

the much stronger superconducting coherence peak suppressions (8, 10, 22, 23) in Bi-2212. The analysis of correlations between the dopant defects and quasi-particle interference patterns $C[\mathbf{O}(\vec{r});\text{LDOS}(\vec{r},E)]$ shown in Fig. 4A reveals directly that they are strongly correlated over a wide energy range. The negative sign of these correlations means that minima of LDOS modulations preferentially occur at the dopant defects. This is true at all energies, even though the actual quasi-particle interference patterns are quite different (8). This can be seen directly in images of LDOS(\vec{r},E) at $E = -14$ meV, -24 meV, and -34 meV (Fig. 4, B to D, respectively), with dopant defect locations shown as red dots. In all cases we see that the dopant defects have a very high probability of being found at the minima in the LDOS, even though the patterns are quite different between energies. This implies a fixing of the spatial phase of the LDOS modulations at scattering sites, an effect first seen in cuprates at oxygen vacancy defects in $\text{YBa}_2\text{Cu}_3\text{O}_{6-\delta}$ (5). Perhaps more important, Fig. 4D shows that suppression of superconducting coherence peaks is found primarily near the dopant defect clusters, and the bright regions with the sharp coherence peaks—usually associated with strong superconductivity—occur between them. The correspondence between dopant defect locations and LDOS minima for a variety of LDOS patterns occurring at different energies (Fig. 4) provides clear and direct evidence that these dopant defects generate the LDOS modulations and also suppress superconducting coherence peaks in Bi-2212.

Our simultaneous imaging of apparent dopant-induced impurity states and superconducting electronic structure points to solutions for several outstanding problems. The results provide direct evidence for the concept of an atomic-scale source for the nanoscale electronic disorder in cuprates (11, 24–26). Strong correlations between dopant defect distributions and both gap map and coherence peak amplitude show that the dopant defects are responsible for most (but perhaps not all) of the superconducting electronic disorder in Bi-2212. Further, scattering leading to quasi-particle interference can now be ascribed almost completely to whichever atomic-scale perturbation produces the dopant defects. Finally, the topographic disorder and related superconducting electronic disorder are due empirically to spectral weight shifts from low to high energy near each dopant defect. These data indicate that high-energy spectral weight redistributions, strong coherence peak suppressions, and very weak scattering of low-energy quasi-particles are dominant elements in the atomic-scale mechanism of superconducting electronic disorder in $\text{Bi}_2\text{Sr}_2\text{CaCu}_2\text{O}_{8+\delta}$. Similar phenomena are likely to be common in all nonstoichiometric oxygen-doped high- T_c cuprates.

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FD, a bZIP Protein Mediating Signals from the Floral Pathway Integrator FT at the Shoot Apex

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FLOWERING LOCUS T (FT) is a conserved promoter of flowering that acts downstream of various regulatory pathways, including one that mediates photoperiodic induction through **CONSTANS (CO)**, and is expressed in the vasculature of cotyledons and leaves. A bZIP transcription factor, **FD**, preferentially expressed in the shoot apex is required for FT to promote flowering. FD and FT are interdependent partners through protein interaction and act at the shoot apex to promote floral transition and to initiate floral development through transcriptional activation of a floral meristem identity gene, **APETALA1 (AP1)**. FT may represent a long-distance signal in flowering.

Flowering in *Arabidopsis* is regulated by several pathways that converge on the transcriptional regulation of the floral pathway integrators **FT**, **SUPPRESSOR OF OVEREXPRESSION OF**

CO 1 (SOCI), and **LEAFY (LFY)** (1). FT is a direct target of CO, a key transcriptional regulator of the photoperiod pathway, and the role of FT as a potent promoter of flowering in re-

sponse to photoperiods is conserved in *Arabidopsis* and rice (2–6). FT is expressed in the phloem tissues of cotyledons and leaves (7, 8) and encodes a 20-kD protein with homology to phosphatidylethanolamine binding protein or Raf kinase inhibitor protein (2, 3). However, the biochemical function of FT and downstream events leading to floral transition and floral morphogenesis at the shoot apex remain unknown.

bZIP protein FD is required for FT function. To understand how signals are mediated from FT to finally cause floral transition and floral morphogenesis, we searched for genes required for FT to promote flowering. Ectopic

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Table 1. Flowering times of transgenic and mutant plants.

