# Challenging the plant cell cycle 

# Analysis of key cell cycle regulators in Arabidopsis thaliana 

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## Zusammenfassung

In der Entwicklung der Pflanze sind Zell-Differenzierung und Zell-Zyklus Kontrolle eng miteinander verknüpft. Eine Klasse von Serin/Threonin Kinasen, die Zyklin-abhängigen Kinasen (CDKs), kontrolliert den Ablauf des Zell-Zyklus. Ein wichtiger Mechanismus um die CDK Aktivität zu regulieren ist die Bindung von CDK-Inhibitoren. Auch in Pflanzen wurden vor kurzem CDK-Inhibitoren entdeckt. Missexpression von CDKInhibitoren in Arabidopsis führt zu verminderter Endoreplikation und einer Abnahme der Zell-Zahl. Diese Beobachtung ist konsistent mit der postulierten Funktion von CDKInhibitoren, den Zell-Zyklus während dem Übergang von der G1- zur S-Phase blockieren zu können. In dieser Arbeit konnte gezeigt werden, dass zumindest der CDK-Inhibitor KRP1 den Eintritt in die Mitose verhindern kann. Der Eintritt in die S-Phase wird nicht blockiert und Endoreplikation findet statt. Die Daten dieser Arbeit weisen darauf hin, dass KRP1 konzentrations-abhängig wirkt. KRP1 spielt eine wichtige Rolle während der Zell-Proliferation, dem Austritt aus dem Zell-Zyklus und dem Umschalten von einem mitotischen- in einen endoreplizierenden Zell-Zyklus-Modus. Endoreplikation wird meist mit einer terminalen Differenzierung assoziiert, interessanterweise wurden endoreplizierte Zellen entdeckt, die wieder in einen mitotischen Zell-Zyklus eintreten konnten. Diese Beobachtung betont die große Flexibilität pflanzlicher Zellen während ihrer Entwicklung. Darüber hinaus konnte in dieser Arbeit gezeigt werden, dass im Gegensatz zu CDK-Inhibitoren aus dem tierischen System, KRP1 sich von Zelle zu Zelle bewegen kann.

CDKs regulieren im tierischen System den Eintritt in die S-Phase durch Aktivierung des E2F-DP Transkriptionsfaktors. Dies geschieht indem CDKs das E2F-DP inhibierende RETINOBLASTOMA PROTEIN phosphorylieren. Mittlerweile sind orthologe Gene für Rb , E2F und DP in Arabidopsis isoliert worden. In dieser Arbeit wurde das RETINOBLASTOMA RELATED1 (RBR1) Gen und drei E2F Gene (E2Fa, E2Fb und $E 2 F C$ ) in endoreplizierenden Trichomen missexprimiert. Die Ergebnisse weisen darauf hin, dass RBR1 ein negativer Regulator der Endoreplikation ist, wohingegen es sich bei $\mathrm{E} 2 \mathrm{Fa}, \mathrm{E} 2 \mathrm{Fb}$ und E 2 Fc um positive Regulatoren handelt. Dieses Ergebnis läßt darauf schliessen, dass der RBR-E2F Regulations-Mechanismus in höheren Eukaryoten konserviert ist.


#### Abstract

Throughout plant development cell differentiation is closely linked with cell cycle control. A class of highly conserved Serine/Threonine kinases, CYCLIN DEPENDENT KINASEs (CDKs) controls progression through the cell cycle. One important mechanism to regulate CDK activity is the binding of CDK inhibitors (CKIs). Recently, CKIs were also identified in plants and in previous studies, Arabidopsis plants misexpressing CKIs were found to have reduced endoreplication levels and decreased numbers of cells consistent with a function of CKIs in blocking the G1/S cell-cycle transition. I found that at least one inhibitor from Arabidopsis, KRP1, can also block entry into mitosis but allows S-phase progression causing endoreplication. The data presented in this work suggest that KRP1 acts in a concentration-dependent manner and has an important function in cell proliferation as well as in cell-cycle exit and in turning from a mitotic to an endoreplicating cell-cycle mode. Endoreplication is usually associated with terminal differentiation. Strikingly, endoreplicated cells were found to be able to re-enter mitosis emphasizing the high degree of flexibility of plant cells during development. Moreover, it could be shown that in contrast to animal CKIs KRP1 can move between cells.

In animals CDKs regulate entry into S-phase via activation of the E2F-DP transcription factor, by phosphorylating the E2F-DP inhibiting RETINOBLASTOMA protein. Orthologs of Rb, E2F and DP have been identified in the Arabidopsis genome. In this work I misexpressed the RETINOBLASTOMA RELATED1 (RBR1) and three genes encoding for ADENOVIRUS E2 PROMOTOR BINDING FACTOR s (E2Fa, E2Fb and $E 2 F c$ ) in endoreplicating trichomes. The obtained data suggest that RBR1 negatively regulates endoreplication, whereas $\mathrm{E} 2 \mathrm{Fa}, \mathrm{E} 2 \mathrm{Fb}$ and E 2 Fc act as positive regulators, indicating that the RBR-E2F regulatory pathway is conserved in higher eukaryotes.


## Publications

Ectopic D-type cyclin expression induces not only DNA replication but also cell division in Arabidopsis trichomes

Schnittger A, Schöbinger U, Bouyer D, Weinl C, Stierhof YD, Hülskamp M
Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2001, 99: 6410-6415

For this publication I did some of the in situ hybridization experiments and RT-PCR experiments.

Misexpression of the cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor ICK1/KRP1 in single-celled Arabidopsis trichomes reduces endoreduplication and cell size and induces cell death.

Schnittger A, Weinl C, Bouyer D, Schöbinger U, Hülskamp M
Plant Cell 2003, 15: 303-315

In this work I analyzed the crosses of the MAP:GFP and Talin:GFP reporter constructs with $\operatorname{Pro}_{G L 2}: K R P 1^{109}$ and with $\operatorname{Pro}_{G L 2}: K R P 1$ and I did all RT-PCR experiments.

## Novel functions of plant cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitors - ICK1/KRP1 can act non-cell-autonomously and inhibit entry into mitosis

Weinl C, Marquardt S, Kuijt SJH, Nowack MK, Jakoby MJ, Hülskamp M, Schnittger A Plant Cell 2005, 17:1704-1722

Besides Western-Blot analysis, images of DAPI stained mitotic nuclei in wild-type and Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1^{109}$ and the generation of Pro $_{G L 2}: G U S: Y F P: K R P 1^{109}$ transgenic plants all data were made by myself.

## Abbreviations and gene names

| ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ | degree Celsius |
| :--- | :--- |
| 35S | 35S promotor from the Cauliflower Mosaic virus |
| aa | amino acid |
| AJH1 | ARABIDOPSIS JAB1 HOMOLOG 1 |
| APC/C | anaphase-promoting complex/cyclosome |
| ATP | adenosine triphosphate |
| bp | base pair |
| C | DNA content of a haploid genome |
| CAK | CDK ACTIVATING KINASE |
| CaMV | Cauliflower Mosaic Virus |
| CCS52 | CELL-CYCLE SWITCH 52 |
| CDC6 | CELL DIVISION CYCLE DEFECTIVE 6 |
| CDC25 | CELL DIVISION CYCLE DEFECTIVE 25 |
| CDK | CYCLIN DEPENDENT KINASE |
| cDNA | complementary DNA |
| CDS | coding sequence |
| CDT1 | cdc10-DEPENDENT TRANSCRIPT 1 |
| CFP | cyan fluorescent protein |
| CKI | cyclin dependent kinase inhibitor |
| CKS1 | CDC KINASE SUBUNIT 1 |
| CLSM | confocal laser scanning microscopy |
| CPC | CAPRICE |
| Col | Columbia |
| COP9 | CONSTITUTIVELY PHOTOMORPHOGENIC 9 |
| CPR5 | CONSTITUTIVE PATHOGEN RESPONSE 5 |
| CSN | COP9 Signalosome |
| CSN5 | COP9 SIGNALOSOME SUBUNIT 5 |
| CUL1 | CULLIN 1 |
| CYC | CYCLIN |
| DAPI | $4{ }^{\prime}, 6 ’$-Diamidino-2-phenylindole |
| DEL | DP-E2F LIKE |
| DNA | desoxyribonucleic acid |
| DP | DIMERIZATION PARTNER |
| EF1 | ELONGATION FACTOR 1 |
| E2F | ADENOVIRUS E2 PROMOTOR BINDING FACTOR |
| ER | endoplasmatic reticulum |
| et al. | et alterni [Lat.] and others |
| Fig | Figure |
| FZR | FIZZY-RELATED |
| FZY | FIZZY |
| GFP | green fluorescent protein |
| GL2 | GLABRA2 |
|  |  |


| GL3 | GLABRA3 |
| :--- | :--- |
| GUS | GLUCURONIDASE |
| ICK | INTERACTOR/INHIBITOR OF CDKs |
| kb | kilo bp |
| kD | kilo Dalton |
| Ler | Landsberg erecta |
| KRP | KIP RELATED PROTEIN |
| mRNA | messenger RNA |
| n | number |
| N/NLS | nuclear localization signal/sequence |
| PCR | polymerase chain reaction |
| PD | plasmodesmata |
| PI | propidium iodide |
| PTGS | post transcriptional gene silencing |
| Rb | RETINOBLASTOMA |
| RBR1 | RETINOBLASTOMA RELATED1 |
| RBX1 | RING BOX PROTEIN1 |
| RFP | red fluorescent protein |
| RNA | ribonucleic acid |
| RNAi | RNA-interference |
| rpm | rounds per minute |
| RUB | RELATED TO UBIQUITIN |
| RUX | ROUGHEX |
| RT | room temperature |
| RT-PCR | reverse transcription PCR |
| SCF | Skp1; Cdc53 (cullin); F-box protein |
| SD | standard deviation |
| SEL | size exclusion limit |
| SEM | scanning electron microscopy |
| SIM | SIAMESE |
| SKP1 | S-PHASE KINASE-ASSOCIATED PROTEIN 1 |
| T-DNA | transferred DNA |
| TIS | trichome initiation site |
| TMM | TOO MANY MOUTH |
| TRY | TRIPTYCHON |
| UTR | untranslated region |
| WT | wild type |
| Y-2-H | yeast two hybrid assay |
| YFP | yellow fluorescent protein |
| WS-O | Wassilewskaja |
|  |  |

All gene and mutant names are written in italics. WT-genes are written in capital letters. Proteins are written in non-italic letters.

The who is who of the plant cell cycle genes
CDKs
CDKA;1 = cdc2a (At3g48750)
CDKB1;1 = cdc2b (At3g54180)
inhibitors of CDKs
KRP1 = ICK1 (At2g23430)
KRP2 $=$ ICK2 (At3g50630)
KRP3 $=$ ICK6 (At5g48820)
KRP4 = ICK7 (At2g32710)
KRP5 (At3g24810)
KRP6 = ICK4 = ACK1 (At3g19150)
KRP7 = ICK5 (At1g49620)
E2Fs
$\mathbf{E} 2 \mathrm{Fa}=\mathrm{E} 2 \mathrm{~F} 3(\mathrm{At} 2 \mathrm{~g} 36010)$
$\mathbf{E 2 F b}=\mathrm{E} 2 \mathrm{~F} 1$ (At5g22220)
$\mathrm{E} 2 \mathrm{Fc}=\mathrm{E} 2 \mathrm{~F} 2($ At1g47870)
DP-E2F-like
DEL1 $=\mathrm{E} 2 \mathrm{Fe}=\mathrm{E} 2 \mathrm{~L} 3=\mathrm{ELP} 2(\mathrm{At} 3 \mathrm{~g} 48160)$
DEL2 $=$ E2Fd $=$ E2L1 $=$ ELP3 (At5g 14960)
DEL3 $=$ E2Ff $=$ E2L2 $=$ ELP1 $(A t 3 g 01330)$
RING box
RBX1a $=$ Rbx 1; 1 (At5g20570)
RBX1b $=$ Rbx1;2 (At3g42830)

COP9 signalosome subunits
CSN5A = AJH1 (At1g22920)
CSN5B = AJH2 (At1g71320)

The abbreviations used in this work are written in bold.

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## INTRODUCTION

## General features of cell cycle control

During development of higher eukaryotes many different cell types are produced all of which can substantially differ in their cell-cycle program, e. g. mitotic or endoreplication cycle. Also the presence and length of the distinct cell-cycle phases or the proliferation activity can vary between different cell types (Fig1) (Jakoby and Schnittger, 2004).

The prototype of a cell cycle is a mitotic cell cycle consisting of four phases, the synthesis-phase (S-phase) during which DNA is replicated, the mitosis-phase (Mphase), in which sister chromatids are separated and two gap phases, G1 and G2, which separate S- and M-phase. The transition from G1 to S-phase and the transition from G2 to M-phase are controlled by check points, wich are tightly regulated (Fig1). At the G1/S transition multiple extrinsic and intrinsic signals are integrated, e.g. in animals the nutrition status of a cell. Also hormones can regulate the cell cycle, as shown for the plant hormone cytokinin, which activates cell division in Arabidopsis (Wang et al., 1998; Riou-Khamlichi et al., 1999). At the G2/M check point it is necessary to ensure that the complete genome has been replicated during S-phase in order to avoid chromosomal aberrations.

Common cell-cycle variants in both animals and plants are endocycles, in which cells replicate their DNA without undergoing a subsequent mitosis leading to polyploid cells (Fig1) (Edgar and Orr-Weaver, 2001). Endoreplication has been implicated in cell differentiation and cell growth, for instance in the development of Drosophila melanogaster nurse cells, Medicago truncatula nodule cells, or Arabidopsis thaliana leaf hairs (trichomes) (Kondorosi et al., 2000; Edgar and Orr-

Weaver, 2001; Schnittger and Hulskamp, 2002; Sugimoto-Shirasu and Roberts, 2003; Kondorosi and Kondorosi, 2004). The cellular need for endoreplication is still not fully understood. It has been suggested that endoreplication might be essential for an enhanced metabolic capacity, e.g. observed in plant endosperm tissue, or that higher ploidy levels might buffer mutations (Kowles and Phillips, 1985). Not much is known about how plant cells switch form a mitotic to an endoreplication cycle during their differentiation and how they manage to regulate starting another round of DNA replication while at the same time inhibiting mitosis. Also nothing is known about how cells enter, progress and terminate an endoreplication cycle in plants.


Figure 1 Different cell cycle modes
Simplified model of different cell cycle modes. The length of the individual phases (S, G2, M and G1) and the entry into an endoreplication cycle can vary.

## Regulation of cyclin dependent kinases

Intrinsic and extrinsic cues are integrated at a central convergence point of eukaryotic cell-cycle control, which is represented by a group of Serine/Threonine kinases, CYCLIN DEPENDENT KINASEs (CDKs). To ensure a correct progression through
the cell cycle these CDKs need to be tightly regulated. CDKs of higher eukaryotes are regulated at a transcriptional but most importantly at a post-translational level, i.e. phosphorylation and dephosphorylation, subcellular localization and the binding of positive, e.g. cyclins, and negative, e.g. CDK inhibitors, regulators.

Four classes of CDKs have been described in Arabidopsis. The most prominent member is the A-type CDKA;1, that contains the PSTAIRE sequence which is conserved throughout eukaryotes. CDKA;1 has been shown to be constitutively expressed throughout the cell cycle, whereas expression of the plantspecific B-type $C D K B 1 ; 1$, which contains the variant PPTALRE motif, is upregulated at the G2/M transition (Menges and Murray, 2002). In maize overexpression of dominant-negative CDKA;1 inhibited endoreplication (Leiva-Neto et al., 2004) and completely abolished cell cycle progression in tobacco protoplasts arresting cells in G1 and G2 (Hemerly et al., 1995). Whereas cells were blocked in G2, in Arabidopsis plants misexpressing a dominant-negative CDKB1;1 (Boudolf et al., 2004). Taken together these data suggest that CDKA; 1 is involved in the regulation of G1/S and G2/M transition, whereas B-type CDKs play only a role at G2/M transition.

In yeast and animals it has been shown that phosphorylation and dephosphorylation of specific CDK residues are essential for a fully active CDK/cyclin complex. WEE1 kinase phosphorylates CDKs at residues Thr14 and Tyr15, thereby inhibiting ATP fixation and substrate binding of the CDK (Fig2). In order to activate the CDK/cyclin complex the phosphogroups at position 14 and 15 have to be removed by the CDC25 phosphatase (Fig2). Additionally, CDKs need to be phosphorylated at Thr 160 by CDK activating kinases. In the Arabidopsis genome orthologs have been identified for most of the components involved in the phosphorylation and dephosphorylation of CDKs (Vandepoele et al., 2002). Recently
a CDC25-like gene has been identified in Arabidopsis .The protein has been shown to stimulate kinase activity of Arabidopsis CDKs in vitro (Landrieu et al., 2004b; Landrieu et al., 2004a). The in vivo role of this CDC25-like protein, however, remains to be determined.

Also the spatial and temporal localization of the CDKs is important. In the study of Weingartner et al. the CDKA;2 from Medicago sativa was fused to GFP and its subcellular localization was followed in tobacco suspension culture (2001). The authors showed that during interphase CDKA;2 is localized in the nucleus and the cytoplasm. During mitosis CDKA;2 associates with mitotic structures like preprophase band, metaphase spindles and phragmoplast.

A prerequisite for an active CDK is the binding of a cyclin partner. A principal control mechanism is the abundance of cyclins, which involves transcriptional and post-translational regulation. To date, 49 putative cyclins have been identified in the Arabidopsis genome and are grouped into ten classes (Wang et al., 2004). The class of A-type cyclins is important for the G1/S and G2/M control; B-type cyclins play a key role at the G2/M transition and during mitosis; D-type cyclins are involved in the regulation of G1/S and G2/M transition (Riou-Khamlichi et al., 1999; Riou-Khamlichi et al., 2000; Schnittger et al., 2002b). The recently isolated H-type cyclin is part of the CDK-activating kinase (CDKD) (Fig2) (Shimotohno et al., 2004).


Figure 2 CDK-regulation in Arabidopsis
Simplified model of the different regulatory steps during CDK activation

Moreover, the CDC KINASE SUBUNIT (CKS) which has been identified in fission yeast by its ability to rescue certain temperature sensitive CDK mutants, has shown to bind to the CDK/cyclin complex (Hayles et al., 1986). In Xenopus, binding of CKS to the CDK/cyclin complex stimulates the ability of this complex to be dephosphorylated or phosphorylated by cdc25 or WEE1, respectively (Patra et al., 1999). Only little information is available about the function of plant CKSs. Two genes encoding for CKS1 and CKS2 have been identified in Arabidopsis and overexpression of CKS1 has shown to inhibit cell cycle progression, but did not affect endoreplication (De Veylder et al., 2001a).

Another important regulatory mechanism of CDK activity is the binding of CDK inhibitors, which stochiometrically bind to cyclins and CDKs and inhibit the kinase activity (Fig2).

