

Functional Analysis of *Arabidopsis* CYP714A1 and CYP714A2 Reveals That They are Distinct Gibberellin Modification Enzymes

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Endogenous levels of bioactive gibberellins (GAs) are controlled by both biosynthetic and inactivation processes, and some cytochrome P450s are involved in this control mechanism. We have previously reported that CYP714B1 and CYP714B2 encode the enzyme GA 13-oxidase, which is required for GA₁ biosynthesis, and that CYP714D1 encodes GA 16 α ,17-epoxidase, which inactivates the non-13-hydroxy GAs in rice. *Arabidopsis* has two CYP714 members, CYP714A1 and CYP714A2. To clarify the possible role of these genes in GA metabolism, enzymatic activities of their recombinant proteins were analyzed using a yeast expression system. We found that the recombinant CYP714A1 protein catalyzes the conversion of GA₁₂ to 16-carboxylated GA₁₂ (16-carboxy-16 β ,17-dihydro GA₁₂), a previously unidentified GA metabolite. Bioassays of this GA product showed that CYP714A1 is an inactivation enzyme in *Arabidopsis*. This was confirmed by the extreme GA-deficient dwarf phenotype shown by CYP714A1-overexpressing plants. Intriguingly, the recombinant CYP714A2 protein catalyzed the conversion of *ent*-kaurenoic acid into steviol (*ent*-13-hydroxy kaurenoic acid). When GA₁₂ was used as a substrate for CYP714A2, 12 α -hydroxy GA₁₂ (GA₁₁₁) was produced as a major product and 13-hydroxy GA₁₂ (GA₅₃) as a minor product. Transgenic *Arabidopsis* plants overexpressing the CYP714A2 gene showed semi-dwarfism. GA analysis showed that the levels of non-13-hydroxy GAs, including GA₄, were decreased, whereas those of 13-hydroxy GAs, including GA₁ (which is less active than GA₄), were increased in the transgenic plants. Our results suggest that the CYP714 family proteins contribute to the production of diverse GA compounds through various oxidations of C and D rings in both monocots and eudicots.

Keywords: *Arabidopsis* • Biosynthesis • cytochrome P450 • Gibberellin • Inactivation.

Abbreviations: 16-carboxy GA₁₂, 16-carboxy-16 β ,17-dihydro GA₁₂; 2ODD, 2-oxoglutarate-dependent dioxygenase; CaMV, Cauliflower mosaic virus; CPS, *ent*-copalyl diphosphate synthase; *eui*, *elongated uppermost internode*; GA13ox, GA 13-oxidase; GA2ox, GA 2-oxidase; GA20ox, GA 20-oxidase; GA3ox, GA 3-oxidase; GAMT, GA methyltransferase; GC-MS, gas chromatography–mass spectrometry; GID1, GIBBERELLIN INSENSITIVE1; KAO, *ent*-kaurenoic acid oxidase; KO, *ent*-kaurene oxidase; MS, Murashige–Skoog; PAC, paclobutrazol; RNAi, RNA interference; RT-PCR, reverse transcription PCR; SEM, standard error of the mean; WT, wild type.

Introduction

Gibberellins (GAs) are a class of diterpenoid hormones that promote growth in various stages of plant lifecycle: seed germination, stem elongation, leaf expansion and flowering. GAs are biosynthesized from geranylgeranyl diphosphate (C₂₀) via a multistep process (Fig. 1; reviewed by Yamaguchi 2008). More than 130 GA compounds have been identified, but only a few, such as GA₁, GA₃, GA₄ and GA₇, are known to be the bioactive forms. *Arabidopsis* mutants defective in GA biosynthesis show dwarfism, dark-green leaves and late flowering phenotypes (Fleet and Sun 2005). In *Arabidopsis*, GA₄, a non-13-hydroxylated bioactive GA, is predominant in vegetative tissue, and is synthesized through the non-13-hydroxylation pathway (Fig. 1). GA₁, a 13-hydroxylated bioactive GA, is synthesized from the early GA 13-hydroxylation pathway. The

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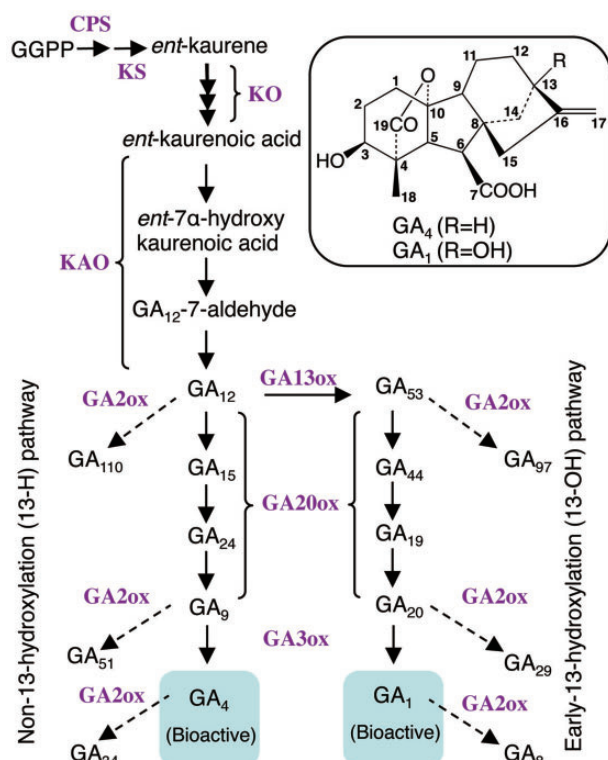


Fig. 1 GA biosynthesis and inactivation pathways in *Arabidopsis*. Solid and dashed lines indicate GA biosynthesis and inactivation (2 β hydroxylation) pathways, respectively. GGDP, geranylgeranyl diphosphate; CPS, *ent*-copalyl diphosphate synthase; KS, *ent*-kaurene synthase; KO, *ent*-kaurene oxidase; KAO, *ent*-kaurenoic acid oxidase; GA20ox, GA 20-oxidase; GA3ox, GA 3-oxidase; GA2ox, GA 2-oxidase; GA13ox, GA 13-oxidase.

concentration of GA₁ is very low in vegetative tissues, but is higher in developing siliques (Varbanova et al. 2007, Kanno et al. 2010). GA₁ is less active than GA₄ both in *Arabidopsis* (Talon et al. 1990, Yang et al. 1995, Cowling et al. 1998) and in rice (Ueguchi-Tanaka et al. 2007), and this difference is presumably attributable to the binding affinity of these hormones to the GA receptor, GIBBERELLIN INSENSITIVE1 (GID1) (Ueguchi-Tanaka et al. 2005, Nakajima et al. 2006).

Recent studies revealed that multiple GA inactivation pathways are important for controlling endogenous GA levels in flowering plants (Yamaguchi 2008). Conjugation of glucose, resulting in the formation of glucose ethers or glucose esters, has been found in a number of plant species. This might be an inactivation reaction, but no GA-glycosyl transferase gene has been identified yet (Schneider and Schliemann 1994). So far, three classes of GA inactivation enzyme genes have been identified; 2-oxoglutarate-dependent dioxygenase (2ODD), methyltransferase and cytochrome P450 monooxygenase. GA 2-oxidase (GA2ox), which encodes 2ODD, converts bioactive and intermediate forms of GAs to inactive forms by 2 β -hydroxylation (Fig. 1; Schomburg et al. 2003, Thomas et al. 1999). Thus far, seven GA2ox (candidate) genes (GA2ox1-4 and -6-8;

GA2ox5 is a pseudogene) have been reported in *Arabidopsis* (reviewed by Yamaguchi 2008). Given the presence of orthologous GA2ox genes in a number of plant species, such as rice (Sakamoto et al. 2001), pea (Lester et al. 1999, Martin et al. 1999) and poplar (Busov et al. 2003), this inactivation is most common in flowering plants. The GA methyltransferase genes (GAMT1 and GAMT2) have been identified in *Arabidopsis* (Varbanova et al. 2007). These genes are mainly expressed in developing and germinating seeds. The *gamt1* and *gamt2* double mutant exhibits elevated levels of bioactive GAs in siliques and shows resistance to a GA biosynthesis inhibitor, ancymidol, during germination. The rice cytochrome P450 monooxygenase CYP714D1 (EUI), represents a novel class of GA inactivation enzyme, which catalyzes 16 α ,17-epoxidation of non-13-hydroxy GAs (GA₁₂, GA₉ and GA₄) (Zhu et al. 2006). The EUI gene was identified by map-based cloning of the recessive rice mutant, *elongated uppermost internode* (*eui*). The mutant plants are morphologically normal until the drastic final internode elongation at the heading stage. Our GA analysis showed that exceptionally large amounts of the bioactive GAs GA₄ and GA₁ are accumulated in the uppermost internode of the *eui* mutant (Zhu et al. 2006). In contrast, overexpression of the P450 gene resulted in severe dwarfism in rice due to GA deficiency (Luo et al. 2006, Zhu et al. 2006).

