomes Consortium, 2016). Di-G and L*er*-0 have long been models

for studies in mutagenesis (Rédei, 1962, Müller, 1966), and thus a possibility exists that

Di-G may have originated from an ethyl methanesulfonate (EMS) mutagenesis screen

of L*er*-0. Historical EMS mutagenesis experiments generated upwards of tens of

thousands of mutations per cell (Müller 1966; Rédei & Koncz, 1993; Camara *et al.*,

2000), well within the range of ~25,000 SNPs that are not concordant between Di-G and

L*er*-0 (Supplementary Fig. 2f). However, features of EMS mutations (i.e. transversion

mutations) or X-ray mutations (i.e. indels) are not enriched in the Di-G pseudogenome

relative to related pseudogenomes (Supplementary Table 4). These findings suggest

that the wrky33 Di-G mutation is naturally derived.

Methods

Plant materials and growth conditions. For qPCR and HPLC-DAD analyses, surface-

sterilized *Arabidopsis thaliana* seeds were sown in 12-well microtiter plates sealed with

Micropore tape (3M, St. Paul, MN), each well containing ~15 seeds and 1 mL filter-

sterilized 1X Murashige and Skoog (MS; Murashige & Skoog, 1962) media (pH 5.7–5.8)

(4.43 g/L MS basal medium with vitamins [Phytotechnology Laboratories, Shawnee

Missions, KS], 0.05% MES hydrate, 0.5% sucrose). Iron deficient media was made as

previously described by Rajniak et al (2018). For *Polyctenium fremontii*, surface-

sterilized seeds were sown on MS agar plates. On day 9, seedlings were transferred to

6-well microtiter plates, each well containing ~15 seeds and 3 mL MS media. For all

other species, surface-sterilized seeds were sown in 6-well plates, each well containing

~15 seeds and 3 mL MS media. On day 9, media were refreshed prior to bacterial

elicitation. Microtiter plates were placed on grid-like shelves over water trays on a

Floralight cart (Toronto, Canada), and plants were grown at 21°C with 60% humidity

under a 16-hr light cycle (70-80 µE m-2 s-1 light intensity). For chromatin

immunoprecipitation analyses, approximately 200 seeds were sown in a 100mm x

15mm petri plate containing 20mL of 1X MS media. Media were exchanged for fresh

media on day 9. Microtiter plates were placed on grid-like shelves over water trays on a

Floralight cart (Toronto, Canada), and plants were grown at 21°C with 60% humidity

under a 16-hr light cycle (70-80 µE m-2 s-1 light intensity). For bacterial infection

assays, seedlings were transferred to and grown on soil [3:1 mix of Farfard Growing Mix

2 (Sun Gro Horticulture, Vancouver, Canada) to vermiculite (Scotts, Marysville, OH)] at

22°C daytime/18°C nighttime with 60% humidity under a 12-hr light cycle [50

(dawn/dusk) and 100 (midday) µE m-2 s-1 light intensity].

Seed stock information is shown in Supplementary Table 5**.**

Vector construction and transformation. To generate the *DEX:WRKY33-flag*

construct, *WRKY33* was PCR-amplified from genomic DNA using the primers

WRKY33gXhoF (5'-AACTCGAGAAGAACAAGAACCATCAC-3'), and W33flgSpeIR (5'-

CGACTAGTCTACTTGTCGTCATCGTCTTTGTAGTCGGGCATAAACGAATCGAAA-3')

and subcloned into the *Xho*I/*Spe*I sites of pTA7002 vector (Aoyama and Chua, 1997;

McNellis et al., 1998). To generate the *DEX:WRKY33-myc* construct, *WRKY33* was

PCR-amplified using the primers WRKY33gXhoF and WRKY33gStuR (5'-

AAGGCCTGGCATAAACGAATCGAAAAATG-3') and subcloned into the *Xho*I/*Stu*I sites

of a version of pTA7002 modified to contain 6 tandem copies of the c-Myc epitope

downstream of the StuI site (Chezem *et al.*, 2017). The constructs were introduced into

Arabidopsis thaliana wrky33 plants via *Agrobacterium*-mediated floral dip method

(Clough and Bent, 1998), and transformants were selected on agar media containing 15

µg/mL hygromycin B (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA).

To generate the *CYP82C2pro:CYP82C2* DNA construct, the *CYP82C2* promoter (pro)

and coding sequences were PCR-amplified from *A. thaliana* genomic DNA using the

primers At82C2proXbaF (5-GCTCTAGAAGCTTCCAATAAAACATTC-3') and

At82C2proBamR (5'-GCGGATCCAGTGGTTTGAGCGTGCAAA-3'), and

At82C2geneBamF (5-GCGGATCCATGGATACTTCCCTCTTTTC-3') and

At82C2geneSmaR (5'-

TTCCCGGGCTACTTGTCGTCATCGTCTTTGTAGTCCACATAAAGCCCTTCCTTAAG-

3'), and both sequences were subcloned into the *Xba*I/*Sma*I sites of pBI101 vector

(Jefferson *et al.,* 1987). To generate the *AlCYP82C2pro:AlCYP82C2* DNA construct, the

AlCYP82C2 pro and coding sequences were PCR-amplified from *A.lyrata* genomic DNA

using the primers Al82C2proSalF (5'-CGGTCGACTATTCCAGGAGCATACAA-3') and

Al82C2proBglIIR (5'-GGAGATCTAATGTTTTAAAAGTGCAAAAGAG-3'), and

Al82C2geneBamHF (5'-GCGGATCCATGGATACATCCCTCTTTTC-3') and

Al82C2geneSmaR (5'-TTCCCGGGctacttgtcgtcatcgtctttgtagtccacaaaaagttcttccttaagac-

3'), and subcloned into the *SalI/SmaI* sites of pBI101 vector. Transient expression of

constructs in *Nicotiana benthamiana* leaves was performed as previously described

