EMS mutagenesis and characterization of *Brassica rapa* mutants

Yosuke Mizuno¹, Shunsuke Okamoto², Miyuki Hara^{1,3}, Tsuyoshi Mizoguchi^{1,3,*}

¹Department of Life Science, International Christian University (ICU), Mitaka, Tokyo 181-8585, Japan; ² Plant Breeding & Experiment Station, Takii & Co., Ltd., Konan, Shiga 520-3231, Japan; ³ Gene Research Center, University of Tsukuba, Tsukuba, Ibaraki 305-8572, Japan

*E-mail: mtsuyoshi@icu.ac.jp Tel: +81-422-33-3247

Received October 30, 2013; accepted January 9, 2014 (Edited by K. Aoki)

Abstract *Brassica rapa* is an important model crop in the genus *Brassica*, which includes various important vegetable crops such as Chinese cabbage and turnip, and is closely related to *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Arabidopsis). *B. rapa* var. *trilocularis* (yellow sarson), a rapid-cycling population of *B. rapa*, is commonly used for genetic research and is expected to bridge the gap between the model plant Arabidopsis and *Brassica* crops. In this study, 940 M_2 mutagenized lines of yellow sarson were produced using ethylmethanesulfonate (EMS) mutagenesis, and these M_2 plants were examined for alterations in visible phenotypes. In total, 293 independent M_2 lines (including 2188 M_2 plants) were investigated for phenotypic alterations, and 394 individual mutants were isolated. Subsequently, the observed mutant phenotypes were classified into 8 major categories and 18 subcategories. In addition, three mutants, namely, *early flowering 1 (elf1), crane-like 1 (crl1)*, and *rosette 2 (ros2)*, were selected for further phenotypes, *crl1* and *ros2* are likely mutations in genes for auxin signaling and gibberellic acid biosynthesis, respectively.

Key words: Brassica rapa, ethylmethanesulfonate (EMS), flowering time, gibberellic acid (GA).

The Brassicacea family includes the model plant Arabidopsis thaliana (Arabidopsis) and the genus Brassica, comprising a group of six interrelated species of agronomic importance. Among the six Brassica crops, three monogenomic diploid species [B. rapa (AA, n=10), B. nigra (BB, n=8), and B. oleracea (CC, n=9)] have formed three amphidiploid species [B. juncea (AABB, n=18), B. napus (AACC, n=19), and B. carinata (BBCC, n=17] through interspecific hybridization during the last 10,000 years (Rana et al. 2004), as described by U's triangle (Nagaharu 1935). These Brassica species are cultivated to produce vegetables, vegetable oils, condiments, and fodders. They contribute to $\sim 10\%$ of the world's vegetable crop production and 12% of edible oil supplies (Labana and Gupta 1993). In particular, B. rapa includes various important vegetable crops such as turnip, Chinese cabbage, and pak choi. Divergence of Brassica and Arabidopsis lineages from a common ancestor occurred between 14.5 and 20.4 million years ago (Mya; Yang et al. 1999). Subsequent whole genome triplication of Brassica (hexaploidization) is estimated to have occurred 13-17 Mya (Yang et al. 2006), indicating that triplicated homologous segments corresponding

to counterpart segments of the Arabidopsis genome are present in the genomes of Brassica (Town et al. 2006). This triplication event resulted in massive genetic redundancy and functional diversification, and has likely allowed Brassica species to develop diverse morphological variants (Tang and Lyons 2012). After hexaploidization, three copies of the subgenome present within the same nucleus experience unequal gene losses (fractionation bias) that trigger expression differences among the least fractionated subgenome, the medium fractionated subgenome, and the most fractionated subgenome, which is called genome dominance (Cheng et al. 2011). This forms a mesohexaploid, which occurred between 5 and 9 Mya ago (Wang et al. 2011). Diploidization and divergence between B. rapa/oleracea lineages and B. nigra occurred ~8 Mya ago, while B. rapa and B. oleracea divergence occurred ~4 Mya ago (Yang et al. 2006).