Recently we reported that other rice CYP714 members, CYP714B1 and CYP714B2, encode GA 13-oxidase (GA13ox), a key enzyme of the early GA 13-hydroxylation pathway (Fig. 1; Magome et al. 2013). The *cyp714b1 cyp714b2* double mutants showed decreased levels of 13-hydroxy GAs, including GA₁, but increased levels of non-13-hydroxy GAs, including GA₄. Like *eui* plants, the double mutant plants had elongated uppermost internodes at the heading stage. Our findings on the function of rice CYP714 members suggest that CYP714 proteins may also be involved in GA metabolism in other plant species. *Arabidopsis* has two CYP714 members, CYP714A1 and CYP714A2, and it has been reported earlier that CYP714A1- or CYP714A2-overexpressing *Arabidopsis* plants show a severe dwarf phenotype (Zhang et al. 2011). Moreover, CYP714A1 and CYP714A2 double knockdown plants show increased above-ground biomass and early flowering with an increased level of bioactive GA₄. Based on these results, a possible functional overlapping of the CYP714A1 and CYP714A2 proteins in GA inactivation was proposed (Zhang et al. 2011). However, their enzymatic functions have not yet been identified. In this study, we investigated the possible role of these proteins in GA metabolism using a heterologous yeast expression system. We found that CYP714A1 encodes a GA deactivation enzyme, which catalyzes 16-carboxylation of GA₁₂. Intriguingly, we found that CYP714A2 acts as a 13-oxidase or 12 α -oxidase of GAs or GA precursors, depending on the substrate. GA analysis of *Arabidopsis* plants that overexpress CYP714A2 showed that CYP714A2 could contribute to GA 13-hydroxylation in planta, indicating a functional kinship with rice CYP714Bs. Possible roles of CYP714A1 and CYP714A2 in GA metabolism are discussed.

Results

Functional analysis of the CYP714A1 and CYP714A2 proteins in a yeast expression system

We have previously shown that CYP714D1/EUI encodes the enzyme GA 16 α ,17-epoxidase, which inactivates the non-13-hydroxy GAs in rice (Zhu et al. 2006). More recently, we have reported that CYP714B1 and CYP714B2 genes encode GA13ox in rice (Magome et al. 2013). In *Arabidopsis* the CYP714A1 and CYP714A2 proteins share 73.1% identity in their amino acid

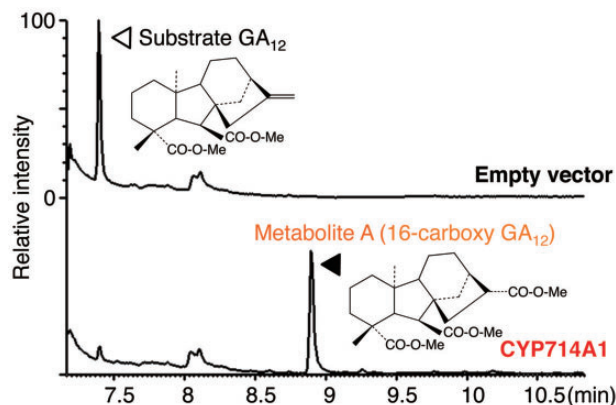


Fig. 2 Recombinant CYP714A1 protein has GA₁₂ 16-carboxylation activity. Shown are total ion chromatograms (mass-to-charge ratio 50 to 600) of GA₁₂ (upper, methyl ester derivative, indicated by an open triangle) and metabolite A (lower, methyl ester derivative, indicated by a closed triangle) after incubation of GA₁₂ with control (empty vector) or CYP714A1-producing yeast culture. Metabolite A was identified as 16-carboxy GA₁₂ (16-carboxy-16 β ,17-dihydro GA₁₂, **4**) by the retention time on GC and the mass spectrum listed in **Table 1**.

sequences, and both are distantly related to rice CYP714Bs and CYP714D1 proteins (38.5–47.6%) (**Supplementary Table S1**). To clarify the possible function of these cytochrome P450s in GA metabolism, enzymatic activities of recombinant CYP714A1 and CYP714A2 proteins were analyzed using a yeast expression system. We first analyzed the enzymatic activity by incubating a microsomal fraction of CYP714A1- or CYP714A2-expressing yeast with various GAs as putative substrates, as we did for CYP714D1 (Zhu et al. 2006), but only small amounts of putative products were obtained in all cases. Such a reduced or loss of activity of plant P450s in the yeast microsomal fraction has been reported previously (Helliwell et al. 1999, Nomura et al. 2005). We therefore added various GAs (GA₁₂, GA₉, GA₄, GA₅₃, GA₂₀ and GA₁) to a liquid culture of CYP714A1- or CYP714A2-expressing yeast cells, and the products were analyzed by full-scan gas chromatography–mass spectrometry (GC-MS).

Recombinant CYP714A1 protein catalyzes 16-carboxylation of GA₁₂

Among the GA compounds mentioned above, GA₁₂ (**1**) (bold numbers in parentheses refer to compounds indicated in **Supplementary Fig. S1**) was clearly metabolized by the CYP714A1-expressing yeast cells. A large fraction of the added GA₁₂ was metabolized to a predominant product (designated metabolite A), whereas no conversion occurred when the control yeast carrying the empty vector was used (**Fig. 2**). Metabolite A was subsequently identified to be a 16-carboxylated GA₁₂ (16-carboxy-16 β ,17-dihydro GA₁₂, designated in this paper as 16-carboxy GA₁₂, **4**) based on its retention time on GC and comparison of its mass spectrum with that of an authentic sample (**Table 1**). Meanwhile, we also found three other minor metabolites (B, C and D) (**Table 1**). Metabolite B

Table 1 GC-MS profiles of GA₁₂ metabolites by recombinant CYP714A1 protein

Metabolite and reference sample	Retention time on GC (KRI) ^a	Characteristic ions, <i>m/z</i> (relative intensity) ^b
GA ₁₂ metabolite A ^c	2641	406 [M ⁺] (3), 374 (100), 359 (16), 342 (15), 314 (46), 287 (60), 259 (56), 227 (84), 199 (93)
Authentic 16-carboxy-16 β ,17-dihydro GA ₁₂ ^c	2640	406 [M ⁺] (3), 374 (100), 359 (16), 342 (15), 314 (47), 287 (61), 259 (55), 227 (85), 199 (93)
Authentic 16-carboxy-16 α ,17- dihydro GA ₁₂ ^c	2677	406 [M ⁺] (4), 374 (100), 359 (19), 342 (9), 314 (40), 287 (69), 259 (60), 227 (74), 199 (91)
GA ₁₂ metabolite B ^d	2798	523 [M ⁺ -15] (1), 435 (100), 375 (27), 315 (4), 285 (5), 239 (6), 225 (7), 147 (28), 73 (75)
Authentic 16,17-dihydroxy-16 α ,17-dihydroGA ₁₂ ^d	2796	523 [M ⁺ -15] (2), 435 (100), 375 (29), 315 (4), 285 (6), 239 (9), 225 (9), 147 (28), 73 (80)
GA ₁₂ metabolite C ^d	2658	450 [M ⁺] (1), 435 (24), 418 (42), 403 (9), 328 (37), 300 (100), 287 (18), 259 (28), 241 (95), 73 (100)
GA ₁₂ metabolite D ^d	2736	464 [M ⁺] (28), 449 (64), 432 (22), 389 (85), 357 (14), 329 (31), 301 (26), 223 (61), 73 (100)

^aKovats retention index.

^b*m/z*, mass-to-charge ratio (M⁺, molecular ion).

^cMethyl ester derivative.

^dMethyl ester-trimethylsilyl ether derivative.

was determined to be 16,17-dihydroxy-16 α ,17-dihydro GA₁₂ (5), which was likely converted from 16 α ,17-epoxy GA₁₂ in the presence of acetic acid during purification, as previously reported (Zhu et al., 2006). Metabolite C appeared to be 17-hydroxy-16 ξ ,17-dihydro GA₁₂ (6) (Gaskin and Macmillan 1991), whereas metabolite D was unknown. GC-MS analysis of other GA compounds added as substrates showed no conversion, with the exception of GA₉ (2), which was converted to a putative oxidized product (16 ξ ,17-dihydroxy-16,17-dihydro GA₉, 3) and two unknown products (data not shown).

When we used [17,17-²H₂] GA₁₂ as a substrate for CYP714A1, the product, 16-carboxy GA₁₂ (4) carried a deuterium after derivatization to methyl esters, although there is no deuterium (hydrogen) at C17 (data not shown). Previous studies have shown that aldehydes RCH₂CHO are formed in addition to epoxides upon oxidation of the olefins RCH=CH₂ by rat liver microsomes in the presence of NADPH and O₂ (Mansuy et al. 1984). These aldehydes were not derived from the rearrangement of the epoxide, but are formed by the migration of a hydrogen within an intermediate with the active oxygen-iron complex. [16-²H] 16 β ,17-dihydro-17-oxo GA₁₂ might be produced from [17,17-²H₂] GA₁₂ by a similar mechanism, which might then have been further oxidized to form [16-²H] 16-carboxy GA₁₂. We have used this labeled product as an internal standard to quantify endogenous ones in plants (see below).