(Rajniak *et al.,* 2015) with the following modification: leaves were infiltrated with

transformed *Agrobacterium* strains that were grown in LB medium supplemented with

30 μg/mL gentamycin and 50 μg/mL kanamycin to an OD_{600} of 0.7. 16 h post-*Agro-*

infiltration, leaves were sprayed with 20 μM dexamethasone and 0.1% Tween-20 to

induce transgene expression for 0.5, 15, 24 and 30 h. Transient expression of

constructs in *Arabidopsis thaliana* T-DNA insertion mutant *cyp82C2-2* (Arabidopsis

Biological Resource Center; GABI_261D12) was performed as previously described

(Sheen, 2002) with the following modification: 2.5×10^5 protoplasts were transfected

with 3 μg of construct for 20 min, recovered in 2.5x volume of W5 solution and elicited

with 1 μM flg22 (QRLSTGSRINSAKDDAAGLQIA; Genscript, Nanjing, China) in 1 mL

W5 solution for 6 h.

Bacterial infection and MAMP elicitation. A single colony of *Pseudomonas syringae*

pv. *maculicola* (*Pma*) M2 (containing *avrRpm1*, but not *avrRps4* or *avrRpt2*), *Pma*

ES4326 (containing no aforementioned effectors), *Pma* ES4326 *avrRpt2*, *Pseudomonas*

syringae pv. *tomato* DC3000 (*Pto* DC3000 or *Pst,* containing no aforementioned

effectors), *Pst avrRpm1*, *Pst avrRps4*, and *Pst avrRpt2* from a freshly streaked 3-day-

old agar plate were used to inoculate 2 mL of LB containing appropriate antibiotics.

Strains were grown to log phase, washed in sterile water twice, resuspended in water to

OD_{600} of 0.2, and incubated at room temperature with no agitation for 3-6 and prior to

infection. Chitosan (90% deacetylated chitin; Spectrum Chemical Mfg Corp, New

Brunswich, NJ) was prepared in 0.1 N acetic acid and neutralized with 0.1 N NaOH to

pH 5.8 to a stock concentration of 1.2 mg/mL.

Hydroponically grown 9-day-old seedlings were inoculated with bacterial strains to

OD_{600} of 0.013 or treated with 10 µM flg22, 10 µM elf26 (ac-

SKEKFERTKPHVNVGTIGHVDHGKTT; Genscript), and 150 or 300 µg/mL chitosan.

For qPCR analyses, seedlings were snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen 12 hr post-infection.

For HPLC-DAD analyses, seedlings were snap-frozen 24 to 28 hr post-infection. For

ChIP analyses, seedlings were snap-frozen 9 hr post-infection.

4-to-5-week-old adult leaves were treated with 0.0125% Silwet or 0.0125% Silwet and

20 µM dexamethasone for 20 sec and incubated on 0.8% (w/v) tissue-culture agar

plates on a light cart at 21˚C for 6-8 hr. Leaves were then surface-inoculated with *Pto*

DC3000 (OD_{600} = 0.002 or 10^6 colony-forming units (cfu)/cm^2 leaf area) in the presence

of 0.01% (v/v) Silwet L-77 (Phytotechnology Laboratories) for 15 sec and incubated on

0.8% (w/v) tissue-culture agar plates at 21°C under a 16-hr light cycle (70-80 µE m-2 s-

1 light intensity) for 3 days. Leaves were then surface-sterilized in 70% ethanol for 10

sec, rinsed in sterile water, surface-dried on paper towels, and the bacteria were

extracted into water, using an 8-mm stainless steel bead and a ball mill (20 Hz for 3

min). Serial dilutions of the extracted bacteria were plated on LB agar plates for colony-

forming units (CFU) counting.

RNA isolation and quantitative PCR (qPCR). Total RNA was extracted from 9-day-old

seedlings using TRIzol reagent (Invitrogen, San Diego, CA) according to the

manufacturer's instructions. 2.5 µg of total RNA was reverse-transcribed with 3.75 µM

random hexamers (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) and 20 U of ProtoScript II (New England

Biolabs, Boston, MA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The resulting

cDNA:RNA hybrids were treated with 10 U of DNase I (Roche, Basel, Switzerland) for

30 min at 37°C and purified on PCR clean-up column (Macherey-Nagel, Düren,

Germany). qPCR was performed with Kapa SYBR Fast qPCR master mix (Kapa

Biosystems, Wilmington, MA) and CFX384 real-time PCR machine (Bio-Rad, Hercules,

CA). The thermal cycling program was as follows: 95°C for 3 min; 45 cycles of 95°C for

15 sec and 53°C for 30 sec; a cycle of 95°C for 1 min, 53°C for 1 min, and 70°C for 10

sec; and 50 cycles of 0.5°C increments for 10 sec. Biological and technical replicates

were performed on the same 384-well PCR plate. Average of the three Ct values per

biological replicate was converted to difference in Ct value relative to that of control

sample. The Pfaffl method (Pfaffl, 2001) and calculated primer efficiencies were used to

determine the relative fold increase of the target gene transcript over the *EIF4A1*

(*AT3G13920* or *AL3G26100*) housekeeping gene transcript for each biological replicate.