Yellow sarson is a rapid-cycling population of *Brassica rapa*. It is a common model plant for *Brassica* genomic studies due its advantageous features. First, a wide array of *B. rapa* genetics and genomics information is available. For example, the draft genome sequence of the *B. rapa*

This article can be found at http://www.jspcmb.jp/

Abbreviations: Arabidopsis, *Arabidopsis thaliana*; CRL1, CRANE-LIKE 1; ELF1, EARLY FLOWERING 1; EMS, Ethyl methanesulfonate; GA, gibberellic acid; LL, continuous light; ROS2, ROSETTE 2.

Published online May 10, 2014

cultivar line 'Chiifu-401' has been published (Wang et al. 2011). In addition, the Brassica Database (BRAD; http:// brassicadb.org/brad/index.php), which offers searching services and data mining tools, has been constructed and is used by researchers and breeders to efficiently apply B. rapa genome information to study Brassica plants (Cheng et al. 2011). Second, yellow sarson is diploid, selfcompatible, and rapid life cycling (35–45 days), resulting in efficient genetics and breeding. Third, B. rapa species are closely related to the model plant Arabidopsis. The size of the B. rapa genome (529 Mbp) is only three to five times that of the Arabidopsis genome (125–130 Mbp; Johnston et al. 2005). The sequence of 283.8 Mb, covering more than 98% of the gene space, was assembled, and 259.6 Mb (91.13%) of the B. rapa genome assembly and 108.6 Mb (90.01%) of the Arabidopsis genome were included within collinear blocks (Wang et al. 2011). In addition, 41,174 protein coding genes were identified and 15,725 of 16,971 (93.0%) B. rapa gene families were shared with Arabidopsis (Wang et al. 2011). Therefore, the information obtained from Arabidopsis can be applied to B. rapa and a wide variety of Brassica relatives for research and breeding. Overall, yellow sarson is expected to play an important role as a new model crop.

In this study, EMS (ethyl methanesulfonate) mutagenesis was performed to construct mutant lines, and M_2 plants were inspected for visible altered phenotypes followed by collection of their phenotypic information. Subsequently, three mutants, namely <u>early flowering 1</u> (elf1), <u>crane-like 1</u> (crl1), and <u>rosette2</u> (ros2) were isolated, and the reproducibility of their phenotypes were verified in the M_3 generation (elf1, ros2) or reexamined in the M_2 generation (crl1). These results supported future prospects of *Brassica* research bridging the gap between the model plant Arabidopsis

and Brassica crops.

To optimize EMS mutagenesis, seeds were treated with 0.8% EMS conditions (Figure 1). In total, 940 of 4000 mutagenized M_1 plants were fertile, and M_2 seeds were harvested from each single M_1 plant. Approximately 12 M_2 seeds produced from the same M_1 plant were sown as an M_2 line, and M_3 seeds were harvested from each M_2 line. In a controlled-environment room, 293 M_2 lines (3705 M_2 seeds) were sown. The germination rates of the M_2 lines varied from 8 to 100%.

The M_2 plants were screened for altered visible phenotypes at various developmental stages from seed germination to seed maturation (Figure 1). In total, 293 M_2 lines (2188 M_2 plants) were phenotyped and 29 M_2 plants showed phenotypic change in more than one phenotypic categories. As a result, 485 individual mutants were found in 394 mutant lines, and all phenotypes were classified into 8 major categories and 18 subcategories (Table 1, Saito et al. 2011). Figure 2 shows a representative mutant in some of the major categories. Our primary screening identified putative mutants with abnormal leaves (line B-6, Figure 2B), albino cotyledons (line C-23, Figure 2C), dwarf and curly leaves (line C-89, Figure 2D), and wax-less phenotypes (line C-42, Figure 2E) compared to wild-type (WT) plants (Figure 2A, 2E).

Of the $293 M_2$ lines phenotyped, three mutants showing early (E1 and E2) or late (D1) flowering phenotypes were chosen for further analysis. To confirm whether the mutant phenotypes were inheritable, E1 and D1 plants were self-fertilized and phenotypes were reevaluated in the M₃ generation under different conditions. E2 plants were also reexamined in the M₂ generation because M₃ seeds were not obtained. In this experiment, 200 individual M₂ or M₃ plants were reevaluated for visible variations.



Figure 1. Strategy of ethyl methanesulfonate (EMS) mutagenesis of *Brassica rapa*. Wild-type (WT) *B. rapa* seeds (M_0) were mutagenized with EMS, and the resulting M_1 seeds were sown in a controlled-environment room to produce M_2 seeds from single M_1 plants. Twelve M_2 seeds were planted as an M_2 line, and whole M_3 seeds were obtained from the same M_2 line. During this process, each M_2 plant was inspected for altered visible phenotypes, and the self-fertilized seeds from each mutant were harvested. Numbers in parentheses show the number of seeds or plants.