Genotype*	No. of rosette leaves†	No. of cauline leaves‡	N
<i>Experiment 1, LDs</i>			
Wild type (Col)	14.2 ± 2.2 (11–18)	3.0 ± 0.7 (2–4)	25
<i>fd-1</i>	23.1 ± 3.1 (19–29)	6.6 ± 1.2 (4–8)	14
35S::FT (YK#1-5C)	2.8 ± 0.4 (2–3)	1.0 ± 0.4 (0–2)	25
35S::FT (YK#1-5C); <i>fd-1</i>	18.4 ± 2.7 (14–24)	5.4 ± 1.2 (4–8)	20
<i>soc1-101D</i> ‡	1.9 ± 0.3 (1–2)§	2.1 ± 0.3 (2–3)	15
<i>soc1-101D</i> ; <i>fd-1</i> ‡	2.0 ± 0 (2)	1.9 ± 0.3 (1–2)	21
Wild type (Ler)	7.2 ± 1.1 (6–9)	2.4 ± 0.8 (1–4)	22
<i>fd-1</i>	12.3 ± 0.7 (11–15)	4.1 ± 0.7 (3–5)	43
35S::FT (YK#1-5L)	2.0 ± 0 (2)	1.2 ± 0.4 (1–2)	40
35S::FT (YK#1-5L); <i>fd-1</i>	4.0 ± 0 (4)	2.4 ± 0.8 (1–4)	24
<i>Experiment 2, SDs</i>			
Wild type (Col), <i>fd-1</i>	45.3 ± 5.1 (38–54)	10.4 ± 2.0 (7–15)	17
35S::FT (YK#1-5C)	51.0 ± 5.8 (43–61)	9.8 ± 1.7 (7–13)	15
35S::FT (YK#1-5C); <i>fd-1</i>	2.3 ± 0.5 (2–3)	1.0 ± 0.5 (0–2)	25
35S::FT (YK#1-5C); <i>fd-1</i>	18.2 ± 4.3 (11–26)	4.4 ± 1.1 (3–7)	19
<i>Experiment 3, LDs</i>			
Wild type (Ler)	5.3 ± 0.5 (5–6)	1.7 ± 0.5 (1–2)	14
<i>ft-3</i> ‡	11.2 ± 0.8 (10–12)	2.8 ± 0.4 (2–3)	10
<i>FD::FT</i> (YD#2-1); <i>ft-3</i>	3.5 ± 0.5 (3–4)	0.5 ± 0.5 (0–1)	14
<i>PDF1::FT</i> (MA#4-12); <i>ft-3</i>	2.1 ± 0.4 (2–3)	1.0 ± 0.5 (0–2)	35
<i>SULTR2;1::FT</i> (YD#1-1); <i>ft-3</i>	3.0 ± 0 (3)	0.7 ± 0.5 (0–1)	15
<i>IAA14::FT</i> (YD#4-3); <i>ft-3</i> ‡	10.7 ± 0.8 (9–12)	2.4 ± 0.5 (2–3)	20
<i>Experiment 4, LDs</i>			
Wild type (Col)	10.0 ± 0.7 (9–12)	2.4 ± 0.6 (1–3)	21
<i>fd-1</i> ‡	21.1 ± 2.0 (18–24)	5.5 ± 0.5 (5–6)	22
<i>FD::FD</i> (MN#7-1); <i>fd-1</i>	8.4 ± 0.5 (8–9)	2.9 ± 0.5 (2–4)	21
<i>SULTR2;1::FD</i> (MN#4-2); <i>fd-1</i> ‡	20.7 ± 1.6 (18–24)	5.0 ± 0.7 (4–6)	23
<i>Experiment 5, LDs</i>			
Wild type (Ler)	5.3 ± 0.5 (5–6)	1.8 ± 0.4 (1–2)	15
<i>ft-3</i>	13.7 ± 0.7 (12–15)	3.3 ± 0.7 (2–5)	15
<i>ft-3</i> ; <i>fd-1</i>	17.8 ± 0.8 (16–19)	5.3 ± 0.4 (5–6)	16
<i>FD::FT</i> (YD#2-1); <i>ft-3</i>	2.9 ± 0.6 (2–4)	0.8 ± 0.4 (0–1)	15
<i>FD::FT</i> (YD#2-1); <i>ft-3</i> ; <i>fd-1</i>	5.9 ± 0.6 (5–7)	1.8 ± 0.6 (1–3)	15
<i>PDF1::FT</i> (MA#4-12); <i>ft-3</i>	2.0 ± 0 (2)	1.3 ± 0.5 (1–2)	18
<i>PDF1::FT</i> (MA#4-12); <i>ft-3</i> ; <i>fd-1</i>	6.4 ± 0.6 (5–7)	2.5 ± 0.5 (2–3)	20
<i>SULTR2;1::FT</i> (YD#1-1); <i>ft-3</i>	2.7 ± 0.5 (2–3)	1.2 ± 0.4 (1–2)	13
<i>SULTR2;1::FT</i> (YD#1-1); <i>ft-3</i> ; <i>fd-1</i>	4.1 ± 0.3 (4–5)	2.0 ± 0 (2)	13
<i>Experiment 6, LDs</i>			
Wild type (Ler), –Dex	6.8 ± 0.9 (5–8)	3.0 ± 0.6 (2–4)	22
Wild type (Ler), +DexII	6.4 ± 0.9 (5–8)	2.9 ± 0.7 (2–4)	24
<i>ft-3</i> , –Dex	14.1 ± 2.5 (11–19)	4.9 ± 1.0 (4–7)	12
<i>ft-3</i> , +DexII	12.7 ± 1.8 (10–15)	4.2 ± 0.6 (3–5)	11
35S::FT:GR (YD#9-a); <i>ft-3</i> , –Dex	8.8 ± 1.7 (6–12)	3.7 ± 0.6 (3–5)	24
35S::FT:GR (YD#9-a); <i>ft-3</i> , +Dex	3.3 ± 0.7 (2–4)	2.1 ± 0.4 (1–3)	24