Expression values were then calculated relative to WT un-treated samples. Primer

sequences and efficiencies are listed in Supplementary Table 6**.**

RT-PCR Analysis. Total RNA was extracted from snap-frozen tobacco leaves or

Arabidopsis protoplasts as described by Couto et al (2015) and Oñate-Sánchez and

Vicente-Carbajosa (2008). Total RNA (2 μg) was treated with 10 units of DNase I

(Roche) for 30 min at 37°C and then for 15 min at 70°C, reverse-transcribed with 3.75

μM random hexamers (Qiagen) and 20 units of M-MuLV (New England Biolabs) for 1 h

at 42°C and then for 15 min at 70°C. Tobacco cDNA was diluted 7.5-fold. 4 μL of cDNA

was used in 20 μL PCR reactions, and resulting PCR products were separated on 2%

agarose gels. PCR was performed on C1000 thermal cycler (Bio-Rad) with the following

thermal cycling program: 95°C for 3 min; 40 cycles of 95°C for 10 sec, 53°C for 15 sec,

and 72°C for 7 sec (*AtWRKY33*, *CYP82C2*, *AlCYP82C2*), 15 sec (*NbACTIN1*) or 21 sec

(*CYP82C2*-long). Primer sequences are listed in Supplementary Table 6.

Camalexin and 4OH-ICN extraction and LC-DAD-MS. 10-day-old seedlings were

snap-frozen, lyophilized, weighed and homogenized using a 5-mm stainless steel bead

and ball mill (20 Hz, 4 min). For phytoalexin analysis, homogenate was extracted with

300 µL 80% (v/v) aqueous methanol containing 0.08% (v/v) formate and 2.5 µL internal

standard (200 µM 4-methoxyindole/4M-I [Sigma-Aldrich] in 100% methanol) per mg

sample dry weight. Extracts were sonicated for 5 min and centrifuged at 16,000xg for 2

min. The supernatant was filtered using a 0.45-µm polypropylene filter plate (GE

Healthcare, Chicago, IL). Samples were separated by reversed-phase chromatography

on an Ultimate 3000 HPLC (Dionex, Sunnyvale, CA) system, using a 3.5-µm, 3x150-

mm Zorbax SB-Aq column (Agilent, Santa Clara, CA); volume injected was 10 µL. The

gradient is shown in Supplementary Table 7. A coupled DAD-3000RS diode array

detector (Dionex) collected UV absorption spectra in the range of 190-560 nm, a FLD-

311 fluorescence detector (Dionex) collected fluorescence data at 275 nm excitation

and 350 nm emission, and a MSQPlus mass spectrometer (Dionex) collected ESI mass

spectra in positive and negative ion modes in the range of 100-1000 m/z. Total ICN,

4OH-ICN and camalexin amounts were quantified using standard curves of standards

prepared in *cyp79B2 cyp79B3* seedling extract and integrated areas in the UV

chromatographs at 260-nm for 4M-I (retention time [RT] = 7.7 min); 340-nm for ICN (RT

= 11.5 min); 280-nm for ICN degradation product ICA-ME (RT = 9.5 min); and co-eluting

4OH-ICN degradation products 4OH-ICA and 4OH-ICA-ME (RT = 10.1 min); and 320

nm for camalexin (RT = 12.1 min). For Figure 1b, total camalexin amounts were

quantified using integrated areas in the FLD chromatograph. For some experiments, 2.5

uL 200 µM indole butrytic acid (IBA; RT = 10.1 min) was added per mg sample dry

weight instead of 4M-I. Relative amounts of ICN, 4OH-ICN, and amounts were

quantified by dividing the peak areas at m/z 169 [M-H]- (ICN), 174 [M-H]- (ICA-ME), 176

[M-H]- (4OH-ICA), 190 [M-H]- (4OH-ICME), and 201 [M+H]+ (camalexin), by that of IBA

(m/z 202 [M-H]-).

Glucosinolate extraction and LC-DAD-FLD-MS. Glucosinolates were analyzed as

desulfoglucosinolates as previously described by Kliebenstein *et al.* (2001) with some

modifications. Briefly, a 96-well 0.45 µm PVDF filter plate (EMD Millipore, Billerica, MA)

was charged with 45 mg DEAE Sephadex A25 (GE Heathcare) and 300 µL of water per

well and equilibrated at room temp for 2 h. Prior to sample homogenization, the plate

was centrifuged at 400xg for 1 min to remove the water. The homogenate was extracted

with 500 µL 70% (v/v) aqueous methanol at 67.5°C for 10 min and centrifuged at

16,000xg for 2 min. Added to the supernatant was 3 µL of IS (1.25 mM sinigrin (Sigma-

Aldrich) in 80% (v/v) ethanol) per mg sample dry weight. Extract was applied to and

incubated on the ion exchanger for 10 min. The sephadex resin was washed three

times with 70% (v/v) methanol, three times with distilled deionized water (ddH$_2$O), and

two times with 20 mM sodium acetate (pH 5). 20µL of 25 mg/mL aryl sulfatase (Type H1

from *Helix pomatia*, Sigma-Aldrich) was applied to and incubated on the sephadex resin

at RT overnight (Hogge *et al.*, 1988). The plate was centrifuged at 400xg for 1 min, and

desulfoglucosinolates were eluted from the sephadex resin by two 100-µL washes with

60% (v/v) methanol and two 100-µL washes with ddH$_2$O. Eluate volume was reduced to

250-350 µL using an evaporator. Samples were separated using the gradient shown in

Supplementary Table 7**.** A coupled DAD-3000RS diode array detector, FLD-311

fluorescence detector (Dionex), and MSQPlus mass spectrometer collected UV

absorption spectra at 229-nm, fluorescence spectra at 275/350-nm (ex/em), and ESI

mass spectra in positive/negative ion modes at 100-1000 m/z, respectively.