Figure 2. Mutant phenotypes obtained by ethyl methanesulfonate (EMS) mutagenesis. (A) Wild type (WT), (B) abnormal leaves (line B-6), (C) albino cotyledons (line C-23), (D) dwarf (line C-89), and (E) wax-less fruits (right; line C-42) and the WT (left).

Table 1. List of phenotypic categories and the number of mutants included in these classes.

Major category	Subcate gory	No. of mutants (No. of mutant lines)
Plant size	Small plant	38 (28)
Cotyledon morphorogy	One cotyledon	65 (58)
	Three cotyledon	12 (12)
	Four cotyledon	1(1)
Leaf morphology	Adaxially curled leaf	4(1)
	Other leaf morphology	225 (197)
Cotyledon/leaf color	Yellow-green/Yellow-green	15 (12)
	Yellow-green/green	2 (2)
	gree/Yellow-green	12 (7)
	Dull green/Dull green	17 (12)
	White	10 (9)
Flowering tinling	Early	70 (41)
	Late	1(1)
Flower color	Pale yellow flower	1(1)
	Yellow-green sepal	1(1)
Flower morphology	Flower homeotic mutaion	1(1)
Other	Glossy leaves	9 (9)
	Bolting suppression	1(1)
Total		485 (394)

The number of phenotypic categories scored in M_2 plants is shown. Note that the total number of mutants exceeds the total number of mutant lines because a mutant sometimes presented more than one phenotype.

All the E1 mutant plants showed early flowering phenotypes in the M_3 generation under continuous light (LL) conditions (Figure 3A), indicating that the mutant phenotype was heritable. Therefore, a mutation responsible for the early flowering phenotype of E1 was named <u>early flowering 1</u> (*elf1*). Flowering time was measured by scoring the number of leaves on the main stem when plants were flowered and the total number of days to flowering. Under LL, the total number of leaves was 8.5 ± 0.13 for *elf1* and 10.3 ± 0.28 for WT plants,



Figure 3. Flowering times of wild-type (WT) and *elf1* plants under continuous light (LL). (A) Appearance of WT and *elf1* at 31 days after sowing under LL. (B) The total number of leaves on the main stem when plants were flowered under LL. (C) The number of days to flowering under LL. Plants were grown on MS medium in growth chambers at 22°C for 9 days under long-days (LD; 16h light/8h dark) and then transplanted into soil in a controlled-environment room at 22°C under LL. Flowering time was scored by counting the total number of leaves on the main stem when plants flowered and the total number of days to flowering. Means \pm SE are shown. Twelve to 27 plants of each genotype were used for each trial. Scale bar represents 10 cm. Asterisk denotes statistical significance compared to the WT (Student's *t*-test, *p*<0.05).

respectively (Figure 3B). In addition, *elf1* (34.4 ± 0.78 days) flowered ~8 days earlier than the WT (42.3 ± 1.16 days) under LL (Figure 3C). These results suggested that the responsible gene for the mutation may be related to the flowering delay in WT plants under LL. It is still unclear whether the *elf1* behaves as a recessive or dominant mutation.

Because M_3 seeds of the E2 mutant plants were not produced from M_2 plants due to their low fertility, two M_2 seeds were reevaluated. In this experiment, all plants germinated but the early flowering phenotype of the plants was minor. However, M₂ plants showed the same pleiotropic phenotypes as the E2 mutant plants observed in the previous trial, such as the suppression of lateral root formation (Figure 4A, 4D), upwardly curled leaves (Figure 4B), and dwarfism (Figure 4C). The total number of lateral roots (>0.3 mm) was 13.3 ± 0.89 for the WT and 3.0 ± 2.0 for crl (Figure 4D). In addition, all six M₂ plants (4 in the 1st evaluation and 2 in the reevaluation) showed mutant phenotypes, suggesting that this mutation was dominant. These results are similar to a previous study of the crane mutant in Arabidopsis (Uehara et al. 2008); thus, this mutant line was named crane-like 1 (crl1). The low fertility phenotype of the crl1 plants was reproduced in the reevaluation of two M₂ plants. A similar phenotype of low fertility was described in Arabidopsis crane mutant (Uehara et al. 2008).