*Genetic background: Col, Columbia; Ler, Landsberg *er*. Plants in each experiment were grown under LDs or SDs as indicated. +Dex indicates Dex treatment (14).

†Indicators of flowering time (10) and shown as average ± SD (range). Statistical tests were done on the number of rosette leaves.

‡No statistically significant difference among indicated genotypes in each experiment (Student's *t* test, *P* > 0.1). No symbol means that there was a statistically significant difference (*P* < 0.001) among the genotypes or conditions compared in each experiment.

§Includes two plants with elongated internodes.

||Indicates no statistically significant difference from the above condition (*P* > 0.06).

overexpression of *FT* by the 35S RNA promoter of cauliflower mosaic virus (35S::FT) causes a precocious-flowering phenotype (2, 3). We screened for suppressors of 35S::FT, because a similar approach with 35S::CO was successful in elucidating the downstream targets of CO, *FT* and *SOC1* (4, 9). In addition to screening mutagenized populations of 35S::FT, we examined known late-flowering mutants (10) for their effect on the 35S::FT phenotype. Through the latter approach, we found that *fd-1* is a strong suppressor of 35S::FT (Table 1). In contrast to a strong effect on 35S::FT, *fd-1* had only a weak effect on a similar precocious-flowering phenotype of *soc1-101D*, an activa-

tion tagged allele of *SOC1* (11) (Table 1), or 35S::LFY (12). These observations suggest that the *FD* activity is required specifically for the promotion of flowering by *FT*.

The *FD* gene was identified with *AtbZIP14* (At4g35900) (13) by a map-based approach (figs. S1 and S2 and table S1). In seedlings, *FD* expression was observed mainly in the shoot apex (Fig. 1, A to E and J), did not show distinct circadian oscillation, and was not affected by photoperiods and CO activity (fig. S3). Under both short days (SDs) and long days (LDs), *FD* mRNA levels increased with time after germination (fig. S3). To examine the subcellular distribution of *FD* protein, we made a construct