Glucosinolates were quantified using integrated areas of desulfoglucosinolates in the

UV chromatographs at 229-nm and published response factors (Clarke, 2010).

Chromatin immunoprecipitation and (q)PCR. ChIP was performed as previously

described by Chezem et al. (2017) with some modifications. Approximately two-

hundred-and-ten 9-day-old seedlings were inoculated with *Pto* DC3000 *avrRpm1* to

OD_{600} of 0.013 and co-treated with mock solution of DMSO (M) or 20 μM

dexamethasone (D) for 9 hr. Following nuclear extraction, samples were sonicated in a

Covaris S2 sonicator (Covaris, Woburn, MA) using 10% duty, 7% intensity, 200 cycles

per burst for a total time of 11 min. Chromatin immunoprecipitation was performed using

Anti-FLAG M2 Affinity Gel (Sigma-Aldrich). Beads were pre-treated with 0.1% (w/v) non-

fat milk in 1X PBS and 0.5 mg/mL sheared salmon sperm DNA (Invitrogen). Following

de-crosslinking, DNA samples were phenol-chloroform-extracted, diluted to the same

OD_{260} concentration, and 1.5 μL was used in 15 μL PCR reaction. PCR analysis was

performed on nuclear extracts prior to antibody incubation (input) and after ChIP. PCR

conditions were as follows: 95°C for 3 min; 40 cycles of 95°C for 15 sec, 53°C for 15

sec, and 72°C for 1 min; 72°C for 5 min. Densitometric determination of signal intensity

in each ChIP and input sample was calculated using ImageJ. Fold enrichment was

determined by calculating the ratio of PCR product intensities in ChIP D/M to Input D/M.

In cases where amplicons were absent, an arbitrary value of 10 was assigned. For

EPL2, qPCR analysis was additionally performed to confirm absence of amplicons in

ChIP samples. RLU counts at the 25th cycle were used for quantification. Primer

sequences are listed in Supplementary Table 6**.**

Comparative genomics. All phylogenetic species trees were adapted from Koch and

Kiefer (2005) and Couvreur et al. (2009). To generate novel phylogenetic maximum

likelihood (ML) trees, sequences were aligned using MUSCLE in MEGA7 (Kumar *et al.*,

2016) and JTT model (for CYP82C and LINE alignments) or Tamura-Nei model (for the

EPCOT3 alignment). Sequences for all genes with the description "non-LTR

retrotransposon family (LINE)" (N=263) were batch-downloaded from TAIR

(https://arabidopsis.org). Of these, sequences containing intact reverse transcriptase

domains ("PGPDG", "LIPK", "FRPISL", or "FADD" sequences; N=126) were used for

subsequent phylogenetic analysis. Gaps were removed from the CYP82C alignment,

leaving a total of 480 codons. *EPCOT3* alignments were visualized in JalView

(http://www.jalview.org/; Waterhouse *et al.*, 2009). Information on genomes used for

synteny analysis is shown in Supplementary Table 8.

Selection estimates based on nonsynonymous-to-synonymous substitution ratios were

calculated from the CYP82C ML tree (Supplementary Text 1). A Newick tree file was

generated from this ML tree (Supplementary Figure 4b; Supplementary Table 2) and for

Branch site models, branches were pre-defined. CodeML analysis in PAML (Yang,

2007) was then conducted with the following modified parameters: ncatG = 8;

CodonFreq = 3. The M0 test was performed with model = 0 and NSsites = 0. The M1a

null test was performed with model = 0 and NSsites = 1. A more stringent null test (fixed

omega) was performed for each Branch site model to be tested (model = 2 and NSsites

= 2), where omega was fixed to 1. Branch site models were then tested with unfixed

omega. Likelihood ratio tests were performed by comparing critical values and degrees

of freedom between each unfixed Branch site test and either the M1a test or the

corresponding fixed-omega test. Pre-defined branches with P values less than 0.05 for

both tests were regarded as under positive selection (Supplementary Figure 2).

The protein structure of CYP82C2 was generated using Intensive modeling mode in

Phyre2 (http://www.sbg.bio.ic.ac.uk/phyre2/html/page.cgi?id=index; Kelley *et al.*, 2015)

and visualized in MacPyMOL (Schrödinger, LLC). Amino acid conservation was scored

using the Bayesian Best model in Consurf (http://consurf.tau.ac.il/2016/; Ashkenazy *et*

al., 2016).

Bioinformatics. Coexpression data was obtained from ATTED-ii (http://atted.jp/;

Obayashi et al., 2018). Mutual ranks less than 200 are indicative of strong co-

expression (Obayashi et al., 2018). Epigenetics data was obtained from Roudier et al.

(2011) and confirmed using data from Liu et al. (2018). Percent identity matrices were

constructed from Clustal Omega Multiple Sequence Alignments

(https://www.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/msa/clustalo/). Promoter alignment plots were generated

using mVISTA (http://genome.lbl.gov/vista/mvista/submit.shtml; Frazer et al., 2004)

Data and code availability

765 The authors declare that all data supporting the findings of this study are available

766 within the manuscript and the Supplementary Information or are available from the

767 corresponding authors upon request. Custom code to visualize homology models in

768 MacPyMOL and conduct statistics in R are also available upon request.

References

1001 Genomes Consortium. 1,135 genomes reveal the global pattern of polymorphism
in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. *Cell* **166**(2), 481-491 (2016).