## CDK inhibitors

In animals, two classes of CDK inhibitors (CKIs) have been identified, the INK4 class and the CIP/KIP family. The ankyrin containing INK4 class comprises $\mathrm{p} 15, \mathrm{p} 16, \mathrm{p} 18$, and p19, which inhibit CDK4 but can also bind to CDK6. Members of the CIP/KIP family ( $\mathrm{p} 21^{\text {Cip1 }}, \mathrm{p} 27^{\text {Kip1 }}$ and $\mathrm{p} 57^{\text {Kip2 }}$ ) block cyclin D-, E-, and A-dependent kinases, but predominantly inhibit CDK2 activity (Pavletich, 1999; Sherr and Roberts, 1999). Besides a negative role in CDK regulation, CKIs have also been found to help assemble and stabilize a CDK4-cyclin D complex (Sherr and Roberts, 1999). It is not clear, however, whether these CDK/cyclinD-CKI complexes are active or not (Olashaw et al., 2004).

Several mechanisms control the abundance of CKIs either on a transcriptional or a post-translational level. Recently, it has been reported in mouse that E2F1 binds to the $\mathrm{p} 27^{\text {Kip1 }}$ promotor thereby activating its expression and that depletion of E2F1 causes a reduction of the $\mathrm{p} 27^{\text {Kip1 }}$ expression level (Wang et al., 2005). Activated CDK2/cyclinE phosphorylates p27 ${ }^{\text {Kip1 }}$ on Threonin residue 187 (Sheaff et al., 1997; Vlach et al., 1997; Montagnoli et al., 1999). This phosphorylated form of $\mathrm{p} 27^{\text {Kip1 }}$ is recognized by the nuclear localized E3 ligase $\mathrm{SCF}^{\text {Skp2 }}$, and subsequently becomes ubiquitinated and degraded by the 26 S proteasome during S- and G2-phase (Pagano et al., 1995; Carrano et al., 1999; Sutterluty et al., 1999; Tsvetkov et al., 1999). In addition, Kamura and colleagues have reported the existence of a Skp2 independent pathway for $\mathrm{p} 27^{\text {Kip1 }}$ degradation at G1-phase by the cytoplasmic Kip1 ubiquitinationpromoting complex (KPC) (Kamura et al., 2004).

The subcellular localization of the CDK inhibitor $\mathrm{p} 27^{\text {Kip1 }}$ has been shown to play an important role for its action and regulation. p27 $7^{\text {Kip1 }}$ exerts its inhibitory function in the nucleus whereas $\mathrm{p} 27^{\text {Kip } 1}$ becomes degraded in the cytoplasm (Tomoda
et al., 1999; Connor et al., 2003). Upon phosphorylation at the Serine residue (S10) by the nuclear human kinase interacting stathmin (hKIS) p27 $7^{\text {Kip1 }}$ is translocated from the nucleus to the cytoplasm (Boehm et al., 2002). To retain p27 ${ }^{\text {Kip1 }}$ in the cytoplasm Aktmediated phosphorylation at Threonine 157 is necessary during G1, thereby the association of p 27 with importin $\alpha$ is inhibited preventing re-entry into the nucleus (Shin et al., 2005). The mammalian COP9 signalosome subunit 5 (CSN5) but not $\mathrm{p} 27^{\text {Kip1 }}$ contains a nuclear export signal (NES). CSN5 can bind to p27 $7^{\text {Kip1 }}$ and functions as an adaptor between $\mathrm{p} 27^{\text {Kip } 1}$ and the exportin CRM1 to induce $\mathrm{p} 27^{\mathrm{Kip} 1}$ nuclear export and its subsequent degradation (Tomoda et al., 1999; Tomoda et al., 2002).

Putative CKIs have also been found in plants (Wang et al., 1998; De Veylder et al., 2001b; Jasinski et al., 2002). In Arabidopsis, seven genes were identified, which display homologies to the animal $\mathrm{p} 27^{\text {Kip1 }}$, and thus were named KIP RELATED PROTEINS (KRPs) or INHIBITORs/INTERACTORs OF CDK (ICKs) (Wang et al., 1998; De Veylder et al., 2001b). The homology to p27 ${ }^{\text {Kip1 }}$ protein, however, is restricted to about 30 amino acids in the C-terminus. Information about plant CKIs is still very limited. In yeast two hybrid interaction assays it has been shown that KRP1 could bind to CDKA;1 and CYCLIN D3;1. Moreover, it has been demonstrated that KRP1 can inhibit the histone phosphorylation activity of CDKA;1 in vitro (Wang et al., 1997; Wang et al., 1998). In several misexpression studies it has been found that KRPs can block endoreplication and reduce cell numbers leading to dwarf plants, when ubiquitously expressed (Wang et al., 2000; De Veylder et al., 2001b; Zhou et al., 2002; Schnittger et al., 2003). All these results are consistent with the presumed function of KRPs as inhibitors of CDKs at the G1/S transition. However, analysis of the transcript profile of KRP1 in synchronized cell cultures suggested an additional
role for KRP1 during G2/M transition, as expression levels are elevated during late G2-phase (Menges and Murray, 2002). To date not much is known about the regulation of plant CKIs, neither on the transcriptional level nor the post-translational level, such as localization and degradation.

## Controlling the abundance of cell cycle regulators by protein degradation

Regulated protein degradation plays a crucial role in cell cycle progression. One mechanism for proteolysis in eukaryotes is the ubiquitin-proteasome pathway. First, a thiolester bond is formed between ubiquitin and an ubiquitin-activating enzyme (E1). Second, ubiquitin is transferred to a Cystein residue within an ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme (E2). Third, the E2 interacts with an ubiquitin-protein ligase (E3) and transfers ubiquitin to E3-bound substrates. Finally, proteins with polyubiquitin chains are recognized and degraded by the 26 S proteasome, a complex consisting of a 20 S core and two 19S regulatory particles (Ciechanover, 1998).

The most important E3 enzymes involved in cell cycle regulation are the Anaphase Promoting Complex/Cyclosome (APC/C) and the Skp1-cullin F-box (SCF) complex; both complexes contain a RING-finger protein as the catalytical core. In animals, the most prominent targets of the APC/C are the B-type cyclins, which become rapidly degraded at the onset of anaphase. The SCF consists of four subunits: a cullin, a S-phase kinase-associated protein1 (Skp1), a RING finger protein (RBX1) and a F-box protein. The F-box protein confers the substrate specificity for the SCF targets. One well-known example is the $\operatorname{SCF}^{S k p 2}$ which is required for $\mathrm{p} 27^{\mathrm{Kip} 1}$ ubiquitination (Carrano et al., 1999; Sutterluty et al., 1999; Tsvetkov et al., 1999). The $\mathrm{APC} / \mathrm{C}$ is conserved in plants, but at present little is known about its substrates and regulation. Several SCF E3 enzymes have been described in Arabidopsis and more
than 700 genes encoding for F-box proteins have been identified (Gagne et al., 2002; Hellmann and Estelle, 2002).

Another component involved in protein degradation is the COP9 signalosome (CSN). The CSN is a multi-protein complex, which was first discovered through loss-of-function mutations that repressed photomorphogenesis in Arabidopsis (Wei et al., 1994; Chamovitz et al., 1996). It consists of eight subunits (CSN1-8), all of which are related to proteins of the 19 S regulatory particle of the proteasome. Mutations in six of the eight CSN subunits destabilize the entire complex. Moreover, it has been shown that the turnover of LONG HYPOCOTYL 5 (HY5) is inhibited in csn mutants and that in these mutants elevated amounts of ubiquitinated proteins accumulate (Osterlund et al., 2000; Peng et al., 2001a, b; Holm et al., 2002). Moreover the mammalian COP9 signalosome subunit 5 (CSN5) has shown to be involved in the nuclear export of $\mathrm{p} 27^{\text {Kip1 }}$ (Tomoda et al., 1999; Tomoda et al., 2002).

The CSN interacts with the cullin and the RBX1 subunits of SCF E3s, suggesting a role of CSN in mediating SCF function (Schwechheimer and Deng, 2001). Rubylation (i.e. attachment of RELATED TO UBIQUITIN (RUB) to certain proteins) of the SCF subunit cullin, has shown to be an important regulatory step for of the SCF activation, by facilitating substrate polyubiquitination and E2 recruitment (Wu et al., 2000; Kawakami et al., 2001). The Arabidopsis CSN5A has shown to derubylate CUL1, thereby providing evidence for a positive role of the CSN in the regulation of Arabidopsis SCF through RUB deconjugation (Gusmaroli et al., 2004).

## Targets of CDK action: regulation of G1/S transition via the RB-E2F pathway

In mammals activated CDK/cyclin complexes phosphorylate the retinoblastoma (RB) tumor suppressor protein (Weinberg, 1995). In its non-phosphorylated form RB binds
to the heterodimeric E2F-DP transcription factor (adenovirus E2 promotor binding factor; dimerization partner), thereby masking its transcriptional activation domain. Upon phosphorylation the RB protein dissociates from the E2F-DP heterodimer thereby allowing the transcription factor to activate genes required for S-phase entry. The mechanism that regulates $\mathrm{G} 1 / \mathrm{S}$ transition appears to be conserved between animals and plants since close homologs exist in both systems.

In the Arabidopsis genome three genes encoding for E2F transcription factors ( $\mathrm{E} 2 \mathrm{Fa}, \mathrm{E} 2 \mathrm{Fb}$ and E 2 Fc ) have been identified. E2Fs have also been isolated from carrot, rice, tobacco and wheat (Ramirez-Parra et al., 1999; Sekine et al., 1999); (Albani et al., 2000; de Jager et al., 2001; Kosugi and Ohashi, 2002b). Plant E2Fs share common domains and motifs similar to their animal homologs, such as a DNA binding motif, a hetero-dimerization domain, a retinoblastoma binding motif and a transcriptional activation domain, this tranactivation domain is lacking in E2Fc. Together with their DP dimerization partners E2Fs regulate the transcription of multiple genes via binding to specific E2F consensus sites in their promotor region. 5765 Arabidopsis genes have been found that contain potential E2F-sites in their promotors. E2F regulated genes include genes required for DNA replication such as CDC6 and DNA polymerase $\alpha$ (Ramirez-Parra et al., 2003).

The family of Arabidopsis E2F transcription factors can be divided into two classes. E 2 Fa and E 2 Fb act together with the appropriate dimerization partner as transcriptional activators whereas E2Fc, which lacks the transcriptional activation domain, might act as a repressor competing for the same E2F-sites (Fig3). This has been reported at least for the transcriptional regulation of CDC6, a subunit of the origin recognition complex (ORC) which has been shown to be upregulated in plants overepxressing E2Fa together with DPa whereas overexpression of E2Fc results in a
decrease of CDC6 expression (De Veylder et al., 2002; del Pozo et al., 2002). Moreover, Arabidopsis and tobacco plants misexpressing E2Fa and DPa together show ectopic cell divisions and excessive endoreplication (De Veylder et al., 2002; Kosugi and Ohashi, 2003).

In the Arabidopsis genome, two genes have been identified encoding for DP proteins ( DPa and DPb ) (Magyar et al., 2000). Not much is known about DPs function in planta. So far no mutants have been described. The only insights into DP function came from the misexpression of $D P a$, that only led to morphological changes if overexpressed together with E2Fa (De Veylder et al., 2002).

The three Arabidopsis DP-E2F-like genes (DELs) might also act as repressors. In contrast to the heterodimeric E2F-DP transcription factor which can only bind to DNA as a dimer, DELs can bind to the same promotor-E2F sites as monomers, because they contain two DNA binding domains. Like for E2Fc, DEL proteins lack the transcriptional activation domain suggesting that DELs act as competitors of E2Fa/b-DPa/b (Fig3) (Kosugi and Ohashi, 2002a). DEL proteins appear to be involved in the regulation of endoreplication since enhanced ploidy levels have been reported for the del1 mutant whereas overexpression results in a down-regulation of the expression of E2F target genes and a reduction of endoreplication (Vlieghe et al., 2005).

Recently, a gametophytic lethal rbr1 mutant has been isolated. Loss of function of RBR1 results in an overproliferation of gametophytic and endosperm nuclei (Ebel et al., 2004). Ectopic expression of RBR1 under control of promotors active in the shoot- or root-meristem results in cell cycle arrest, whereas the misexpression of RBR1-RNAi constructs under control of these promotors leads to ectopic cell divisions (Wilhelm Gruissem, personal communication). Similar
observations were made by suppression of RBR1 from Nicotiana benthamiana via virus induced gene silencing (Park et al., 2005).


Figure 3 The RBR-E2F pathway in Arabidopsis
Simplified model about the regulation of the transcription of genes required for Sphase by the RBR-E2F pathway in Arabidopsis.

## Model systems to study the function of cell cycle regulators

Since many mutants in cell cycle regulators are either embryonic or gametophytic lethal, e.g. rbr1, or display no alteration from wild type plants due to backup systems and redundancies, e.g. B-type cyclins (Farshad Roodbarkelari, personal communication) the analysis of plant cell cycle regulators has strongly relied on the use of misexpression experiments. For this purpose mostly the ubiquitously active 35S promotor $\left(\mathrm{Pro}_{355}\right)$ from the Cauliflower Mosaic Virus (CaMV) has been applied. The positive aspect is that a wide range of different cell types can be analyzed for their reaction to the overexpression of the respective cell cycle regulator. However, ectopic expression of cell cycle regulators can cause severe effects on plant growth.

For examples plants misexpressing Pro $_{355}: E 2 F a$ together with Pro $_{355}: D P a$ are tremendously retarded in growth (De Veylder et al., 2002) and overexpression of the N-terminally truncated $K R P 1^{109}$ under control of Pro $_{355}$ was lethal (Zhou et al., 2003). In these lines, it is difficult to distinguish whether the observed phenotype is caused by the misexpression of the cell cycle regulator directly, or whether this phenotype refelects the misregulation of multiple genes challenged by the misexpression, or whether it is an indirect effect, e.g. in Pro $_{355}$ :KRP1 misexpressing plants also root development is severely affected.

Misexpression in specific cells, such as Arabidopsis leaf hairs (trichomes), have been proven to be suitable to study the function of cell cycle regulators in a developmental context, also largely avoiding general growth and fertility problems (Schnittger et al., 2002b; Schnittger et al., 2002a; Schnittger et al., 2003). Trichomes are single-celled leaf hairs, which are initiated with a controlled distance to each other in the basal part of young and developing leaves. Archetypical for many differentiating cells, incipient trichomes exit the mitotic program and switch to an endoreplication mode. Concurrent with outgrowth and initiation of branches, trichomes undergo approximately four rounds of endoreplication leading mature three-branched trichomes with a DNA content of approximately 32C (Marks, 1997; Hulskamp et al., 1999).

To specifically study the role of cell cycle regulators in an endoreplicating context various promotors can be used, such as CAPRICE, GLABRA2 or TRIPTYCHON promotor. These three genes play important roles in trichome development and are expressed from very early stages until late stages of trichome development (Fig4C,D,E; Fig10A,F) (Szymanski et al., 1998; Schellmann et al., 2002). Besides its expression in trichomes GLABRA2 is expressed in alternating
epidermal files of the hypocotyls of developing embryos, from late-heart stage until bent-cotyledon stage (Fig4A,B) (Costa and Dolan, 2003). Thus expression of cell cycle regulators under control of the GLABRA2 promotor provided a tool to analyze their function in a mitotic and an endoreplicating context.

To analyze the function of cell cycle regulators in dividing epidermal cells during post-embryonic development, the promotor of the TOO MANY MOUTH gene (TMM) has been used. TMM is involved in the control of stomata distribution and has been found to randomize the plane and alter the number of asymmetric divisions in stomata neighboring cells (Geisler et al., 2000). TMM is expressed during early leaf development in cells of the stomatal lineage. Expression could be detected in meristemoids, guard mother cells and some of their neighboring cells, but also in guard cells (Fig4F,G;Fig17A,B) (Nadeau and Sack, 2002a).


Figure 4 Model cells to study cell cycle regulation in Arabidopsis
(A) and (B) Expression of GLABRA2 (GL2) during embryo development is shown in (A) by in situ hybridization experiments; picture taken from (Costa and Dolan, 2003) and in (B) by laser scanning microscopy of a bent cotyledon stage embryo expressing Pro $_{G L 2}$ :nls:GFP:GUS.
(C) Expression pattern of CAPRICE (CPC) in rosette leaves revealed by Promotor:GUS analysis
(D) Expression pattern of GLABRA2 in rosette leaves revealed by Promotor:GUS analysis
(E) Expression pattern of TRIPTYCHON (TRY) in rosette leaves revealed by Promotor:GUS analysis
(F) Schematic drawing of guard cell development; picture taken from (Nadeau and Sack, 2002b)
(G) Confocal scanning micrograph of leaf epidermal cell from plants expressing Pro $_{T M M}: T M M: G F P$; to visualize cell walls the leaf was stained with propidium iodide; picture taken from (Nadeau and Sack, 2002a). GMC: guard mother cell, SM: satellite merisetemoid


#### Abstract

Aim of this work In this work I wanted to study the regulation of endoreplication in the context of cell differentiation in Arabidopsis thaliana. The analysis focused on two groups of keyregulators of the cell cycle. First, the CDK inhibitors (KRPs), which block the activity of CYCLIN DEPENDENT KINASEs. Second, the components of the RBR-E2F pathway, which are downstream targets of CDKs, involved in the regulation of entry into S-phase. To analyze their function cell type specific misexpression experiments in dividing or endoreplicating cells were performed.


## RESULTS

## 1. Studying KRP function: loss of function approach

### 1.1. Isolation of a krp1 mutant

One approach to learn more about the function of KRPs is to isolate mutants and analyze their phenotypes. Therefore I performed a PCR-based screen for T-DNA insertions in the KRP1 (At2g23430) and the KRP4 (At2g32710) gene in the Koncz TDNA line collection, which contains more than 80000 individual Arabidopsis insertion-lines (Rios et al., 2002).

Whereas for KRP4 no insertion line could be found, for KRP1 one insertion line was found in Pool \#36537. Sequencing of the PCR product obtained with the screening primer S1 and the left border primer T1 revealed that the T-DNA is inserted in the second intron, 387 bp downstream from the start codon (Fig5A). So far all PCR attempts, using the primer combinations $\mathrm{S} 2+\mathrm{T} 2, \mathrm{~S} 2+\mathrm{T} 4$ and $\mathrm{S} 2+\mathrm{T} 6$, to proof that the complete 7 kb T-DNA was inserted in the $K R P 1$ gene failed to reveal the insertion of the right border. However, plants were resistant to hygromycin and the HYGROMYCIN PHOSPHOTRANSFERASE (HPH) which confers resistance is located approximately 2 kb from the right border. Also no PCR products could be amplified with the S 2 primer and any left border primer (T1, T3 and T5). To test whether the insertion resulted in a knock-out, a knock-down or knock-in of KRP1function semiquantitative RT-PCR analyses were performed. No transcript could be detected in the homozygous mutant with a primer combination spanning the complete coding sequence of $K R P 1$ (R1+R2) (Fig5B upper panel). However, using the primers R3 and R2, which anneal downstream of the T-DNA insertion, transcript could be
obtained (Fig5B lower panel). This could be because the T-DNA contains promotorlike elements, which then result in a transcription of the $K R P 1$ C-terminal domain. Even though the transcript level is reduced in the mutant compared to wild type it cannot be ruled out that this mRNA becomes translated and that this peptide interferes for example with the CDK/cyclin complex, especially because it contains the cyclinand CDK-interacting domains (see Fig7).