Recombinant CYP714A2 protein has *ent*-kaurenoic acid 13-hydroxylation and GA₁₂ 12 α -hydroxylation activity

Next we examined the enzymatic activity of CYP714A2. Among the various GAs described above, only GA₁₂ (1) was converted by the CYP714A2-expressing yeast culture; a large fraction of the added substrate was metabolized to a predominant product (metabolite E) (Fig. 3A). This metabolite was identified as 12 α -hydroxy GA₁₂ (GA₁₁₁, 13) by comparison of the retention time on GC and the mass spectrum with that of an authentic sample (Table 2, Supplementary Fig. S1). We also found two minor products (F and G) (Fig. 3A, Table 2). Intriguingly, product F was identified as 13-hydroxy GA₁₂ (GA₅₃, 14), while product G was identified as 12 α ,13-dihydroxy GA₁₂ (GA₁₂₃, 16) by comparison with respective authentic samples on GC-MS. The ratio of these GA₁₂ products was 100 (12 α -hydroxy, 13): 6 (13-hydroxy, 14): 6 (12 α ,13-dihydroxy, 16), calculated based on the relative intensity on the total ion chromatogram. The conversion of GA₁₂ (1) to GA₅₃ (14) by 13-hydroxylation is believed to be a key step of the early GA 13-hydroxylation pathway (Fig. 1) (Magome et al. 2013). But as shown above, 13-hydroxylation activity of the recombinant CYP714A2 protein was low when GA₁₂ (1) was used as a substrate. This result implies the presence of other substrates more preferential than GA₁₂ (1) for the 13-hydroxylation activity. Therefore, we tested three upstream precursors (*ent*-kaurenoic acid, 7; *ent*-7 α -hydroxy kaurenoic acid, 8; and GA₁₂-7-aldehyde, 9) of GA₁₂ (1) for this assay. When *ent*-kaurenoic acid was

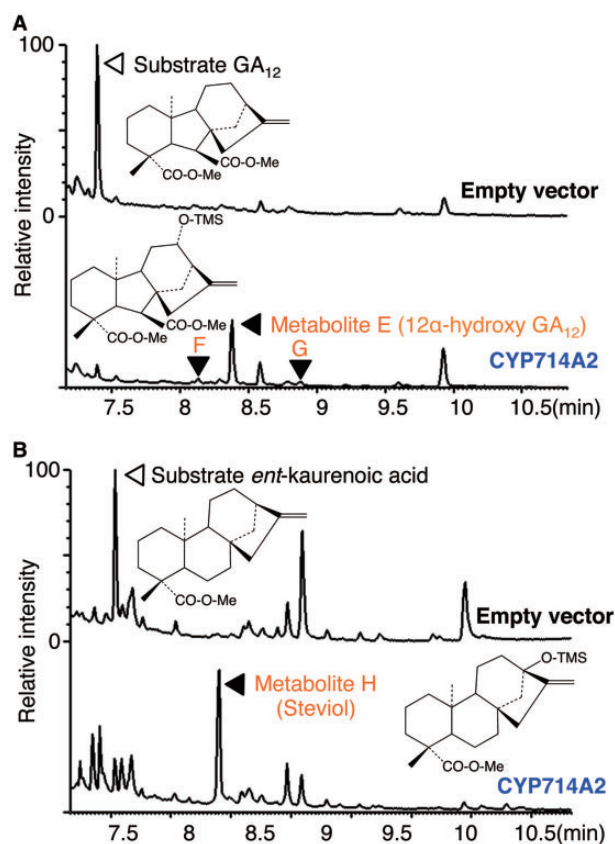


Fig. 3 Recombinant CYP714A2 protein has GA₁₂ 12 α -hydroxylation and *ent*-kaurenoic acid 13-hydroxylation activity. (A) Shown are total ion chromatograms (mass-to-charge ratio 50 to 600) of GA₁₂ (upper, methyl ester derivative, shown by an open triangle) and metabolites E, F and G (lower, methyl ester-trimethylsilyl ether derivative, each shown by a closed triangle) after incubation of GA₁₂ with control (empty vector) or CYP714A2-producing yeast culture. Metabolites E, F and G were identified as 12 α -hydroxy GA₁₂ (GA₁₁₁, 13), 13-hydroxy GA₁₂ (GA₅₃, 14) and 12 α ,13-dihydroxy GA₁₂ (GA₁₂₃, 16), respectively by their retention times on GC and the mass spectra listed in Table 2. (B) Shown are total ion chromatograms of *ent*-kaurenoic acid (upper, methyl ester derivative, shown by an open triangle) and metabolite H (lower, methyl ester-trimethylsilyl ether derivative, shown by a closed triangle) after incubation of *ent*-kaurenoic acid with control (empty vector) or CYP714A2-producing yeast culture. The metabolite H was identified as steviol (*ent*-13-hydroxy kaurenoic acid, 10) (Table 2).

added as a substrate, steviol (*ent*-13-hydroxy kaurenoic acid, 10) was detected as the sole product (metabolite H) (Fig. 3B, Table 2). In addition, another metabolite, which is probably *ent*-7 α ,13-dihydroxy kaurenoic acid (11) (Gaskin and Macmillan 1991), was detected as the sole product of *ent*-7 α -hydroxy kaurenoic acid metabolism (8) (Supplementary Table S2). When GA₁₂-7-aldehyde (9) was added as a substrate, a large amount of 12 ξ -hydroxylated (15) and a small amount of 13-hydroxylated (12) derivatives (Gaskin and Macmillan 1991) were detected as probable metabolites (Supplementary Table S2, Supplementary Fig. S1), as was the case with the

Table 2 GC-MS profiles of GA₁₂ and *ent*-kaurenoic acid metabolites by recombinant CYP714A2 protein

Metabolite and reference sample	Retention time on GC (KRI) ^a	Characteristic ions, <i>m/z</i> (relative intensity) ^b
GA ₁₂ metabolite E ^c	2560	448 [M ⁺] (2), 416 (24), 388 (16), 298 (34), 239 (55), 209 (65), 207 (76), 181 (45), 180 (47), 73 (100)
Authentic 12 α -hydroxy GA ₁₂ ^c	2560	448 [M ⁺] (2), 416 (29), 388 (19), 298 (45), 239 (65), 209 (69), 207 (78), 181 (50), 180 (49), 73 (100)
Authentic 12 β -hydroxy GA ₁₂ ^c	2580	448 [M ⁺] (3), 416 (30), 388 (20), 298 (42), 239 (51), 209 (68), 207 (78), 181 (46), 180 (46), 73 (100)
GA ₁₂ metabolite F ^c	2517	448 [M ⁺] (26), 416 (6), 389 (10), 251 (17), 235 (16), 208 (81), 207 (100), 193 (24), 181 (60), 73 (64)
Authentic GA ₅₃ ^c	2518	448 [M ⁺] (21), 416 (6), 389 (8), 251 (17), 235 (16), 208 (78), 207 (100), 193 (24), 181 (62), 73 (72)
GA ₁₂ metabolite G ^c	2643	536 [M ⁺] (23), 504 (7), 477 (9), 433 (25), 420 (14), 251 (17), 193 (62), 181 (55), 147 (30), 73 (100)
Authentic 12 α ,13-dihydroxy GA ₁₂ ^c	2643	536 [M ⁺] (22), 504 (7), 477 (10), 433 (24), 420 (14), 251 (16), 193 (65), 181 (56), 147 (31), 73 (100)
<i>ent</i> -Kaurenoic acid metabolite H ^c	2473	404 [M ⁺] (9), 389 (3), 348 (3), 214 (8), 193 (100), 180 (7), 73 (58)
Authentic steviol (<i>ent</i> -13-hydroxy kaurenoic acid) ^c	2473	404 [M ⁺] (9), 389 (3), 348 (3), 214 (8), 193 (100), 180 (6), 73 (48)

^aKovats retention index.^b*m/z*, mass-to-charge ratio (M⁺, molecular ion).^cMethyl ester-trimethylsilyl ether derivative.

GA₁₂ substrate. These results suggest that CYP714A2 is a bifunctional enzyme that preferentially catalyzes the C-13 hydroxylation of the *ent*-kaurene carbon skeleton (*ent*-kaurenoic acid, **7**; *ent*-7 α -hydroxy kaurenoic acid, **8**) and the C-12 hydroxylation of the *ent*-gibberellane carbon skeleton (GA₁₂-7-aldehyde, **9**; GA₁₂, **1**).