Aoyama, T. & Chua, N.H. A glucocorticoid-mediated transcriptional induction system
in transgenic plants. *Plant J* **11**(3), 605–612 (1997).

Ashkenazy, H. *et al.* ConSurf 2016: an improved methodology to estimate and
visualize evolutionary conservation in macromolecules. *Nucleic Acids Res*
44(W1), W344-W350 (2016).

Bak 2001

Birkenbihl, R.P., Diezel, C., Somssich, I.E. Arabidopsis WRKY33 is a key transcriptional
regulator of hormonal and metabolic responses toward *Botrytis cinerea* infection.
Plant Physiol **159**(1), 266-285 (2012).

Birkenbihl, R.P., Kracher, B., Somssich, I.E. Induced Genome-Wide Binding of Three

Arabidopsis WRKY Transcription Factors during Early MAMP-Triggered Immunity.

Plant Cell **29**(1), 20-38 (2017).

Bisgrove, S.R., Simonich, M.T., Smith, N.M., Sattler, A., Innes, R.W. A disease

resistance gene in Arabidopsis with specificity for two different pathogen avirulence

genes. *Plant Cell* **6**(7), 927-933 (1994).

Bonn, S. *et al.* Tissue-specific analysis of chromatin state identifies temporal signatures

of enhancer activity during embryonic development. *Nat Genet* **44**(2), 148-156

(2012).

Bourque, G. Transposable elements in gene regulation and in the evolution of

vertebrate genomes. *Curr Opin Genet Dev* **19**(6), 607-612.

Böttcher, C. *et al.* The multifunctional enzyme CYP71B15 (PHYTOALEXIN

DEFICIENT3) converts cysteine-indole-3-acetonitrile to camalexin in the indole-3-

acetonitrile metabolic network of Arabidopsis thaliana. *Plant Cell* **21**(6), 1830-1845

(2009).

Cabrera, J.C., Messiaen, J., Cambier, P., Van Cutsem, P. Size, acetylation and

concentration of chitooligosaccharide elicitors determine the switch from defence

involving PAL activation to cell death and water peroxide production in Arabidopsis

cell suspensions. *Physiol Plant* **127**(1), 44-56 (2006).

Camara, M.D., Ancell, C.A., Pigliucci, M. Induced mutations: a novel tool to study

phenotypic integration and evolutionary constraints in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. *Evol*

Ecol Res 2(8), 1009-1029 (2000).

Chae, L., Kim, T., Nilo-Poyanco, R., Rhee, S.Y. Genomic signatures of specialized

metabolism in plants. *Science* **344**(6183), 510-513 (2014).

Chatfield, S.P. & Raizada, M.M. Ethylene and shoot regeneration: hookless1 modulates

de novo shoot organogenesis in *Arabidopsis thaliana. Plant Cell Rep* **27**(4), 655-666

(2008).

Chan, Y.F. *et al.* Adaptive evolution of pelvic reduction in sticklebacks by recurrent

deletion of a *Pitx1* enhancer. *Science* **237**(5963), 302-305 (2010).

Chuong, E.B., Elde, N.C., Feschotte, C. Regulatory evolution of innate immunity

through co-option of endogenous retroviruses. *Science* **351**(6277), 1083-1087

(2016).

Clarke, D.B. Glucosinolates, structures and analysis in food. *Anal Methods* **2**(4), 301-

416 (2010).

Clay, N.K., *et al.* Glucosinolate metabolites required for an Arabidopsis innate immune

response. *Science* **323**(5910), 95-101 (2009).

Clough, S.J. & Bent, A.F. Floral dip: a simplified method for Agrobacterium-mediated

transformation of *Arabidopsis thaliana. Plant J* **16**(6), 735-743 (1998).

Couto D., Stransfeld L., Arruabarrena A., Zipfel C., Lozano-Durán R. Broad

application of a simple and affordable protocol for isolating plant RNA. *BMC Res*

Notes **8**, 154 (2015).

Couvreur, T.L.P. *et al.* Molecular phylogenetics, temporal diversification, and

principles of evolution in the mustard family (Brassicaceae) *Mol Biol Evol* **27**(1),

55-71 (2009).

de Souza, F.S.J., Franchini, L.F., Rubinstein, M. Exaptation of transposable elements

into novel cis-regulatory elements: is the evidence always strong? *Mol Biol Evol*

30(6), 1239-1251 (2013).

Debener T., Lehnackers H., Arnold M., Dangl J.L. Identification and molecular mapping

of a single Arabidopsis thaliana locus determining resistance to a phytopathogenic

Pseudomonas syringae isolate. *Plant J* **1**(3), 289-302 (1991).

Dixon, R.A. & Strack. D. Phytochemistry meets genome analysis and beyond.

Phytochemistry **62**(6), 815-816 (2003).

Denoux, C. *et al.* Activation of defense response pathways by OGs and Flg22 elicitors

in Arabidopsis seedlings. *Mol Plant* **1(**3), 423-445 (2008).

Feschotte, C. Transposable elements and the evolution of regulatory networks. *Nat Rev*

Genet **9**(5), 397-405 (2008).

Felix G., Duran J.D., Volko S., Boller T. Plants have a sensitive perception system for

the most conserved domain of bacterial flagellin. *Plant J* **18**(3),265-276 (1999).

Force, A.M. *et al.* Preservation of duplicate genes by complementary, degenerative

mutations. *Genet* **151**(4), 1531-1545 (1999).