### 1.2. The krp1 mutant

Analysis of the phenotype of the homozygous krp1 T-DNA insertion plants revealed no obvious morphological alterations in comparison to wild type. Promotor-reporter analysis (Lieven de Veylder personal communication) and in situ hybridization of KRP1 mRNA suggested that KRP1 is expressed in endoreplicating trichome cells (Ormenese et al., 2004). Therefore I measured the trichome DNA content, which revealed a subtle enhancement of endoreplication in the homozygous krp1 mutant. The median of the relative fluorescence of DAPI stained wild-type trichome nuclei was set as 32C (Fig5C). Three independent measurements of trichome DNA levels in the homozygous krp1 mutant revealed an elevated DNA content, 37.2C, 40.1C and 44.1C respectively, in comparison to wild type (Fig5C). This finding suggests that KRP1 might be involved in the termination of endocycles in trichomes.

Figure 5 The krp1 mutant
(A) Schematic drawing of the KRP1 gene showing the T-DNA insertion in the second intron. Grey boxes represent the four exons, $\mathrm{S} 1, \mathrm{~S} 2$ and T 1 are the screening primers used for the identification of the insertion line. Also the primers used for the RT-PCR are shown (R1, R2 and R3).
(B) Semi-quantitative RT-PCR showing the relative expression strength of wild-type and the krp1 mutant. The used KRP1 primers are indicated on the left side. For the control, primers which amplify the ELONGATION FACTOR 1 (EF1) were used. Samples were taken after 30 or 40 cycles as indicated at the top of the figure.
(C) Distribution of trichome cell DNA contents are given in relative fluorescence units (RFUs). The median RFU of wild-type was set as 32 C so that 2 RFUs represent approximately 2C. The sample size ( n ), the mean ( m ) +/- standard deviation and the median (md) are given.


Figure 5 The krp1 mutant

### 1.3. RNAi approach

At the time the mutant was characterized no further insertion lines for $K R P 1$ were available from other T-DNA collections to support the observed trichome phenotype. Therefore I tried to knock-out KRP-function using a RNA interference approach by which introduction of double-stranded RNA should lead to a post-transcriptional silencing of the respective gene. In several attempts I tried to knock out KRP1 in trichomes. For that purpose I expressed double-stranded RNA of either the full-length $K R P 1$ gene or the N -terminal domain of $K R P 1$, which shows only low homology with the other members of the KRP family, by using the GLABRA2 promotor $\left(\right.$ Pro $\left._{G L 2}\right)$. However analysis of seedlings in the T1 generation revealed a wild-type phenotype with respect to trichome morphology, leaf size and all over plant morphology (Tab1). Additionally, I expressed double-stranded RNA of full-length KRP4, its N-terminal domain and a 141 bp fragment, which shows a high homology to KRP1, in trichomes. Primary transformants did not display any morphological changes. Also the expression of double-stranded RNA of a short fragment of exon 3 from KRP1 or of two fragments of exon 4 from $K R P 7$, which has shown to be expressed in endoreplicating and dividing cells (Ormenese et al., 2004), under control of the ubiquitously active CaMV35S promotor ( Pro $_{355}$ ) did not result in a detectable phenotype in seedlings (Tab1).

In summary these results indicate that either the RNAi approach did not sufficiently reduce transcript levels of KRPs, or that the individual members of the KRP family act in a highly redundant manner, so that only in plants with a loss of function for more than one $K R P$ gene a phenotype can be detected. The latter scenario is supported by the observation that even double and triple mutant combinations of
krp2 with other krp mutants did not display any morphological alterations in comparison to wild type (Lieven de Veylder, personal communication).

## TABLE 1

RNAI CONSTRUCTS TO KNOCK OUT KRPS

| line | template | position sense primer | position antisense primer | Trichome or seedling* phenotype |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Pro $_{\text {gl2:fl-KRP1-RNAi }}$ | KRP1 | Exon 1 | Exon 4 | WT |
| Pro $_{\text {GL2 }}$ :N-KRP1-RNAi | KRP1 | Exon 1 | Exon 3 | WT |
| Pro $_{355}$ :Exon3-KRP1-RNAi | KRP1 | Exon 3 | Exon 3 | WT |
| Pro $_{\text {GL2:fl-KRP4-RNAi }}$ | KRP4 | Exon 1 | Exon 3 | WT |
| Proglz:N-KRP4-RNAi | KRP4 | Exon 1 | Exon 1 | WT |
| Proglz:cons-KRP4-RNAi | KRP4 | Exon 2 | Exon 3 | WT |
| Pro $_{355}$ :Exon4a-KRP7-RNAi | KRP7 | Exon 4 | Exon 4 | WT* |
| Pro3ss:Exon4b-KRP7-RNAi | KRP7 | Exon 4 | Exon 4 | WT* |

## 2. Studying KRP function: gain of function approach

### 2.1. Misexpression of Arabidopsis KRP1 and KRP4 in trichomes

As described previously by Schnittger et al. the misexpression of KRP1 or the N terminal truncated $K R P 1^{109}$ in trichomes under control of the GLABRA2 promotor results in smaller trichomes with reduced number of branches in comparison to wild type (Fig6A;B;E) (2003). In addition trichomes misexpressing KRP1 underwent cell death (Fig6G). DAPI stainings (see Fig6C,F for DAPI stained trichome nuclei) and DNA measurements revealed that endoreplication levels were reduced.

To test whether KRPs display similar functions in endorpelicating cells, I misexpressed another member of the KRP family, KRP4, which has not been characterized so far. The trichomes of the Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 4$ transgenic plants also had fewer branches, the cell size was reduced and they showed the cell death phenotype as seen for Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1$ expressing plants (Fig6D). Taken together these data indicate that both KRP1 and KRP4 have similar effects, when misexpressed in trichomes.

## Figure 6 Misexpression of KRP1 and KRP4 in trichomes

(A) to (C) Landsberg erecta wildtype In (A) an overview of a two week old seedling with mostly three-branched trichomes is given. (B) Scanning electron micrograph and (C) light micrograph of DAPI-stained mature trichomes with its neighboring cells, arrowheads point at trichome and trichome-neighboring cell nuclei.
(D) Overview of a two week old Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 4$ misexpressing seedling with two- and unbranched trichomes
(E) to (G) Pro $_{G 12}: K R P 1^{109}$ misexpressing line. (E) and (G) Scanning electron micrographs showing in (E) a small and two-branched and in (G) a dead trichome. Note the enormously increased trichome-neighboring cells. (F) Light micrograph of DAPI-stained trichome with its neighboring cells, arrowheads point at trichome and the large trichome-neighboring cell nuclei.
(H) and (I) Scanning electron micrograph of (H) glabra3 and (I) cpr5 mutant trichomes, which have fewer branches, but normal sized trichome-neighboring cells
(J) and (K) Confocal laser scanning micrographs of enhancer trap line \#254. (J) Showing the youngest state when GFP is detectable in the trichome-neighboring cells (indicated by arrowheads) and (K) a close up of line \#254 showing GFP fluorescence in a mature trichome and its neighboring cells.
(L) Confocal laser scanning micrograph of Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1^{109}$ crossed in enhancer trap line \#254, showing GFP expression in the enlarged trichome-neighboring cells.
Scale bar in all panels $100 \mu \mathrm{~m}$.


Figure 6 Misexpression of KRP1 and KRP4 in trichomes

### 2.2. Domain analysis of the KRP1 protein

Wang et al.,1998 examined in a yeast two hybrid assay KRP1 interactions with CDKA;1 and CYCLIN D3;1. Creating deletion constructs the authors could identify distinct functional domains within the KRP1 gene. The CDK and the D-type cyclin interacting domain are harbored in the C-terminus because a deletion after amino acid (aa) 152 resulted in a loss of interaction with CDK and cyclin. In this assay also an inhibitory domain could be identified, deletion of the first 108 aa lead to a strong enhancement of CDK and cyclin interaction (Fig7). In the work of Schnittger et al. 2003 those two truncated versions of KRP1 (KRP1 ${ }^{152}$ and $\left.K R P 1^{109}\right)$ were misexpressed in trichomes and reflected the yeast data. $\operatorname{Pro}_{G L 2}: K R P 1{ }^{152}$ misexpressing trichomes looked like wild-type, whereas the misexpression of Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1^{109}$ caused a much stronger phenotype than the full-length $K R P 1$ (Fig7). Similar results have been reported by Zhou et al., 2003 for the overexpression of KRP1 $1^{162}$ and $K R P 11^{176}$ under control of the 35 S promotor, which had a wild type appearance, while overexpression of $K R P 1^{109}$ resulted in dwarf plants, which eventually died. Also in their study the KRP1 phenotype was enhanced in transgenic lines misexpressing the truncated $K R P 11^{109}$. All these data pointed towards an important regulatory role of the first 108 aa. To test whether this N-terminal domain might be necessary for KRP1 stability or whether it plays a role in the subcellular localization of the protein I generated misexpressing lines containing either the Pro $_{G L 2}: Y F P: K R P 1^{108}$ or the Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1^{108}:$ YFP construct. Analysis of these transgenic lines revealed a wild type phenotype based on their trichome morphology, as expected as CDK- and cyclininteracting domains are missing. (For a detailed description of the localization, see below.)


## Figure 7 The KRP1 domains

Schematic drawing of the KRP1 domains in order to give an overview of the full-length KRP1 and the three truncated versions KRP1 $1^{109}$, KRP1 $1^{108}$ and KRP1 ${ }^{152}$. Moreover the interaction strength of the constructs with CDKA;1 and cyclin D3;1 is given. These results were obtained from $\beta$-galactosidase activity assays of yeast two hybrid experiments performed by Wang et al., 1998. KRP $1^{108}$ was not analyzed in the yeast two hybrid assay. The in planta data of KRP1, KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ and KRP1 ${ }^{152}$ were obtained by Schnittger et al., 2003 representing the trichome misexpression phenotypes.
Cyc: cyclin interacting domain; CDK: CDK interacting domain; N : putative nuclear localization sequence

### 2.3. Trichome-neighboring cells in Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1$ misexpressing plants are

## enlarged and have an increased DNA content

Analyzing the cells surrounding a trichome on old rosette leaves of plants expressing the Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1^{109}$ construct I made an unexpected observation: the trichomeneighboring cells were strongly enlarged (Fig6B,E). Whereas wild-type trichomeneighboring cells reached in average a total surface-cell-area of ca. $1200 \mu \mathrm{~m}^{2}$, on comparable leaves of Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1{ }^{109}$ plants trichome-neighboring cells encompassed a more than 10 time larger total surface area of approximately $13500 \mu \mathrm{~m}^{2}$ (Tab2). Examining transgenic plants carrying the full length $K R P 1$ misexpression construct, which showed a weaker trichome phenotype, I observed an enlargement of the trichome-neighboring cells to an average of $4800 \mu \mathrm{~m}^{2}$ (Tab2).

Since cell size is often correlated with the degree of cellular polyploidization, I measured the DNA content by quantifying the fluorescence of DAPI-stained nuclei (Fig6C,F; Fig8). I detected a strongly increased DNA content in the trichomeneighboring cells in the KRP1-misexpressing plants, a mean of 17.4 C versus 6.4 C in wild type (Fig8). An even stronger increase in DNA levels was measured in plants expressing the truncated $K R P 1^{109}$ construct with an average of 29.5 C , and occasionally, extremely enlarged nuclei with up to 80 C were found (Fig8).

The observed cell enlargement and increase in nuclear size of the trichomeneighboring cells in the KRP1-misexpression plants are reminiscent of a trichome developmental program. Trichome patterning is thought to involve a mutual inhibition mechanism, by which all epidermal cells compete with each other in order to adopt trichome cell fate (Larkin et al., 2003). Hence, the hypothesis was raised that due to a compromised and eventually dead trichome as a result of KRP1 misexpression, the lateral inhibition is released and the trichome-neighboring cells start to develop into trichomes. Analysis of an early trichome reporter ( Pro $\left._{G L 2}: n l s: G F P: G U S\right)$, however, revealed no expression in cells surrounding the KRP1-misexpressing trichomes, indicating that an initiated trichome developmental program is not responsible for the observed phenotype (Fig10A,K).

To further investigate whether the enlargement of the trichome-neighboring cells could be a response to a compromised trichome-differentiation program, the cells surrounding a trichome in glabra 3 (gl3) and constitutive pathogen response 5 (cpr5) mutant plants were analyzed. Trichomes in both mutants have reduced endoreplication levels, are smaller than wild-type trichomes, and develop mostly only two branches (Hulskamp et al., 1994; Kirik et al., 2001). In addition, similar to trichomes on Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1$ expressing plants cpr5 mutant trichomes have been
reported to die. However, neither the trichome-neighboring cells in the gl3 nor in the cpr5 mutant displayed any significant difference to wild-type trichome-neighboring cells with respect to cell size and DNA content (Fig6H,I; Fig8; Tab2).

Taken together, these data suggest that trichome-neighboring cell enlargement and increase in DNA content is due to KRP1 misexpression in trichomes, and is not a general feature of altered trichome development.

| TABLE 2 <br> Total surface area of trichome-neighboring cells |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| line | total surface area ${ }^{1}$ |  | $\Sigma$ cells |
| Ler | 1208+/-493 | (1114) | 40 |
| gl3 | 1422+/-789 | (1159) | 38 |
| cpr5 | 1103+/-761 | (790) | 54 |
| Progl2:KRP1 | 4755+/-2120 | (4908) | 55 |
| Proglz ${ }_{\text {KRP1 }}{ }^{109}$ | 13459+/-6295 | (13180) | 45 |
| Pro $_{\text {GL2 }}$ :YFP:KRP1 | 1101+/-425 | (1154) | 46 |
| Pro $_{\text {GL2 }}: K R P 1^{109}$ YFP | $2495+/-1253$ | (2007) | 86 |
| Pro $_{\text {Gl2 }}$ :GUS:YFP:KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ | 717+/-346 | (587) | 54 |
| Enhancer trap line \#254 | $675+/-241$ | (639) | 51 |
| Prouas:YFP:KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ in \#254 | 738+/-392 | (658) | 47 |

${ }^{1}$ Total surface area of trichome-neighboring cells on rosette leaves was measured from at least five different plants per line, average plus/minus standard deviation and median in parenthesis are given in $\mu \mathrm{m}^{2}$.

Figure 8 Analysis of the DNA content of trichome-neighboring cells
Distributions of the DNA content of trichome-neighbouring cells are given in relative fluorescence units (RFUs). RFUs are calibrated with the fluorescence of guard cell nuclei of the analyzed leaves so that 2 RFUs represent approximately 2 C . The sample size (n), the mean (m) $+/-$ standard deviation and the median (md) are given.


### 2.4. Intercellular localization of KRP1

Based on the conclusion that the phenotype of trichome-neighboring cells is specific for KRP1-misexpression, two different scenarios were reasoned by which KRP1 could influence the cells surrounding a trichome. First, KRP1 might act indirectly and its expression in trichomes would induce a non-cell-autonomous response. Alternatively, given that plant cells are symplastically connected by plasmodesmata (Ding et al., 2003; Oparka, 2004), KRP1 itself might move into the neighboring cells.

In order to test the localization and mobility of KRP1, the yellow fluorescent protein (YFP) was fused to KRP1 and KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ and misexpression lines using the GL2 promotor were generated. Homozygous lines were created and based on mRNA expression strength comparable lines were chosen as reference lines for further investigations (Fig9A). All data provided in the following was obtained from the same reference line. As a control, transgenic plants expressing a cell-autonomous version of the green fluorescent protein (GFP) with a localization signal for the endoplasmatic reticulum ( Pro $_{G L 2}: G F P 5 E R$ ), and plants expressing an untagged YFP protein (Pro ${ }_{G L 2}:$ YFP) were created (Siemering et al., 1996; Haseloff et al., 1997; Crawford and Zambryski, 2000).

Plants expressing the fusion proteins were first analyzed with respect to their trichome phenotype, in order to compare their phenotypical strength with that of unfused KRPs. Plants carrying an N-terminal YFP fusion to KRP1 (Pro ${ }_{G L 2}:$ YFP:KRP1) displayed smaller and under-branched trichomes, which eventually died, resembling the KRP1-misexpression phenotype (Tab2). The expression of $K R P 1$ with a C-terminal fusion $\left(\right.$ Pro $\left._{G L 2}: K R P 1: Y F P\right)$ did not result in a phenotype and transgenic plants were not further analyzed. For $K R P 1^{109}$, plants misexpressing both N - and C-terminal fusion proteins with YFP resembled the
phenotype of Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 11^{109}$ plants (Tab2). Similarly to the expression of the unfused KRP1, I recognized that expression of fusion proteins containing the N terminally truncated $K R P 1^{109}$ resulted in a stronger trichome phenotype than the expression of fusion protein with the $K R P 1$ full length version (Tab2). Thus, although fusions in the C-terminus to the full length KRP1 seemed to interfere with protein action, concluding that a fusion with YFP in the other three constructs did not result in an altered KRP1 protein activity as judged by their trichome phenotypes.

In order to determine whether the fusion proteins were expressed as complete proteins western blot experiments of the generated transgenic plants were performed and the blots were probed with antibodies raised against GFP, which also recognizes YFP. The protein work was done with the help of Sebastian Marquardt. For plants expressing Pro $_{G L 2}$ :YFP a strong band could be detected at the expected size of 27 kD . The majority of the $K R P 1^{109}$ fusion proteins can be detected at the predicted size of 37 kD (Fig9B). For the full-length version no band could be detected, although on RNA level the construct appeared even to be slightly stronger expressed than the truncated version (Fig9A,B). Previously it has been shown that a negative regulatory signal resides in the N-terminus of the KRP1 protein (Schnittger et al., 2003; Zhou et al., 2003). The limitation in detection of the full-length CDK inhibitor argues that this domain might regulate the stability of KRP1 protein. Consistently, Zhou et al. recently reported that a N -terminally truncated version was present in much higher abundance than the full-length inhibitor (2003).