Biological activity of CYP714A1 and CYP714A2 products

To clarify the role of CYP714As in *Arabidopsis*, we examined the biological activity of the products of these enzymes using the *Arabidopsis ga1-3* mutant (Table 3). The *ga1-3* mutant has a null mutation in the *ent-copalyl diphosphate synthase* (CPS) gene in an early step of the GA biosynthesis pathway, resulting in the inability of the seeds to germinate without exogenous treatment with GA (Sun and Kamiya 1994). Due to their commercial unavailability, we used 16-carboxy GA₁₂ (**4**) and 12 α -hydroxy GA₁₂ (**13**) prepared enzymatically in this assay (see Materials and Methods). We found that the bioactive GA₄ was the most effective (100% germination with 1 μ M GA₄) in inducing *ga1-3* seed germination, and GA₁, a 13-hydroxylated bioactive GA, was effective to a lesser extent (32% germination with 1 μ M GA₁). Treatment with 1 μ M GA₁₂ (**1**), a common substrate for CYP714A1 and CYP714A2, promoted 74.3% germination. In contrast, treatment with 16-carboxy GA₁₂ (**4**), which is a product of CYP714A1, and 12 α -hydroxy GA₁₂ (**13**) and GA₅₃ (**14**), which are products of CYP714A2, hardly restored the non-germination phenotype of the *ga1-3* mutant. Similarly, steviol (**10**) exhibited weaker germination-inducing activity than did *ent*-kaurenoic acid (**7**) (Table 3). We also tested the bioactivity of 16-carboxy GA₁₂ (**4**) and

12 α -hydroxy GA₁₂ (**13**) on the effect of rosette growth of the *ga1-3* mutant, and found that these GA compounds hardly restore growth, unlike GA₁₂ (Supplementary Table S3). These results suggest that CYP714A1 and CYP714A2 have the potential to play a role in reducing GA activity in *Arabidopsis*.

Overexpression of CYP714A1 causes extreme dwarfism, whereas that of CYP714A2 causes semi-dwarfism in *Arabidopsis*

The results from biological activity studies described above indicated that CYP714A1 and CYP714A2 potentially encode distinct GA inactivation enzymes. To further understand the role of these enzymes, we generated transgenic *Arabidopsis* plants that overexpressed CYP714A1 or CYP714A2 under the control of the *Cauliflower mosaic virus* (CaMV) 35S promoter. We found that the majority of CYP714A1-atOE lines exhibited extreme dwarfism that resembled that of *ga1-3*, while CYP714A2-atOE plants showed semi-dwarfism (Fig. 4A, B). Their dwarfism was restored by exogenously applied GA₄ (Fig. 4C). Both CYP714A1-atOE and CYP714A2-atOE showed a late-flowering phenotype, as seen in known GA biosynthesis mutants, including *ga1-3*, under constant light (Fig. 4B). The CYP714A2-atOE plants retained their fertility under the normal growth condition, whilst the CYP714A1-atOE plants needed exogenous application of GA₄ to restore their fertility (data not shown). We analyzed transcripts of CYP714A1-atOE and CYP714A2-atOE, and confirmed high accumulation [over 1000-fold compared with wild type (WT) of each transcript of the transgene] (Supplementary Fig. S2). Expression of the GA biosynthesis genes GA20ox1 (GA 20-oxidase1) and GA3ox1 (GA 3-oxidase1), both of which are negatively regulated by GA

Table 3 Biological activities of GAs on the germination of *Arabidopsis ga1-3* mutant

Compound	Concentration	Germination (%)
Mock		0 ± 0.0
GA ₁₂	10 nM	1.3 ± 1.3
	100 nM	15.0 ± 1.5
	1 μM	74.3 ± 2.2
16-carboxy GA ₁₂	10 nM	0 ± 0.0
	100 nM	0 ± 0.0
	1 μM	0.3 ± 0.3
12α-hydroxy GA ₁₂ (GA ₁₁₁)	10 nM	0 ± 0.0
	100 nM	0.7 ± 0.7
	1 μM	0 ± 0.0
13-hydroxy GA ₁₂ (GA ₅₃)	10 nM	0 ± 0.0
	100 nM	0 ± 0.0
	1 μM	0.7 ± 0.7
GA ₄	10 nM	16.7 ± 0.7
	100 nM	72.3 ± 3.0
	1 μM	100 ± 0.0
GA ₁	10 nM	0 ± 0.0
	100 nM	1.7 ± 0.3
	1 μM	32.0 ± 2.5
<i>ent</i> -Kaurenoic acid	100 nM	0.7 ± 0.7
	1 μM	2.7 ± 2.2
	10 μM	16.3 ± 4.1
Steviol (<i>ent</i> -13-hydroxy kaurenoic acid)	100 nM	0 ± 0.0
	1 μM	0 ± 0.0
	10 μM	3.3 ± 3.3

Data are mean ± SEM of triplicate tests
Mock, treatment without GA.

activity (Xu et al. 1995, Cowling et al. 1998), was highly induced in both overexpressor plants (Supplementary Fig. S2).

CYP714A1-overexpressor plants show severe GA deficiency and reduced sensitivity to GA₄

We further examined the CYP714A1-overexpressor plants that showed an extreme dwarf phenotype. GA analysis of CYP714A1-atOE plants (lines a4 and c2) showed that bioactive GA₄ was under the detection level limit (Fig. 5A, Supplementary Table S4). In addition, the levels of GA intermediates such as GA₁₂ (1), GA₁₅, GA₂₄ and GA₅₃ (14) were significantly reduced in the overexpressor plants. The GA₁₂ metabolite 16-carboxy GA₁₂ (4) accumulated in the CYP714A1-atOE plants, but accumulated comparably in WT plants (Fig. 5A). In our yeast expression assay described above, GA₁₂ (1) and GA₉ (2) were found to be substrates for the recombinant CYP714A1 protein, but GA₄ was not. This was unlike rice CYP714D1/EUI, which used non-13-hydroxy GAs including GA₄, but not 13-hydroxy GA including GA₁, as substrates (Zhu et al. 2006). To determine whether the bioactive GA₄ could be a substrate for CYP714A1 in planta, we examined the effect of three bioactive GAs, GA₁, GA₄ and 16,17-dihydro GA₄ (racemic mixture), on the growth of CYP714A1-atOE plants (lines a4 and c2). We expected that 16,17-dihydro GA₄ would not be inactivated by CYP714A1 and CYP714D1 because

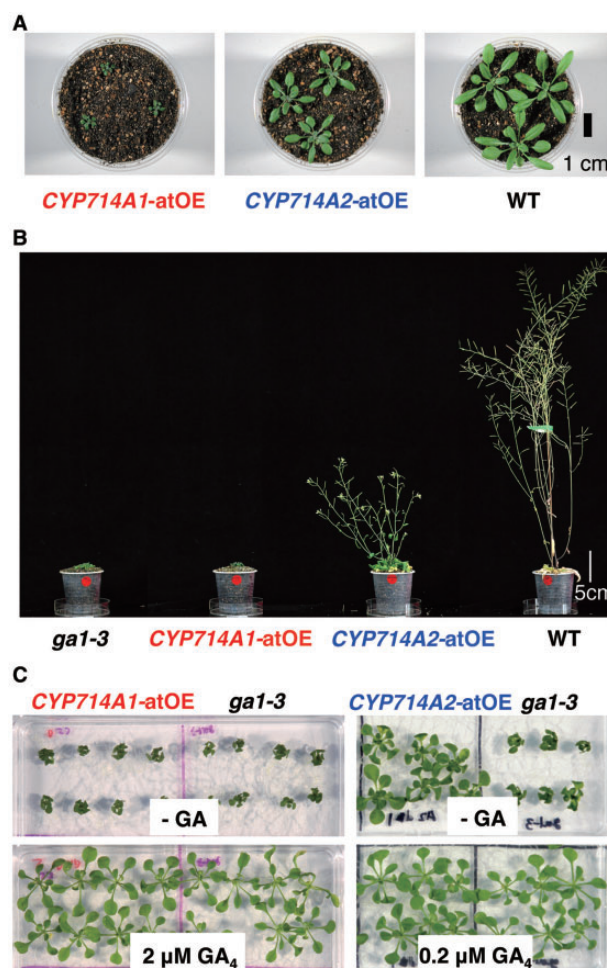


Fig. 4 *Arabidopsis* plants that overexpress the CYP714A1 or CYP714A2 gene. (A) Phenotype of CYP714A1-atOE and CYP714A2-atOE plants (24 days old). Bar = 1 cm. (B) Phenotype of *ga1-3*, CYP714A1-atOE and CYP714A2-atOE plants (54 days old). Bar = 5 cm. (C) Restoration of growth of CYP714A1-atOE and CYP714A2-atOE plants by exogenous application of GA₄. Sixteen-day-old seedlings of *ga1-3*, CYP714A1-atOE and CYP714A2-atOE plants are shown. They were first grown on 1/2 MS agar media for 6 d and then transferred to and grown on 1/2 MS agar media without or with GA₄ (2 or 0.2 μM).

of its structural protection at C-16 and C-17. The rosette growth of CYP714A1-atOE plants was comparable to that of *ga1-3* mutant plants in the absence of exogenous GA (Fig. 5B). The effect of the tested compounds on the growth of WT plants can be summarized as follows: GA₄ > 16,17-dihydro GA₄ > GA₁. Dose-response curves of CYP714A1-atOE and *ga1-3* were nearly overlapping when the plants were treated with GA₁ or 16,17-dihydro GA₄ (Fig. 5B). However, the dose-response curves were clearly different between CYP714A1-atOE and *ga1-3* when GA₄ was used; CYP714A1-atOE plants were less responsive to GA₄ than *ga1-3* (Fig. 5B). One possible explanation for these results is that GA₄, but not GA₁ and 16,17-dihydro GA₄, might be a substrate for CYP714A1 in planta.