Frazer, K.A. *et al.* VISTA: computational tools for comparative genomics. *Nucleic*

Acids Res **32**(Web Server issue), W273-W279 (2004).

Glawischnig, E., Hansen, B.G., Olsen, C.E., Halkier, B.A. Camalexin is synthesized

from indole-3-acetaldoxime, a key branching point between primary and secondary

metabolism in *Arabidopsis. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* **101**(21), 8245-8250 (2004).

Grotewold, E. Plant metabolic diversity: a regulatory perspective. *Trends Plant Sci*

10(2), 57-62 (2005).

Hammerschmidt, R. PHYTOALEXINS: What have we learned after 60 years? *Annu Rev*

Phytopathol **37**, 285-306 (1999).

Hardtke, C.S., Müller, J., Berleth, T. Genetic similarity among *Arabidopsis thaliana*

ecotypes estimated by DNA sequence comparison. *Plant Mol Biol* 32(5), 915-922

(1996).

Hartmann, T. From waste products to ecochemicals: fifty years research of plant

secondary metabolism. *Phytochemistry* **68**(22-24), 2831-2846 (2007).

Heintzman, N.D. *et al.* (2007) Distinct and predictive chromatin signatures of

transcriptional promoters and enhancers in the human genome. *Nat Genet* **39**(3),

311-318 (2007).

Hénaff, E., Vives, C., Desvoyes, B., Chaurasia, A., Payet, J., Gutierrez, C.,

Casacuberta, J.M. Extensive amplification of the E2F transcription factor binding

sites by transposons during evolution of Brassica species. *Plant J* **77**(6), 852-862

(2014).

Hoffman, B.G. et al. Locus co-occupancy, nucleosome positioning, and H3K4me1

regulate the functionality of FOXA2-, HNF4A-, and PDX1-bound loci in islets and

liver. *Genome Res* **20**(8), 1037-1061 (2010).

Hogge, L.R., Reed, D.W., Underhill, E.W., Haughn, G.W. HPLC separation of

glucosinolates from leaves and seeds of *Arabidopsis thaliana* and their

identification using thermospray liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry. *J*

Chromatogr Sci **26**, 551-556 (1988).

Hohmann, N., Wolf, E.M., Lysak, M.A., Koch, M.A. A time-calibrated road map of
Brassicaceae species radiation and evolutionary history. *Plant Cell* **27**(10), 2770-2784 (2015).

Hu, T.T. et al. The *Arabidopsis lyrata* genome sequence and the basis of rapid genome size change. *Nat Genet* **43**(5), 476-481 (2011).

Hugouvieux, V., Barber, C.E., Daniels, M.M. Entry of *Xanthomonas campestris* pv. *campestris* into hydathodes of *Arabidopsis thaliana* leaves: a system for studying early infection events in bacterial pathogenesis. *Mol Plant-Microbe Interact* **11**(6), 537-543 (1998).

Hull, A.K., Vij, R., Celenza, J.L. *Arabidopsis* cytochrome P450s that catalyze the first step of tryptophan-dependent indole-3-acetic acid biosynthesis. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* **97**(5), 2379-2384 (2000).

Jefferson, R.A., Kavanagh, T.A., Bevan, M.W. GUS fusions: beta-glucuronidase as a sensitive and versatile gene fusion marker in higher plants. *EMBO J.* **6**, 3901-3907 (1987).

Jones, J.D.G. & Dangl, J.L. The plant immune system. *Nature* **444**(7117), 323-329 (2006).

Kagan, I.A. & Hammerschmidt, R. Arabidopsis ecotype variability in camalexin production and reaction to infection by *Alternaria brassicicola*. *J Chem Ecol* **28**(11), 2121-2140 (2002).

Kelley, L.A. *et al.* The Phyre2 web portal for protein modeling, prediction and

analysis. *Nat Protoc* **10**(6), 845-858 (2015).

Klein, A.P., Anarat-Cappillino, G., Sattely, E.S. Minimum set of cytochromes P450 for

reconstituting the biosynthesis of camalexin, a major Arabidopsis antibiotic. *Angew*

Chem Int Ed Engl **52**(51), 13625-13628 (2013).

Kliebenstein, D.J. *et al.* Genetic control of natural variation in Arabidopsis

glucosinolate accumulation. *Plant Physiol* **126**(2), 811-825 (2001).

Koch, M.A. & Kiefer, M. Genome evolution among cruciferous plants: a lecture from

the comparison of the genetic maps of three diploid species—*Capsella rubella,*

Arabidopsis lyrata subsp. *petraea,* and *A. thaliana. Am J Bot* **92**(4), 761-767

(2005).

Kover, P.X. & Schaal, B.A. Genetic variation for disease resistance and tolerance

among Arabidopsis thaliana accessions. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* **99**(17), 11270-

11274 (2002).

Kruse, T. *et al.* In planta biocatalysis screen of P450s identifies 8-methoxypsoralen as a

substrate for the CYP82C subfamily yielding original chemical structures. *Chem Biol*

15(2), 149-156 (2008).

Kumar, S., Stecher, G., Tamura, K. MEGA7: molecular evolutionary genetics

analysis version 7.0 for bigger datasets. *Mol Biol Evol* **33**(7), 1870-1874 (2016).

Levine, M. & Davidson, E.H. Gene regulatory networks for development. *Proc Natl Acad*

Sci USA **102**(14), 4936-4942 (2005).

Li, G. et al. Dual-level regulation of ACC synthase activity by MPK3/MPK6 cascade and

its downstream WRKY transcription factor during ethylene induction in Arabidopsis.

PLoS Genet **8**(6), e1002767 (2012).

