Cell-wall damage activates DOF transcription factors to promote wound healing and tissue regeneration in *Arabidopsis thaliana*

**Highlights**

- Four DOF transcription factors are rapidly activated at wounding and grafting sites.
- Damage to or modifications of the cellulose and pectin matrix activate DOFs.
- DOFs regulate callus formation, tissue adhesion, and vascular regeneration at wounds.
- Wound-associated *ERF115* and *ANAC096* are also activated upon cell-wall damage.

**Authors**

Ai Zhang, Keita Matsuoka, Abdul Kareem, ..., Cătălin Voiniciuc, Masashi Asahina, Charles W. Melnyk

**Correspondence**

charles.melnyk@slu.se

**In brief**

Plants require an efficient regeneration system to heal wounds. Zhang et al. identify four DOF transcription factors that are rapidly activated at sites of wounding, graft formation, or tissue cutting. These DOFs are activated by cell-wall damage and auxin to promote tissue regeneration and wound healing.

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Cell-wall damage activates DOF transcription factors to promote wound healing and tissue regeneration in Arabidopsis thaliana

Ai Zhang,1 Keita Matsuoka,2 Abdul Kareem,1 Madalen Robert,3 Pawel Roszak,4 Bernhard Blob,4 Anchal Bisht,5,6 Lieven De Veylder,5,6 Cătălin Voiniciuc,5,7 Masashi Asahina,2,8 and Charles W. Melnyk1,9,10,*

1Department of Plant Biology, Linnean Center for Plant Biology, Swedish University of Agricultural Sciences, Almas allé 5, 756 51, Uppsala, Sweden
2Department of Biosciences, Teikyo University, 1-1 Toyosatodai, Utsunomiya 320-8551, Japan
3Independent Junior Research Group – Designer Glycans, Leibniz Institute of Plant Biochemistry, 06120 Halle (Saale), Germany
4The Sainsbury Laboratory, University of Cambridge, Cambridge CB2 1LR, UK
5Department of Plant Biotechnology and Bioinformatics, Ghent University, 9052 Ghent, Belgium
6Center for Plant Systems Biology, VIB, 9052 Ghent, Belgium
7Horticultural Sciences Department, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL 32611, USA
8Advanced Instrumental Analysis Center, Teikyo University, 1-1 Toyosatodai, Utsunomiya 320-8551, Japan
9Twitter: @CharlesMelnyk
10Lead contact
*Correspondence: charles.melnyk@slu.se
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2022.02.069

SUMMARY

Wound healing is a fundamental property of plants and animals that requires recognition of cellular damage to initiate regeneration. In plants, wounding activates a defense response via the production of jasmonic acid and a regeneration response via the hormone auxin and several ethylene response factor (ERF) and NAC domain-containing protein (ANAC) transcription factors. To better understand how plants recognize damage and initiate healing, we searched for factors upregulated during the horticulturally relevant process of plant grafting and found four related DNA binding with one finger (DOF) transcription factors, HIGH CAMBIAL ACTIVITY2 (HCA2), TARGET OF MONOPTEROS6 (TMO6), DOF2.1, and DOF6, whose expression rapidly activated at the Arabidopsis graft junction. Grafting or wounding a quadruple hca2, tmo6, dof2.1, dof6 mutant inhibited vascular and cell-wall-related gene expression. Furthermore, the quadruple dof mutant reduced callus formation, tissue attachment, vascular regeneration, and pectin methylesterification in response to wounding. We also found that activation of DOF gene expression after wounding required auxin, but hormone treatment alone was insufficient for their induction. However, modifying cell walls by enzymatic digestion of cellulose or pectin greatly enhanced TMO6 and HCA2 expression, whereas genetic modifications to the pectin or cellulose matrix using the PECTIN METHYLESTERASE INHIBITORS5 overexpression line or korrigan1 mutant altered TMO6 and HCA2 expression. Changes to the cellulose or pectin matrix were also sufficient to activate the wound-associated ERF115 and ANAC096 transcription factors, suggesting that cell-wall damage represents a common mechanism for wound perception and the promotion of tissue regeneration.

INTRODUCTION

Plants are commonly damaged, wounded, or fed upon, and they need to detect these injuries to initiate a successful repair response. Some of the earliest responses to wounding include changes in reactive oxygen species levels, calcium levels, turgor pressure, cell-wall integrity, hormones, and gene expression.1–7 However, a common theme is that wounding induces a defense response to deter future damage, followed by a regeneration response to heal the wound and regrow tissues.8 Such a system is exemplified during cutting or insect feeding when jasmonic acid levels increase within several minutes of wounding to active defense responses and suppress growth.9 Continuous jasmonic acid treatment is inhibitory to regeneration, yet short jasmonic acid treatments increase synthesis of the hormone auxin via the transcription factor ETHYLENE RESPONSE FACTOR109 (ERF109) to allow successful regeneration of de novo roots.10 At the wound site, auxin accumulates by both local biosynthesis and long-distance apical transport, where it activates cell division and cell differentiation.6,10–12 Auxin accumulation upregulates several transcription factors, including NAC DOMAIN-CONTAINING PROTEIN71 (ANAC071) and ANAC096, that promote cell divisions and cell-wall remodeling.11,13–15 Several other transcription factors are also upregulated by wounding, including ERF115 that normally regulates cell divisions in the quiescent center (QC) but whose expression expands to the site of wounding after cellular damage from bleomycin, cutting, or cell ablation.12,16 ERF115 expression also increases when
plants are treated with H$_2$O$_2$, brassinosteroids, auxin, or jasmonic acid, suggesting that multiple hormones and signals regulate wound response.\textsuperscript{16–18} Blocking ERF and ANAC function impairs regeneration; for instance, dominant-negative ERF115-SRDX seedlings display impaired root tip regeneration, whereas dominant-negative ANAC071-SRDX and ERF113-SRDX plants fail to heal stem cuts.\textsuperscript{11,19}

Wound responses include changes to cell-wall structure and recognition of cell-wall damage. Wounding typically induces anisotropic cell growth to fill the wound, and this directional growth results from modifications to pectin biochemistry and cellulose orientation.\textsuperscript{23–25} Cell swelling characteristic of wounding is also found in mutants and isoxaben-treated plants that are cellulose deficient.\textsuperscript{23,24} However, to date, the role of cell-wall damage has primarily been associated with defense responses. Cell-wall breakdown products, such as oligogalacturonides and cellodextrins derived from wounded tissues or pathogen attack, suppress growth and trigger defense responses.\textsuperscript{25,26} Levels of the defense hormone jasmonic acid increase upon isoxaben treatment and in the cellulose-deficient korrigan1 (kor1) mutant.\textsuperscript{4,27} Since jasmonic acid signaling in wounded tissues is reduced by sorbitol or mannitol treatment,\textsuperscript{27} turgor pressure is thought to also play a role in wound perception. The role of cell-wall damage upon regeneration is poorly understood, but here, too, cell-wall modifications likely play a role, since mannitol treatment inhibits ERF115 induction,\textsuperscript{7} whereas modifying pectins via PECTIN METHYLESTERASE INHIBITOR5 overexpression increases auxin responses in hypocotyls.\textsuperscript{28}