Figure 9 Analysis of expression levels
(A) Semi-quantitative RT-PCR showing the relative expression strength of the transgenic constructs Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1$, Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1^{109}$, Pro $_{G L 2}: Y F P: K R P 1$, Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1^{109}: Y F P$, Pro $_{G L 2}: G U S: Y F P: K R P 1^{109}$ and Pro $_{U A S}: K R P 1^{109}$ in enhancer trap line \#254. The expression strength was compared with the endogenous expression of translation elongation factor 1 (EF1). The numbers at top indicate the number of RT-PCR cycles. Pro ${ }_{G L 2}: Y F P: K R P 1$ and $p_{U A S}: K R P 1{ }^{109}$ appeared to be slightly stronger expressed than the other transgenes.
(B) Western Blot analysis of Pro $_{G L 2}: Y F P$, Pro $_{G L 2}: Y F P: K R P 1$, and Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1^{109}: Y F P$ misexpressing plants with an antibody against GFP/YFP. As a loading control Ponceau staining of the membrane after protein transfer is shown in the lower panel. From extracts of Pro $_{G L 2}: Y F P$ plants a band of approximately 27 kD was detected matching the calculated size of YFP. No bands could be detected for YFP:KRP1. For KRP $1^{109}$ :YFP a band was detected at the expected fusion protein size of approximately 37 kD , in addition, a faint band appeared at about 27 kD resembling most likely a degradation product.

Next, the cellular localization of the fusion proteins was analyzed by Confocal-Laser-Scanning-Microscopy. As controls I first analyzed the expression of two GL2 reporter lines in a wild-type background and in plants expressing $\operatorname{Pro}_{G L 2}: K R P 1^{109}$. In wildtype, both GFP5ER and a nls:GFP:GUS fusion protein expressed from the GL2 promotor were only detected in trichomes and trichome precursor cells (Fig10A,F). In
 reference line expressing Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1^{109}$ the GFP signal was still restricted to trichomes and trichome precursor cells indicating that trichome-specific expression of $K R P 1^{109}$ did not alter the expression domain of the GL2 promotor (Fig10K).

In contrast to the trichome-specific localization of the two GL2 promotor reporter lines, the KRP1 fusion proteins could also be detected in cells around trichomes. In young leaves, KRP1 fusion protein could be detected in many epidermal cells (Fig10B,C,D). In older leaves, the full length KRP1 and the KRP1 ${ }^{108}$ fused to YFP were predominantly found in one to two concentric rings around a trichome (Fig10G,H). The truncated version KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ was detectable in three to four rings with decreasing intensity (Fig10I). Also, I could detect a weak YFP signal in the nuclei of mesophyll cells demonstrating that movement of KRP1 fused to YFP is not restricted to epidermal cells but reflects rather a general feature of KRP1:YFP fusion proteins (Fig10N, arrowhead). Based on these localization patterns it is conceivable that the unfused KRP1 when expressed in trichomes will also enter the neighboring cells.

A morphological analysis of the trichome-neighboring cells revealed, however, that only plants expressing the N-terminally truncated KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ fused to YFP displayed a significant increase in trichome-neighboring cell size and DNA content with about $2500 \mu \mathrm{~m}^{2}$ and 9.4C (Tab2, Fig8). Thus, in contrast to trichomes, the alterations of the trichome-neighboring cells were correlated with the protein size
of the misexpressed KRP1 protein, i.e. smaller proteins caused a more severe phenotype: KRP $1^{109}(10 \mathrm{kD})>\operatorname{KRP} 1(22 \mathrm{kD})>\operatorname{KRP} 1^{109}: \mathrm{YFP}(37 \mathrm{kD})>$ YFP:KRP1 (49kD).

To address the dynamics of the movement of KRP1 and to test whether larger fusion proteins were less abundant in trichome-neighboring cells than smaller KRP1 versions, the fluorescence intensities of KRP1:YFP fusions were compared with that of free YFP. As previously reported, the YFP-related GFP is able to diffuse up to 16 cells wide in microprojectile bombardment experiments in Arabidopsis (Itaya et al., 2000). Consistently, in the generated transgenic plants expressing YFP without any localization signals from the GL2 promotor $\left(\right.$ Pro $\left._{G L 2}: Y F P\right)$ YFP could be detected in trichomes and in neighboring cells (Fig11A,B). Determination of the fluorescence intensity of trichome-neighboring-cell nuclei in comparison to trichome nuclei revealed for KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ : YFP ( 37 kD ) a similar ratio of approximately 0.5 as for YFP (27
 was obtained (Fig11C). This is consistent with a reduced movement and therefore a lower concentration of increasingly larger fusion proteins in trichome-neighboring cells.

However, it could not be excluded that the different KRP1 protein versions have different molecular properties in trichome-neighboring cells versus trichomes, e.g. protein stability and/or nuclear import rate, which could influence the ratio of fluorescence intensities independent of protein size. To test more directly for a protein-size dependent movement, transgenic plants were created expressing another KRP fusion protein, in which the GUS protein was combined with YFP:KRP1 ${ }^{109}$; the size of this fusion protein is approximately 105 kD (kindly provided by Moritz Nowack). Expression of GUS:YFP:KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ from the GL2 promotor caused a
significant reduction in trichome branch number similarly to the other KRP1 protein versions demonstrating the functionality of this fusion protein (Tab3). CLSM revealed that GUS:YFP:KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ was restricted to trichomes (Fig10E,J;O) and no increase in trichome-neighboring cell size nor DNA content was observed (Fig8,Tab2).

Taken together, it can be concluded that KRP1 can act non-cell-autonomously, and that the phenotype of the trichome-neighboring cells in the KRP1 misexpression lines is due to a direct action of the CDK inhibitor in the neighboring cells.

| TABLE 3 <br> Trichome branch number |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| line | number of branches in percent per leaf ${ }^{1}$ |  |  |  | $\Sigma$ <br> trichomes |
|  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |  |
| Ler | 0.0+/-0.0 | 0.2+/-0.9 | 99.6+/-1.2 | 0.2+/-0.8 | 477 |
| Pro $_{\text {gl2 }}$ :KRP1 | 13.7+/-11.1 | 65.3+/-14.4 | 21.0+/-14.9 | 0.0+/-0.0 | 428 |
| Proglz:KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ | 19.5+/-15.3 | 71.1+/-15.1 | $9.4+/-12.9$ | 0.0+/-0.0 | 150 |
| Pro $_{\text {GL2 }}$ :YFP:KRP1 | 13.0+/-4.9 | 58.7+/-10.2 | 28.3+/-9.4 | 0.0+/-0.0 | 488 |
| Pro $_{\text {GL2 }}$ :KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ : YFP | 14.8+/-8.0 | 65.4+/-7.2 | 19.8+/-7.1 | 0.0+/-0.0 | 338 |
| Progl2:GUS:YFP:KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ | 21.2+/-6.2 | 59.2+/-6.0 | 19.6+/-3.9 | 0.0+/-0.0 | 335 |

${ }^{1}$ All trichomes on rosette leaf number 3 and 4 were counted from at least 10 plants per line, the average plus/minus standard deviation is given, the branch number with the highest percentage is shown in bold.

## Figure 10 Localization of KRP1, KRP1 ${ }^{108}$ and KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ in endoreplicating trichome cells

(A) to (O) Confocal-laser-scanning micrographs of (A) to (E) young rosette leaves, ( $\mathbf{F}$ ) to (J) old rosette leaves and $\mathbf{( L )}$ to $\mathbf{( O )}$ shows a close up of a trichome and its neighboring cells.
(A) and (F) Show the expression of the GLABRA2 promotor in Pro GLL :GFP5ER transgenic lines, which is only detectable in trichomes and trichome precursor cells.
(B), (G) and (L) Localization and distribution of YFP:KRP1 fusion protein in Pro $_{G 12}: Y F P: K R P 1$ misexpressing plants. In young leaves, the nuclei of almost all epidermal cells show a YFP:KRP1 signal. In old leaves, the YFP:KRP1 signal is detected in the nuclei of trichomes and in the nuclei of trichome-neighboring cells in concentric rings. Trichomes are indicated by arrowheads. The nuclear localization in the trichome and its neighboring cells is shown in a close up (L)..
(C), (H) and (M) Localization and distribution of YFP:KRP1 ${ }^{108}$ fusion protein in Pro $_{G 12}: Y F P: K R P 1^{108}$ misexpressing plants. While the nuclear signal is evenly distributed in the basal part of young leaves (C) it becomes restricted to the trichome (indicated by arrowheads) and its neighbouring cells at the tip and in old leaves (H). Nuclear localization in the trichome and its neighboring cells, note that the nuclei are not evenly stained, there are patches with brighter signals (M).
(D), (I) and (N) Localization and distribution of KRP1 ${ }^{109}:$ YFP fusion protein in Pro $_{\text {GLL }_{2}}: K R P 1^{109}$ :YFPmisexpressing plants. The distribution of the fusion protein of the truncated KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ has an even greater range than YFP:KRP1 with two to three concentric rings of cells around a trichome (I). KRP $1^{109}:$ YFP is found in the trichomes in the nucleus and cytoplasm ( N ) whereas the trichome-neighboring cells show a nuclear localization. Note that KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ :YFP could also be found in nuclei of mesophyll cells, indicated by an arrowhead.
(E), (J) and (O) Localization and distribution of GUS:YFP:KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ fusion protein in Pro $_{G 12}: G U S: Y F P: K R P 1{ }^{109}$ misexpressing plants. GUS:YFP:KRP $1^{109}$ can only be detected in trichome precursor cells and trichomes but not in surrounding cells.
(K) Analysis of the marker line Pro $_{G L 2}:$ :nls:GFP:GUS crossed in Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1^{109}$. The GFP signal is only detectable in the trichomes (indicated by arrowheads) and not in the surrounding cells.
Scale bar in (A) to (K) $50 \mu \mathrm{~m}$; (L) to (O) $10 \mu \mathrm{~m}$.



Figure 11 Analysis of KRP1 movement
(A) and (B) Confocal-laser-scanning micrograph of a (A) young and (B) old rosette leaves of Pro $_{G L 2}$ :YFP expressing plants. Note that the YFP signal can be observed in the nucleus and the cytoplasm of trichomes and their surrounding cells of young and old leaves.
(C) Analysis of KRP1 movement in Pro ${ }_{G L 2}: Y F P: K R P 1$ and Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1{ }^{109}: Y F P$ misexpressing plants in comparison to plants expressing ProGL2:YFP as a control. The ratio of the average YFP intensity of trichome-neighboring cell nuclei to the average YFP intensity of the young trichome nucleus was determined. Whereas the smaller KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ :YFP fusion protein appears to move similarly as YFP, the fusion-protein of the full length KRP1 to YFP is found at lower levels in the nuclei of trichome-neighboring cells in comparison to trichome nuclei.
Scale bar in (A) and (B) $50 \mu \mathrm{~m}$.

### 2.5. Intracellular localization of KRP1

In animals the intracellular localization of the CKI p27 ${ }^{\text {Kip1 }}$ is strictly regulated and appears to be inherently connected with protein abundance and activity (Sherr and Roberts, 1999; Slingerland and Pagano, 2000). The general notion is that p27 Kip1 exerts its inhibitory function in the nucleus and becomes degraded in the cytoplasm (Tomoda et al., 1999; Connor et al., 2003). The regulatory elements which mediate $\mathrm{p} 27^{\text {Kip1 } 1}$ localization are not conserved in plant CKIs and therefore, I was interested in the intracellular localization of KRP1.

Whereas YFP expressed from the GL2 promotor could be detected in the nucleus and the cytoplasm, $K R P 1$ and $K R P 1^{108}$ fused with YFP exhibited a nuclear localization (Fig10B,C,G,H; Fig11A,B). While this work was in progress a similar intracellular localization of KRP1 was reported by analyzing GFP fusions with KRP1 (Zhou et al., 2003). Consistent with the report by Zhou and colleagues I found that YFP fusions with the truncated KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ localized to the nucleus and the cytoplasm in trichomes (Fig10D,I,N); a cytoplasmic localization was even more prominent for the GUS:YFP:KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ fusion protein (Fig10E,J,O). In the trichome-neighboring cells, however, both N - and C-terminal YFP fusions with KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ could only be detected in the nucleus (Fig10N). On the one hand this could indicate different cell-type dependent dynamics of the intracellular localization of KRP1. On the other hand it is very well possible that a cytoplasmic fraction of KRP $1^{109}$ :YFP was below the detection limit since already in the much brighter stained trichomes the cytoplasmic fluorescence was weak (compare also Fig11C for a reduction of fluorescence intensities in trichome-neighboring cells).

Two explanations might account for the different intracellular localization patterns of KRP1, KRP1 $1^{108}$ and KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ : First, the N-terminal 108 amino acids might
contain a strong degradation signal but degradation takes place in the cytoplasm leaving only a nuclear fluorescence for YFP:KRP1 and YFP:KRP $1^{108}$. Second, KRP1 ${ }^{108}$ might contain a nuclear localization signal (NLS). This latter scenario is supported by the recent identification of a putative NLS in the first 108 aa. Exchanges of two basic aa in this NLS with Ala residues resulted in transient expression experiments in a cytoplasmic localization of YFP:KRP1 (Marc Jakoby, personal communication). However, at the moment it is still unclear, what the nature of the inhibitory signal in the N -terminus of KRP1 is.

Closer inspection of the N - and C-terminal YFP fusions with KRP1 ${ }^{108}$ revealed, that the fluorescence was unevenly distributed in the nucleus in comparison to the nuclear YFP signal of KRP1 and KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ (Fig 10L,M,N; Fig12A,B). These images had similarities to a typical DAPI stained nucleus, in which the chromocenters show a much brighter fluorescence compared to the rest of the nucleus (Fig6C,F). An overlay of the YFP and the DAPI image showed an exact match of the bright stained regions indicating that the N -terminal domain of KRP1 is chromatin associated (Fig12B,C,D).


Figure 12 Nuclear localization of YFP:KRP1 and YFP:KRP1 ${ }^{108}$
(A) Confocal laser scanning micrograph of a trichome nucleus of Pro $_{G L 2}: Y F P: K R P 1$ transgenic line
(B) to (D) Confocal laser scanning micrographs of trichome nucleus of Pro $_{G L 2}: Y F P: K R P 1{ }^{108}$ misexpressing plants. In (B) the YFP signal is shown, (C) shows the DAPI image of the same nucleus as in (B); (D) represents the overlay of (B) and (C).

### 2.6. Premature endoreplication does not interfere with the adaptation of cell specific marker gene expression

In wild-type, the cells directly neighboring a trichome develop into morphologically distinct cells, called socket or support cells. Socket cells are rectangular versus the typically lobed pavement cells and are oriented in their longitudinal axis towards the trichome (Fig6B). In addition, the expression of a few genes and enhancer trap lines has been found to discriminate socket cells from epidermal pavement cells (Molhoj et al., 2001; Vroemen et al., 2003).

Since the trichome-neighboring cells in the KRP1-misexpressing plants were greatly enlarged and developed lobes (Fig6E), I asked whether these cells still have socket-cell fate. The analysis of two GAL4 enhancer trap lines from the Scott Poethig collection (http://enhancertraps.bio.upenn.edu/) marking trichome-socket cells, \#232 and \#254, crossed into the reference line for $\operatorname{Pro}_{G L 2}: K R P 11^{109}$ revealed expression in the cells surrounding a trichome (Fig6J,K,L note also the increase in cell size and the enlarged neighboring-cell nuclei in line $\# 254$ expressing $\operatorname{Pro}_{G L 2}: K R P 1^{109}$ ). In addition, most of the cells surrounding a trichome were still polarized towards the trichome (Fig6E). Taken together, these data suggested that the trichome-neighboring cells in KRP1-misexpressing plants have developed, at least to some degree, into socket cells.

Entry into an endoreplication cycle has been found to be associated with cell differentiation and the adoption of the special cell morphology occurring after cellfate specification (Nagl, 1976; Sugimoto-Shirasu and Roberts, 2003). The data presented in this work, however, implied that trichome-neighboring cells in the KRP1misexpressing plants become specified as socket cells independent and after the onset of an endoreplication program. To explore this hypothesis, the cell division activity
around incipient wild-type and KRP1-misexpressing trichomes was analyzed more closely. Figure 13 shows that in cells adjacent to young and growing wild-type trichomes newly formed cell walls can be found indicating a recent cell division (Fig13A,B,C). In contrast, around young trichomes of KRP1-misexpressing plants the neighboring cells had already started to enlarge (Fig13D,E,F). Consistent with this, I found in DAPI staining that nuclei of trichome-neighboring cells in KRP1misexpressing plants had already started to endoreplicate in contrast to wild-type leaves (Fig13G,H).

As judged by their morphology, the dividing cells around an incipient trichome on wild-type plants have not acquired a specific fate (Fig13A,B). Also, from previous studies it is known that trichomes and trichome-socket cells are not of clonal origin suggesting that socket cells become recruited by trichomes at some later stage of trichome development (Larkin et al., 1996). Consistent with this, the expression of the two socket-cell markers used above only starts when the trichome is already threebranched and expanded (Fig6J). Further evidence from the glabra 2 (gl2) mutant supports an instruction of socket cells at a time point late during trichome development. In gl2 mutants two classes of trichomes can be found, one class of expanding and even branching trichomes surrounded by socket cells, the other class displays aborted trichomes, which had started to grow out but failed to expand and become arrested as young bulges (Fig21A,B) (Koornneef, 1990; Rerie et al., 1994). In this latter class stomata can be found to develop in direct contact with trichomes suggesting that socket cells have not yet been specified. Finally, in the KRP1misexpressing plants the socket-cell marker became also expressed at later stages of trichome development (data not shown).


Figure 13 Analysis of cell division activity in trichome-neighboring cells
(A) to (C) Scanning electron micrographs showing the development of trichome-neighboring cells in wild type. Wild-type trichome-neighboring cells divide until the centrally located trichome develops its third branch. Examples for newly formed cell walls are marked by arrowheads.
(D) to (F) Scanning electron micrographs showing the development of trichome neighboring cells in in Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1{ }^{109}$ plants. In Pro ${ }_{G L 2}: K R P 1{ }^{109}$ trichome-neighboring cells enlarge and do not divide.
(G) Light micrograph of DAPI-stained wild type trichome with their neighboring cells
(H) Light micrograph of DAPI-stained Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1^{109}$ trichome at an early stage of trichome development, corresponding to (A) and (D). Corresponding to the cell enlargement and the absence of cell division, trichome-neighboring cells in Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 11^{109}$ plants start to endoreplicate as seen by the increased nuclear sizes of the trichome-neighboring cells in comparison to wild type. Arrowheads point to the trichome nuclei and the nuclei of the trichome-neighboring cells are marked by asterisks.
Scale bar in all panels $10 \mu \mathrm{~m}$.

Taken together, these findings suggest that in the KRP1-misexpressing plants endoreplication has started in the trichome-neighboring cells before these cells have been specified as socket cells and thus, it can becconcluded that plant cells can be specified independent of an endoreplication program.