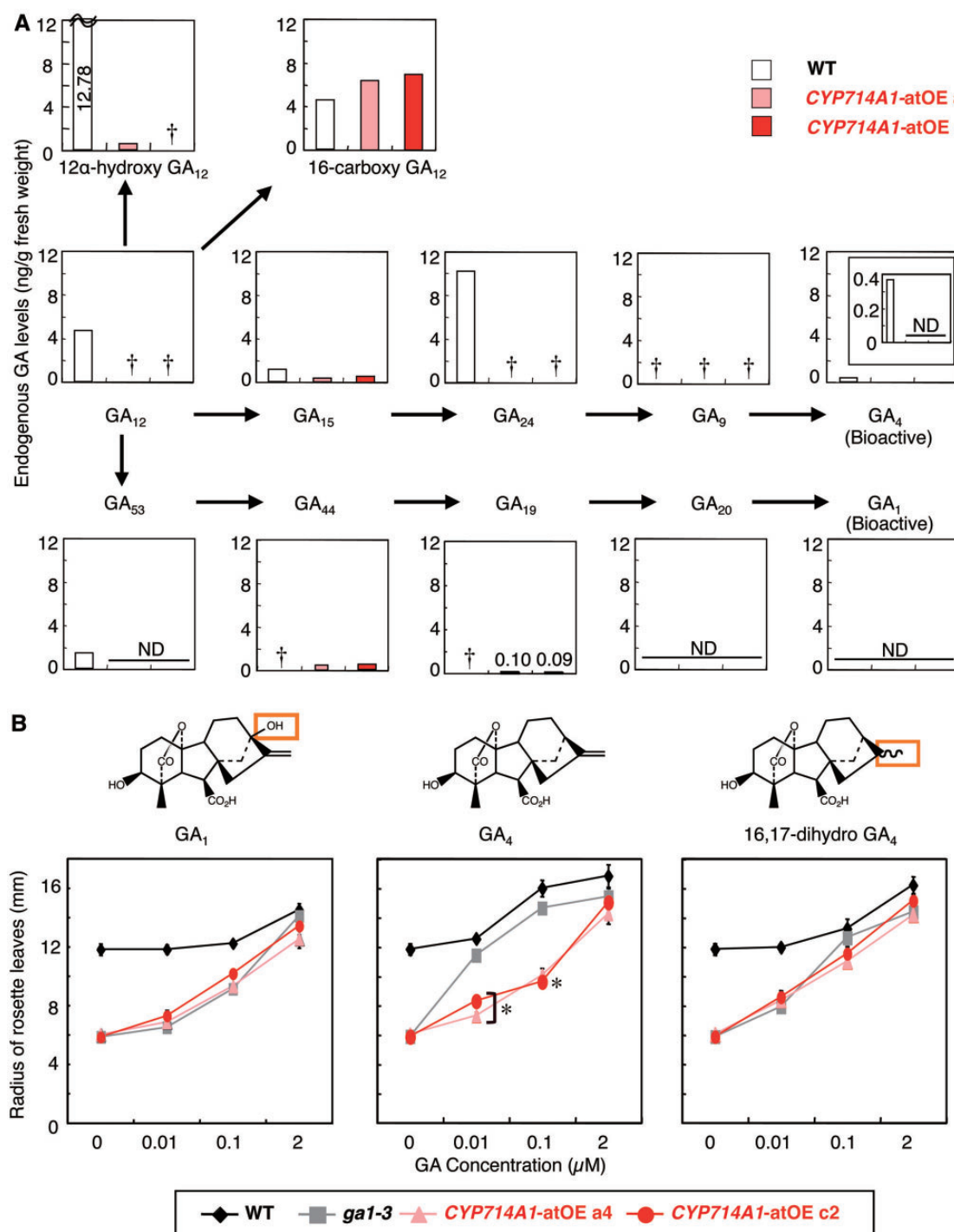


Fig. 5 Analyses of CYP714A1-overexpressing plants. (A) Endogenous GA levels in the aerial part of CYP714A1-atOE plants. GAs are shown according to the order in the biosynthesis pathway (Fig. 1). Results for GA₄ are also indicated in the inset with a different y axis scale to clarify the differences among the plants. GA analyses were repeated twice with similar results (Supplementary Table S4). Representative data (1st) are shown. ND, not detected; †, could not be quantified due to trace level. (B) GA₄, but not GA₁ and 16,17-dihydro GA₄, is a likely substrate for CYP714A1. Six-day-old seedlings grown on 1/2 MS agar media were transferred to 1/2 MS agar media containing various concentrations of GAs. Rosette radii of 16-day-old seedlings were measured ($n = 13-16$). Error bars represent SEM. *Significant difference between *ga1-3* and CYP714-atOEs (Student's *t*-test with Bonferroni correction, $P < 0.001$).

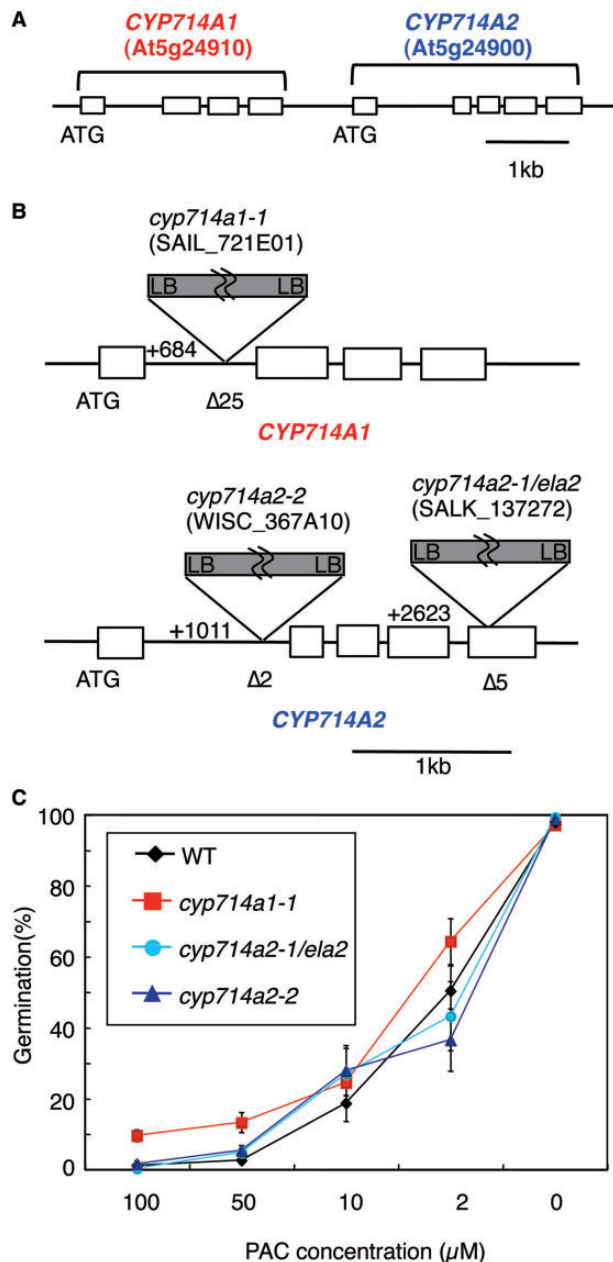


Fig. 7 Characterization of *cyp714a1* and *cyp714a2* mutants. (A) Tandem location of *CYP714A1* and *CYP714A2* genes on chromosome 5. (B) Physical map of the T-DNA insertion of the *cyp714a1* and *cyp714a2* mutants. The number denotes the distance from the initiation codon. Delta numbers denote the number of deleted nucleotides in the mutants. (C) Paclobutrazol (PAC) resistance during seed germination. Seeds were placed on filter papers soaked with water containing the indicated concentrations of PAC. Seeds were scored as germinated when radicle protrusion was visible. Values are the means $\pm$ SEM of seven or eight independent experiments.

level of each intact mRNA in these mutants was estimated at best as less than one-tenth of the WT level in *cyp714a1-1*, and at best as less than one-thousandth of the WT level in *cyp714a2-2* (Supplementary Fig. S4). We measured the endogenous GA

levels in siliques and found that 16-carboxy GA_{12} (4) was significantly decreased in *cyp714a1-1* (Supplementary Table S6). However, the levels of other GAs, including bioactive GA_4 and GA_1 of *cyp714a1-1*, were comparable to those of WT. GA analysis of the *cyp714a2-1* and *cyp714a2-2/ela2* mutants showed that 12 α -hydroxy GA_{12} (13) was decreased in the late stage of siliques of both mutants (Supplementary Table S7). However, other than this change, there is no clear difference in the gross GA profiles in both lines of mutants compared with WT (Supplementary Table S7). Consistent with the GA profiles, these *cyp714a1* and *cyp714a2* mutants are morphologically similar to WT under the normal growth condition (data not shown). Flowering times of these mutants were almost the same as those of WT plants under long- and short-day conditions (Supplementary Fig. S5). As described above, both these genes are highly expressed in developing seeds and siliques (Supplementary Fig. S3). We examined the seed phenotype and found that the *cyp714a1-1* mutant showed weak resistance to the GA biosynthesis inhibitor paclobutrazol (PAC) during seed germination (Fig. 7C). Only 2.6 and 1.0% of WT seeds germinated in the presence of 50 and 100 μM PAC, respectively, while 13.2 and 9.6% of *cyp714a1-1* seeds germinated under similar conditions.