 M_3 seeds derived from D1 mutant plants were not harvested, but the other three M_2 plants that showed phenotypes similar to WT plants produced 154 M_3 seeds



Figure 4. Phenotypes of wild-type (WT) and *crl1* plants. (A) Nineday-old seedlings of the WT and *crl1*. Lateral root formation of *crl1* mutants was severely suppressed. (B) Leaves of the WT and *crl1* at 24 days. In *crl1* mutants, leaves were upwardly curled. (C) The 43-day-old WT and *crl1*. The *crl1* mutants were smaller than the WT. (D) Numbers of lateral roots (>0.3 mm) formed per plant of WT and *crl1* seedlings at 9 days. Plants were grown on MS medium in growth chambers at 22°C for 9 days under LD (16 h light/8 h dark) and then transplanted into soil in a controlled-environment room at 22°C under continuous light (LL). This experiment was performed twice with similar results. Means \pm SE are shown. Scale bars represent 1 cm for (A and B) and 10 cm for (C). Asterisk denotes statistical significance compared with the WT (Student's *t*-test, *p*<0.05).

as bulk. Since self-fertilized M₂ plants heterozygous for mutations were expected to produce homozygous mutant progeny, these M₃ seeds were reexamined. As a result, 3 of the $38 M_3$ plants derived from the same M_2 plant showed D1 phenotypes such as suppression of bolting (stem elongation) and flowering (Figure 5A, 5D). This mutant line was named rosette2 (ros2) because these mutants showed similar phenotypes to the gibberellin₁ (GA1)- and GA3-deficient dwarf mutant rosette (ros) identified from B. rapa syn. campestris (Rood et al. 1989). Endogenous GAs are involved in the regulation of germination, reproductive development, and the control of leaf morphology in Brassica, although excess GA levels have only a minor effect on germination rate or floral development (Zanewich et al. 1990). To confirm whether ros2 phenotypes were caused by endogenous GA deficiency, a 10 μ l aliquot of 28.9 μ M GA₃ solution that contained 0.1% ethanol was applied with pipette to the shoot apex of ros2 seedlings at 42, 49, 56, and 63 day after sowing under long-days (LD) as reported (Rood et al. 1989). No bolting and reproductive development was observed after 42 days without GA₃ treatment, at which time WT plants were producing buds (Figure



Figure 5. Phenotypes of wild-type (WT) and *ros2* plants. (A–C) The aerial regions of *ros2* at 42 days without application of GA₃ (A), 49 days with an application (42 days after sowing) of GA₃ (B), and 66 days with four applications (42, 49, 56, and 63 days after sowing) of GA₃ (C). (D–F) Comparison of the WT and *ros2* at 42 days without application of GA₃ (D), 49 days with an application of GA₃ (E), and 66 days with four applications of GA₃ (F). WT and *ros2* plants were grown on MS medium in growth chambers at 22°C for 9 days and 42 days, respectively, under LD (16h light/8h dark) and then transplanted into soil in a controlled-environment room at 22°C under LL. Scale bars represent 1 cm for (A–E) and 10 cm for (F).

5A, 5D). However, GA_3 induced upper curling and size increases in *ros2* leaves after 1 week (Figure 5B, 5E), and additional application of GA_3 induced bolting and floral development at 66 days (Figure 5C, 5F). These results suggested that *ros2* is sensitive to GA and that mutant phenotypes are caused by decreased endogenous GA concentrations.

Genetic analysis of M₂ progeny suggested that the crl1 mutation was dominant. In addition, the crl1 plants showed visible phenotypes similar to the crane mutant (Figure 4). In Arabidopsis, 9 dominant mutants of Aux/IAA genes were reported, but only the crane mutant showed unique phenotypes including up-curled leaves and lateral root suppression (Uehara et al. 2008). The crane mutant contained two dominant mutant alleles, crane-1 and crane-2, which are gain-of-function mutations in domain II of IAA18 (Uehara et al. 2008). IAA18 is a member of the 29 Aux/IAA genes and acts as a transcriptional repressor of the signaling pathway of the plant hormone auxin. In Arabidopsis, domain II of IAA18 is involved in the instability of IAA18 protein, and gain-of-function mutations in this gene prevent proteins from being degraded by the SCF^{TIRI/AFBs} ubiquitin-ligase complex composed of auxin receptors, TRANSPORT INHIBITOR RESPONSE1 (TIR1) and its homologous proteins AUXIN-SIGNALING F-BOX PROTEINS (AFB1/2/3/4/5; Dharmasiri et al. 2005a; Dharmasiri et al. 2005b; Greenham et al. 2011; Kepinski and Leyser 2005). Hence, the missense mutations in domain II block the interaction between Aux/IAA and TIR1/AFBs, resulting in constitutive suppression of the auxin response.