Liu, S. *et al.* Negative regulation of ABA signaling by WRKY33 is critical for Arabidopsis

immunity towards *Botrytis cinerea* 2100. *eLife* **4**, e07295 (2015).

Liu, Y. *et al.* PCSD: a plant chromatin state database. *Nucleic Acids Res* **46**(D1),

D1157-D1167 (2018).

Luan, D.D., Korman, M.H., Jakubczak, J.L., Eickbush, T.H. Reverse transcription of

R2Bm RNA is primed by a nick at the chromosomal target site: a mechanism for

non-LTR retrotransposition. *Cell* **72**(4), 595-605 (1993).

Lynch, M. The lower bound to the evolution of mutation rates. *Genome Biol Evol* 3,

1107-1118 (2011).

Malik, H.S., Burke, W.D., Eickbush, T.H. The age and evolution of non-LTR

retrotransposable elements. *Mol Biol Evol* **16**(6), 793-805 (1999).

Mansfield, J.W. Antimicrobial compounds and resistance: the role of phytoalexins and

phytoanticipins. In Mechanisms of Resistance to Plant Diseases, A. Slusarenko,

RSS Fraser and LC. van Loon eds (Kluwer Academic Publishers Dordrecht, The

Netherlands), pp. 325-370 (2000).

Martin, C., Ellis, N., Rook, F. Do transcription factors play special roles in adaptive

variation? *Plant Physiol* **154**(2), 506-511 (2010).

McClintock, B. Controlling elements and the gene. *Cold Spring Harb Symp Quant Biol*

21, 197-216 (1956).

McNellis, T.W. *et al.* Glucocorticoid-inducible expression of a bacterial avirulence

gene in transgenic Arabidopsis induces hypersensitive cell death. *Plant J* **14**(2),

247-257 (1998).

Mikkelsen, M.D., Hansen, C.H., Wittstock, U., Halkier, B.A. Cytochrome P450 CYP79B2

from *Arabidopsis* catalyzes the conversion of tryptophan to indole-3-acetaldoxime, a

precursor of indole glucosinolates and indole-3-acetic acid. *J Biol Chem* **275**(43),

33712-33717 (2000).

Moore, R.C. & Purugganan, M.D. The evolutionary dynamics of plant duplicate genes.

Curr Opin Plant Biol **8**(2), 122-128 (2005).

Mukherjee, A.K., Lev, S., Gepstein, S., Horwitz, B.B. A compatible interaction of

Alternaria brassicicola with *Arabidopsis thaliana* ecotype DiG: evidence for a specific

transcriptional signature. *BMC Plant Biol* **9**(1), 31 (2009).

Müller, A.A. Die Induktion von rezessiven Letalmutationen durch Äthylmethansulfonat

beiArabidopsis. *Theor Appl Genet* **36**(5), 201-220 (1966).

Murashige, T. & Skoog, F. A revised medium for rapid growth and bio assays with

tobacco tissue cultures. *Physiol Plant* **15**(3), 473–497 (1962).

Murgia, I., Tarantino, D., Soave, C., Morandini, P. Arabidopsis *CYP82C4* expression is

dependent on Fe availability and circadian rhythm, and correlates with genes

involved in the early Fe deficiency response. *J Plant Physiol* **168**(9), 894-902 (2011).

Nafisi, M. *et al.* Arabidopsis cytochrome P450 monooxygenase 71A13 catalyzes the

conversion of indole-3-acetaldoxime in camalexin synthesis. *Plant Cell* **19**(6), 2039-

2052 (2007).

Navarro, L. *et al.* The transcriptional innate immune response to flg22. Interplay and

overlap with Avr gene-dependent defense responses and bacterial pathogenesis.

Plant Physiol **135**(2), 1113-1128 (2004).

Obayashi, T. *et al.* ATTED-II in 2018: A plant coexpression database based on

investigation of statistical property of Mutual Rank Index. *Plant Cell Physiol* **59**(1),

e3 (2018).

Ohno, S. Evolution by Gene Duplication. Springer-Verlag: Heidelberg, Germany (1970).

Omranian, N. et al. Differential metabolic and coexpression networks of plant

metabolism. *Trends Plant Sci* **20**(5), 266-268 (2015).

Oñate-Sánchez L. & Vicente-Carbajosa J. DNA-free RNA isolation protocols for

Arabidopsis thaliana, including seeds and siliques. *BMC Res Notes* **1**, 93 (2008).

Pfaffl, M.W. A new mathematical model for relative quantification in real-time RT-

PCR. *Nucleic Acids Res* **29**(9), e45 (2001).

Povero, G. *et al.* Transcript profiling of chitosan-treated Arabidopsis seedlings. *J Plant*

Res **124**(5), 619-629 (2011).

Prud'homme, B., Gompel, N., Carroll, S.B. Emerging principles of regulatory evolution.

Proc Natl Acad Sci USA **104**(Suppl 1), 8605-8612 (2007).

Qiu, J.L. *et al.* Arabidopsis MAP kinase 4 regulates gene expression through

transcription factor release in the nucleus. *EMBO J* **27(**16), 2214-2221 (2008).

Rajniak, J., Barco, B., Clay, N.K., Sattely, E.S. A new cyanogenic metabolite in

Arabidopsis required for inducible pathogen defence. *Nature* **525**(7569), 376-379

(2015).

Rajniak, J. *et al.* Biosynthesis of redox-active metabolites in response to iron deficiency

in plants. *Nat Chem Biol* **14**(5), 442-450 (2018).