Discussion

Previously we found that the *CYP714D1/EUI* gene encodes GA 16 α ,17-epoxidase, and Magome et al. (2013) reported that the *CYP714B1* and *CYP714B2* genes encode GA13ox in rice. Here, our functional analysis demonstrated that *Arabidopsis* *CYP714A1* and *CYP714A2* also encode distinct GA modification enzymes that oxidize various sites of C and D rings of GA compounds. Our study indicates that the metabolism of GA carried out by CYP714 family proteins is common to monocots and eudicots.

Functional analysis of the recombinant CYP714A1 protein in yeast cells showed that CYP714A1 preferentially catalyzes the conversion of GA_{12} (1) to 16-carboxy GA_{12} (4) (Fig. 2). Bioactivity of this GA_{12} metabolite (Table 3) and the GA-deficient phenotype of the CYP714A1-overexpressing *Arabidopsis* plants (Fig. 4) indicate that the 16-carboxylation of GA_{12} (1) is an inactivation reaction. The severe GA deficiency of the CYP714A1 overexpressor plants can thus be explained by the depletion of precursor GAs, including GA_{12} (1) (Fig. 5A), similar to what occurs in CYP714D1-overexpressing rice plants (Zhu et al. 2006). Because P450s are monooxygenases (Schuler and Werck-Reichhart 2003), 16-carboxy GA_{12} (4) is probably produced via a multi-step reaction from GA_{12} (1), and no potential intermediates have been detected in our yeast expression assay. To the best of our knowledge, the occurrence of 16-carboxy GA_{12} (4) has not been reported in any organisms until now. We detected relatively high levels of this GA metabolite in the aerial part of the seedlings and in siliques of WT plants (Fig. 5A and Supplementary Table S6), indicating that 16-carboxy GA_{12} (4)

is a major GA₁₂ metabolite in *Arabidopsis*. We also found increased levels of 16-carboxy GA₁₂ (**4**) in CYP714A1-atOE plants (**Fig. 5A** and **Supplementary Table S4**) and decreased levels of this metabolite in the *cyp714a1-1* mutant (**Supplementary Table S6**). These results support the idea that CYP714A1 catalyzes the conversion of GA₁₂ (**1**) to 16-carboxy GA₁₂ (**4**) in planta. Besides 16-carboxy GA₁₂ (**4**), three minor metabolites (B, C and D) were detected in our yeast expression assay (**Table 1**). Among them, metabolite B (16,17-dihydroxy-16 α ,17-dihydro GA₁₂, **5**), which is most likely a non-enzymatically hydrated form of 16 α ,17-epoxy GA₁₂, is a GA₁₂ metabolite produced by the CYP714D1 protein (Zhu et al. 2006). This suggests that CYP714A1 also possesses GA 16 α ,17-epoxidase activity, and that the modes of catalysis of CYP714A1 and CYP714D1 therefore are in part similar to each other.

The substrate preference of CYP714A1 protein is currently unclear. The recombinant CYP714A1 was able to catalyze oxidation of GA₉ (**2**; data not shown) as well as GA₁₂ (**1**), indicating that CYP714A1 is capable of catalyzing oxidation of multiple GA substrates. Our previous *in vitro* results obtained with the recombinant CYP714D1 protein indicated that 13-hydroxylation negatively affects the substrate preference of this enzyme: CYP714D1 catalyzed oxidation of non-13-hydroxy GAs (GA₁₂, GA₉ and GA₄) but not 13-hydroxy GAs (GA₅₃, GA₂₀ and GA₁) (Zhu et al. 2006). The recombinant CYP714A1 protein, unlike CYP714D1 protein, did not catalyze oxidation of 13-hydroxy GAs, but also did not catalyze oxidation of a non-13-hydroxy GA, GA₄, in yeast cells (data not shown). However, CYP714A1-atOE plants were less sensitive to the applied GA₄ than was the *ga1-3* mutant, a difference that was not observed for GA₁ or 16,17-dihydro GA₄ (**Fig. 5B**). This observation could be explained by inactivation of GA₄ by CYP714A1 in planta. One possible explanation for this discrepancy is that the uptake of GA₄ by yeast cells from liquid media might not have been efficient for some unknown reason. To eliminate this possibility, *in vitro* functional analysis of CYP714A1 using a microsome fraction would be needed.

In contrast to the severe dwarf phenotype of the CYP714A1 overexpressor plants (**Fig. 4A, B**), the loss of function mutant *cyp714a1-1* shows a subtle GA-related phenotype in the presence of a GA biosynthesis inhibitor (**Fig. 7C**). In addition, our GA analysis of siliques of this mutant showed that there was no significant change in bioactive GA levels (GA₄ and GA₁) compared with those in WT, while the levels of 16-carboxy GA₁₂ (**4**) were significantly decreased (27% of the WT level) (**Supplementary Table S6**). It has been reported that another *cyp714a1/ela1* mutant (SALK_016089) also had no visible phenotype (Zhang et al. 2011). One possible reason for the small impact of the disruption of this gene on bioactive GA levels is the presence of other GA inactivation enzymes in the siliques. Five C₁₉-GA2ox genes (GA2ox1, -2, -3, -4 and -6), encoding 2ODD enzymes, are expressed in *Arabidopsis* siliques (Rieu et al. 2008). Reduced fertility, possibly due to the unequal elongation of pistils and stamens, was observed in the *ga2ox*

quintuple mutant but not in each single mutant (Rieu et al. 2008). Furthermore, the GA methyltransferase genes (GAMT1 and GAMT2) are also highly expressed in the siliques (Varbanova et al. 2007). To clarify the physiological role of the CYP714A1 gene in siliques, preparation of multiple mutants with defects in other GA inactivation enzyme genes might be required.

Our functional analysis of the recombinant CYP714A2 protein showed that this P450 enzyme possesses 12 α -hydroxylation and/or 13-hydroxylation activities using early GA intermediates in the GA biosynthesis pathway (*ent*-kaurenoic acid, **7**; *ent*-7 α -hydroxy kaurenoic acid, **8**; GA₁₂-7-aldehyde, **9**; and GA₁₂, **1**) as substrates (**Fig. 1**). In particular, *ent*-kaurenoic acid (**7**) and *ent*-7 α -hydroxy kaurenoic acid (**8**) were predominantly metabolized into steviol (*ent*-13-hydroxy kaurenoic acid, **10**) and probably to *ent*-7 α ,13-dihydroxy kaurenoic acid (**11**), respectively (**Fig. 3B**, **Table 2**, **Supplementary Table S2**). These results suggest that CYP714A2 may contribute to producing 13-hydroxy GAs in *Arabidopsis*, even though GA₁₂ is not its substrate (as has been predicted), but, rather, more upstream precursors (**Fig. 1**). The following results and facts support our speculation. First, steviol (**10**) exists in WT *Arabidopsis* plants (**Fig. 6**, **Supplementary Table S5**). Second, steviol (**10**) and almost all 13-hydroxy GAs accumulated in *Arabidopsis* plants that overexpressed CYP714A2 (**Fig. 6**, **Supplementary Table S5**). Third, CYP714A2 is predominantly expressed in developing seeds and siliques (**Supplementary Fig. S3**), in which 13-hydroxy GAs, including GA₁, are highly accumulated in *Arabidopsis* (Varbanova et al. 2007, Kanno et al. 2010). Finally, other CYP714 members, such as rice CYP714B1 and CYP714B2, encode GA13ox, although they catalyze the 13-hydroxylation of GA₁₂ (**1**) but not that of *ent*-kaurenoic acid (**7**) (Magome et al. 2013). *Arabidopsis* plants that overexpress CYP714B1 or CYP714B2 show semi-dwarfism with increased levels of 13-hydroxy GAs, including GA₁ (Magome et al. 2013). However, our GA analysis of siliques of *cyp714a2-1* and *cyp714a2-2* showed that there is no significant change in GA 13-hydroxylation in both mutant alleles compared with WT (**Supplementary Table S7**). One possible reason for this result is the likely presence of other GA13oxs in *Arabidopsis*. Although cytochrome P450s are usually membrane-bound proteins, GA 13-hydroxylation activity was found in a soluble fraction of spinach leaves (Gilmour et al. 1986). Recombinant TaGA3ox2 protein (a GA3ox from wheat) exhibits weak GA13ox activity, in addition to GA3ox activity *in vitro* (Appleford et al. 2006). Recently, a P450 gene that encodes *ent*-kaurenoic acid 13-oxidase and probably belongs to the CYP72A subfamily was found in stevia (*Stevia rebaudiana*) (Brandle and Telmer 2007). These orthologs of *Arabidopsis* may play a role in the GA13-hydroxylation in siliques.