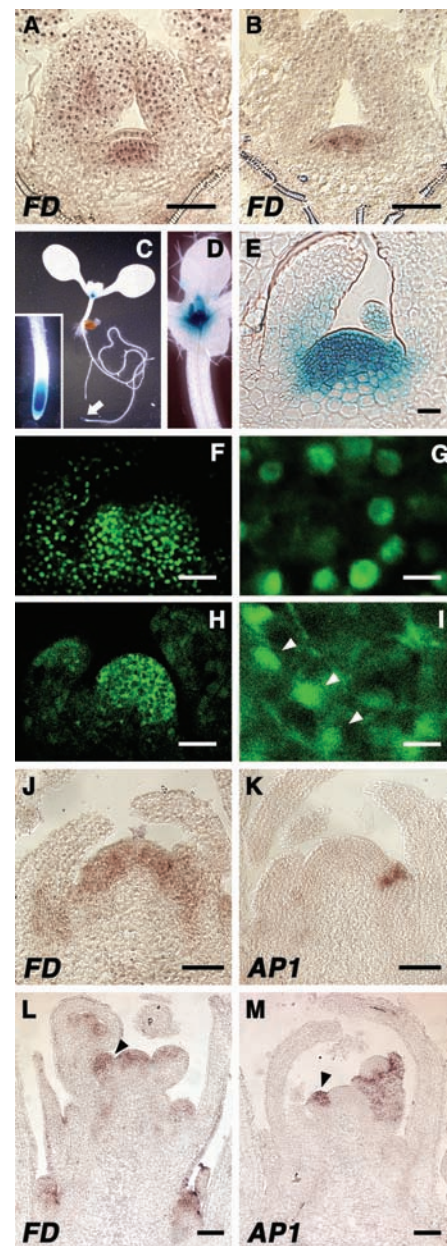


Fig. 1. Expression of *FD* and subcellular distribution of *FT:EGFP*. (A and B) Expression of *FD* in shoot apex of wild-type seedlings grown under LDs (16 hours light) for 6 (A) and 7 (B) days. (C to E) GUS staining of *gFD::GUS* seedlings grown under LDs for 6 (C and D) and 7 (E) days. (C) A whole seedling. The arrow indicates a root tip, which is enlarged in the inset. (D) Shoot apical region. (E) Longitudinal section of shoot apex. (F to I) Distribution of functional EGFP:FD fusion protein (F and G) and functional FT:EGFP fusion protein (H and I) expressed in shoot apex by *FD* promoter. (G) and (I) are enlargements showing subcellular distribution. Arrowheads in (I) indicate nuclei. (J to M) Expression of *FD* (J and L) and *AP1* (K and M) in shoot apex of wild-type plants at floral transition on day 10 (J and K) and early inflorescence stage on day 15 (L and M) under LDs. Arrowheads in (L) and (M) indicate floral meristems at stage 1. Scale bars: 50 μm in (F), (H), (L), and (M); 20 μm in (A), (B), (E), (J), and (K); and 10 μm in (G) and (I).

to express enhanced green fluorescent protein–FD (EGFP:FD) fusion protein by the *FD* promoter (*FD::EGFP:FD*) (14). That the fusion protein is functional was confirmed by the rescue of *fdl-1* (table S2). EGFP:FD was localized in the nucleus in cells of the shoot apex (Fig. 1, F and G). Similarly, nuclear localization of functional enhanced yellow fluorescent protein–FD (EYFP:FD) fusion protein (table S2) was observed in cells of the shoot apex and other tissues in *35S::EYFP:FD* seedlings with various genetic backgrounds (fig. S4) (14), suggesting a constitutive nuclear localization.

To gain clues to the molecular basis of the requirement of *FD* for *FT* function, we investigated protein interactions. *FT* interacted with *FD* in yeast cells (Fig. 2A) and in vitro (Fig. 2C). In contrast, *FD* showed very weak interaction in yeast cells with TERMINAL FLOWER 1 (TFL1), the *FT*-related protein with an antagonistic role in the regulation of flowering (2, 3) (Fig. 2A and fig. S5). Because the subcellular distribution of the *FT* protein remains unknown, we examined the distribution of functional *FT*:EGFP fusion protein (table S2) expressed in the shoot apex of *Arabidopsis* by the *FD* promoter or in leaf epidermal cells of *Nicotiana benthamiana* by the *35S* promoter

(14). In both cases, *FT*:EGFP was observed in the nucleus and cytoplasm (Fig. 1, H and I, and fig. S4). That *FT* is able to function in the nucleus was supported by observations that *FT* protein fused to a glucocorticoid receptor (GR) expressed by the *35S* promoter (*35S::FT:GR*) (14) promoted flowering on dexamethasone (Dex) treatment (Table 1). These findings suggest that *FD* and *FT* proteins coexist in the nucleus. We further analyzed the interaction of *FT* and *FD* proteins in plant cells using bimolecular fluorescent complementation (BiFC) (15). In tobacco leaf epidermal cells coexpressing the N-terminal half of EYFP fused to *FD* (YN-FD) and the C-terminal half of EYFP fused to *FT* (YC-FT) (14), YFP fluorescence was observed in the nucleus (Fig. 2D). These findings show that protein interaction is the basis of the dependence of *FT* on *FD*.

Floral meristem identity genes are regulatory targets of *FT* and *FD*. We next tried to identify the regulatory targets of *FT* and *FD* in the shoot apex that cause floral transition and morphogenesis. We obtained clues from analysis of *ft*; *lfy* and *fdl*; *lfy* double mutants. A previous work showed that *ft*; *lfy* greatly reduced mRNA levels of *API* and caused severe defects in floral meristem specification (16). These ob-

servations led to the suggestion that *FT* and *LFY* play redundant roles in up-regulation of *API* and floral fate specification (1, 16). In agreement with a previous report, *ft*; *lfy* greatly reduced the amount and region of *API* expression in the shoot apex and caused severe defects in floral development (Fig. 3, A to D, and fig. S6). *fdl*; *lfy* plants had an inflorescence phenotype indistinguishable from that of *ft*; *lfy* and displayed a severely reduced amount and spatial extent of *API* expression (Fig. 3, A to D, and fig. S6). These observations suggest that *FT* and *FD* together are involved in the regulation of *API* redundantly with *LFY*.