### 2.7. The induction of endocycles by KRP1 depends on the cell-cycle mode and the developmental state

To test whether KRP1 is generally a positive regulator of endoreplication in trichomeneighboring cells and its expression is always sufficient to promote endoreplication, $K R P 1$ was misexpressed at late stages of socket-cell development. For that $K R P 1^{109}$ was cloned behind an UAS regulatory element and introduced into the GAL4 driver line \#254 from the Scott Poethig collection by transformation (compare Fig6J) (http://enhancertraps.bio.upenn.edu/). Examining plants expressing Pro $_{\text {UAS }}: K R P 1^{109}$ in the GAL4 line \#254 for a socket-cell phenotype revealed neither an alteration in cell size nor in DNA content in comparison to line \#254 itself or in wild-type plants (Fig8; Tab2;Fig9A). This observation together with the finding that the trichomeneighboring cells will undergo a few cell division rounds when the GL2 promotor is already highly active (compare Fig10A and Fig13A,B,C), indicated that the induction of endocycles by KRP1 depends on the developmental state and/or the cell-cycle mode of the cells. This is also supported by the observation that in all transgenic lines generated expressing the various KRP1 constructs in trichomes never any indication for an increase of endoreplication levels in trichomes by KRP1 has been observed.

To test further whether induction of endocycles by KRP1 depends on the cellcycle mode of the cells, the effect of KRP1 misexpression in other proliferating cells was analyzed. For that I made use of the observation that GL2 is also expressed
during embryo development starting at heart stage and persisting till bent-cotyledon stage (Fig4A,B) (Lin and Schiefelbein, 2001; Costa and Dolan, 2003). Figure 14A and B show a torpedo stage embryo with the typical expression pattern of the GL2 promotor in roughly every second cell file in the embryonic epidermis. Expression of KRP1 under the GL2 promotor did not alter this expression pattern as revealed by the
 expressing Pro $_{G L 2}: K^{\prime} R P 1^{109}$ (Fig14C,D). Similar to leaves it was found that KRP1YFP fusion proteins could be detected in almost all epidermal cells and also weaker in subepidermal cells demonstrating that the movement of KRP1 is not restricted to leaf cells (Fig14E,F).

Next, I attempted to determine the DNA content of epidermal cells in embryos of plants misexpressing KRP1. However, measurements of fluorescence intensities were compromised due to a small cell size and therefore a close vicinity of nuclei giving rise to high background fluorescence. Therefore, DNA levels were approximated by nuclear sizes. For that plants carrying a Pro $_{G L 2}: n l s: G F P: G U S$ construct were analyzed and the nuclear sizes of $p G L 2$-postive cells in this line was compared with Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1^{109}$ plants (Fig14A,B,C,D). Nuclei in the $K R P 1^{109}$ misexpressing embryos were larger than in wild type supporting the hypothesis that KRP1 induced endoreplication in mitotic cells. A quantification of nuclear sizes using the DNA stain propidium iodide revealed approximately an area of $12 \mu \mathrm{~m}^{2}$ in $\operatorname{Pro}_{G L 2}$ : $K R P 1{ }^{109}$ embryos whereas in wild-type embryos the nuclei of epidermal cells spanned an average area of approximately $8 \mu \mathrm{~m}^{2}$ (Fig14E). Taking together these findings suggest that misexpression of KRP1 in dividing cells can induce endorpelication, but the induction depends on the developmental state of the cell.


Figure 14 Analysis of $K_{R P 1}{ }^{109}$ misexpression in embryonic epidermal cells

### 2.8. Misexpression of KRP1 in dividing epidermal cells of rosette leaves

Because of the experimental limitation of embryonic epidermis, I sought for another promotor active in dividing cells, yet not active in all mitotic cells in order to interfere as little as possible with plant fertility and viability. For this purpose the promotor of the TOO MANY MOUTHS gene ( Pro $_{\text {тмм }}$ ) was used (Nadeau and Sack, 2002a). TMM is expressed during early leaf development in cells of the stomatal lineage and some adjacent cells (Fig4G; Fig17A,B); many of these cells will undergo at least one more cell division during leaf development.

To assess whether endoreplication levels were increased, transgenic plants misexpressing from the TMM promotor the N-terminally truncated KRP1 version fused to YFP were generated. Transgenic plants displayed a strong leaf phenotype with an increased degree of serration and a reduction of leaf size in comparison to wild type (Fig16A,B,D,E). Moreover the number of epidermal cells was reduced, but these cells were greatly enlarged compared to wild type (Fig16C,E). Rough analysis of the primary transformants misexpressing Рro $_{\text {тмм }}: Y F P: K R P 1$ revealed a less severe phenotype than that of $K R P 1^{109}$. Again misexpression of the N -terminal domain $\left(K R P 11^{108}\right)$ did not lead to any morphological alterations.

Figure 14 Analysis of KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ misexpression in embryonic epidermal cells
(A) and (B) Confocal-laser-scanning micrographs of Pro $_{G L 2}: n l s: G F P: G U S$ reporter line in wild-type torpedo stage embryo. In (B) a close up of hypocotyl epidermal cells is shown.
(C) and (D) Confocal-laser-scanning micrographs of Pro $_{G L 2}:$ nls:GFP:GUS reporter line in Pro $_{G L 2}: K^{\prime} P 1^{109}$ torpedo stage embryo. In (D) a close up of hypocotyl epidermal cells is shown.
(E) and (F) Confocal laser-scanning micrographs of a Pro $_{G L 2}:$ KRP $1^{109}:$ YFP embryo. The YFP signal can be detected in all cell files of the hypocotyl. (F) Close up of hypocotyl epidermal nuclei.
(G) Analysis of the area of propidium iodide stained hypocotyl nuclei of embryos of the same age for wild type (black) and Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1^{109}$ (white) showing an enlargement of nuclear sizes in Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1^{109}$ expressing plants. The sample size ( n ), the mean ( m ) + -- standard deviation and the median (md) are given.
Scale bar in (A) to (F) $50 \mu \mathrm{~m}$.

The degree of polyploidization in 10,15 , and 20 days old seedlings was studied by fluorescence activated cell sorting (FACS) of cells of the first and second rosette leaf, stained with propidium iodide (Fig15A-F). At all time points, I found a quantitative as well as a qualitative shift towards higher replication levels in comparison to wild-type plants. In leaves of 10 days old Pro $_{T M м}$ :YFP:KRP1 $1^{109}$ seedlings elevated levels for 4 C and 8 C nuclei as well as a new, although small 16C peak were present (Fig15A,B). In 15 days old seedlings the 16 C peak was increased and a new 32 C peak appeared (Fig15C,D). And in 20 days old seedlings a greater 16C peak and a pronounced 32C peak were detected (Fig15E,F). Taken together, these data showed that KRP1 can block cell divisions and induce endoreplication in mitotic cells.

A detailed morphological analysis at the cellular level revealed that the number of stomata was drastically reduced in the strong Pro $_{T M М}$ :YFP:KRP1 $1^{109}$ transgenic plants in comparison to wild type, suggesting that cell division might be blocked at early stages and cells do not develop into normal guard cells (Fig16G,H). Besides the decrease of stomata number also the morphology and the spatial pattern of the guard cells were disturbed in $K R P 1{ }^{109}$ misexpressing plants. Some of the guard cells were enlarged and had a "swollen" apperarance (Fig16J see arrowheads). In some cases the guard cells started to form lobes similar to differentiated pavement cells (Fig16K). Frequently, I observed that stacks of four guard cells are formed, instead of the typical pair of guard cells forming the pore (Fig16L). From these phenotypes one can conclude first, that misexpression of $K R P 1^{109}$ in dividing epidermal cells interfered with cell divisions resulting in fewer cells in comparison to wild type. Second, endorpelication was enhanced and finally, the development of stomata is severely impaired.


Figure 15 FACS-Analysis of KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ misexpressed in leaf epidermal cells (A), (C) and (E) Fluorescence activated cell sorting analysis (FACS) of the first and second rosette leaf from wild-type plants. (A) 10-day, (C) 15-day and (E) 20-day old seedlings.
(B), (D) and (F) FACS analysis of the first and second rosette leaf from Pro $_{T M M}: Y F P: K R P 1^{109}$ transgenic plants. (B) 10-day, (D) 15-day and (F) 20-day old seedlings. In the transgenic line a quantitative and a qualitative shift towards more replicated nuclei compared to wild-type is visible at all time points.


Figure 16 Analysis of $K R P 1^{109}$ misexpression in $T M M$-positive cells


Figure 17 Localization of KRP1, KRP1 ${ }^{108}$ and KRP1 $1^{109}$ in dividing leaf epidermal cells

Concerning the subcellular localization of KRP1, KRP1 ${ }^{108}$ and KRP1 $1^{109}$ in $T M M$ expressing cells the same pattern was observed as in endoreplicating trichomes. The YFP signals for KRP1 and KRP1 ${ }^{108}$ were only detectable in the nuclei and again KRP1 ${ }^{108}$ nuclei showed spotted patches with a very bright fluorescence (Fig17C,D,E,F). KRP $1^{109}$ was found in the nucleus and the cytoplasm (Fig17G,H). Interestingly a few cells accumulated very high amounts of the YFP:KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ protein in the cytoplasm. Whether this is due to the activity of the TMM promotor needs to be resolved by further experiments, e.g. crossing of the Pro $_{\text {Tмм }}: Y F P: K R P 1{ }^{109}$ transgenic plants with the plants expressing the Pro $_{T M М}$ :GFPER reporter.

Figure 16 Analysis of $K R P 1^{109}$ misexpression in TMM-positive cells
(A) to (C) show images of wild-type plants ecotype Columbia. In (A) an overview of two week old seedling is shown. (B) Light micrograph and (C) Scanning electron micrograph of rosette leaves.
(D) to (G) Pro $_{\text {TММ }}$ :YFP:KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ misexpressing plants. In (D) an overview of two week old seedling is shown. (E) Light micrograph, (F) and (G) scanning electron micrographs of rosette leaves. Note the strong reduction in cell number, the enormous increase in cell size of all pavement cells and the reduction of stomata number in (G).
(H) A scanning electron micrograph of a mature wild-type rosette leaf giving an impression of typical stomata size and shape.
(I) Confocal scanning micrograph of a DAPI-stained stoma from Pro $_{\text {TММ }}: Y F P: K R P 1^{109}$ transgenic line consisting of three cells forming the pore. The cell wall in the divided guard cell is marked by an arrowhead, asterisk mark the three nuclei of the stoma.
(J) to (L) Light micrographs of Pro $_{T M М}: Y F P: K R P 1^{109}$ misexpressing plants. In (J) enlarged stomata are marked by arrowheads in contrast to a "normal" stoma marked by an arrow. (K) Misshaped stoma with lobed cell walls is marked by an arrowhead, the "normal" by an arrow. (L) Shows a stack of guard cells similar to the $f l p$ mutant marked by an arrowhead.

Scale bar in (B) and (E) 1 mm ; (C) and (F) $100 \mu \mathrm{~m}$.

## Figure 17 Localization of KRP1 in dividing leaf epidermal cells

(A) and (B) Confocal laser scanning micrographs of rosette leaves from Pro $_{\text {Tмм }}$ :GFP5ER transgenic plants.
(C) and (D) Confocal laser scanning micrographs of rosette leaves from Pro $_{\text {тмм }}$ :YFP:KRP1 transgenic plants.
(E) and (F) Confocal laser scanning micrographs of rosette leaves from Pro $_{T М М}$ :YFP:KRP1 ${ }^{108}$ transgenic plants.
(G) and (H) Confocal laser scanning micrographs of rosette leaves from Pro $_{\text {TMм }}: Y F P: K R P 1^{109}$ transgenic plants.
In the left panel an overview is given, whereas close up is shown in pictures of the right panel. Scale bar in (A), (C), (E), (G) $80 \mu \mathrm{~m}$ and in (B), (D), (F), (H) $20 \mu \mathrm{~m}$.

### 2.9. Mode of KRP1-induced endoreplication

From animals it is known that a conversion of a mitotic cycle into an endocycle can be initiated from different phases of a mitotic cell cycle discriminating different endocycles. For instance, in the first endocycles of Drosophila nurse cells a new G1 phase is initiated shortly after S-phase, whereas mammalian megakaryocytes progress through a G2 phase and switch to a G1 phase with the beginning of mitosis (Edgar and Orr-Weaver, 2001).

In order to determine how KRP1-induced endocycles proceeded, a promotor reporter line for a mitotic cyclin $\left(\right.$ Pro $\left._{C Y C B 1 ; 2}: D B: G U S\right)$ was used, which marks cells in a late G2- till M-phase of a cell-division cycle (Schnittger et al., 2002a). Next, the number of Pro $_{C Y C B 1 ; 2}:$ DB:GUS-positive socket cells surrounding outgrowing but not yet maturated trichomes were compared in a wild-type background and in plants misexpressing $K R P 1^{109}$ from the GL2 promotor. It was found that wild-type as well as Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1^{109}$ plants displayed approximately the same proportion of stained cells adjacent to a trichome, 31 versus 35 percent (Tab4). Thus, endoreplicating trichomeneighboring cells in KRP1 misexpressing plants still entered a G2 phase.

I found that in the KRP1 induced endocycles the Anaphase Promoting Complex/Cyclosome (APC/C) was active. This became evident since the GUS reporter utilized was fused to the N-terminal 149 amino acids of CYCLIN B1;1 including the destruction box (DB) (Schnittger et al., 2002a). Such a marker becomes degraded in late mitosis with the onset of APC/C activity, which degrades mitotic substrates as cyclins and securin and promotes by that exit from mitosis (ColonCarmona et al., 1999). Trichome-neighboring cells in KRP1 misexpressing plants, however, did not display a continuous staining of the DB:GUS marker indicating a cyclic degradation of the marker.

| TABLE 4 <br> Pro $_{\text {cYCB1; } 2:}$ :DB:GUS in socket cells of young trichomes |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| line | percentage of young trichomes with at least one GUS-positive socket cell ${ }^{1}$ | n | $\Sigma$ trichomes |
| Procycbi; $2: D B: G U S$ in Ler | $31.3+/-4.2$ | 4 | 400 |
| Pro $_{\text {CYCB1; } 2: D B: G U S}$ in Progl2:KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ | 34.5+/-2.9 | 4 | 400 |

${ }^{1}$ Socket cells of young trichomes (stage 2 to stage 5 according to Szymanski et al. 1998) were analyzed; average plus/minus standard deviation per 100 counted trichomes.

### 2.10. Expression of $K R P 1$ in the siamese mutant

The observation that KRP1 could only induce endoreplication in cells with a mitotic cell-cycle program and not in endoreplicating cells as trichomes or trichomeneighboring cells suggested that KRP1 acts by blocking a mitotic activity while allowing S-phase entry rather than by actively promoting S-phase entry. This is also supported by the cyclic expression of a late G2 reporter.

It is not clear, however, why KRP1 misexpression only in trichomes and not in proliferating cells appeared to interfere with S-phase entry. To test whether other developmental cues might be responsible for a differential response of trichomeneighboring cells versus trichomes with respect to S-phase entry I made use of the siamese (sim) mutant. In sim mutant plants trichomes undergo mitosis leading to clustered and multicellular trichomes with strongly reduced endoreplication levels; yet these multicellular trichomes display characteristics of typical trichomes with branch formation and papillae on the outer surface (Fig18A) (Walker et al., 2000).


D


Figure 18 Misexpression of KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ in siamese

Pro $_{G L 2}: Y F P: K R P 1$ and Pro $_{G L 2}: Y F P: K R P 1{ }^{109}$ were introduced into sim mutant plants and analysis of the 14 and 28 generated transgenic plants showed the following three phenotypical classes: 7\% (for Pro $_{G L 2}: Y F P: K R P 1$ ) and $43 \%$ (for Pro $_{G L 2}: Y F P: K R P 1{ }^{109}$ ) of the plants displayed a KRP1 misexpression like phenotype, i.e. small trichomes with fewer branches, which eventually died. $64 \% / 40 \%$ contained almost wild-type like trichomes with none or only few clusters (Fig18B), and 29\%/18\% developed simlike clustered and multicellular trichomes. Similar results were also obtained by crossing the untagged $K R P 1$ and $K R P 1{ }^{109}$ misexpression lines into sim plants as well as by introduction the untagged version by plant transformation into sim plants (data not shown).

Next, the DNA content of wild-type like sim mutant plants expressing Pro $_{G L 2}: Y F P: K R P 1{ }^{109}$ was measured. Although nuclei of these trichomes did not fully reach wild-type replication levels both a quantitative and a qualitative increase in endoreplication levels were found.

Figure 18 Misexpression of $K R P 1^{109}$ in siamese
(A) Scanning-electron micrographs of a mature multicellular siamese mutant trichome.
(B) Scanning-electron micrographs of a mature unicellular wild-type like trichome in siamese mutants misexpressing Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1^{109}$ (as seen in line Pro $_{G L 2}: Y F P: K R P 1^{109}$ in sim \#5), note that trichome-neighboring cells are enlarged.
(C) Analysis of trichome DNA content of Col wild type, sim and Pro $_{G L 2}: Y F P: K R P 1^{109}$ in sim line \#5. Distributions of trichome DNA contents are given in relative fluorescence units (RFUs). The median value of Col trichomes was set as 32 C . From this value the respective C values of the trichome nuclei were calculated. The sample size ( n ), the mean ( m ) $+/$ - standard deviation and the median (md) are given.
(D) Semi-quantitative RT-PCR showing the relative expression strength of YFP:KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ in three independent lines misexpressing Pro $_{G L 2}: Y F P: K R P 1^{109}$ in siamese mutant background. These lines resemble either a $K R P$-like, a WT-like or a sim-like phenotype. The expression strength was compared with the endogenous expression of GLABRA2 (GL2). The numbers at top indicate the RT-PCR cycle number. Line \#14 showed the strongest, line \#5 an intermediate and \#25 the weakest transgene expression which correlates with their phenotypes.
Scale bar in (A) and (B) $100 \mu \mathrm{~m}$.

In sim mutants roughly 20 percent of the individual nuclei have a DNA content of 4 C or less and the average DNA content of all nuclei is approximately 8C. In contrast, all of the trichome nuclei on plants expressing Pro $_{G L 2}$ :YFP:KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ in the sim mutant background had a DNA content of more than 4 C and the overall average DNA content was approximately 13C (Fig18C, line \#15). These data showed that KRP1 expression can at least partially rescue the sim mutant phenotype. Thus, also in a trichome environment $K R P 1$ expression can induce endoreplication suggesting that the difference between trichomes and trichome-neighboring cells is more directly associated with the execution of a mitotic program than with other developmental differences.

Furthermore, the spectrum of phenotypes obtained by expressing KRP1 in sim mutant plants suggested that KRP1 could act in a concentration dependent manner. Semi-quantitative RT-PCR of representative plants from the different phenotypical classes revealed that weak sim-like and wild-type like phenotypes were correlated with low expression strength of the $K R P 1$ construct whereas a $K R P 1$-like phenotype was associated with higher expression levels of the construct (Fig18D).