Our bioactivity tests indicate that the 12 α -hydroxylation of GA₁₂ (**1**) by CYP714A2 is an inactivation pathway (**Table 3**, **Supplementary Table S3**). The level of 12 α -hydroxy GA₁₂ (**13**) was rather decreased in the CYP714A2 at OE plants (**Fig. 6**, **Supplementary Table S5**). This is possibly due to the

depletion of GA₁₂ precursors by the 13-hydroxylation activity of CYP714A2 in earlier steps of the GA biosynthesis pathway in the transgenic plants. This result does not, therefore, necessarily mean that the 12 α -hydroxylation activity of CYP714A2 is improbable *in planta*. Indeed, decreased levels of 12 α -hydroxy GA₁₂ (**13**) at the late stage of siliques of *cyp714a2* mutants (**Supplementary Table S7**) indicate that CYP714A2 protein plays a role in GA 12 α -oxidase activity in *Arabidopsis*. In contrast, no reduction in the levels of 12 α -hydroxy GA₁₂ (**13**) in the early stage of siliques of the mutant (**Supplementary Table S7**) suggests the presence of other GA 12 α -oxidases. The 12 α -hydroxylated GA₁₂ (**13**) has been found in various plants, such as the seeds of pumpkin (Blechsmidt et al. 1984) and sporophytes of the tree ferns *Cybotium glaucum* and *Dicksonia antarctica* (Yamane et al. 1988), suggesting that this pathway is common to many plant species. In addition, the 12 α ,13-dihydroxy GA₁₂ (GA₁₂₃, **16**), which is one of the GA₁₂ metabolites produced by CYP714A2 (**Table 2**), was also found in immature fruits of strawberry (*Fragaria × ananassa*) (Blake et al. 2000).

P450s share the same CYP number when their sequence identity is typically >40%; they are further grouped into subfamilies (indicated by letters) based on sequence identity >50% (Schuler and Werck-Reichhart 2003). In this study, we demonstrated that although CYP714A1 and rice CYP714D1 (38.8% identity; **Supplementary Table S1**) are classified in different subfamilies, they are functionally similar as GA inactivation enzymes (C16, C17 oxidation). Both CYP714A2 and rice CYP714Bs (41.2–42.0% identity) possess GA 13-hydroxylation activity. Furthermore, we have also demonstrated that CYP714A1 and CYP714A2 (73.1% identity) possess distinct enzyme activities, even though they are classified in the same subfamily. The diversity of CYP714 family members makes it difficult to speculate on the function of the CYP714 proteins based only on their primary structures. Recently, a similar functional diversity has been reported for the rice CYP701A/*ent*-kaurene oxidase (KO) subfamily, showing that CYP701A8 (a KO paralog) likely plays a role in the production of diterpenoid phytoalexins, but not in GA biosynthesis (Wang et al. 2012).

The current model for the contribution of CYP714A1 and CYP714A2 to GA metabolism is shown in **Fig. 8**. CYP714A1 would play a role in the inactivation of non-13-hydroxy GAs such as GA₁₂ (**1**), GA₉ (**2**) and possibly GA₄ by C16-carboxylation or a similar oxidation. CYP714A2 would play a role in the C13-hydroxylation using *ent*-kaurenoic acid (**7**) and *ent*-7 α -hydroxy kaurenoic acid (**8**) as substrates. This leads to the production of weakly bioactive GA₁ via the early GA 13-hydroxylation pathway. Although it is unclear whether *ent*-kaurenoic acid oxidases (KAOs) metabolize 13-hydroxy substrates, accumulation of GA₁ in the CYP714A2 overexpressor plants (**Fig. 6**, **Supplementary Table S5**) supports our idea. Besides 13-oxidase, CYP714A2 would also act as a 12 α -oxidase when GA₁₂-7-aldehyde (**9**) and GA₁₂ (**1**) are its substrates. Therefore, both CYP714A1 and CYP714A2 would compete for the non-13-hydroxy substrates (**Fig. 8**). These competitive activities would determine the ratio of the strongly active GA (GA₄)

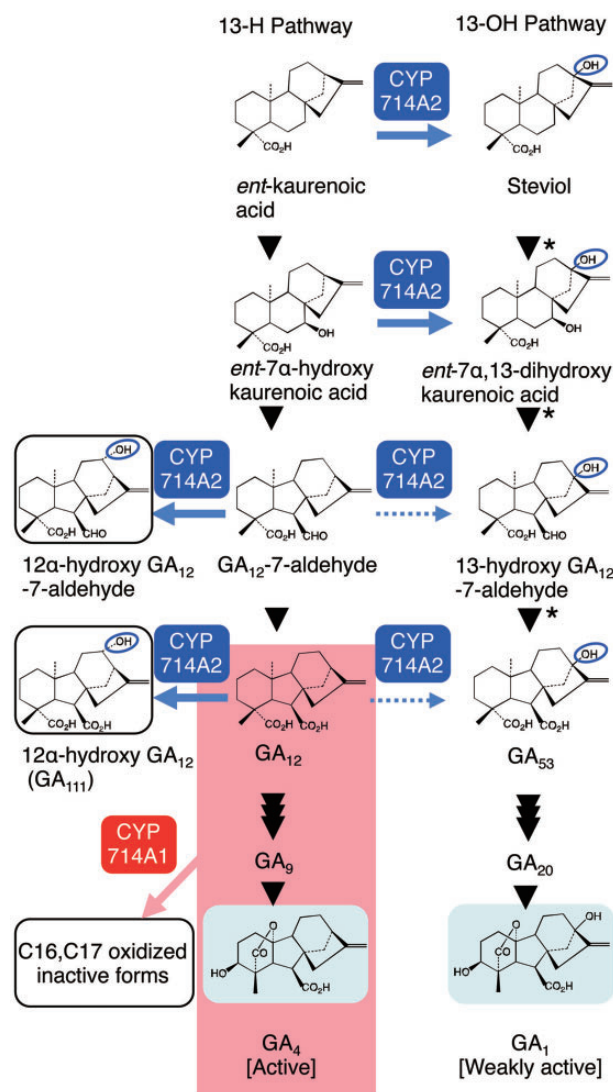


Fig. 8 Proposed model for the roles of CYP714A1 and CYP714A2 in GA metabolism. Black arrowheads indicate the flow of the GA biosynthesis pathway. The biosynthesis pathway from steviol (*ent*-13-hydroxy kaurenoic acid) to 13-hydroxy GA₁₂ (GA₅₃) (indicated by *) has not been experimentally demonstrated (see text). The red square box and arrow indicate substrates of CYP714A1 and its inactivation activity. Blue arrows indicate strong (solid) or weak (dotted) 12 α -hydroxylation/13-hydroxylation activities of CYP714A2.

and the weakly active one (GA₁), as is the case with the CYP714D1 and CYP714Bs in rice (Magome et al. 2013).

The physiological roles of CYP714A1 and CYP714A2 are unclear. Intriguingly, Zhang et al. (2011) reported that CYP714A1 and CYP714A2 double knockdown plants made by the combinational use of T-DNA insertion and RNA interference (RNAi) showed increased above-ground biomass and early flowering with increased levels of bioactive GA₄. These phenotypes might be explained as a consequence of double blocking of the CYP714A1 and CYP714A2 pathways (**Fig. 8**). However, GA₁ levels of the double knockdown plants were comparable to those of WT (Zhang et al. 2011), indicating that GA 13-

hydroxylation is not blocked in these plants. In addition, the transcript levels of CYP714A1 and CYP714A2 are very low in above-ground tissues, except for developing seeds and siliques in WT (**Supplementary Fig. S3**). These results seem inconsistent with the outstanding GA overdose phenotype. Further studies would be needed to reveal the cause of the double knockdown phenotype.

The steviol (**10**) synthase activity of CYP714A2 shows promise for applications other than plant growth regulation. Steviol (**10**) is an aglycone of stevioside, a natural sweetener produced by stevia (*S. rebaudiana*) (reviewed by Brandle and Telmer 2007). We found that steviol (**10**) can be accumulated by over-expressing the CYP714A2 gene in yeast and *Arabidopsis* (**Figs 3B, 6**), demonstrating the potential for efficient stevioside production in heterologous organisms using biotechnological approaches.