Recently, a role for auxin and cell-wall modifications was reported during the process of grafting when two plants are cut and joined together.\textsuperscript{30} Successful grafting requires the formation of callus, an undifferentiated stem-cell-like tissue, to attach the tissues followed by vascular differentiation to reform phloem and xylem connections.\textsuperscript{30,31} Adding auxin or cellulase promoted graft attachment that could be enhanced further when both chemicals were added.\textsuperscript{31} Thousands of genes are induced during grafting, including those associated with auxin signaling and cell-wall biogenesis.\textsuperscript{32} Auxin also plays an important role since auxin responses increase at the graft junction, and mutants in auxin signaling block graft junction healing.\textsuperscript{33} Although cell-wall dynamics during graft healing remain largely uncharacterized, it is known that pectins are deposited at the graft junction, and induction of the GH9B3 putative cellulase is important to graft Nicotiana with distantly related species.\textsuperscript{30,32} Auxin is likely involved in early wound recognition, and some of the earliest genes activated during graft formation include several DNA binding with one finger (DOF) transcription factors of which at least one, HIGH CAMBIAL ACTIVITY2 (HCA2), is auxin inducible and modifies graft healing.\textsuperscript{31} Other DOFs have also been implicated in regeneration since DOF5.4/OBP4 promotes callus formation.\textsuperscript{33} However, how these early-acting transcription factors are activated and the mechanistic details for how auxin and cell walls activate regeneration remains unclear.

Here, we build upon our previous observations regarding auxin signaling and early grafting transcriptional responses to explore the biological relevance of these genes and the processes that regulate them. We identify a group of four DOF transcription factors and propose that cell-wall modifications activate these wound response regulators to promote tissue regeneration.

**RESULTS**

Four DOFs are important for grafting and wound response

Our previous work revealed that two DOF transcription factors, HCA2 and TARGET OF MONOPTEROS6 (TMO6), were activated early during graft formation and one, HCA2, contributed to healing.\textsuperscript{31} We investigated the graft transcriptome further and found that multiple DOF transcription factors were differentially expressed by wounding, including the PEAR1, PEAR2, OBP1, and OBP4 genes associated with procambium formation or cell cycle (Figures S1A and S1B).\textsuperscript{33–35} However, four DOF genes were exceptional since HCA2, TMO6, DOF2.1, and DOF6 were induced within 6 h of wounding and formed their own sub-clade in a phylogenetic tree (Figures S1A and S1C), suggesting that these related proteins might share a common function. Transcriptional reporters confirmed that all four genes were activated at the graft junction within 12 h of grafting (Figures 1A–1D). Their expression increased in the vascular tissues and, for TMO6 and HCA2, also spread into outer cell layers (Figures 1E, 1F, S1D, and S1E). To better understand the function of these related DOFs, we tested loss-of-function mutants but found no effects on phloem reconnection at the graft junction with single, double, or triple mutants (Figure S1F). However, grafting with the quadruple mutant, hca2, tmo6-4, dof2.1-1, dof6-1, which we termed the dofQ mutant, reduced tissue attachment, phloem reconnection, xylem reconnection, and root growth after grafting (Figures 1G–1I and S1G). Mutating these genes either above or below the graft junction inhibited phloem reconnection, though inhibition was strongest when HCA2, TMO6, DOF2.1, and DOF6 were mutated in both locations (Figure S1H). Overexpression of HCA2, TMO6, DOF2.1, or DOF6 below the graft junction accelerated the rate of phloem reconnection (Figures S1I and S1J), demonstrating that DOF levels could modulate the healing response. Grafting encompasses several aspects of wound healing, including tissue attachment, callus formation, and vascular regeneration.\textsuperscript{30} To look at these individual processes, we used confocal laser ablation to kill cells in the hypocotyl or root vascular tissue and found a strong upregulation of TMO6, HCA2, DOF2.1, and DOF6 fluorescent reporters in the vascular tissues surrounding the wound (Figure 2A; Video S1). TMO6pro:erRFP and HCA2pro:erRFP showed expanded fluorescence into the endodermis and cortex, similar to what we observed at the graft junction (Figures 1E, S1D, and 2A). Ablating cells in the cortex region also caused TMO6 and HCA2 upregulation at the site of wounding and in the surrounding cells (Figure 2B). We also looked at the effect resulting from inflorescence cutting or hypocotyl pinching with forceps and found DOF upregulation during both processes (Figures S2A–S2C). This DOF induction appeared relevant, since the dofQ mutant showed impaired wound healing after inflorescence cutting (Figure 2C). The dofQ mutant also reduced callus formation in cut petioles or cut hypocotyls, whereas overexpressing TMO6 increased callus formation in both tissues (Figures 2D and S2D–S2F). Notably, the dofQ mutant exhibited no substantial changes in plant morphology or primary root development (Figures S2G–S2J). Together, these results suggested that the DOF genes were induced early after wounding and played an important role in wound healing and graft regeneration.
DOFs modify cell-wall composition and are induced by changes to pectin and cellulose

To understand how TMO6, HCA2, DOF2.1, and DOF6 affected graft healing, we performed a transcriptome analysis of the dofQ mutant. Genome-wide transcript levels were measured above and below the graft junction 24 h after grafting and also in intact (uncut) hypocotyls. We identified several hundred genes that showed differential expression in the dofQ mutant compared with wild type during graft healing (Figures 3A and S3A; Data S1). Cambium-related (e.g., RUL1 and ARF5) and phloem-related (e.g., BAM3 and CLERK) genes had a lower induction in dofQ (Figures 3B, 3C, and S3B). A large number of cell-wall-related

Figure 1. DOFs are required for successful graft formation

(A–D) TMO6pro:erRFP, HCA2pro:erRFP, DOF2.1pro:GUS-GFP, and DOF6pro:erVENUS are upregulated 12–48 h after grafting (HAG). The gap or dashed line indicates the graft junction. Scale bar, 100 μm.

(E and F) Transverse hand sections from intact and grafted TMO6pro:erRFP and DOF2.1pro:GUS-GFP at 48 HAG. Scale bar, 50 μm.

(G) Attachment rates of wild type and the dofQ mutant 1–10 days after grafting. The mean ± SEM from five experiments with 12–16 plants per time point per experiment is shown.

(H) Phloem reconnection of wild type and the dofQ mutant 1–10 days after grafting. The mean ± SEM from five experiments with 12–16 plants per time point per experiment is shown.

(I) Xylem reconnection of wild type and the dofQ mutant 2–10 days after grafting. The mean ± SEM from three experiments with 15–16 plants per time point per experiment is shown.