According to BRAD, two copies of *IAA18* homologs in *B. rapa* are located on chromosomes A6 (Bra018938) and A8 (Bra014303), respectively. Moreover, a blastp search revealed that Arabidopsis IAA18 (At1g51950) shares high amino acid identity with Bra018938 protein (*E* value=9e⁻⁹⁸, identity 75%) and Bra014303 protein (*E* value= e^{-104} , identity 75%). These data suggest that gain-of-function mutations in either or both of the *crane* homologous genes conserved in *B. rapa* may trigger constitutive suppression of auxin response in *crl1* plants, such as *crane*.

The *ros2* mutant showed a typical severe dwarf phenotype, as is commonly observed in GA-deficient or GA-insensitive mutants (Figure 5A, 5D). In addition, exogenously applied GA₃ restored plant height and leaf size of *ros2*, indicating that this phenotype was caused by endogenous GA deficiency derived from the suppression of GA biosynthesis (Figure 5C, 5F). Over 100 GAs have been identified from plants (MacMillan 2002), but only a small number function as biologically active GAs in higher plants, such as GA₁, GA₃, and GA₄. Bioactive GAs regulate plant growth and development, including bolting (stem elongation), leaf expansion, and flower induction throughout the life cycle. At least 14 genes

encoding six GA biosynthetic enzymes (CPS, KS, KO, KAO, GA20ox, and GA3ox) catalyzing the formation of bioactive GAs have been isolated in Arabidopsis (Supplemental Figure 1; Yamaguchi 2008). In addition, two cytochrome P450 genes, CYP714B1 and CYP714B2, which encode GA 13-oxidase (Supplemental Figure 1), have recently been identified in rice (Magome et al. 2013). However, the isolation and phenotypic analysis of ga13ox mutants has yet to be reported in Arabidopsis. A common phenotype caused by mutation in the GA biosynthetic genes is dwarfism, which can be rescued by applying exogenous GA. Historically, dwarf genes have been utilized in plant breeding as represented by the success of the "Green Revolution" in rice and wheat (Hedden 2003; Khush 2001). Furthermore, GA1- and GA3-deficient dwarf mutant rosette (ros; Rood et al. 1989) and the semidominant GA-insensitive dwarf mutant caused by a gain-of-function mutation in the C-terminal GAI, RGA, SCARECROW (GRAS) domain of a REPRESSOR OF GA1-3 (RGA) homolog, Brrga1-d (Muangprom et al. 2005), have been reported in *B. rapa*, and are expected to reduce lodging problems of oilseed Brassica cultivars without affecting the harvest.

To identify candidate genes, the amino acid sequences of GA biosynthetic enzyme proteins from Arabidopsis were used to select B. rapa homologous genes. Nineteen candidate genes were identified, and $\sim 90\%$ of Arabidopsis proteins share more than 80% amino acid identity with their B. rapa homologous proteins (Supplemental Table 2). Furthermore, CPS, KS, and KO were each encoded by a single gene in Arabidopsis (Yamaguchi 2008) and only AtKS and AtKO/CYP701A3 contained a single homolog of B. rapa (Bra035120 and Bra009868, respectively; Supplemental Table 2). These data, together with the observation that the ros2 mutation was recessive, suggested that these two genes are candidates for ros2. However, the possibility exists that several mutations induced at the same time or even a single mutation in one redundant gene is sufficient to cause the ros2 phenotype. To identify the responsible gene, backcross experiments and comprehensive analysis of all candidates are required.