Rédei, G.P. Single locus heterosis. *Zeitschrift für Vererbungslehre* **93**(1), 164-170

(1962).

Rédei, G.P. & Koncz, C. Classical mutagenesis. In Methods in Arabidopsis Research,

pp. 16-82 (1993).

Rinerson, C.I. *et al.* The evolution of WRKY transcription factors. *BMC Plant Biol* **15**, 66

(2015).

Rogers, W.A., *et al.* Recurrent modification of a conserved *cis*-regulatory element

underlies fruit fly pigmentation diversity. *PLoS Genet* **9**(8), e1003740 (2013).

Roudier, F. *et al.* Integrative epigenomic mapping defines four main chromatin states in

Arabidopsis. *EMBO J* **30**(10), 1928-1938 (2011).

Rushton, P.J., Somssich, I.E., Ringler, P., Shen, Q.J. WRKY transcription factors.

Trends Plant Sci **15**(5), 247-258 (2010).

Schluttenhofer, C. &, Yuan, L. (2015) Regulation of specialized metabolism by WRKY

transcription factors. *Plant Physiol* **167**(2), 295-306 (2015).

Sheen J. A transient expression assay using *Arabidopsis* mesophyll protoplasts.

http://genetics.mgh.harvard.edu/sheenweb/ (2002).

Slattery, M. *et al.* Absence of a simple code: how transcription factors read the genome.

Trends Biochem Sci **39**(9), 381-399 (2014).

Slotkin, R. K, & Martienssen, R. Transposable elements and the epigenetic regulation of

the genome. *Nat Rev Genet* **8**(4), 272 (2007).

Spitz, F. & Furlong, E.E. Transcription factors: from enhancer binding to developmental

control. *Nat Rev Genet* **13**(9), 613-626 (2012).

Tao, Y. *et al.* Quantitative nature of Arabidopsis responses during compatible and

incompatible interactions with the bacterial pathogen *Pseudomonas syringae*. *Plant*

Cell **15**(2), 317-330 (2003).

Thomma, B.P., Nelissen, I., Eggermont, K., Broekaert, W.F. Deficiency in phytoalexin

production causes enhanced susceptibility of *Arabidopsis thaliana* to the fungus

Alternaria brassicicola. Plant J **19**(2), 163-171 (1999).

Tohge, T. & Fernie, A.R. Co-expression and co-responses: within and beyond

transcription. *Front Plant Sci* **3**, 248 (2012).

Tsuji, J. et al. (1992) Phytoalexin accumulation in *Arabidopsis thaliana* during the

hypersensitive reaction to *Pseudomonas syringae* pv *syringae. Plant Physiol* **98**(4),

1304-1309 (1992).

Wang, Y., Li, X., Hu, H. H3K4me2 reliably defines transcription factor binding regions in

different cells. *Genomics* **103**(2), 222-228 (2014).

Waterhouse, A.M. *et al.* Jalview Version 2—a multiple sequence alignment editor

and analysis workbench. *Bioinformatics* **25**(9), 1189-1191 (2009).

Weng, J.K., Philippe, R.N., Noel, J.P. (2012) The rise of chemodiversity in plants.

Science **336**(6089), 1667-1670 (2012).

Wicker, T. *et al.* A unified classification system for eukaryotic transposable elements.

Nat Rev Genet **8**(12), 973-982 (2007).

Wink, M. Evolution of secondary metabolites from an ecological and molecular

phylogenetic perspective. *Phytochemistry* **64**(1), 3-19 (2003).

Wittkopp, P.J. & Kalay, G. *Cis*-regulatory elements: molecular mechanisms and

evolutionary processes underlying divergence. *Nat Rev Genet* **13**(1), 59-69 (2012).

Wray, G.A. The evolutionary significance of *cis*-regulatory mutations. *Nat Rev Genet*

8(3), 206-216 (2007).

Zheng, Z., Qamar, S.A., Chen, Z., Mengiste, T. (2006) Arabidopsis WRKY33

transcription factor is required for resistance to necrotrophic fungal pathogens. *Plant*

J **48** (4), 592-605 (2006).

Zhou, J., Wang, J., Zheng, Z., Fan, B., Yu, J. Q., Chen, Z. Characterization of the

promoter and extended C-terminal domain of Arabidopsis WRKY33 and functional

analysis of tomato WRKY33 homologues in plant stress responses. *J Exp Bot*

66(15), 4567-4583 (2015).

Zipfel, C., Kunze, G., Chinchilla, D., Caniard, A., Jones, J. D., Boller, T., & Felix, G.

Perception of the bacterial PAMP EF-Tu by the receptor EFR restricts

Agrobacterium-mediated transformation. *Cell* **125**(4), 749-760 (2006).

1037

1038 **Acknowledgements**

1039 We thank J.L. Celenza for the *cyp79B2 cyp79B3* mutant. We thank E.S. Sattely for

1040 ICN/ICN-ME, 4OH-ICA/4OH-ICA-ME and camalexin standards. This work was

1041 supported by T32-GM007499 (to B.B.) and Elsevier/Phytochemistry Young Investigator

1042 Award (to N.K.C.).

1043

Author Contributions

1045   B.B. and N.K.C. performed pathogen assays and ChIP-PCR experiments. N.K.C.

1046   performed RT-PCR experiments. B.B. and Y.K. profiled accessions and species. B.B.

1047   performed all other experiments. B.B. and N.K.C. interpreted the results and wrote the

1048   paper.

1049

Competing Interests

1051   The authors declare no competing interests.

1052

Materials & Correspondence

1054   Correspondence and material requests can be addressed to Brenden Barco.