Consistent with a role of *FD* in the regulation of *API*, ectopic expression of *API* was observed in *35S::FD* seedlings (Fig. 3E). Ectopic induction of *API* expression by *FD* was abolished by *ft* mutation (Fig. 3F) or under SDs, which reduce *FT* expression (2, 3, 17, 18) (Fig. 3G). Upon a shift from SDs to LDs, which induces *FT* expression (8, 18), *API* expression was induced (Fig. 3H). In young seedlings, *FT* is expressed mainly in the vasculature of cotyledons, and little is detected in mesophyll cells (7, 8). In *35S::FD* seedlings, *API* expression was detected in the vascular-rich fraction but not in the mesophyll-rich fraction from cotyledons (Fig. 3I). These observations suggest that activation of *API* expression by *FD* requires the *FT* function. Finally, in the shoot apex around the stage of floral transition and in the young inflorescence apex, the region of *API* expression was within the expression domain of *FD* (Fig. 1, J to M). Thus, *API* seems to be a regulatory target of *FD*, which requires the *FT* activity through protein interaction. In support of this conclusion, several potential bZIP protein binding motifs were found in a 1.7-kb *API* promoter (19) (fig. S7).

Because *API* expression was observed only in a subset of the expression domain of *FD*, there should be factors that restrict *API* expression to nascent lateral meristems. *TFL1*, which has a role antagonistic to *FT* (2, 3), is likely to be responsible for suppressing *API* expression in the shoot apical meristem proper (20, 21). That the loss of *API* alone does not affect the precocious-flowering phenotype of *35S::FT* (3) suggests that other regulatory targets of *FD* contribute to the promotion of floral transition. *FRUITFULL* (*FUL*) and *CAULIFLOWER* (*CAL*), which act redundantly with *API* to promote flowering (22), are candidates for such targets (Fig. 3, C and E to J, and fig. S8).

How *FT* regulates *FD* activity is another important question. Constitutive nuclear localization of *FD* and the presence of *FT* in the nucleus suggest the regulation of *FD* activity in the nucleus. Whether *FD* and *FT* form a stable transcriptional complex or interact only transiently remains to be investigated. *FD* protein has a potential phosphorylation site for Ca^{2+} -dependent protein kinases (CDPKs) at the C terminus (Fig. 2B and fig. S2). Deletion or mutation of this