Thus, this data suggests that KRP1 supplies a mitosis-suppressing function which is compatible with an endoreplication program at a low concentration whereas at higher levels of expression KPP1 blocks cell-cycle progression completely.

### 2.11. Endoreplicated trichome socket cells re-enter mitosis

Along with maturation and differentiation most of Arabidopsis leaf cells switch to an endoreplication cycle (Melaragno et al., 1993) (compare also Fig15A,C,E). Correspondingly, cell-divisions become progressively restricted to the basal part of the leaf and finally stop completely (Donnelly et al., 1999).

Surprisingly in very old leaves of Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1^{109}$ plants the Pro $_{C Y C B 1 ; 2}$ :DB:GUS reporter was expressed again in trichome-socket cells, indicating that these cells again entered a G2-phase (Fig19A). A comparison with wild-type plants carrying the Pro $_{C Y C B 1 ; 2}$ :DB:GUS transgene confirmed that in comparable stages on wild-type leaves cell divisions have ceased with the exception of a few meristemoid cells at the leaf base. I determined the ratio of GUS-positive trichomeneighboring cells to total number of trichomes and obtained for leaves of Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1{ }^{109}$ plants with a few meristemoid cells in a G2-phase a ratio of about 0.024 and on somewhat older leaves without any other detectable cells in a G2 phase a ratio of about 0.006 (Tab5). Analysis of these mature socket cells in an SEM revealed new cell walls in very large cells (Fig19B). This finding was supported by the observation of cell divisions in differentiated guard cells in Pro $_{T M M}:$ YFP:KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ misexpressing plants resulting in a stoma composed of three cells(Fig16I).

Intriguingly, at the time when the $\operatorname{Pro}_{C Y C B 1 ; 2}$ marker is turned on again the majority of the trichomes on Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1{ }^{109}$ plants are dead, in addition this is about the time when the activity of the GL2 promotor ceases (Szymanski et al., 1998). This correlation suggested that only after the withdrawal from the KRP1 regime trichomeneighboring cells entered mitosis.

The general notion is that cells, which have started an endoreplication program, are terminally differentiated and cannot re-enter mitosis (Nagl, 1976; Melaragno et al., 1993; Edgar and Orr-Weaver, 2001). However, at the time when neighboring cells resumed cell division all of them appeared to have undergone substantial endoreplication suggesting that endoreplicated cells were able to re-enter mitosis. To find further support for this possibility DAPI-stained leaves were examined with the help of Suzanne Kuijt for the appearance of mitotic figures
(Fig19C-F). Figure 19 D and F shows two representative mitotic figures, most likely a metaphase (D) and a late anaphase or telophase (F) of trichome-neighboring cells in KRP1-misexpressing plants. The comparison with similar mitotic stages of wild-type root meristem cells or young leaf cells, which are not polyploid (Fig19C,E), revealed that mitotic figures obtained from KRP1-misexpressing plants contained more DNA than dividing cells in wild type (Fig19D,F). This demonstrates that endoreplicated trichome-neighboring cells underwent mitosis.

As judged by the number of cell walls I identified in the SEM many neighboring cells re-entered mitosis (Fig19B). DAPI staining revealed that the most common nuclear type was an interphase nucleus indicating that cell divisions did not result in abnormal mitoses or mitotic arrest but rather that mitosis of an endoreplicated cell proceeded without aberrations. Thus, it can be concluded that plant cells maintain the ability after going through endoreplication cycles to divide again, demonstrating a high degree of flexibility in plant development.

| TABLE 5 <br> Pro $_{\text {CYCB1;2: }}$ :DB:GUS in socket cells of mature trichomes |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| line | stage ${ }^{1}$ | GUS positive socket cells per total trichome number per leaf ${ }^{2}$ | $\underset{\text { leaves }}{\Sigma}$ | $\Sigma$ trichomes |
| ProcycB1;:DB:GUS in Ler | GUS+ | 0.000+/-0.000 | 9 | 326 |
| ProcycB1;:DB:GUS in Ler | GUS- | 0.000+/-0.000 | 15 | 304 |
| ProcycB1;:DB:GUS in Pro $_{\mathrm{GL} 2}:$ KRP1 $1^{109}$ | GUS+ | 0.024+/-0.035 | 16 | 508 |
| ProcycB1;: DB:GUS in Proglz:KRP1 ${ }^{10}$ | GUS- | 0.006+/-0.031 | 52 | 868 |

${ }^{1}$ stage GUS+: GUS staining in other epidermal cells besides socket cells stage GUS-: GUS staining only in socket cells
${ }^{2}$ Mature trichomes (stage 6 according to Szymanski et al., 1998) were analyzed; average plus/minus standard deviation.


Figure 19 Analysis of late cell divisions in endoreplicated trichome-neighboring cells (A) Light micrograph of a whole-mount GUS-staining of the reporter line Pro ${ }_{C Y C B 1,2}$ :DB:GUS in Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1^{109}$ showing GUS activity in one trichome-neighboring cell of an old rosette leaf, in which no other cell divisions are detectable.
(B) Scanning-electron micrograph of trichome-neighboring cells surrounding a dead trichome of an old rosette leaf of Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1^{109}$-expressing plants. Arrowheads mark a straight wall indicative for a newly formed wall in enlarged trichome-neighboring cells.
(C) and (E) Confocal-laser-scanning micrographs of wild-type non-endoreplicated nuclei at different mitotic stages. (C) shows a metaphase nucleus with condensed chromosomes from a root meristem cell. (E) reflects a late anaphase/early telophase nucleus (marked by arrowheads) from a young leaf epidermal cell.
(D) and (F) show mitotic figures in endoreplicated nuclei of trichome-neighboring cells in Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1^{109}$ expressing plants. Note the increased DNA content compared to wild-type. Condensed chromosomes most likely reflecting a (D) metaphase, (F) a late anaphase/early telophase.
Scale bar in (A) and (B) $100 \mu \mathrm{~m}$; (C) to (F) $5 \mu \mathrm{~m}$.

## 3. Interactors of KRP1 and KRP1 ${ }^{109}$

### 3.1. A-type cyclin dependent kinase CDKA;1

One of the best known Arabidopsis KRP1 interacting protein is the A-type cyclindependent kinase CDKA; 1. In several yeast two hybrid assays a strong protein-protein interaction of KRP1 and CDKA; 1 has been shown (Wang et al., 1998; De Veylder et al., 2001b). Moreover Wang and colleagues were able to show in a histonel kinase assay that overexpression of KRP1 interferes with CDKA;1 activity (Wang et al., 2000). The first hints for an interaction of KRP1 with CDKA; 1 in planta came from Schnittger et al. 2003. In their work they could completely rescue the trichome phenotype of Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1^{109}$ expressing plants by crossing these plants with transgenic lines misexpressing CDKA;1 under control of the GLABRA2 promotor. Misexpression of Pro $_{G L 2}: C D K A ; 1$ alone did not result in any morphological changes. The trichomes in the progeny of the cross $\operatorname{Pro}_{G L 2}: K R P 1{ }^{109}$ with $\operatorname{Pro}_{G L 2}: C D K A ; 1$ had wild type morphology.

To study whether the interaction with CDKA; 1 causes changes in the subcellular localization of KRP1, transgenic plants containing either the Pro $_{G L 2}: Y F P: K R P 1$ or the Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1^{109}$ :YFP construct were crossed with plants misexpressing Pro $_{G L 2}: C D K A ; 1$. Also plants expressing the dominant active variant of CDKA;1, Pro $_{G L 2}: C D K A ; 1-A F$, were used for crossings. In the $C D K A ; 1-A F$ variant the two inhibitory phosphorylation sites Tyr14 and Thr15 were mutated to Phe and Ala respectively, thus preventing the inhibitory phosphorylation (Hemerly et al., 1995). Misexpression of CDKA;1-AF under control of the GL2 promotor did not result in a phenotype (Arp Schnittger personal communication). By crossing of Pro $_{G L 2}: C D K A ; 1-A F$ or Pro $_{G L 2}: C D K A ; 1$ with Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1^{109}: Y F P$ the KRP1
trichome phenotype could be rescued. Because homozygous Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1^{109}: Y F P$ expressing plants showed only a very weak enlargement of the socket cells rescue was difficult to judge and (Tab2) therefore this aspect has not been taken into account for further analysis.

Concerning the localization of YFP:KRP1 in Pro $_{G L 2}: C D K A ; 1$ misexpressing plants, YFP signal was still detected in the cytoplasm and the nucleus (Tab6). In F1 plants of the cross of the two CDK variants with Pro $_{G L 2}: Y F P: K R P 1$ the YFP signal could only be detected in the nucleus corroborating that the interaction of KRP1 or KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ with CDKA;1 does not alter the subcellular localization of KRP protein. Interestingly, phenotypical analysis of the F1 generation of the crosses of YFP:KRP1 with both CDK variants revealed no rescue, i.e. the trichomes were smaller and had fewer branches as compared to wild type trichomes (Tab6). I observed this phenotype in the progeny of all crosses, using Pro $_{G L 2}: Y F P: K R P 1$ expressing plants either as the male or the female crossing partner. Taken together, these findings show that KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ interacts with CDKA; 1 and CDKA;1-AF in planta. It needs to be further analyzed why in plants expressing YFP:KRP1 KRP1 interaction with both CDK variants is hindered. The Pro $_{G L 2}: Y F P: K R P 1$ construct seemed to be functional as the trichomes in this line looked like Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1$ misexpressing trichomes (Tab3). However, CDKA; 1 and CDKA;1-AF do not interfere with the subcellular localization of KRP1 and KRP1 ${ }^{109}$.

### 3.2. B-type cyclin dependent kinase CDKB1;1

As mentioned in the previous chapter misexpression of KRP1 can block cell division. Therefore the interaction of KRP1 with the mitotic CDKB1;1 was studied. Misexpression of the dominant-negative CDKB1;1 resulted in a block in G2-phase in

Arabidopsis (Boudolf et al., 2004). So far no interactions have been found for CDKB1;1 with KRPs based on yeast two hybrid assays (De Veylder et al., 2001b); (Zhou et al., 2002). Also in planta crosses of $\operatorname{Pro}_{G L 2}: K R P 1^{109}$ with Pro $_{G L 2}: C D K B 1 ; 1$ showed that truncated KRP1 does not interact with CDKB1;1 (Schnittger et al., 2003).

In this work, I crossed Pro $_{G L 2}: Y F P: K R P 1$ and Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1{ }^{109}:$ YFP misexpressing plants with Pro $_{G L 2}: C D K B 1 ; 1$ expressing plants and analyzed the phenotype in their progeny. In addition, the subcellular localization of KRP1 and KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ in the CDKB1;1 overexpressing background was analyzed. The F1 generation of all crosses revealed the KRP phenotype (small trichomes with fewer branches) and the subcellular localization of KRP1and KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ remained unchanged (Tab6). These data corroborate that there is no genetic interaction between the two KRP1 versions and the mitotic CDKB1;1.

| TABLE 6 <br> Interactors of KRP1 and KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| male |  | Pro $_{G L 2}: Y F P: K R P 1$ | Pro $_{\text {GL2 }}$ KRRP1 $^{109}$ :YFP | Pro $_{\text {gl2 }}:$ nls:GFP:GUS |
| female |  |  |  |  |
| Pro $_{\text {Gl2 }}$ :CDKA;1 | p | KRP <br> nucleus | WT nucleus+cytoplasm | $\begin{aligned} & \text { WT } \\ & \text { NA } \end{aligned}$ |
| Pro $_{\text {Gl2 }}$ CDKA;1-AF | p | KRP <br> nucleus | WT nucleus+cytoplasm | $\begin{aligned} & \text { WT } \\ & \text { NA } \end{aligned}$ |
| Pro ${ }_{\text {GL2 }}$ :CDKB1;1 | p I | KRP nucleus | KRP nucleus+cytoplasm | $\begin{aligned} & \text { WT } \\ & \text { NA } \end{aligned}$ |
| Pro $_{\text {GL2 }} \mathbf{C Y C D C D ; 1}$ | p |  | WT nucleus+cytoplasm | weak CYCD3;1 <br> NA |
| Pro $_{\text {GL2 }}$ :CKS1 | p | KRP <br> nucleus | WT nucleus+cytoplasm | $\begin{aligned} & \hline \text { WT } \\ & \text { NA } \end{aligned}$ |
| Pro $_{\text {GL2 }}: n / \mathrm{s}$ :GFP:GUS | p | $\begin{aligned} & \hline \mathrm{KRP} \\ & \mathrm{NA} \end{aligned}$ | KRP NA |  |

p: trichome phenotype; l: localization; NA: not analyzed


## Figure 20 Interactors of KRP1

(A) and (B) Scanning electron micrographs of plants misexpressing Pro $_{G L 2}: C Y C D 3 ; 1$. (A) shows a young developing multicellular trichome, (B) shows mature trichomes (pictures were taken from Schnittger et al., 2002).
(C) and (D) UV excited micrographs of Arabidopsis leaves expressing transiently Pro $_{35 S}$ :CFP:CKS1 after particle gold bombardment. CFP:CKS1 can be detected in the nucleus and the cytoplasm. In (D) the closed arrowhead indicates the cell, which was hit by the gold particle, whereas open arrowheads indicate the neighboring cells, which show a weaker CFP signal, suggesting CKS1 movement or diffusion.
(E) Semiquantitative RT-PCR showing the expression of $K R P 1^{109}$ and as control GL2. RNA was isolated from F1 seedlings obtained from crossings of $\mathrm{Pro}_{\mathrm{GL} 2}: \mathrm{KRP}^{109}$ with either Pro $_{G L 2}: n l s: G F P: G U S$ (upper panel) or with Pro $_{G L 2}: C K S 1$ (lower panel). The numbers at top indicate the RT-PCR cycle number.

### 3.3. D-type cyclin CYCLIN D3;1

Besides the C-terminal CDK interacting domain (Fig7) also a cyclin interacting domain has been identified in yeast two hybrid experiments using various KRP1 deletion constructs (Wang et al., 1998). The authors could show a strong interaction of KRP1 and KRP $1^{109}$ with the D-type cyclin CYCD3;1. The first evidence for a genetic interaction in planta has been described by Schnittger et al. (2003). In their study they made use of the trichome CYCD3;1 misexpression line (Pro GL2 :CYCD3;1), in which the wild-type single, unicellular trichome is transformed into clusters of multicellular trichomes (Fig20A,B) (Schnittger et al., 2002b). The progeny of the crosses of Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1^{109}$ with Pro $_{G L 2}:$ CYCD3;1 misexpressing lines had mostly three-branched, unicellular trichomes and the cluster frequency was like in wild-type. This means that overexpression of both components could completely rescue the KRP1- and the CYCD3;1 trichome phenotypes, emphasizing that KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ and CYCD3;1 interact. Additional information came from the work of Zhou et al., who could partially rescue the growth retardation of Pro $_{355}: K R P 1$ expressing plants by overexpressing CYCD3;1 under control of the CaMV35S promotor (2003). In this work a complete rescue was also observed in crosses of plants expressing the YFP fused to KRP1 or KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ with the Pro $_{G L 2}$ :CYCD3;1 plants. To rule out that the observed phenotypes are not caused by co-suppression the F1 generation of Pro $_{G L 2}: C Y C D 3 ; 1$ crossed to Pro $_{G L 2}:$ nls:GFP:GUS was analyzed. The trichomes were multicellular and were initiated in clusters, but the phenotype was milder than in homozygous Pro $_{G L 2}:$ CYCD3;1 expressing plants (Tab6). With respect to the subcellular localization of KRP1 and KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ no alterations have been observed in the crosses with $\operatorname{Pro}_{G L 2}: C Y C D 3 ; 1$. Taking these data together, the previously reported
interaction between KRP1 and KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ with CYCD3;1 could be confirmed, also with YFP translational fusions of KRPs.

### 3.4. CDC KINASE SUBUNIT CKS1

Like in yeast and animals the Arabidopsis CDC KINASE SUBUNIT 1 has been identified as an interactor of CDKA;1 in a yeast two hybrid screen. Besides this interaction CKS1 was also found to interact with B-type CDKs, such as CDKB1;1, CDKB1;2 and CDKB2;1 (De Veylder et al., 1997). So far not much is known about further proteins interacting with CKS1 in planta. In the mammalian system it was shown that CKS1 binds to the F-box protein Skp2 which is part of the $\mathrm{SCF}^{S k p 2}$ ubiquitin ligase involved in the ubiquitination of the CDK inhibitor p27 ${ }^{\text {Kip1 }}$ (Carrano et al., 1999; Sutterluty et al., 1999; Tsvetkov et al., 1999). Furthermore CKS1 is required for the ubiquitination of phosphorylated $\mathrm{p} 27^{\text {Kip1 }}$ and stabilization of Skp2 and CKS1 results in increased proteolysis of p27 ${ }^{\text {Kip1 }}$ (Ganoth et al., 2001; Spruck et al., 2001; Bashir et al., 2004).

In this work a possible interaction between the Arabidopsis CDK inhibitor KRP1 and CKS1 was analyzed. In situ hybridization experiments revealed that CKS1 and KRP1 are expressed in partially overlapping domains. While CKS1 is expressed in mitotic and endoreplicating cells, KRP1 can only be detected in endoreplicating cells (Jacqmard et al., 1999; Ormenese et al., 2004). To test if KRP1 and CKS1 show the same subcellular localization I made N-terminal fusions of CFP or YFP to CKS1 and expressed them under control of the CaMV35S promotor (Pro $3_{355}$ :CFP:CKS1, Pro $_{355}$ :YFP:CKS1). With the help of Marc Jakoby and Doris Falkenhahn the subcellular localization of Pro $_{355}$ :CFP:CKS1 was analyzed by particle bombardment of Arabidopsis leaves. The CFP:CKS1 fusion protein could be detected in the nucleus
and the cytoplasm. Interestingly, the CFP signal was also observed in the cells adjacent to the hit cell indicating that CKS1 might move from cell to cell (Fig20C,D).