See also Figure S1.
genes were not induced as highly in the dofQ mutant compared with wild type, particularly in the grafted rootstock (Figure 3D; Table S1). **CELLULASE3** (**CEL3/GH9B3**), previously implicated in inter-species graft formation, was one such gene and could be a direct target of the DOFs, since TMO6 bound the **CEL3** promoter based on ChIP qPCR (Figures 3C and S3C). Grafting with a **cel3-2** mutant delayed phloem and xylem reconnection rates (Figures S3D and S3E). Other cell-wall-related genes, including members of the pectin methyl esterase (**PME**) family, were upregulated, since we found that six **PMEs** were increased in the **dofQ** rootstock compared with wild type after grafting (Figure S3F). To evaluate how the cell walls of **dofQ** seedlings were impacted, analyses of cell-wall polysaccharides revealed reduced levels of rhamnose, increased levels of arabinose, and a slightly higher degree of methylesterification (**DM**) for pectins compared with wild type (Figures 3E, 3F, and S3G). Consistent with these biochemical changes, ruthenium red staining of low **DM** pectins showed reduced intensity for **dofQ** mutant roots compared with wild type (Figure S3H). After wounding, the cell-wall composition of wild-type seedlings contained multiple changes, including decreased D-galacturonic acid (**GalA**), increased pectin **DM**, and a slight, but not statistically significant, increase in crystalline cellulose content (Figures 3E, 3F, S3G, and S3I). However, unlike the wild type, wounding of the **dofQ** mutant increased its **GalA** content but did not alter its pectin **DM** (Figures 3E and 3F). Furthermore, **dofQ** seedlings were hypersensitive to pectinase or cellulase treatments when these wall-degrading enzymes were included in the growth media (Figure S3J). Together, these data indicate that the **dofQ** mutant was perturbed in its cell-wall composition and that **DOF** genes were required for wound-induced pectin modifications.

Our previous results using cut and separated hypocotyls showed that **HCA2** was activated above the cut but not below it. We confirmed this observation for **HCA2** and found that **TMO6** behaved similarly (Figures 4A and S1A) and reasoned that such asymmetry would allow us to investigate signals that activate **DOFs**. Plant wounding is known to induce cell-wall damage, therefore, we investigated whether cell-wall changes affected **DOF** expression. Cut hypocotyls treated with Driselase, an enzymatic cocktail that degrades a wide range of plant wall polysaccharides, activated **TMO6pro:erRFP** expression above and below the cut in separated hypocotyls and activated **HCA2pro:erRFP** expression in cut tissue, but not intact tissues, suggesting that pectin or cellulose degradation enhanced **DOF** expression (Figures 4A and S4B–S4F). Treatments with salicylic acid or jasmonic acid, two stress-associated hormones, have no effect upon **TMO6 induction** (Figures S4A and S4B). To investigate this phenomenon...
genetically, we used two genotypes perturbed in cell wall composition. The PME15 overexpression line 35Spro:PMEI5 (PMEI5oe) has increased pectin DM, reduced cell expansion, and increased cell stiffness in the hypocotyl, whereas the korrigan1 mutant impairs cellulose biosynthesis and has increased cell expansion. The PMEI5oe line increased TMO6 and HCA2 transcript levels in intact and wounded plants, accompanied by enhanced phloem reconnection rates (Figures 4B and 4C). Introducing the negative repressor HCA2-SRDX into the PME15oe background reduced the enhanced phloem reconnection of PME15oe (Figure S4G). Consistent with HCA2 acting downstream of PMEIs, the overexpression line hca2-2OE in the PME15oe background grafted similar to PME15oe or hca2-2OE alone (Figure S4H). On the other hand, the kor1 mutant decreased TM60, HCA2, and DOF2.1 transcript levels in wounded hypocotyls and reduced xylem reconnection rates (Figures 4D, 4E, S4I, and S4J). However, kor1 did not seem to significantly impact phloem reconnection (Figure S4K). Mannitol treatments have been previously shown to reduce turgor pressure and wound response, and we also observed a reduction in DOF activation upon mannitol treatment, but this effect could be rescued by Driselase treatment.
Auxin contributes to DOF activation

Auxin plays an important role in wound healing, and previously, we found that exogenous auxin induced HCA2 in cut hypocotyls.31 We confirmed this finding and also found that exogenous auxin (NAA) activated TMO6pro:erRFP in cut hypocotyls (Figures 5A, 5B, and S5A–S5D). In untreated plants, activation of HCA2 and TMO6 was much stronger above the cut than below the cut when plants were left separated (Figures 5A and S5A), suggesting a mobile substance, such as sugar or auxin, could be responsible for the asymmetric expression pattern of HCA2 and TMO6. Exogenous sugar treatment had no effect on DOF induction, but blocking auxin transport with NPA or blocking auxin receptors with auxinole greatly reduced TMO6pro:erRFP and HCA2pro:erRFP expression at the cut site (Figures 5A, 5B, and S5A–S5E), suggesting that shoot-derived auxin was necessary for TMO6 and HCA2 induction. We investigated the genetic requirements for auxin by testing various auxin-related mutants for changes in DOF levels. Most had little effect; however, the expression of TMO6, HCA2, and DOF2.1 was inhibited in the iaa18-1 dominant mutant that blocks auxin signaling42 and inhibits graft formation,21 suggesting that auxin signaling is required for their transcriptional activation (Figures 5C and S5G–S5I). Overexpressing TMO6 or HCA2 in the iaa18-1 mutant background partially rescued phloem reconnection at the graft junction rootstock in SUC2pro:GFP assays (Figure 5D), suggesting that enhanced DOF expression could compensate for a lack of auxin signaling. HCA2 and TMO6 have not been previously described as auxin responsive,36,41,43 and treating intact TMO6pro:erRFP and HCA2pro:erRFP plants with auxin did not change fluorescence levels (Figure S5F), indicating that wounding was required for auxin enhancement. We therefore investigated whether cell-wall damage might be a wound signal that contributes to auxin-induced DOF activation. We combined chemical treatments but found that adding auxin to cellulase or pectinase was not additive for TMO6pro:erRFP intensity (Figures 5A, 5B, S5A, and S5B). However, the inhibiting effects of auxinole could be modified by cell-wall digestion (Figures 5A, 5B, S5A, and S5B). Auxinole combined with cellulase showed strong TMO6pro:erRFP induction similar to cellulase treatment alone, whereas auxinole combined with pectinase showed little TMO6pro:erRFP induction (Figures 5A, 5B, S5A, and S5B). Thus, it appeared that degrading pectins could not overcome auxin receptor inhibition but degrading cellulose could. We investigated this aspect genetically by generating the
PMESoe ia18-1 mutant and found indeed that it grafted similar to the ia18-1 mutant (Figure S5J), consistent with pectin modifications requiring auxin signaling for wound induction.

**Wound-induced ERFs and ANACs also respond to changes in pectin and cellulose**

ANAC and ERF transcription factors are important regulators of wound healing. Investigating our previously published grafting transcriptome in greater detail revealed the rapid induction of ERF114, ERF115, ANAC071, and ANAC096, which we could confirm with transcriptional reporter activation after grafting or wounding (Figures 6A, 6B, 6A, and 6B). We generated a mutant between ERF115 and its close homolog ERF114 and tested erf114,115 along with a previously published anac071,096 mutant. As a result, we found reduced callus formation and delayed phloem reconnection similar to the dofQ mutant (Figures 6C and S6C–S6E). To understand how these genes affect regeneration, we performed an RNA-seq transcriptome analysis of erf114,115 and anac071,096 and found substantial changes during graft healing (Figures S6F and S6G; Data S2 and S3). Compared with wild type, anac071,096 reduced phloem- and cambium-related gene induction, whereas erf114,115 reduced xylem-, phloem-, and cambium-related gene induction (Figure S6H).