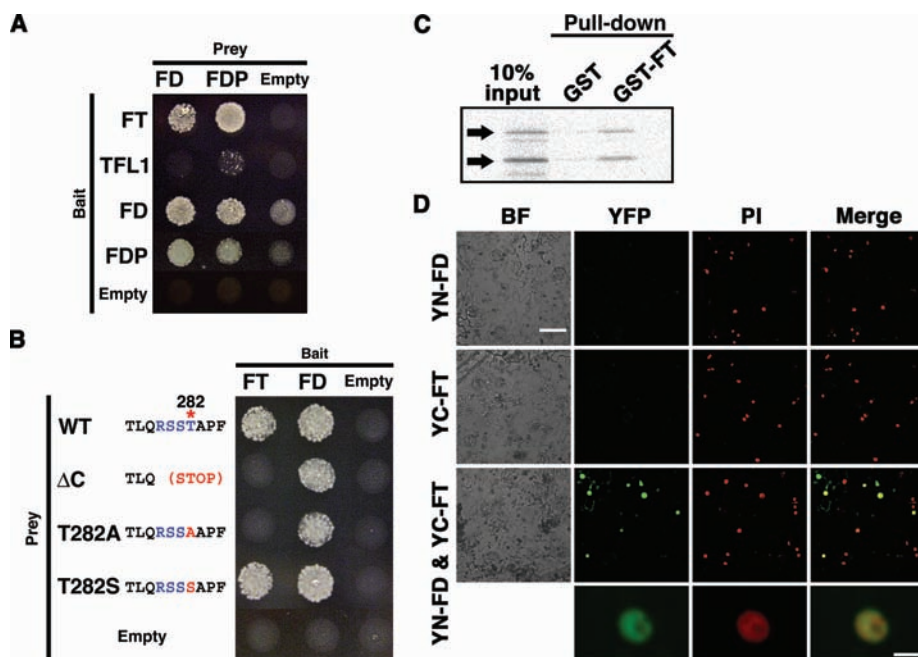


Fig. 2. Protein interaction. (A) Yeast two-hybrid assay of interaction among *FD*, *FDP*, *FT*, and *TFL1*. *FDP*, *FD* PARALOG (AtbZIP27). (B) Yeast two-hybrid assay of interaction between *FT* and C-terminal mutants of *FD*. C-terminal sequences of wild-type (WT) *FD* and mutant (Δ C, T282A, T282S) *FD* proteins including a possible CDPK site (blue). The asterisk on the WT sequence indicates a threonine (T) residue expected to be phosphorylated. T282A (substitution with an alanine), but not T282S (substitution with a serine), abolishes the CDPK site. None of the mutants affected interaction with wild-type *FD*. (C) In vitro pull-down assay of interaction between *FT* and *FD* (14). "10% input" indicates 10% of ^{35}S -labeled *FD* subjected to pull-down by GST or GST-FT. Arrows indicate labeled *FD*. (D) BiFC analysis of interaction between *FT* and *FD* in *N. benthamiana* leaf epidermis (14). BF, blight field image; YFP, YFP fluorescence; PI, propidium iodide fluorescence (nuclei); Merge, merge of YFP and PI; YN-FD, expression of YN-FD alone; YC-FT, expression of YC-FT alone; YN-FD & YC-FT, coexpression of YN-FD and YC-FT. At the bottom are higher magnification images of a nucleus of a cell coexpressing YN-FD and YC-FT. Not all nuclei were stained with PI. Scale bars: 100 μm (upper three rows) and 10 μm (bottom row).

site abolished interaction with FT (Fig. 2B), ectopic induction of *API* expression (Fig. 3J), and the ability to complement *fd-1* (fig. S9), although nuclear localization was not affected (fig. S4). These findings suggest the importance of phosphorylation of FD in the interaction with FT and in its functional regulation.

Mutual dependence and site of action of FT and FD. The mutual dependence of FT and FD, as shown above, is further supported by the observation that flowering of *35S::EYFP:FD* plants was delayed under SDs, which reduce FT expression (table S3). Furthermore, the enhanced phenotype in *35S::FT; 35S::FD* (tables S3 and S4) indicates that FT and FD are mutually limiting for the combined activity of FT and FD. These raise the question of the site(s) of action of FT and FD. In seedlings, FT is expressed in the vasculature of cotyledons, but not in the shoot apex (7) (fig. S10), whereas FD is expressed in the shoot apex but not in cotyledons and leaves (Fig. 1, A to E, and fig. S10). As expected, restoration of the FT function in the vasculature through expression by *SULTR2;1::FT* (14) could rescue the late-flowering phenotype of *ft* (Table 1 and table S5). Restoration of the FT function in the shoot apex of *ft*, either in the whole region by *FD::FT* or in the outermost cell layer (L1) by *PDF1::FT* (14), also rescued the late-flowering phenotype (Table 1 and table S5). These findings agree well with those of a previous report that the late-flowering phenotype of *co* is suppressed by similar constructs for FT misexpression (23). We further observed that *FD::FT*, *PDF1::FT*, and *SULTR2;1::FT* rescued delayed flowering, reduced *API* expression, and severe floral defect in *ft; lfy* (Fig. 3, B and C, and fig. S6). By contrast, restoration of FT in root vasculature by *IAA14::FT* (14) failed to rescue *ft* (Table 1). These observations indicate that ectopically expressed FT in the shoot apex can exert an effect on flowering. FT expressed in the shoot apex requires the FD function, because *fd-1* attenuated the rescued phenotype (Table 1 and table S5). In contrast, FD rescued the late-flowering phenotype of *fd* through expression in the whole shoot apex (by *FD::FD*), but not through ectopic expression in leaf vasculature (by *SULTR2;1::FD*), where FT is expressed (Table 1). Therefore, FD acts in the shoot apex and seems to be required in all cell layers. These findings, together with observations that protein interaction is the basis for interdependence between FT and FD, suggest that the shoot apex is the site of the FT and FD action.

FT and the long-distance signal in flowering. It has long been believed that a long-distance signal, named florigen (24), is generated in leaves upon exposure to inductive photoperiods, is transported to the shoot apex, and acts there to promote flowering (25). However, the nature of the signal has remained elusive (25). Our present work supports an

emerging hypothesis (7, 8, 23) that the FT products represent a part of the long-distance signal(s) generated in cotyledons and leaves

(mainly in the phloem tissues) and act at the shoot apex to promote floral transition and to initiate floral development (fig. S11).