To gain insights in the function of CKS1 in planta, this gene was misexpressed in endoreplicating trichomes $\left(\right.$ Pro $\left._{G L 2}: C K S 1\right)$. However, transgenic plants containing this construct did not display a phenotype (Arp Schnittger personal communication). As mentioned above the mammalian CKS1 seems to be involved in the degradation of the KRP ortholog $\mathrm{p} 27^{\text {Kip } 1}$. Thus I crossed Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1$, Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1^{109}$, Pro $_{G L 2}: Y F P: K R P 1$ and Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1^{109}$ :YFP transgenic plants with the Pro $_{G L 2}:$ CKS1 misexpressing plants and analyzed the trichome phenotype and the subcellular localization of KRP1 and KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ in the F1 generation. As in the parental generation, YFP:KRP1 could only be detected in the nucleus and KRP $1{ }^{109}$ :YFP was localized in the nucleus and the cytoplasm (table 6). In the cross of Pro $_{G L 2}: Y F P: K R P 1$ with Pro $_{G L 2}$ :CKS1 misexpressing plants trichomes were small and had fewer branches, comparable to the Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1$ phenotype. In all other crosses the KRP1 trichome phenotype was completely rescued by the misexpression of CKS1 (table 6). To ensure that the observed rescue was not due to co-suppression semiquantitative RT-PCR was performed with primers for KRP1 and for GL2 as control. RNA was isolated from young seedlings of the F1 generation of the cross $\operatorname{Pro}_{G L 2}: K R P 1{ }^{109}{ }_{\mathrm{xPro}}^{G L 2}$ : CKS1 and the cross Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1^{109}{ }_{\mathrm{x}}$ Pro $_{G L 2}: n l s: G F P: G U S$. In both crosses $K R P 1^{109}$ is expressed at similar levels (Fig20E), indicating that the observed phenotype was due to the genetic interaction between KRP1 and CKS1 in planta. Interestingly, work from the lab of Geert de Jaeger provided evidence for the interaction of KRP4 with CKS1, but not KRP2, in pull-down experiments (Geert de Jaeger personal communication). These data show that CKS1 and KRP1 can interact in planta. Whether CKS1 is involved in KRP1 proteolysis needs to be further investigated for
example by measuring the YFP signal strength in the different compartments to check for alterations.

### 3.5. Conclusion

For all crosses listed in table 6 the localization of KRP1 and of KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ remained unchanged. Whether the signal strength in the different cell compartments was altered needs to be tested in a more detailed study. Moreover, it would be interesting to analyze, whether crosses with Pro $_{G L 2}: Y F P: K R P 1^{109}$ transgenic plants would give the same results as shown above for $\operatorname{Pro}_{G L 2}: K R P 1^{109}: Y F P$ expressing plants, because the N-terminal fusion of YFP to KRP1 interfered with its interaction ability. In this work I could show that KRP $1^{109}$ genetically interacts with CKS1, CYCD3;1 and CDKA;1 but not with the mitotic CDKB1;1 Surprisingly, interaction of KRP1 fused with YFP could be only seen for CYCD3;1. This suggests that the cyclin could be the primary binding partner of KRP1 in the KRP-CDK/cyclin complex and not the CDK. This secenario is supported by the recent finding, that the binding of p 27 Kip 1 to the CDK2/cyclinA complex is a sequential mechanism, which is initiated by the binding to cyclinA (Lacy et al. 2004).

## 4. Analysis of RBX1a and CSN5A, proteins involved in protein degradation

### 4.1. RBX1 the central component of the SCF complex

Besides transcriptional control, one important way to modulate the abundance of cell cycle regulators is protein degradation. The ubiquitin-proteasome pathway is involved in the degradation of many plant cell cycle regulators for example the CDK inhibitor KRP2 (Verkest et al., 2005). Ubiquitination of a target protein involves the sequential activity of three enzymes: an ubiquitin-activating enzyme (E1), an ubiquitinconjugating enzyme (E2) and an ubiquitin-protein ligase (E3). The Skp1-Cullin-F-box complex (SCF) is a well characterized E3 ligase in plants (Hellmann and Estelle, 2002). The core of the SCF complex consists of a member of the cullin family and a RING BOX protein, called RBX, which can bind to the E2 enzyme. In Arabidopsis two genes encoding for RBX proteins haven been identified, RBX1a and RBX1b (Gray et al., 2002; Lechner et al., 2002).

It would be interesting to resolve whether the SCF-proteasome dependent pathway also regulates the abundance of the KRP1 protein. To address this I focused on the core component of the SCF the RBX1 protein. Based on available EST sequences 6 ESTs have been found for $R B X 1 a$ and none for $R B X 1 b$ (Gray et al., 2002; Lechner et al., 2002). Therefore misexpression and RNAi experiments were performed with RBX1a. Rough analysis of plants carrying the construct Pro $_{G L 2}:$ RBX1a showed increased trichome branching. This result favors the idea that the SCF-RBX1a complex might be involved in the degradation of an inhibitor of endoreplication and that overexpression of one component of the SCFcomplex is sufficient to enhance the degradation of this inhibitor.

Besides overexpression of RBX1a I also tried to decrease the amount of RBX1a in trichomes by a RNA interference approach. Seven out of 22 primary transformants showed a distinct phenotype. Transgenic seedlings were smaller in comparison to wild type and the length of the hypocotyl was extremely reduced (Fig21A,C). Also the leaf shape was altered rosette leaves were laterally expanded, giving rise to a more round leaf shape in comparison to WT leaves and the length of the petioles was shorter (Fig21A,C). The leaf surface had an irregular appearance and the trichomes seemed to be sunken into it (Fig21C). A similar phenotype has been observed in Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1{ }^{109}$ transgenic lines (Fig21B). The rosette leaf trichomes appeared normal with respect to their branch number, however the trichome stalk was much shorter. Detailed analysis including scanning electron microscopy revealed that the trichome neighboring cells were enlarged, similar to the phenotype observed for misexpression of KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ in trichomes (Fig21D). Previously Gray et al., 2002 and Lechner et al., 2002 reported that RBX1a antisense and RBX1a-RNAi Arabidopsis plants were somewhat perturbed in their auxin response resulting in a loss of apical dominance. In the present work this phenomenon was also observed in Pro $_{G L 2}:$ RBX1a-RNAi expressing plants.

The overexpressing and the RNAi lines form the basis for further experiments. They will be used to determine the genetic interaction between KRPs and the SCF RBX1A or to analyze the protein stability of KRP1, KRP1 ${ }^{108}$ and KRP1 $1^{109}$ in a RBX1aoverexpressing or RBX1a-depleted background.


Figure 21 Analysis of Pro $_{G L 2}:$ RBX1a-RNAi misexpressing and csn5a mutant plants

### 4.2. CSN5 a component of the COP9 signalosome

The COP9 signalosome (CSN) is a complex that was first discovered through loss-offunction mutations by which photomorphogenesis was repressed in Arabidopsis (Wei et al., 1994; Chamovitz et al., 1996). The CSN seems to be involved in the regulation of protein turnover by E3 ubiquitin ligases and the 26 S proteasome and has shown to interact with the cullin and the RBX1 subunits of SCFs (Schwechheimer and Deng, 2001). Interestingly, in mammalian cells it has been shown that CSN5 interacts with the CDK inhibitor $\mathrm{p} 27^{\text {Kip } 1}$ causing its translocation from the nucleus to the cytoplasm, where it becomes degraded by the ubiquitin-proteasome pathway (Tomoda et al., 1999; Tomoda et al., 2002). To learn more about the function of the COP9 SIGNALOSOME SUBUNIT 5A I analyzed the phenotype of the csn5a mutant phenotype (kindly provided by Claus Schwechheimer). The homozygous csn5a mutant plants were severely impaired in their overall growth and rosette leaves had a narrow shape in contrast to wild type plants (Fig21E,F,G,H). Recently, similar phenotypes have been described for a T-DNA insertion line for the CSN5A locus (Gusmaroli et al., 2004). Also trichome development was affected as leaf hairs had a reduced cell-size, fewer branches and a shiny appearance, suggesting a defect in endoreplication (Fig21G,H).

Figure 21 Analysis of Pro $_{G L 2}:$ RBX1a-RNAi misexpressing and csn5a mutant plants
(A) Image of two week old seedlings from Pro $_{G L 2}:$ RBX1a-RNAi transgenic plant (indicated by arrowhead) and the corresponding wild type, using the same magnification.
(B) Shows a typical three week old Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1^{109}$ misexpressing seedling.
(C) Shows a three week old Pro $_{G L 2}$ :RBX1a-RNAi misexpressing seedling.
(D) Scanning electron migrograph of trichome with enlarged socket cells from Pro $_{G L 2}$ :RBX1a-RNAi misexpressing plant.
(E) Overview over three week old Col wild type (top) and csn5a mutant (bottom) seedlings.
(F) Two week old Col wild type seedling
(G) Two week old csn5a mutant seedling
(H) Close up of a rosette leaf from csn5a showing small trichomes with fewer branches.

Scale bar in (D) $50 \mu \mathrm{~m}$; (F) 5 mm ; (G) and (H) $500 \mu \mathrm{~m}$

Whether CSN5A is involved in KRP1 regulation has to be investigated. First experiments were initiated to analyze on the one hand the subcellular localization of KRP1, KRP1 ${ }^{108}$ and KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ in dividing and endoreplicating cells in a csn5a mutant background. On the other hand misexpression of CSN5A together with KRP1 in trichomes will be used to analyze whether the KRP phenotype is weaker, indicating that CSN5 is involved in KRP1 proteolysis. Trichome-specific misexpression of CSN5A alone under the GLABRA2 promotor did not result in any morphological changes.

## 5. The RBR1-E2F pathway in Arabidopsis

Schnittger et al. 2003 could demonstrate that the Arabidopsis CDK inhibitor KRP1 is involved in the regulation of G1/S transition. Misexpression of KRP1 in trichomes inhibits endoreplication. It would be interesting to find out whether this block at the G1/S transition could be overcome by triggering entry into S-phase. Good candidates for the regulation of entry into S-phase are the components of the RetinoblastomaE2F pathway. In the Arabidopsis genome, a number of genes involved in this pathway, have been identified. So far one gene encoding for the Retinoblastoma related gene (RBR1), three genes encoding for E2Fs (E2Fa, E2Fb and E2Fc), two genes encoding for their hetero-dimerization partner $D P(D P a$ and $D P b)$ and three genes encoding for DP-E2F-like (DEL1, DEL2 and DEL3) proteins have been described (Vandepoele et al., 2002). To learn more about the function of the individual members of the Arabidopsis RBR-E2F pathway in an endoreplicating context, trichome specific misexpression lines were generated in this study. For the misexpression approach the GLABRA2, CAPRICE and TRIPTYCHON promotors were used $\left(\right.$ Pro $_{G L 2}$, Pro $_{C P C}$ and Pro $_{T R Y}$ ) (Fig4C,D,E). Moreover a knock-out approach was started in which I tried to specifically reduce the transcript levels of $D P a, D P b$ and RBR1 in trichome cells.

### 5.1. Retinoblastoma related RBR1

In the mammalian system the Retinoblastoma tumor suppressor protein $(\mathrm{Rb})$ is a key regulator of the of the G1/S transition. In its non-phosphorylated state Rb binds to the heterodimeric transcription factor E2F-DP thereby masking the transcriptional activation domain rendering it inactive. Upon CDK phosphorylation Rb is released
from the E2F-DP heterodimer and transcription of E2F-DP targets is enabled (Harbour and Dean, 2000).

In plants not much is known about the Retinoblastoma protein and whether the regulatory pathway described above is similar in planta. Recently Ebel et al., described a loss of function mutant of Arabidopsis retinoblastoma related1 (RBR1) (2004). The rbr1 mutant is gametophytic lethal emphasizing the importance of RBR1 in plants. Moreover, the mature unfertilized megagametophyte fails to arrest mitosis and undergoes excessive nuclear proliferation in the embryo sac.

Here I tried to knock-down RBR1 function by a RNA interference approach. Thereby the complete RBR1 cDNA in sense and antisense orientation was expressed to produce a double-stranded RNA. Arabidopsis plants were transformed in three independent experiments with the Pro $_{G L 2}:$ RBR1-RNAi construct but among more than 10000 T 1 seeds never any BASTA resistant transformant could be recovered (Tab7). One possible explanation could be that silencing of RBR1 might be embryo lethal as the GL2 promotor is active in epidermal cells during early embryo development (Fig4A,B; Fig14D) (Lin and Schiefelbein, 2001; Costa and Dolan, 2003).

Misexpression studies of RBR1 in trichome cells under control of either the $C P C$ or the $T R Y$ promotor led to trichomes with fewer branches compared to WT. Consistent with the data that the number of trichome branches and DNA content are correlated these results suggest that endoreplication is blocked (Hulskamp et al., 1994). These results are consistent with the data reported from animals that RBR1 is involved in the regulation of the G1/S transition. However, a more detailed analysis of the transgenic lines is needed.

| TABLE 7 <br> E2F / DP / RBR1 misexpressing lines |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| line | background | trichome penotype |
| Procp: E2Fa | Ler | trichomes with more branches |
| Procp: E2Fa | gl2 | gl2 |
| Progl2:E2Fa | Ler | WT |
| Progl2:E2Fa | gl2 | gl2 |
| Protry:E2Fa | Ler | trichomes with more branches |
| Protry:E2Fa | gl2 | gl2 |
| Procpa:E2Fb | Ler | trichomes with more branches |
| Procp: E 2Fb | gl2 | gl2 |
| Progl2:E2Fb | Ler | WT |
| Progl2:E2Fb | gl2 | gl2 |
| Pro ${ }_{\text {TrY:E2Fb }}$ | Ler | WT |
| Protry:E2Fb | gl2 | gl2 |
| Proglz:E2Fc | Ler | trichomes with more branches |
| Proglz:DPa | Ler | WT |
| Proglz:DPa | gl2 | gl2 |
| Proglz:DPa-RNAi | Ler | WT |
| Proglz:DPb | Ler | WT |
| Proglz:DPb | gl2 | gl2 |
| Proglz:DPb-RNAi | Ler | WT |
| Procpc:RBR1 | Ler | trichomes with fewer branches |
| Progl2:RBR1 | Ler | WT |
| Protry:RBR1 | Ler | trichomes with fewer branches |
| Proglz:RBR1-RNAi | Ler | no transformants |

### 5.2. E2Fs and DPs

$E 2 F a$ and $E 2 F b$, together with their interacting partners $D P a$ and $D P b$, have been reported to act as positive regulators triggering entry into and progression through Sphase via transcriptional activation of various genes involved in cell cycle machinery, DNA synthesis, replication and repair (De Veylder et al., 2002; Kosugi and Ohashi, 2002c; Menges and Murray, 2002). E2Fc may act as a repressor, because it binds to the same E2F motifs as E 2 Fa and E 2 Fb in the promotor region of various genes but
lacks the transcriptional activation domain. The expression of CDC6 is transcriptionally up-regulated by E2Fa and down-regulated by E2Fc (De Veylder et al., 2002; del Pozo et al., 2002).

In this work E2Fa, E2Fb and E2Fc were misexpressed in endoreplicating trichome cells. Transgenic lines containing either Pro ${ }_{C P C}: E 2 F a$, Pro $_{T R}: E 2 F a$, Pro $_{C P C}: E 2 F b$ or Pro $_{G L 2}: E 2 F c$ showed an increase in trichome branching (Tab7).

50 out of 90 primary transfomants of Pro $_{C P C}: E 2 F a$ showed an increase in trichome branching, whereas only 7 out of 80 Pro $_{C P C}: E 2 F b$ containing T 1 plants displayed a similar phenotype. These data suggest that E2Fa acts as a more potent transcription factor as $E 2 F b$, which is in agreement with the results from Rossignol et al. showing in a transient expression assay a stronger activation with the construct Pro $_{355}:$ E2Fa than with Pro $_{355}:$ E2Fb (2002).

Besides their trichome phenotypes no further morphological alterations could be observed in these transgenic lines in comparison to wild-type. Taken together these data suggest that all three E2Fs were able to enhance endoreplication and seem to function as positive regulators at the G1/S transition.

In contrast to the E2F induced increase in trichome branch number, misexpression of their dimerization partner $D P a$ and $D P b$ under control of the GLABRA2 promotor did not result in any obvious changes of trichome branching or of trichome cell size (Tab7). This in agreement with the data reported by de Veylder et al., 2002 and Kosugi and Ohashi, 2003, showing that $D P a$ overexpression under control of the CaMV35S promotor in Arabidopsis and in tobacco did not alter plant morphology and DNA levels. However, in plants overexpressing both DPa and E2Fa a synergistic phenotype could be observed with much higher endoreplication levels as plants misexpressing E2Fa alone (De Veylder et al., 2002). It still needs to be shown
by crossings of the various E2F and DP trichome misexpressing lines which specific heterodimers are functional in planta and if they act as transcriptional activators or repressors.

The attempts to knock out DP function via post transcriptional gene silencing by misexpressing RNAi variants of $D P a$ and $D P b$ in trichomes did not result in any morphological changes as compared to wild type (Tab7).

### 5.3. Rescue of the glabra 2 mutant

Arabidopsis plants with a mutation in the homeobox gene GLABRA2 display a glabrous leaf phenotype. Closer inspection of these leaves revealed that the gl2 trichomes were either enlarged abortive epidermal cells that expanded only in the plane of the leaf or developed in unbranched spikes, similar to the trichomes misexpressing KRP1 (Fig22A,B) (Koornneef, 1990; Rerie et al., 1994). DNA measurements of the outgrowing $g l 2$ trichomes and the aborted $g l 2$ trichomes revealed that in both cases endoreplication levels were reduced as compared to wild type (Arp Schnittger, personal communication).


Figure 22 The glabra2 mutant
(A) and (B) Scanning electron micrograhps of glabra2. (A) rosette leaf from the gl2 mutant showing the typical enlarged abortive epidermal cells and the unbranched and small trichomes (picture taken from Szymanski et al., 1998). (B) Close up of such a abortive gl2 trichome cell.

This brought up the hypothesis that the trichome phenotype of the glabra2 mutant is caused by a decrease of endoreplication cycles. To test this I misexpressed E2Fs (E2Fa, E2Fb and E2Fc) and DPs (DPa and DPb) under control of trichome-specific promotors Pro $_{C P C}$, Pro $_{G L 2}$ and Pro $_{T R Y}$ ) in the gl2 mutant background. As mentioned above and based on the correlation of branching and DNA content, not all constructs enhanced endoreplication in the wild-type background (Tab7). In WT plants misexpressing the Pro $_{C P C}: E 2 F a$, Pro $_{T R Y}: E 2 F a$, Pro $_{C P C}: E 2 F b$ or Pro $_{G L 2}: E 2 F c$ transgene an increase in trichome branching has been observed. Misexpression of these constructs in the gl2 mutant background resulted in glabrous leaves (Tab7), but whether the endoreplication levels in these trichomes were elevated in comparison to gl2 mutant trichomes needs to be analyzed. Furthermore misexpression of E2F and the respective $D P$ in gl2 trichomes might result in a more pronounced phenotype, since in wild type plants expressing both E 2 Fa and DPa the endoreplication enhancement was much stronger (De Veylder et al., 2002).

## DISCUSSION

In this work I analyzed how endoreplication is contolled in Arabidopsis thaliana. In the first part I studied the regulatory function of RBR1 and E2Fs at G1/S the transition in endoreplicating trichome cells. Preliminary data suggest that RBR1 might act as a negative regulator whereas $\mathrm{E} 2 \mathrm{Fa}, \mathrm{E} 2 \mathrm{Fb}$ and E 2 Fc positively affect endorpelication.