Our previous results demonstrated that pectin and cellulose modifications activated DOFs; therefore, we tested whether cell walls might play a similar role with wound-induced ERFs and ANACs. In the grafting transcriptome, we found that multiple cell-wall-related genes were downregulated in the erf114,115 and anac071,096 mutants, including CEL3 (Figure 6D). Treating ERF115pro::GUS-GFP with cellulase, pectinase, auxin, or a combination of these induced ERF115pro::GUS-GFP expression in intact roots (Figure 6E). Auxin signaling appeared important, since ia18-1 was sufficient to block ERF115pro::GUS-GFP expression at the graft junction (Figure S6I). Notably, treatments with auxin and cell-wall-degrading enzymes appeared additive for ERF115pro::GUS-GFP, unlike the situation with TMO6pro::erRFP.

Figure 5. Auxin is important for DOF induction
(A) Cutting response of hypocotyl tops expressing TMO6pro::erRFP under various treatments after 24 h. NAA, 0.2 μM; NPA, 5 μM; auxinole, 30 μM; pectinase, 0.03%; cellulase, 0.03%. The dashed line denotes the cut site. Scale bar, 100 μm.
(B) Quantification of the intensity of TMO6pro::erRFP under various treatments after 24 h in (A). n = 96 plants for mock, 45 for NAA, 6 for NPA, 5 for auxinole, 9 for pectinase + NAA, 8 for pectinase + auxinole, 9 for cellulase + NAA, and 16 for cellulase + auxinole. p value was calculated by Wilcoxon test with all pairwise comparisons. Letters indicate statistically significant differences.
(C) Relative expression levels of TMO6, HCA2, and DOF2.1 in intact or forceps wounded ia18-1 after 24 h of wounding. Values are normalized by PP2A expression and represent the mean ± SEM of five experiments (n = 45–55 plants per experiment). Asterisks indicate statistically significant differences compared with indicated treatments (Student’s t-test; ***p < 0.001). N.S. represents no statistical significance.
(D) SUC2pro::GFP Col-0 scions were grafted to rootstocks of indicated genotypes and phloem reconnection monitored from 1 to 7 days after grafting and estradiol treatment. The mean ± SEM from three to six experiments with 11–12 plants per time point per experiment is shown. See also Figure S5.
We also perturbed cell walls genetically and found strong ERF115 and ANAC096 induction in PMEI5oe and kor1 intact plants compared with wild type but no changes in wounded plants (Figures 6F, 6G, and S6J). Introducing the negative repressor ERF115-SRDX16 into the PMEI5oe background reduced the enhanced phloem reconnection rate of PMEI5oe (Figure S6K). Together, these data indicated that degradation or changes to cellulose and pectin were sufficient to induce wound-responsive ERFs and ANACs.

**DISCUSSION**

Here, we identified a group of four related DOF transcription factors that were activated early after wounding and promoted healing after grafting, hypocotyl pinching, callus formation, and stem incision. The dofQ mutant had no strong developmental defects in unwounded plants, but it significantly affected regeneration that required loss of all four DOFs, suggesting that they regulated similar processes. Grafting with dofQ affected the expression of genes related to cambium, phloem, and xylem, but notable was the perturbed induction of cell-wall-related genes. We noticed strong defects in graft attachment and callus formation in the dofQ mutant, which might be from an inability to dynamically regulate cell-wall composition relevant for early stages of tissue attachment and graft formation.23,32 PME-related genes were upregulated in the dofQ rootstock (Figure S3F) and grafting with the PMEI5oe line in the rootstock enhanced graft formation (Figure 4C), hinting that enhanced PME activity below the graft junction might be inhibitory for healing. In addition, CEL3, whose homolog is important for successful inter-species grafts,32 was regulated by DOFs and was a direct target of TMO6. Thus, increasing DOF levels and reducing PMEs could be an efficient means to improving graft formation and allowing a wider range of species to be grafted.

It has been previously shown that during vascular development, HCA2, TMO6, DOF6, and DOF2.1 are expressed primarily in the vascular cylinder but with notable expression differences.35,43 DOF2.1 expresses in the xylem pole pericycle cells and adjacent endodermis and procambium,43 whereas HCA2, TMO6, and DOF6 express primarily in the protophloem...
sieve elements and, for HCA2 and TMO6, also in the procambium.35,41 Upon wounding, we see strong vascular induction of all four transcriptional reporters, but HCA2 and TMO6 were exceptional since they also showed ectopic expression in the endodermis, cortex, and epidermis (Figures 1 and 2). HCA2 and TMO6 also showed strong expression above the cut but not below the cut when hypocotyls were left separated (Figure S1A), suggesting that HCA2 and TMO6 are highly responsive to a mobile signal that might also cause such ectopic expression. One such signal is likely auxin, since blocking auxin transport with NPA, inhibiting auxin receptor signaling with axinoline, or reducing auxin response with iaa18-1 prevented HCA2 and TMO6 wound activation (Figure 5). However, adding auxin in the absence of wound seemed to have little effect upon HCA2 or TMO6 induction, similar to previous reports that found ERF115 induction by auxin in root tips required wounding.6,7 Our findings, along with previous observations that ERF115 did not require auxin or cell expansion for wound activation,1 suggest that factor(s) other than auxin are used to recognize wounding.

Our data indicate that cell-wall damage is relevant since chemical or genetic perturbations to pectin and cellulose were sufficient to activate HCA2 and TMO6 (Figure 4). This activation occurred even when turgor pressure was reduced with mannitol treatment (Figures S4A and S4B),7.27 suggesting that modifications to the cell walls themselves are a wound signal. Pectinase or cellulase treatments did not induce HCA2 and TMO6 expression without wounding, perhaps due to the inability of the enzymes to reach or damage the inner cell layers of the hypocotyl or root. However, perturbing cell walls using PMEI5oe and kor1 modified DOF, ANAC, and ERF levels in wounded or unwounded plants. Previous studies have shown that PMEI5oe plants have increased pectin DM, reduced cell elongation, and increased cell-wall stiffness in elongating hypocotyls.28 Both PMEI5oe and pectin digestion were sufficient to activate HCA2 and TMO6, which seems counter-intuitive given their presumed opposite effects on cell-wall looseness. It could be that PMEI5oe cells are so stiff that growth results in self-inflicted wounding by shearing of the cell wall. Alternatively, pectinase treatment, woundung, and PMEI5oe might all increase pectin DM levels, which itself is a trigger for DOF induction. We also observed a close relationship between pectins and auxin as has been previously described in growing hypocotyls.28 TMO6 induction by pectinase and PMEI5oe enhancement of graft formation required auxin signaling (Figures 5A, 5B, SS5A, SS5B, and SSJJ), consistent with auxin acting downstream of pectin modifications. Thus, wound-induced pectin modifications to the cell wall could trigger an auxin response to promote DOF activation and regeneration. However, cellulase treatments behaved differently and did not appear to be auxin dependent, consistent with previous findings that auxin and cellulase treatments were additive for graft junction attachment.29 Importantly, the pattern of TMO6 induction by auxin or cellulase appeared non-overlapping: auxin induced TMO6 close to the cut, whereas cellulase acted distally (Figure 5A). A combination of auxin and cellulase resulted in broad TMO6 expression, suggesting that both processes contribute to induction. We propose that wounding modifies both the cellulose microfibrils and pectic matrix polysaccharides to induce downstream genes, the DOFs, but do so via different mechanisms.