Materials and Methods

Plant materials and growth conditions

Arabidopsis thaliana ecotype Columbia-0 (Col-0) was used as the WT. The T-DNA tagged mutants *cyp714a1-1* (SAIL_721E01), *cyp714a2-1/ela2* (SALK_137272) and *cyp714a2-2* (WISC_367A10) were provided by the *Arabidopsis* Biological Resource Center (Columbus, OH, USA). *ga1-3* mutant (back-crossed six times to Col-0 plants) has been described previously (Mitchum et al. 2006). Plants were grown on soil (mold:vermiculite = 1:1, v/v) or 1/2 Murashige–Skoog (MS) agar media (Murashige and Skoog 1962) under constant light conditions (approximately $60 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) at 22°C unless otherwise specified.

Heterologous expression in yeast and identification of CYP714As metabolites

Coding regions of CYP714A1 and CYP714A2 were amplified from cDNA clones using sets of primers (**Supplementary Table S8**). The PCR products were ligated into pCR2.1 vector plasmid (Life Technologies Corporation, Carlsbad, CA USA). After confirmation of the nucleotide sequence, the plasmid DNAs were digested with BamHI and KpnI, and the DNA fragment containing the cloned DNAs was ligated into pYEDP60 vector. The resulting plasmid was transformed into yeast strain WAT11 engineered to co-produce the *Arabidopsis* NADPH P450 reductase-1 (Pompon et al. 1996). Functional analyses of CYP714A1 and CYP714A2 were performed by in vivo bioconversion (Pompon et al. 1996). The transformed colonies were inoculated into 10 ml of SGI medium (Pompon et al. 1996) and were grown at 30°C for 1 d in a shaking incubator (200 rpm). One milliliter of SGI-cultured yeast medium was inoculated into 10 ml of SLI medium (Pompon et al. 1996) and grown at 28°C for 1 d until the cell density reached 4×10^7 cells ml^{-1} . The medium was diluted with fresh SLI medium to obtain 4×10^6 cells ml^{-1} . Five milliliters of the diluted medium was incubated with 1 μg of a GA

substrate at 28°C for 16 h until the cell density reached 5×10^7 cells ml^{-1} . The GA products were extracted with ethyl acetate. The ethyl acetate phase was partitioned against 0.5 M K_2HPO_4 buffer (pH 9). The buffer phase was adjusted to pH 3 with 6 N HCl and extracted with ethyl acetate. The acidic ethyl acetate phase was evaporated to dryness. The residual solid was dissolved in 5% methanol (including 1% acetic acid) and loaded onto a Bond Elut C18 column (ODS, Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA USA) that was eluted with 80% methanol after washing with 1% acetic acid. The metabolites of *ent*-kaurenoic acid (**7**), *ent*-7 α -hydroxy kaurenoic acid (**8**) and GA_{12} -7-aldehyde (**9**) were extracted with *n*-hexane, followed by *n*-hexane-ethyl acetate (1:1) and ethyl acetate. The extracts obtained with these three kinds of solvents were combined and evaporated to dryness. The residual solid was dissolved in 90% methanol and passed through a Bond Elut C18 column. The column eluates were evaporated to dryness and derivatized with diazomethane and/or *N*-methyl-*N*-(trimethylsilyl)trifluoroacetamide. GC-MS analysis of the samples was performed as described previously (Zhu et al. 2006).

Chemical synthesis of 16-carboxy GA_{12} (16-carboxy-16 β ,17-dihydro GA_{12}) trimethyl ester

Following procedures reported by Gaskin et al. (1992) and Seto et al. (1995), an authentic sample was prepared from GA_{12} dimethyl ester by treatment with diborane to give a mixture of epimeric 16,17-dihydro-17-ols, which were oxidized with Dess–Martin reagent to the corresponding aldehydes. Base-catalyzed equilibration then afforded the 16 α -epimer, which was oxidized with Jones reagent to 16-carboxy-16 β ,17-dihydro GA_{12} (**4**). Then, diazomethane treatment produced the trimethyl ester. Details will be published elsewhere.

Enzymatic preparation of 16-carboxy GA_{12} and 12 α -hydroxy GA_{12}

16-Carboxy GA_{12} (**4**) and 12 α -hydroxy GA_{12} (**13**) were prepared by incubation of GA_{12} (**1**; 50 μg) with the recombinant yeast cultures (50 ml), producing CYP714A1 and CYP714A2, respectively. The acidic ethyl acetate-soluble phase was purified by reversed-phase HPLC using a CAPCELL PAK C18 TYPE SG120Å column (250 $\times$ 6 mm i.d.; Shiseido Company, Ltd, Tokyo Japan) eluted with the following methanol–water (including 0.1% acetic acid) gradient at a flow rate of 1.5 ml min^{-1} : 0–5 min, 20% methanol; 5–40 min, 20–80% methanol; and 40–50 min, 80% methanol. Fractions were collected every minute. The column oven temperature was maintained at 40°C. The following fractions were collected: fraction 34/35 (for 12 α -dihydroxy GA_{12}), 37/38 (for 16-carboxy GA_{12}) and 44/45 (for remaining GA_{12}). The concentrations of 16-carboxy and 12 α -dihydroxy derivatives were estimated from these conversion rates, based on the assumption that their recoveries were 100%. For quantification of endogenous 16-carboxy GA_{12} (**4**) in plants, its ^2H -labeled internal standard ([16- ^2H] 16-carboxy GA_{12}) was prepared by incubating [17,17- $^2\text{H}_2$] GA_{12} with the CYP714A1-producing yeast culture (see Results).

Bioassay of GA metabolites

The *ga1-3* mutant was used to test the biological activities of GAs. In the seed germination assay, *ga1-3* seeds (about 50 seeds) that were washed with 0.02% (w/v) Tween 20 were imbibed in water with or without various GAs at 4°C for 4 d and then germinated on a filter paper (3MM; GE Healthcare UK Ltd, Little Chalfont, UK) soaked with water with or without various GAs at 22°C under continuous light ($36 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) for 3 d. Seeds were scored as germinated when radicle protrusion was visible. To evaluate rosette growth, *ga1-3* seeds were stratified in the presence of 50 μM GA₄ in the dark at 4°C for 4 d. The seeds were washed with sterile water five times to remove excess GA₄, placed on 1/2 MS agar medium and then incubated for 9 d. The grown seedlings were transplanted onto new 1/2 MS agar media with or without GAs. After 6 d, the diameters of the rosettes were measured ($n = 5$). The assays were performed using triplicate samples.

Transgenic plant construction

To construct transgenic plants overexpressing CYP714A1 or CYP714A2 (CYP714A1- or CYP714A2-atOE), coding regions of CYP714A1 and CYP714A2 were amplified from cDNA clones using sets of primers (Supplementary Table S8). The PCR products were ligated into pCR2.1 vector plasmid (Life Technologies Corporation, Carlsbad, CA USA). After confirmation of the nucleotide sequence, the plasmid DNAs were digested with BamHI and PstI, and a DNA fragment containing the cloned DNA was inserted between the CaMV 35S promoter and the nopaline synthase terminator of the pCGN vector. *Agrobacterium* (strain EHA105)-mediated transformation of WT was conducted as described (Magome et al. 2004). Homozygous T3 plants were used for analysis.

Quantification of GAs

For quantitative GA analysis of CYP714A1 or CYP714A2-atOE plants, aerial parts of the overexpressor plants grown on soil were harvested just before bolting and were stored at −80°C. To analyze siliques of *cyp714a1*, late-stage siliques (stages 5–10) were collected. For analysis of *cyp714a2* mutants, early-stage siliques (stages 3–5) as well as the late-stage siliques were collected. Stages of siliques were defined according to Bowman (1994) and Kleindt et al. (2010). The GA content was determined by liquid chromatography-selected reaction monitoring as previously described (Varbanova et al., 2007).

GA and paclobutrazol treatments

For the GA treatment of CYP714A1-atOE plants (Fig. 5B), 6-day-old seedlings grown on 1/2 MS agar plates were transferred onto 1/2 MS agar plates containing various concentrations (0, 0.01, 0.1 or 2 μM) of each GA compound. Rosette radii of 16-day-old seedlings were measured ($n = 13$ –16). To study the effect of PAC treatment on seed germination (Fig. 7C), the seeds were stored at room temperature at 30% humidity for at least 2 months to allow after-ripening. Seeds (60–100) were

incubated on wet filter paper (3MM; GE Healthcare UK Ltd, Little Chalfont, UK) containing various concentrations (0, 2, 10, 50 or 100 μM) of PAC. Seeds were scored as germinated when radicle protrusion was visible.

Real time quantitative RT-PCR

Total RNA of siliques was isolated using the RNAqueous RNA Isolation Kit with Plant RNA Isolation Aid (Life Technologies Corporation, Carlsbad, CA USA). Total RNA of other tissues was isolated using the RNeasy extraction kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). Real-time quantitative RT-PCR using an ABI Prism 7700 sequence detection system (Life Technologies Corporation) was described previously (Magome et al., 2004). 18S rRNA was used for normalization. Specific primers and probes used in this study are listed in Supplementary Table S8.

Supplementary data

Supplementary data are available at PCP online.

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Conflicts of interest

No conflicts of interest declared.

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