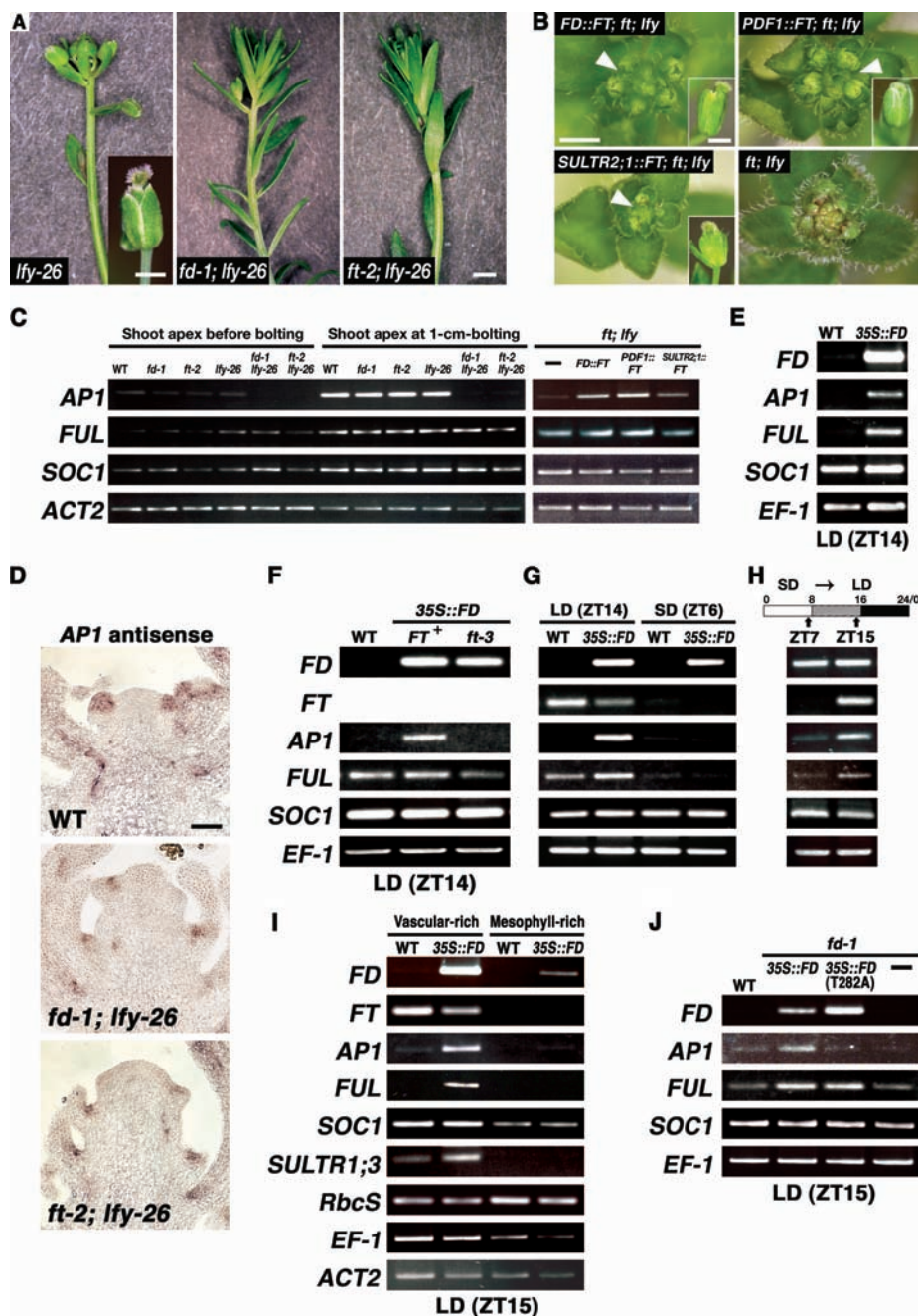


Fig. 3. FT-dependent activation of AP1 by FD. (A) Floral defect in *lfy-26*, *fd-1; lfy-26*, and *ft-2; lfy-26*. Lateral structures on the primary inflorescence that would be single flowers in the wild-type plant. Inset shows a flower formed later in *lfy-26*. Scale bars: 2 mm and 1 mm (inset). (B) Rescue of floral defect in *ft-2; lfy-26* by tissue-specific expression of FT. Young primary inflorescences and flowers of *ft-2; lfy-26* with indicated FT constructs. Arrowheads indicate a terminal flower. Scale bars, 2 mm and 1 mm (inset). (C) AP1 and FUL expression in shoot apex of various genotypes at two different stages. *SOC1* and *ACT2* were amplified for reference. (D) AP1 expression in young inflorescence apex. Scale bar: 10 μ m. (E to J) AP1 and FUL expression in *35S::FD* and wild-type (WT) seedlings. *SOC1*, *EF-1*, and *ACT2* were amplified for reference. Whole seedlings (E to H and J) or cotyledons (I) were harvested for RNA extraction at the indicated Zeitgeber time (ZT) points. (E) Seven-day-old seedlings under LDs. (F) Seven-day-old *35S::FD* in *FT⁺* and *ft-3* background and wild type under LDs. (G) Seven-day-old seedlings under LDs and SDs (8 hours light). (H) *35S::FD* seedlings grown for 6 days under SDs and subjected to day-length extension from 8 to 16 hours on day 7. (I) Vascular- and mesophyll-rich fractions from cotyledons of 10-day-old seedlings under LDs (14). *SULTR1;3* is a vascular marker and *RbcS* is preferentially expressed in mesophylls. (J) Seven-day-old seedlings of wild-type and *fd-1* with *35S::FD* or *35S::FD^{T282A}* or without a transgene (–) under LDs.