Our findings with DOFs appear to apply more broadly to other transcription factors involved in regeneration. Both ERF115 and ANAC096 were induced by changes to the pectin or cellulose—either genetically or chemically—but also had notable differences compared with HCA2 and TMO6. It is known that ERF115 is typically expressed in the QC and proto-xylem cells, and upon vascular wounding, and its expression spreads outwards to the endodermis,38 whereas cortex wounding causes ERF115 expression to activate inwards to the endodermis.39 DOF expression did not show a clear inward or outward bias; instead, wounding caused expression to spread laterally and to adjacent cell layers similar to ANAC096.15 Surprisingly, ANAC096 and ERF115 were highly upregulated in both unwounded PMEI5oe and kor1 mutants suggesting that modifications to the pectin or cellulose were sufficient to activate ANAC096 and ERF115. We also observed that DOFs, ANACs, and ERFS regulated multiple downstream targets related to cell-wall biology, including CEL3. Thus, our data are consistent with a common mechanism whereby damage to the pectin or cellulose induces DOFs, ANACs, and ERFS transcription factors and promotes tissue attachment, wound filling, vascular regeneration, and cell wall remodeling (Figure S6L). Such factors will be important for improving regeneration and also for elucidating the ligands and receptors that regulate wound perception.

STAR METHODS

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SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

A.Z. and C.W.M. conceived the experiments. A.Z., K.M., A.K., M.R., and M.A. performed the experiments. P.R., B.B., and A.B. generated materials. L.D.V., C.V., M.A., and C.W.M. supervised the experiments. A.Z. and C.W.M. wrote the paper. All authors edited and revised the final paper.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

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### Key Resources Table

| REAGENT or RESOURCE | SOURCE | IDENTIFIER |
|---------------------|--------|------------|
| **Antibodies**      |        |            |
| anti-GFP            | Thermo Fisher Scientific | Cat#A-11120; RRID: AB_221569 |
| IgG from rabbit serum | Sigma | Cat#15006 |
| **Bacterial and virus strains** |        |            |
| Agrobacterium tumefaciens GV3101 | N/A | N/A |
| Subcloning Efficiency DH5α Competent Cells | Thermo Fisher Scientific | Cat#18265017 |
| **Chemicals, peptides, and recombinant proteins** |        |            |
| Murashige and Skoog Medium (MS) | Duchefa Biochemie | Cat#M0222.0050 |
| Plant agar          | Duchefa Biochemie | Cat#P1001.1000 |
| FastDigest NheI      | Thermo Fisher Scientific | Cat#FD0973 |
| Rifampicin          | Duchefa Biochemie | Cat#R0146.0001 |
| Spectinomycin       | Duchefa Biochemie | Cat#S0188.0005 |
| Carboxyfluorescein diacetate (CFDA) | Biotium | Cat#51014 |
| Dexamethasone       | Sigma | Cat#D4902 |
| 1-Estradiol         | Sigma | Cat#E8875 |
| 1-Naphthaleneacetic acid (NAA) | Sigma | Cat#N0640 |
| 1-N-Naphthylphthalamic acid (NPA) | Sigma | Cat#33371 |
| Auxinole            | MedChemExpress | Cat#HY-111444 |
| Salicylic acid      | Sigma | Cat#S0875 |
| Methyl jasmonate    | Sigma | Cat#392707 |
| Driselase           | Kyowa Hakko Kogyo | LotKY4060 |
| Pectinase           | Sigma | Cat#P2401 |
| Cellulase           | Calbiochem | Cat#219466 |
| D-Mannitol          | VWR | Cat#25311.366 |
| DMSO                | Sigma | Cat#276855 |
| Urea                | Sigma | Cat#U5378 |
| Sodium deoxycholate | Sigma | Cat#30970 |
| Xylitol             | Sigma | Cat#X3375 |
| Calcofluor White    | Sigma | Cat#F3543 |
| Propidium iodide    | Sigma | Cat#P4864 |
| Paraformaldehyde    | Sigma | Cat#158127 |
| Potassium Ferricyanide (K₂Fe(CN)₆) | Sigma | Cat#60279 |
| Potassium Ferrocyanide (K₃Fe(CN)₆) | Sigma | Cat#P9387 |
| X-Gluc              | Thermo Fisher Scientific | Cat#R0851 |
| Sodium phosphate dibasic dodecahydrate (Na₂HPO₄) | Sigma | Cat#04273 |
| Sodium phosphate dibasic dihydrate (NaH₂PO₄) | Sigma | Cat#71645 |
| Glycerol            | Sigma | Cat#49781 |
| NaCl                | Duchefa Biochemie | Cat#65827 |
| Triton X-100        | Sigma | Cat#T8787 |
| Formaldehyde        | Sigma | Cat#F8775 |
| Glycine             | VWR | Cat#1.04201.1000 |
| Hexylene glycol     | Sigma | Cat#112100 |

(Continued on next page)
| REAGENT or RESOURCE | SOURCE | IDENTIFIER |
|---------------------|--------|------------|
| Piperazin-1,4-bis(2-ethansulfonsyra) bufferstubsnans, PIPES | Sigma | Cat#1.10220.0250 |
| MgCl2 | Merck | Cat#1058330250 |
| EGTA | Sigma | Cat#E4378 |
| KCl | Sigma | Cat#A2939 |
| complete, Mini, EDTA-free Protease Inhibitor Cocktail | Roche | Cat# 11836170001 |
| 2-mercaptoethanol | Sigma | Cat#M6250 |
| TRIS | VWR | Cat#28811.364 |
| Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid disodium salt dihydrate | Merck | Cat#ED2SS |
| Sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) | Sigma | Cat#05030 |
| NaHCO3 | Sigma | Cat#372382 |
| Dynabeads Protein A for Immunoprecipitation | Invitrogen | Cat#10001D |
| Ruthenium red | Sigma | Cat# R2751 |
| GelRite | Duchefa Biochemie | Cat# G1101.1000 |
| MES monohydrate | Duchefa Biochemie | Cat#M1503.0250 |
| HYGROMYCINE B | MES monohydrate | Cat#H0192.0001 |
| Basta (Glufosinate-ammonium) | Sigma | Cat#45520 |

**Critical commercial assays**

| Assay | Supplier | Catalog Number |
|-------|----------|---------------|
| Roti-Prep RNA MINI | ROTHE | Cat#8485.3 |
| Maxima First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit | Thermo Fisher Scientific | Cat#K1642 |
| Maxima SYBR Green/ROX qPCR Master Mix (2X) | Thermo Fisher Scientific | Cat#K0222 |
| IPure Kit v2 | Diagenode | Cat#C03010014 |
| NEBNext Poly(A) mRNA Magnetic Isolation Module | New England Biolabs | Cat#E7400S |
| NEBNext Ultra II RNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina | New England Biolabs | Cat#E7770S |
| NEBNext Multiplex Oligos for Illumina (Dual Index Primers Set 1) | New England Biolabs | Cat#E7600S |
| Qubit RNA HS Assay Kit | Thermo Fisher Scientific | Cat#Q32855 |
| Agilent DNA 1000 Kit | Agilent | Cat#5067-1504 |