The *elf1* and *ros2* exhibited early and late flowering phenotype, respectively (Figure 3 and 5). Flowering time is a quantitative trait that regulates an appropriate timing of reproduction and affects the yield potential. In vegetative crops such as Chinese cabbage (*Brassica rapa* ssp. *pekinensis*), early bolting and flowering can cause severe losses in yield and quality. By contrast, in rapeseed (*Brassica napus*) cultivated for seed production, late flowering can shorten the spring cultivation period in the northern hemisphere where plants are exposed to cold temperatures from late fall to early spring. Therefore, flowering time adaptation for specific local environments is one of the major breeding goals. Further investigations

are necessary for the identification of mutations responsible for the altered flowering phenotypes to address this issue.

In conclusion, we have developed the EMS mutant collection in the diploid Brassica species, *B. rapa*. This collection is suitable for forward genetics studies on *B. rapa*. Based on the current study, we are planning to perform a large-scale mutagenesis of *B. rapa* with EMS. These mutant collections would be attractive tools for molecular breeding of the Brassica species.

Acknowledgements

This study was supported in part by the joint research program "Plant Transgenic Research Design, University of Tsukuba" of the MEXT (to T.M.), Grants-in-Aid for Scientific Research on Priority Areas (MEXT; to T.M., 23012037), and Grants-in-Aid for Scientific Research (C) (MEXT; to T.M., 25440141).

References

- Cheng F, Liu S, Wu J, Fang L, Sun S, Liu B, Li P, Hua W, Wang X (2011) BRAD, the genetics and genomics database for Brassica plants. *BMC Plant Biol* 11: 136
- Dharmasiri N, Dharmasiri S, Estelle M (2005a) The F-box protein TIR1 is an auxin receptor. *Nature* 435: 441–445
- Dharmasiri N, Dharmasiri S, Weijers D, Lechner E, Yamada M, Hobbie L, Ehrismann JA, Jürgens G, Ewtelle M (2005b) Plant development is regulated by a family of auxin receptor F box proteins. *Dev Cell* 9: 109–119
- Greenham K, Santner A, Castillejo C, Mooney S, Sairanen I, Ljung K, Estelle M (2011) The AFB4 auxin receptor is a negative regulator of auxin signaling in seedlings. *Curr Biol* 21: 520–525
- Hedden P (2003) The genes of the Green Revolution. *Trends Genet* 19: 5–9
- Johnston JS, Pepper AE, Hall AE, Chen ZJ, Hodnett G, Drabek J, Lopez R, Price HJ (2005) Evolution of genome size in *Brassicaceae. Ann Bot (Lond)* 95: 229–235
- Kepinski S, Leyser O (2005) The *Arabidopsis* F-box protein TIR1 is an auxin receptor. *Nature* 435: 446–451
- Khush GS (2001) Green revolution: the way forward. *Nat Rev Genet* 2: 815–822
- Labana KS, Gupta ML (1993) Importance and origin. In: Labana KS, Banga SS, Banga SK (eds) *Breeding Oilseed Brassicas*. Springer-Verlag, Berlin, pp 1–20
- MacMillan J (2002) Occurrence of gibberellins in vascular plants, fungi, and bacteria. J Plant Growth Regul 20: 387–442
- Magome H, Nomura T, Hanada A, Takeda-Kamiya A, Ohnishi T, Shinma Y, Katsumata T, Kawaide H, Kamiya Y, Yamaguchi

S (2013) *CYP714B1* and *CYP714B2* encode gibberellins 13-oxidases that reduce gibberellins activity in rice. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 110: 1947–1952