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Materials and Methods

SOM Text

Tables S1 to S5

Figs. S1 to S11

References

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Integration of Spatial and Temporal Information During Floral Induction in *Arabidopsis*

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Flowering of *Arabidopsis* is regulated by several environmental and endogenous signals. An important integrator of these inputs is the *FLOWERING LOCUS T* (*FT*) gene, which encodes a small, possibly mobile protein. A primary response to floral induction is the activation of *FT* RNA expression in leaves. Because flowers form at a distant site, the shoot apex, these data suggest that *FT* primarily controls the timing of flowering. Integration of temporal and spatial information is mediated in part by the bZIP transcription factor *FD*, which is already expressed at the shoot apex before floral induction. A complex of *FT* and *FD* proteins in turn can activate floral identity genes such as *APETALA1* (*AP1*).

One of the major flowering pathways in *Arabidopsis*, the photoperiod pathway, positively regulates activity of the nuclear protein CONSTANS (*CO*), which acts upstream of a graft-transmissible signal produced in leaves (1–3). Experiments with a dexamethasone-dependent, constitutively expressed version of *CO* have suggested that *CO* directly activates genes with diverse biochemical functions (4). These include two genes that are known to promote flowering: the transcription factor gene *SUPPRESSOR OF OVEREXPRESSION OF CONSTANS 1* (*SOC1*) and *FLOWERING LOCUS T* (*FT*), which encodes a small glob-

ular protein related to the floral repressor TERMINAL FLOWER 1 (*TFL1*) (5–7). In addition, *ACS10* and *P5CS2*, structural genes for ethylene and proline biosynthetic enzymes, were identified as potential *CO* targets in these experiments (4).

***FT* is the major primary target of *CO* in leaves.** Because the results with *CO* gain-of-function alleles had suggested that the *CO*-induced signal is complex, we used microarray analyses to identify targets of endogenous *CO* in leaves. To induce endogenous *CO* activity, we activated *CO* protein with light (1). We grew all plants in 8-hour short days. On the day of the experiment, we exposed the experimental group to 16 hours of light and the control group to 8 hours of light followed by 8 hours of darkness. We harvested leaves at the end of the 16-hour period. Differentially expressed genes were identified with a combination of per-gene variance [logit *t* test, *P* < 0.025 (8)] and common variance (>1.5 × change).

Of 2000 genes that are activated or repressed after exposure to a single long day, merely three genes are responsive to long days in wild-type

plants and at the same time differentially expressed between wild-type plants and *co* mutants in long days. Of these, only one gene does not respond at all to long days in a *co* background: *FT* (Fig. 1, A and B). In contrast, *SOC1*, *ACS10*, and *P5CS2* expression is independent of *CO* after exposure to a single long day (Fig. 1B), suggesting either that these genes respond only to higher levels of *CO* or that they respond to *CO* in tissues other than the leaf. In plants grown in continuous light, *FT* expression is much higher in leaves than at the shoot apex (Fig. 1C), consistent with leaves being the primary site of *FT* activation.

The finding that *FT* is the major target of *CO* in leaves is in agreement with our observation, also based on global expression profiles, that *FT* is the major output of *CO* at the shoot apex and that early floral markers such as *SOC1* and *FRUITFULL* (*FUL*) are similarly dependent on both *CO* and *FT* (9). Thus, the initial signal acting downstream of *CO* in leaves might be less complex than previously thought.

The bZIP protein *FD* is required for *FT* activity. To understand how *FT* activity is transduced, we searched for *FT* interactors. In a yeast two-hybrid screen, we isolated two closely related bZIP transcription factors, At2g17770 and At4g35900 (fig. S1), the *Arabidopsis* orthologs of tomato SIP8/SPGB, which interacts with *Arabidopsis* *FT* and *TFL1*, as well as the tomato *TFL1* homolog SELF-PRUNING (10). The available collections of transferred DNA (T-DNA) insertion lines do not contain any At2g17770 alleles, but there are four different alleles but of At4g35900 (11). The late-flowering phenotype of these lines (Fig. 2A and Table 1) is rescued by a minigene, indicating that At4g35900 promotes flowering (fig. S2). The only late-flowering mutant described for this region of the genome is *fil-1* (12), and complementation crosses showed *FD* and At4g35900 to be allelic. We therefore designated our reference insertion allele of At4g35900 as *fil-2*. By their phenotype and genetic interactions, *FD* and *FT* have been placed

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**FD, a bZIP Protein Mediating Signals from the Floral Pathway
Integrator FT at the Shoot Apex**
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