**Deposited data**

| Dataset | Repository | Identifier |
|---------|------------|------------|
| Transcriptomics datafiles | Gene Expression Omnibus | GEO: GSE179283 |

**Experimental models: Organisms/strains**

| Model | Genotype | Reference | Accession |
|-------|----------|-----------|-----------|
| Arabidopsis: Col-0 | N/A | N/A |
| Arabidopsis: tmo6-4 | Miyashima et al. | N/A |
| Arabidopsis: hca2 | Miyashima et al. | GK-466B10 |
| Arabidopsis: dof2,1-1 | Smet et al. | GK-668G12 |
| Arabidopsis: doff6-1 | Miyashima et al. | Wiscseq_Ds_Llox351c08 |
| Arabidopsis: HCA2-SRDX | Guo et al. | N/A |
| Arabidopsis: hca2-OE | Guo et al. | N/A |
| Arabidopsis: tmo6-4, doff6-1 | Miyashima et al. | N/A |
| Arabidopsis: hca2,tmo6-2 | this study | N/A |
| Arabidopsis: tmo6-1, dof2,1-2, doff6-2 | Smet et al. | N/A |
| Arabidopsis: hca2,tmo6-4,doff6-1 | this study | N/A |
| Arabidopsis: hca2,tmo6-4,dof2,1-1,doff6-1 | this study | N/A |
| Arabidopsis: pear sextuple (pear1,pear2,dof6-1, tmo6-4, hca2,obp2) | Miyashima et al. | N/A |
| Arabidopsis: erf115 | Heyman et al. | SALK_021981 |
| Arabidopsis: erf114,115 | this study | N/A |

(Continued on next page)
### Reagents or Resources

| REAGENT or RESOURCE | SOURCE | IDENTIFIER |
|---------------------|--------|------------|
| Arabidopsis: ERF115-SRDX | Heyman et al. | N/A |
| Arabidopsis: anac071,096 | Matsuoka et al. | N/A |
| Arabidopsis: Ler | N/A | N/A |
| Arabidopsis: iaa18-1 (Ler) | Ploense et al. | N/A |
| Arabidopsis: PME1oe | Wolf et al. | N/A |
| Arabidopsis: iPME1oe | Wolf et al. | N/A |
| Arabidopsis: kor1-4 | Mielke et al. | N/A |
| Arabidopsis: kor1-6 | Mielke et al. | SALK_075812 |
| Arabidopsis: cel3-2 | Notaguchi et al. | CS_803355 |
| Arabidopsis: CRE1[XVE]pro:TMO6 | Miyashima et al. | N/A |
| Arabidopsis: CRE1[XVE]pro:HCA2 | Miyashima et al. | N/A |
| Arabidopsis: CRE1[XVE]pro:DOF6 | Miyashima et al. | N/A |
| Arabidopsis: RPSSApro:DOF2.1-GR | Smet et al. | N/A |
| Arabidopsis: TMO6pro:erRFP | Miyashima et al. | N/A |
| Arabidopsis: HCA2pro:erRFP | Melnyk et al. | N/A |
| Arabidopsis: DOF2.1pro:GUS-GFP | Smet et al. | N/A |
| Arabidopsis: DOF6pro:erVENUS | Smet et al. | N/A |
| Arabidopsis: ERF115pro:GUS-GFP | Heyman et al. | N/A |
| Arabidopsis: ANAC096pro:GUS | Matsuoka et al. | N/A |
| Arabidopsis: TMO6pro:TMO6-YFP | Miyashima et al. | N/A |
| Arabidopsis: SUC2pro:GFP | Imlau et al. | N/A |

### Oligonucleotides

| Table S2 | N/A | N/A |
|----------|-----|-----|

#### Recombinant DNA

| pDE_Cas9_TMO6C (HygR) | Miyashima et al. | N/A |
|------------------------|------------------|-----|
| pDE_CAS9_ERF114 (BastaR) | this study | N/A |

#### Software and algorithms

| R version 3.6.2 | N/A | https://www.r-project.org/ |
|-----------------|-----|---------------------------|
| Microsoft Excel v16.54 | Microsoft | N/A |
| Affinity Photo v1.10.4 | Affinity | N/A |
| Fiji v2.0.0 | N/A | https://fiji.sc/ |
| Zeiss Zen Black 2.3 SP1 | Zeiss | https://www.zeiss.com/ |
| Zeiss Zen Blue 2.3 lite and 2.5 | Zeiss | https://www.zeiss.com/ |
| Lecia Application Suite X (LAS X) | Lecia Microsystems | https://www.leica-microsystems.com/ |
| SnapGene 5.2 | N/A | https://www.snapgene.com/ |
| Fastp | Chen et al. | N/A |
| hisat2 | Kim et al. | N/A |
| Htseq | Anders et al. | N/A |
| DESeq2 package | Love et al. | N/A |
| Ggplot2 package | N/A | https://www.r-project.org/ |

#### Other

| Zeiss LSM780 confocal microscope | Zeiss | https://www.zeiss.com/ |
|----------------------------------|------|-----------------------|
| Zeiss Axioscope A1 | Zeiss | https://www.zeiss.com/ |
| Leica M205 FA stereo-fluorescent microscope | Lecia Microsystems | https://www.leica-microsystems.com/ |
| Qubit 2.0 Fluorometer | Invitrogen | N/A |
| Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer | Agilent | N/A |
| Bioruptor | Diagenode | N/A |
RESOURCE AVAILABILITY

**Lead contact**
Further information and requests for regents and resources should be directed to and will be fulfilled by Charles W. Melnyk (charles.melnyk@slu.se).

**Material availability**
All unique/stable reagents generated in this study are available from the lead contact without restriction.

**Data and code availability**
The Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) accession number for the transcriptomic data reported in this paper is GEO: GSE179283. The transcriptomic data is available from GEO or the lead contact upon request. This study did not generate original code.

EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS

**Arabidopsis thaliana** ecotype Columbia-0 (Col-0) was used as the wild type in this study, except where indicated. Mutants and transgenic lines are detailed as key resources table. For genotypes observed in F1, phenotypes were compared to F1s (parent x Col-0). Seeds were surface sterilized with 75% (v/v) ethanol for 20 minutes, then 99.5% (v/v) ethanol for 5 minutes. The seeds were put in a sterile hood to remove residual ethanol. Sterilized seeds were then sown on half-strength Murashige and Skoog (MS) medium with 1% (w/v) plant agar. After 2 days of stratification at 4 degrees (°C), seeds were moved to the growth chamber (8 hours of light/16 hours of dark, ~110 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹, 20°C, Conviron A1000 chamber). All plants were grown vertically.