- Muangprom A, Thomas SG, Sun T, Osborn TC (2005) A novel dwarfing mutation in a green revolution gene from *Brassica rapa*. *Plant Physiol* 137: 931–938
- Nagaharu U (1935) Genome analysis in *Brassica* with special reference to the experimental formation of *B. napus* and peculiar mode of fertilization. *J Japan Bot* 7: 389–452
- Rana D, Boogaart T, O'Neill CM, Hynes L, Bent E, Macpherson L, Park JY, Lim YP, Bancroft I (2004) Conservation of the microstructure of genome segments in *Brassica napus* and its diploid relatives. *Plant J* 40: 725–733
- Rood SB, Pearce D, Williams PH, Pharis RP (1989) A gibberellindeficient *Brassica* mutant-*rosette*. *Plant Physiol* 89: 482–487
- Saito T, Ariizumi T, Okabe Y, Asamizu E, Hiwasa-Tanase K, Fukuda N, Mizoguchi T, Yamazaki Y, Aoki K, Ezura H (2011) TOMATOMA: A novel tomato mutant database distributing Micro-Tom mutant collections. *Plant Cell Physiol* 52: 283–296
- Tang H, Lyons E (2012) Unleashing the genome of *Brassica rapa*. *Front Plant Sci* 3: 172
- Town CD, Chung F, Maiti R, Crabtree J, Haas BJ, Wortman JR, Jine EE, Althoff R, Arbogast TS, Tallon LJ, et al. (2006) Comparative genomics of *Brassica oleracea* and *Arabidopsis thaliana* reveal gene loss, fragmentation, and dispersal after polyploidy. *Plant Cell* 18: 1348–1359
- Uehara T, Okushima Y, Mimura T, Tasaka M, Fukaki H (2008) Domain II mutations in CRANE/IAA18 suppress lateral root formation and affect shoot development in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. *Plant Cell Physiol* 49: 1025–1038
- Wang X, Wang H, Wang J, Sun R, Wu J, Liu S, Bai Y, Mun JH, Bancroft I, Cheng F, et al. (2011) The genome of the mesopolyploid crop species *Brassica rapa*. *Nat Genet* 43: 1035–1039
- Yamaguchi S (2008) Gibberellin metabolism and its regulation. Annu Rev Plant Biol 59: 225–251
- Yang TJ, Kim JS, Kwon SJ, Lim KB, Choi BS, Kim JA, Jin M, Park JY, Lim MH, Kim HI, et al. (2006) Sequence-level analysis of the diploidization process in the triplicated *FLOWERING LOCUS C* region of *Brassica rapa*. *Plant Cell* 18: 1339–1347
- Yang YW, Lai KN, Tai PY, Li WH (1999) Rates of nucleotide substitution inangiosperm mitochondrial DNA sequences and dates of divergence between *Brassica* and other angiosperm lineages. J Mol Evol 48: 597–604
- Zanewich KP, Rood SB, Williams PH (1990) Growth and development of *Brassica* genotypes differing in endogenous gibberellins content. I. Leaf and reproductive development. *Physiol Plant* 79: 673–678

Supplemental Table and Figure

Supplemental Figure legend

Supplemental Figure 1. The gibberellin (GA) biosynthesis pathways in plants. Three bioactive GAs found in various plant species are shown (highlighted grey). GGPP, *trans*-geranylgeranyl diphosphate; CPS, *ent*-copalyl diphosphate synthase; KS, *ent*-kaurene synthase; KO, *ent*-kaurene oxidase; KAO, *ent*-kaurenoic acid oxidase; 30x, GA 3-oxidase; 130x, GA 13-oxidase; 200x, GA20-oxidase.

Supplemental Table 1. List of GA biosynthetic genes and their homologs in *Brassica* rapa.

Gene name	Accesion number	B. rapa gene ID	Identity
AtCPS [GA1]	At4g02780	Bra036239	664/809 (82%)
		Bra000864	591/729 (81%)
AtKS [GA2]	At1g79460	Bra035120	651/785 (82%)
AtKO/CYP701A3 [GA3]	At5g25900	Bra009868	430/478 (89%)
AtKAO1/CYP88A3	At1g05160	Bra015394	449/490 (91%)
AtKAO2/CYP88A4	At2g32440	Bra005596	401/489 (82%)
AtGA20ox1 [GA5]	At4g25420	Bra013890	321/378 (84%)
		Bra019165	300/346 (86%)
AtGA20ox2	At5g51810	Bra028277	328/376 (87%)
		Bra022565	332/378 (87%)
AtGA20ox3	At5g07200	Bra009285	328/380 (86%)
		Bra028706	322/380 (84%)
AtGA20ox4	At1g60980	Bra027106	291/376 (77%)
AtGA20ox5	At1g44090	Bra014019	305/356 (85%)
AtGA3ox1	At1g15550	Bra026122	319/359 (88%)
		Bra026757	312/358 (87%)
AtGA3ox2	At1g80340	Bra008480	311/350 (88%)
AtGA3ox3	At4g21690	Bra020909	302/351 (86%)
AtGA3ox4	At1g80330	Bra008480	187/335 (55%)



Mizuno et al. Supp Figure 1