METHOD DETAILS

**Plant material and transformation**
To create the tmo6-2,hca2 mutant, the pDE_Cas9_TMO6C vector was transformed into the hca2 mutant line using floral dip transformation. Cas9 free and homozygous mutants were selected via hygromycin and NheI in the T3 generation for further use. To make the tmo6-4,hca2,dof6-1 and tmo6-4,hca2,dof2.1-1,dof6-1 mutants, cross-pollination was performed between the previously published pear sextuple mutant and the dof2.1-1 mutant and mutants confirmed by PCR. To make the erf114,115 mutant, an ERF114 CRISPR-Cas9 transgene was created using a dual guide RNA approach. A construct targeting two different sites in the ERF114 gene was designed where the single guide RNA (sgRNA), sgRNA1 and sgRNA2 were annealed and inserted via a cut ligation method using BbsI in pMR217_pDONR_P1P and pMR218_pDONR_P5P, respectively. Using a Gateway LR reaction, the two sgRNAs were combined in a destination vector pDE_CAS9_Basta. The erf114,115 mutant was obtained by transforming the ERF114 CRISPR-Cas9 construct into the previously published erf115 mutant by floral dip transformation. Primary transformants were selected on agar plates containing Basta (10 mg/ml) and genotyped for the 235bp deleted fragment and further confirmed using Sanger sequencing. Genotyping primers are provided in Table S2.

**Plant micro-grafting**
7-day-old seedlings were used for micro-grafting and grafting assays were performed according to a previously published method. Briefly, for attachment assays, grafted plants were picked up with forceps at the root and hypocotyl junction site. If the scion remained attached during the manipulation, the plant was considered attached. For the phloem connection assay, the cotyledon was damaged with forceps and carboxyfluorescein diacetate (CFDA) was dropped on the wound site. After 1 hour, phloem was considered reconnected if the fluorescent signal appeared in the root. New plants were used for each time point. For the xylem connection assay, the root 1-2cm below the hypocotyl was removed, then CDFA was dropped on the wound site. After 20 minutes, xylem was considered reconnected if the fluorescent signal was found in the cotyledon. For root growth assays, the presence of lateral roots growing from the grafted rootstock was scored. New plants were used for each time point. To observing phloem connection on the same plants over several days, a wild type scion expressing GFP in the phloem companion cell (SUC2pro::GFP) was grafted to various genotypes and GFP movement monitored in the root. To test the inducible lines during grafting, plants were treated with 10 μM estradiol or 10 μM dexamethasone (DEX) from germination until checking the connection efficiency. The fluorescent signal was monitored with a Leica M205 FA stereofluorescent microscope fitted with a YFP filter.

**Squeezing and cutting treatments**
6-day-old seedlings were gently squeezed with forceps in the mid hypocotyl region or cut in the mid hypocotyl region and placed on ½ MS agar plates containing various chemicals: NAA, 0.2 μM; NPA, 5 μM; auxinole, 30 μM; salicylic acid, 2 μM; methyl jamonate, 5 μM; mannotol, 0.23 M; Driselase, 0.03%, w/v; pectinase, 0.03%, w/v; cellulase, 0.03%, w/v.
Microscopy
For imaging the root tips of fluorescent reporter lines, Calcofluor White staining of the cell wall was performed according to Ursache et al. 53 For the analysis of vascular cell number, the root was mounted in 5 μM propidium iodide solution and imaged. Fluorescent images of whole-mount and hand-sectioned graft junctions were taken on an LSM-780 confocal microscope. For reporter lines expressing erRFP, 561 nm excitation and 580-625 nm emission were used. For reporter lines expressing GFP and erVENUS, 488 nm excitation and 500-527 nm emission were used. Z-stack projections were taken under non-saturating conditions. Fiji software was used to process images and quantify the average fluorescence intensity. For longitudinal images of hypocotyls from TMO6pro:erRFP and HCA2pro:erRFP, z-stack projections are shown and made using the average intensity and green LUT functions with Fiji. For longitudinal images of hypocotyls from DOF2.1pro:GUS-GFP, DOF6pro:erVENUS and ERF115pro:GUS-GFP, z-stack projections are shown and made using the average intensity and green LUT functions with Fiji. For longitudinal images of hypocotyls from DOF2.1pro:GUS-GFP, DOF6pro:erVENUS and ERF115pro:GUS-GFP, single planes are shown and made using the green LUT function with Fiji. GUS staining was performed according to a previously published method with minor modifications. 51 Forceps wounded and non-wounded plants were immersed in X-Glu solution (1 mg/mL) and incubated at 37 °C for 14 days of treatment. All plants were grown under long-day conditions (16 hours of light/8 hours of dark, 22°C, Conviron A1000 chamber). Fiji software was used to measure root lengths. For ruthenium red staining, 7-day-old seedlings were visualized with a Zeiss Axioscope A1 microscope.

Laser-assisted cell ablation
Cell-specific ablation experiments were performed with two-photon laser (MaiTai, SpectrPhysiscs) at an excitation wavelength of 735 nm at 80% laser power using 20x objective with a Zeiss LSM780 confocal microscope. The specific cell was ablated after selecting the region of interest (ROI). For longitudinal images of hypocotyls from TMO6pro:erRFP and HCA2pro:erRFP, single planes are shown and made using the red LUT function with Fiji. For the movie of root from TMO6pro:erRFP, a z-stack projection is shown and made using the red LUT function with Fiji. For longitudinal images of hypocotyls from DOF2.1pro:GUS-GFP and DOF6pro:erVENUS, single planes are shown and made using the green LUT function with Fiji.

RT-qPCR assays
Wound induction assay: 6-day-old seedlings were squeezed at several positions across the hypocotyl and root for the wounded treatment; intact control plants were not squeezed. 24 hours after wounding, intact and wounded plants were harvested but cotyledons removed. Total RNA was isolated using a Roti-Prep RNA MINI Kit. RNA samples were quantified using a NanoDrop ND-1000 spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific). CDNA was prepared from 500 ng of total RNA using Maxima First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit containing oligo(dT)18 and random hexamer primers. The cDNA was diluted 1:9 with nuclease-free water. qPCR was performed using the iCycler IQ Real-Time PCR detection system with a 10 μL reaction volume (5μL of 2X Maxima SYBR Green qPCR/ROX Master Mix, 0.75 μM of forward and reverse primers, and 2 μL of diluted cDNA). The following program was used for the qRT-PCR analysis: initial denaturation 95 °C for 10 mins, 40 cycles of 95 °C for 10 sec, 60 °C for 30 sec and was followed by melt curve analysis to confirm the absence of off target amplification. Relative expression levels of selected genes were calculated using 2 -ΔΔCT method. 52 At1g13320, the gene encoding protein phosphatase 2A subunit (PPA2), was used as a loading reference. 53 Three to five biological replicates were prepared for each genotype. Gene expression analyses in incised stems was performed as previously described. 11,15 Briefly, segments of flowering stems (from ~8 plants) were harvested. Total RNA was extracted using QiAshredder (Qiagen) and the RNaseasy Plant Mini Kit (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer’s instructions. cDNA was prepared from 1 μg of total RNA using the PrimeScript RT Reagent Kit with gDNA Eraser (Takara), and qPCR were performed using a 7500 Fast Real-Time PCR system (Thermo Fisher Scientific) with a 20 μL total reaction volume (10 μL of Fast SYBR Green Master Mix (Thermo Fisher Scientific), 1 μL of cDNA and 0.2 μL each primer). ACT2 was the reference gene and three independent replicates were used. A list of primers used for RT-qPCR is provided in Table S2.

Phylogenetic tree
36 members of the DOF transcription factor family were used for a phylogenetic analysis. 52 The full protein sequences were aligned by MUSCLE with default setting. 57 Then the neighbor-joining (NJ) tree was generated, which were supported by 1000 replicates of bootstrap. 32

Stem incision assays
Stem incision assays were performed as previously described 11,15 with several modifications. Briefly, flowering stems at 7 days after incision were harvested and fixed in a mixture of 1% (w/v) paraformaldehyde and 2.5% (v/v) glutaraldehyde in 0.1 M phosphate buffer (pH 7.4) overnight at 4°C. After washing with phosphate buffer, samples were embedded with Super Cryoembedding Medium (Section Lab, Hiroshima, Japan). The frozen block was mounted on a holder, and longitudinal cryosections (15 μm thick) were prepared with adhesive film (Cryofilm type 3C (16UF), Section Lab) using a cryostat (CM1860, Leica Microsystems, Wetzlar, Germany). Photographs of sections were captured using Scanscope CS2 scanner (Leica) after staining with 0.1% (w/v) toluidine blue O solution.

Root phenotypes
For root lengths, 5-day-old seedlings were transferred to mock, pectinase, and cellulase containing plates. Pictures were taken after 5 days of treatment. All plants were growth under long-day conditions (16 hours of light/8 hours of dark, ~110 μmol m−2 s−1, 22°C, Conviron A1000 chamber). Fiji software was used to measure root lengths. For ruthenium red staining, 7-day-old seedlings were
briefly saponified with 0.1 N NaOH, which can remove methyl esters to facilitate ruthenium red binding of pectin glycosyl residues. Then, the seedlings were immersed in the 0.01% ruthenium red solution for 5 minutes. Images were taken using a Zeiss Axioscope A1 microscope. Images were quantified using Fiji.

**Callus induction**

Callus induction from petiole explants was performed according to a previously published method with minor modifications. Petioles were excised from 10-day-old seedlings which were grown under long-day conditions, then explants were cultured on MS medium supplemented with 1% sucrose and 0.6% Gelrite. Callus induction from hypocotyl explants was performed according to a previously published method with minor modifications. The seeds were grown on MS medium supplemented with 0.05% MES, 0.5% Sucrose, 0.8% Gelrite and grown in the dark to induce etiolation. After 7 days, a cut was performed at approximately 7mm above the hypocotyl-root junction to induce callus. After 8 days induction, sample tissues were imaged with a Leica M205 FA stereo-fluorescent microscope. Projected callus area in the image were measured by the freehand tool in Fiji.

**Transcriptomic analyses**

Sample preparation was performed according to a previously published study. After 24 hours of grafting, approximately 0.5mm of tissue was taken above or below the graft junction to prepare scioc and rootstock samples. 1mm of tissue from intact non-grafted plants was also harvested. Each sample has three biological replicates and approximately 80 plants were harvested and combined per sample. Total RNA was isolated using a Roti-Prep RNA MINI Kit following the manufacturer’s instructions. For RNAseq library preparation, 200ng of total RNA was treated using a Poly(A) mRNA Magnetic Isolation Module kit. The library was prepared with the resulting mRNA using a NEBNext Ultra II kit and NEBNext Multiplex Oligos for Illumina. Libraries were sequenced at Novogene on a NovaSeq 6000 in 150bp paired-end mode.

For RNAseq analyses, the raw data were filtered to remove the low quality of reads using fastp. The cleaned reads were mapped to the *Arabidopsis* reference TAIR10 using hisat2. The number of reads was counted using htseq. Differentially expressed genes (DEG) were identified using the DESeq2 R package and had a q-value < 0.05. Genes with a q-value < 0.05 were considered to have statistically significant expression differences between samples. In each tissue sample comparison, wild type Col-0 was the reference. The read counts for each gene were converted to TPM values using the previously described customized R script. Gene ontology (GO) annotation was performed using agriGO. The enrichment GO terms were determined with an adjusted p value < 0.05 (Chi-square test) and enrichment foldchange > 2. The lists of DEGs and GO annotations are provided in Data S1, S2, and S3 and Table S1. Previously published grafting time course RNAseq datasets in wild type Col-0 plants were analyzed from Melnyk et al.

**ChIP-qPCR assays**

*TMX6pro:TMO6-YFP* plants were selected to test CEL3 promoter interactions under wounded conditions. *TMX6pro:TMO6-YFP* plants were squizzed with forceps at several points on roots and hypocotyls of 7-day-old seedling. After 24 hours of induction, we collected approximately ~150mg seedling (~1500 plants) for chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP). Non-transgenic Col-0 was used as a negative control. ChIP was performed according to a previously described protocol with minor modifications. Briefly, plants were treated with 1% (v/v) formaldehyde in PSB solution under vacuum for two periods of 10 min, with a vacuum release between each period. Crosslinking was quenched by adding 0.125M glycine with another 5 min of vacuum infiltration. Nuclei were extracted using MEB buffer. Sonication was performed for 1x 20 sec “ON”, 45 sec “OFF” cycles (high power) in a Bioruptor. Overnight antibody binding was performed directly after sonication, followed by the addition of washed protein A Dynabeads to each ChIP aliquot. De-crosslinking and subsequent DNA isolation were performed using the library kit v2 following the manufacturer’s instructions, after which qPCR was performed. Antibodies used in ChIP were anti-GFP and IgG as a mock control. All the experiments were performed with three biological replicates. For the qPCR data, we normalized the immunoprecipitation to IgG to obtain the fold enrichment of the target. qPCR primers are listed in Table S2.

**Cell-wall analysis**

For all the cell-wall biochemical analyses, 7-day-old seedlings were gently squeezed at several positions across the hypocotyl and root for the wounded treatment; intact control plants were not squeezed. 48 hours after wounding, intact and wounded plants were harvested but cotyledons removed. Approximately 1000–1500 seedlings were collected for each sample, yielding 12–31 mg of lyophilized tissue for each. Alcohol-insoluble residue (AIR) was prepared essentially as previously described, starting with ball mill homogenization and sequential 70% ethanol, chloroform: methanol (1:1 v/v), and acetone washes. The dry AIR was carefully weighed and used to prepare homogeneous 1 mg/mL AIR slurry solutions in water that were aliquoted for the different analyses. The matrix polysaccharide composition of 300 µg AIR was determined after 2 M trifluoroacetic acid hydrolysis using high-performance anion-exchange chromatography coupled with pulsed electrochemical detection (HPAEC-PAD). All steps were performed as previously described, except that Ribose internal standard was only added immediately before injection into the instrument and eluent setup detailed in Mielke et al. Crystalline cellulose content was quantified following two-step sulfuric acid hydrolysis and HPAEC-PAD analysis, exactly as previously described. Pectin DM was quantified as previously described, but starting with 1 mg of dry AIR per sample for the 0.25 M NaOH saponification reaction. After neutralization with 0.25 M HCl and centrifugation, methanol released in the supernatant was quantified relative to standards using the previously described alcohol oxidase reaction to monitor changes in
absorbance at 412 nm. The nmol of methanol normalized to the AIR content was divided by the nmol of GaIA (from the HPAEC-PAD data) to calculate the relative pectin DM.

QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Student’s t test was obtained using Excel (version 16.54). The Wilcoxon signed-rank test and ANOVA analysis were obtained using R (version 3.6.2). To determine statistical significance, independent Student’s t tests with two-tail distribution between two groups and one-way ANOVA followed Tukey HSD test among various groups was used. The p values < 0.05 were considered to be statistically significant.