In the second part I could show that KRPs are likely to be important regulators of endocycles in plants since the Arabidopsis CDK inhibitor KRP1 besides an inhibitory role at the G1/S transition point can block cell division and induce endoreplication. In addition, it was found that KRP1 can act non-cell-autonomously. These findings open a new view on the functions of CDK inhibitors (CKIs) especially with respect to tissue organization and organ growth control in plants. Moreover, the work on KRP1 resulted in the finding that already endoreplicated cells can adopt a certain cell fate, and that endoreplicated cells can re-enter a mitotic cycle.

## The RBR-E2F pathway and the regulation of endoreplication

In this work first hints were obtained that the Arabidopsis genes encoding for members of the RBR-E2F pathway play a role in the regulation of G1/S transition. Misexpression of the Arabidopsis adenovirus E2 promotor binding factor E2Fa or $E 2 F b$ in trichome cells promotes trichome branching. Given the fact that trichome branching correlates with DNA content, these data suggest that E 2 Fa and E 2 Fb are able to trigger entry into S-phase, resulting in higher endoreplication levels when misexpressed in trichome cells (Hulskamp et al., 1994). Surprisingly, the misexpression of E2FC in trichomes also resulted in higher branch numbers. This observation stands in contrast to the reported function of E 2 Fc as a negative regulator.

E 2 Fc competes with E 2 Fa and E 2 Fb for the same E2F promotor binding sites and lacks the transcriptional activation domain (del Pozo et al., 2002; Kosugi and Ohashi, 2002c). However Mariconti et al. could show transcriptional activation of an E2F responsive GUS construct by E2Fc in Arabidopsis protoplasts (2002). One possible explanation could be that trichomes are a very sensitive test system for regulators of the G1/S transition suggesting that already a weak transcriptional activation of E2Fc results in a trichome phenotype. However, additional experiments are necessary to understand the function of E2Fc in planta.

Misexpression of the Arabidopsis E2F dimerization partners $D P a$ and $D P b$ did not result in any morphological changes, which is in agreement with the data observed by de Veylder et al. for Pro $_{355}$ :DPa transgenic plants (2002). Transgenic plants in which I tried to reduce $D P a$ and $D P b$ transcript levels by RNA interference did not display a phenotype. But, it remains to be analyzed whether the expression of the DPs is reduced in planta. It would be interesting to test whether misexpression of DPs together with E2Fs, could enhance the observed trichome phenotype caused by E2Fs as seen for overexpression of E2Fa together with DPa (De Veylder et al., 2002). Moreover, in Arabidopsis not much is known about the preferences of E2Fs for their dimerization partners.

Misexpression of the Arabidopsis RBR1 gene led to a decrease in trichome branch number, as one would expect for a negative regulator of the E2F-DP transcription factor. As the E2F misexpression lines are generated one could easily test whether E2Fs are regulated by RBR1 like in animals. To gain more insights in RBR1 regulation by phosphorylation an interesting experiment could be to test whether Pro $_{G L 2}: C D K A ; 1$ misexpression can resuce the Pro $_{G L 2}:$ RBR1 trichome phenotype.

However, one has to be careful with the above described results, because these data are only based on morphological observations and need to be confirmed by detailed analyses of the DNA content in these misexpressing lines. It is also worth checking for the transcription levels of E2F downstream targets, such as CDC6 or ORC which have shown to be upregulated in response to overexpression of E2Fa together with DPa (De Veylder et al., 2002; del Pozo et al., 2002).

## CKIs as multiple cell-cycle switches

Based on this study and previous experiments CKIs could have at least three functions in plants. First, KRPs might be important regulators involved in switching from a mitotic to an endoreplicating cell-cycle mode in differentiating cells. As demonstrated by misexpression in trichome-neighboring cells, embryonic epidermis cells, and Pro $_{\text {тмм }}$-positive cells, KRP1 is a very potent inhibitor of entry into mitosis while it allows S-phase to proceed. Such an inhibitory function might be needed in cells determined to switch to an endoreplication cycle but still contain mitotic regulators. For instance in Medicago, mRNA of a mitotic cyclin has been detected in the zone of nitrogen-fixing nodules, in which cells will enter an endoreplication cycle (Cebolla et al., 1999). Consistently, the KRP1 mRNA was detected in Arabidopsis in mature leaves, in which cells often endoreplicate (Ormenese et al., 2004). Lastly, the rescue of sim mutant trichomes by KRP1 expression argues for a function of CKIs in facilitating the switch to an endoreplication cycle. Intriguingly, SIM encodes a small protein with limited homology to KRPs (John Larkin, personal communication). Additionally, Verkest et al could demonstrate that KRP2, another member of the KRP family, can block mitosis (2005).

Second, derived from the finding that KRPs can block entry into mitosis I postulate an additional function of KRPs in dividing cells by assisting to establish a G1 phase. Licensing of origins of replication in a G1 phase requires a low CDK activity (Stern and Nurse, 1996). One way to inactivate kinase activity after a preceding mitosis is the APC/C dependent destruction of mitotic cyclins (Peters, 1998; Harper et al., 2002). In addition, it has been shown that in Drosophila a special CDK inhibitor, ROUGHEX (RUX), binds to and inactivates mitotic CDK complexes helping to establish a G1 phase with low CDK activity (Foley et al., 1999; Foley and Sprenger, 2001). $R U X$ is an essential gene in Drosophila demonstrating that there is a high demand for this inhibitory activity. Recently, for the human CDK inhibitors $\mathrm{p} 21^{\text {Cip } 1}, \mathrm{p} 27^{\text {Kip } 1}$ and for the RETINOBLASTOMA protein a similar function in controlling mitotic exit by inactivating mitotic CDK activity was found (Chibazakura et al., 2004). A function of KRPs in contributing to a G1 phase could also explain the expression of KRPs in highly proliferating cells, an observation that is so far not understood and appears even contradictory to the previously described function of KRPs as inhibitors of cell proliferation (Breuil-Broyer et al., 2004; Ormenese et al., 2004). Additional hints for a function of KRP1 in or after mitosis come from transcriptional profiling studies of an Arabidopsis cell culture that revealed an expression peak of KRP1 mRNA in late G2/M phase (Menges and Murray, 2002; Menges et al., 2003). Further, genes expressed in late G2 phase and mitosis often contain mitosis-specific-activator (MSA) elements in their promotors, for instance the promotor of CYCB1;2 shows 5 elements (Ito et al., 1998; Ito, 2000). In the promotor of KRP1 at least 8 MSA elements can be found supporting an expression during mitosis. However, it remains to be seen how in this scenario KRP1 is prevented from a premature inhibition of a mitotic CDK complex.

Finally, as shown in previous experiments, misexpression of $K R P s$ can lead to cells with a reduced DNA content (De Veylder et al., 2001b; Jasinski et al., 2002; Schnittger et al., 2003). Therefore, the third function of KRPs might be to terminate/assist to terminate mitotic as well as endoreplication cycles. First this is supported, by the analysis of KRP1 transcript over time. In 5 -week old Arabidopsis leaves, in which presumably all cell-cycle activity has ceased, an increased level of KRP1 transcript in comparison to CDKA;1 was found (Wang et al., 1998). Second, further support comes from the analysis of the KRP1 T-DNA insertion line in which endoreplication levels are increased in trichome cells.

## Throwing the switch

What determines which CKI function is executed? Why does an endoreplicating cell undergo an S-phase block whereas a proliferating cell is preferentially blocked at mitosis? It is conceivable that KRP1 could target different CDK complexes or has different affinities to the various $\mathrm{CDK} /$ cyclin complexes in endoreplicating trichomes versus mitotic cells. Also, additional components might be present in mitotic and endoreplicating cells, respectively. Misexpression of human p21 ${ }^{\text {Cip1 }}$, for instance, has led to endoreplication only if the RETINOBLASTOMA protein is absent (Niculescu et al., 1998). Also the Drosophila inhibitor RUX was found upon misexpression to block mitosis and convert the $16^{\text {th }}$ embryonic cycle into an endocycles. Earlier embryonic cycles, however, were only converted when in addition cyclin E was absent (Vidwans et al., 2002). Thus, KRP1 could have a cell-type specific function depending on a specific set of cell-cycle regulators.

All previous data, however, were obtained from misexpression studies using strong promotors, either the GL2 or the CaMV35S promotor, precluding any analysis
of CDK function at weaker concentrations. In this study, I looked at KRP1 moving from trichomes into their neighboring cells and the comparison of fluorescence intensities of YFP-tagged KRP proteins between trichomes and their neighboring cells revealed a more than two-fold difference for KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ :YFP to YFP: KRP1 between the two cell types. In addition, the GL2 promotor appears to have weaker expression in young embryos than later in trichome or root development as judged by the strength of the in situ hybridization signal and fluorescence intensity of reporter genes (Lin and Schiefelbein, 2001; Costa and Dolan, 2003). Not much is known about the relative strength of the TMM promotor but it is presumably weaker than the CaMV35S promotor. Thus, it is possible that CDK inhibitors act as concentration dependent switches that block entry into S-phase only at high concentrations. This is substantiated by the finding that a KRP1-misexpression like phenotype was found in sim mutant plants with high levels of KRP1 expression whereas at lower expression levels increased endoreplication levels in comparison to the sim mutant were found. Recently, similar observations have been reported for weak and strong misexpression of KRP2 under control of the CaMV35S promotor. Low protein concentrations of KRP2 inhibited the mitotic cell cycle, but endoreplication was unaffected. Whereas Arabidopsis plants containing high amounts of KRP2 showed reduced endoreplication levels (Verkest et al., 2005). Interestingly, the study of temperature sensitive CDK alleles in yeast has suggested that for entry into mitosis higher levels of CDK activity are required than for entry into S-phase (MacNeill et al., 1991; Ayscough et al., 1992). One deduction from the above is that if CDK inhibitors are involved in establishing endocycles, and thus, are already expressed in endoreplicating cells, e. g. trichomes, the additional expression of KRP1 might then reach a threshold concentration of CDK inhibitor resulting in a block of S-phase entry. This could explain why among the
large number of transgenic plants generated expressing various KRP versions in trichomes one has only found plants with apparently reduced endoreplication levels in trichomes.

Of course, cell-type specific action and concentration dependency of CKIs are not mutually exclusive. Also endocycles induced in trichome-neighboring cells differed from endocycles in wild-type trichomes since in trichomes neither CYCB1;1 nor CYCB1;2 promotor activity can be recognized (Schnittger et al., 2002a).

Remarkably, the CYCB1;1 promotor reporter indicating a G2-phase did not accumulate in endoreplicating trichome-neighboring cells. This reporter carries a destruction box indicating that at least some activity of the $\mathrm{APC} / \mathrm{C}$ remained even though CDK activity was presumably blocked. In animals and yeast, CDK activity has been found to be necessary for CDC20 (class of APC/C-cofactors) phosphorylation and by that activate the $\mathrm{APC} / \mathrm{C}^{\mathrm{CDC} 20}$ (Shteinberg et al., 1999; Kramer et al., 2000). One possibility for KRP1 misexpressing plants could be that only the affinity to certain substrates or only certain CDKs might be blocked by KRP1 still permitting the activation of $\mathrm{APC} / \mathrm{C}^{\mathrm{CDC20}}$. One candidate for a CDK that cannot be blocked by KRPs are the plant specific B-type CDKs (Joubes et al., 2000).

Alternatively, also a different APC/C complex could be involved since the CDC20 dependent APC/C is active only in late mitosis (Shteinberg et al., 1999; Kramer et al., 2000). In animals, with the end of mitosis and during a G1 phase of a following cell cycle another APC/C is assembled containing the CDH1cofactor class (Zachariae et al., 1998). Studies from Drosophila have revealed that the $\mathrm{APC} / \mathrm{C}^{\mathrm{CDH}}$ is also active in the G2 phase and needs to be inactivated prior to mitosis to allow accumulating mitotic cyclins (Grosskortenhaus and Sprenger, 2002). In contrast to CDC20, phosphorylation has been found to inactivate CDH1 (Kotani et al., 1999;

Kramer et al., 2000). Thus, in the case of KRP1 misexpression another possibility is that blocked CDK activity might result in an active $\mathrm{ACP} / \mathrm{C}^{\mathrm{CDH1}}$. Yet, it remains to be seen whether plant $\mathrm{APC} / \mathrm{C}$ is similarly regulated by CDC 20 and CDH 1 homologs.

## Non-cell-autonomous action of CKIs

So far, CKIs have not been found to function in a non-cell-autonomous manner in animals. Besides controlling CKIs within a cell, the non-cell-autonomous action of KRP1 offers a possibility to link decisions on a cellular level with the supracellular division and growth pattern in organs. For instance, it has been found that starting from the leaf tip epidermal cells enter an endocycle (Melaragno et al., 1993). CKIs could help to spread the entry into an endoreplication cycle. In addition, CKIs could be involved in linking developmental programs, e.g. trichomes with trichomeneighboring cells. In contrast to other epidermal cells it was found that the level of endoreplication in trichome-neighboring cells is quite constant around 4-8C. Of course this could be a feature of socket-cell fate. Alternatively, this could also be an indirect effect resulting from a diffusion of CKIs from a centrally located trichome leading to a coordinated entry in and perhaps a coordinated exit from an endoreplication cycle. Analysis of trichome mutants with increased and decreased endoreplication levels might help to answer this question.

The molecular mechanism of the non-cell-autonomous action of KRP1 remains to be analyzed in detail. Transport through plasomodesmata appears to be highly regulated and at least for some nuclear localized proteins a controlled transport mechanism has been found (Gallagher et al., 2004). Conversely, plasmodesmata also allow the passive diffusion of small molecules. The size exclusion limit (SEL) for non-targeted symplastic movement has been estimated to be around 60 kD in young
tobacco leaves and around 40 kD in older tobacco and Arabidopsis leaves (Oparka et al., 1999; Crawford and Zambryski, 2000; Itaya et al., 2000). Thus, on the one hand KRP1 is nuclear localized on the other hand KRP1, even fused to YFP, might be small enough ( 22 kD and 49 kD , respectively) to diffuse between cells whereas a GUS:YFP:KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ fusion with 105 kD was retained in trichomes. Yet a third alternative is that not the protein but the mRNA moves between cells (Ruiz-Medrano et al., 1999; Kim et al., 2001), and detailed analyses will be required in future to understand the nature and possible function of the KRP1 non-cell-autonomy.

## Regulation of CKIs by their intracellular localization

The finding that KRP1 can move between cells adds another level of complexity to plant development and challenges cell-cycle control on a tissue and organ level. There are at least two possible ways for plants to keep CKIs in check. The first one might be the nuclear localization. Plants misexpressing YFP:KRP $1{ }^{108}$ showed a strong YFP signal in the nucleus, which is in agreement with the recently identified putative NLS of KRP1 harbored in the N-terminus. The second one might be the high instability of the KRP1 proteins. In contrast to YFP expressed from the GL2 promotor full length KRP1 protein could not be detected on western blots. For the N-terminally truncated protein KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ a band of the expected size was found. Intriguingly, whereas the full length KRP1 was exclusively found in the nucleus, KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ was also located in the cytoplasm. Similar results were recently obtained by Zhou et al. analyzing roots of plants misexpressing KRP1 from the CaMV35S promotor (2003). In animals, $\mathrm{p} 27^{\text {Kip1 }}$ abundance and localization is strictly regulated (Sherr and Roberts, 1999; Slingerland and Pagano, 2000). p27 ${ }^{\text {Kip1 }}$ exerts its inhibitory function in the nucleus and in many experimental systems $\mathrm{p} 27^{\text {Kip1 }}$ has been found to become degraded in the cytoplasm
(Tomoda et al., 1999; Connor et al., 2003). One likely possibility is that KRP1 becomes degraded in the cytoplasm and that for this degradation a motif in the N terminus of the protein is required. To test whether proteolysis of KRPs takes place in the cytoplasm KRP1 could be targeted to the cytoplasm, for example by fusing it to a nuclear export signal.

## Regulation of CKIs by protein degradation

In animals $\mathrm{p} 27^{\text {Kip } 1}$ is recognized by the E3 ligase $\mathrm{SCF}^{\text {Skp } 2}$, becomes ubiquitinated and then degraded by the 26S proteasome (Carrano et al., 1999; Sutterluty et al., 1999; Tsvetkov et al., 1999). The first hints that the $\mathrm{SCF}^{S k p 2}$ dependent degradation of CDK inhibitors is also involved in the proteolysis of Arabidopsis CKIs came from the misexpression of $K R P 1^{109}$ in Arabidopsis plants lacking the F-box protein Skp2. The cytoplasmic YFP signal of plants misexpressing Pro $_{\text {тмм }}$ :YFP:KRP1 $1^{109}$ in a skp2-1 skp2-2 double mutant background was stronger in comparison to the misexpression of this construct in wild type (Marquardt, 2005). Interestingly, analysis of the stability of the YFP:KRP1 $1^{109}$ fusion protein in endoreplicating trichomes by misexpression of Pro $_{G L 2}: Y F P: K R P 1^{109}$ in a skp2-1 skp2-2 double mutant background revealed no changes in the cytoplasmic YFP signal strength. In the trichome-neighboring cells of this line a cytoplasmic signal could be detected, whereas wild-type plants misexpressing Pro $_{G L 2}: Y F P: K R P 1^{109}$ showed only a YFP signal in the nucleus (Marquardt, 2005). This indicates that KRP1 is degraded in a Skp2-dependent manner in dividing cells. However, the fact that the YFP:KRP1 fusion protein expressed under control of the GL2 promotor could not be detected in western blots shows that KRP1 is subjected to degradation also in endoreplicating cells. These findings suggest that KRP1 becomes degraded by a Skp2-independent manner in endoreplicating cells.

This assumption is supported by the phenotypes observed in Pro $_{G L 2}:$ RBX1a-RNAi transgenic plants, which showed similarities to KRP1 misexpressing plants. The trichome-neighboring cells were enlarged and the rosette leaves were roundish with sunken trichomes, but the trichomes had a wild type appearance with respect to branch number. An exciting experiment would be to analyze the protein stability of KRPs in dividing and endoreplicating cells of plants with reduced RBX1a levels, like in the Pro $_{G L 2}:$ RBX1a-RNAi line.

Mice lacking the CDC KINASE SUBUNIT CKS1 have been shown to accumulate high amount of p27 ${ }^{\text {Kip1 } 1 . ~ F u r t h e r ~ e x p e r i m e n t s ~ r e v e a l e d ~ t h a t ~ C K S 1 ~ b i n d s ~ t o ~}$ Skp2, thereby mediating the interaction of Skp2 with p27 ${ }^{\text {Kip1 }}$ and the subsequent ubiquitination of p27 ${ }^{\text {Kip1 }}$ (Spruck et al., 2001). Stabilization of the human CKS1 and Skp2 resulted in enhanced proteolysis of $\mathrm{p} 27^{\text {Kip1 }}$ (Bashir et al., 2004). Interestingly, I observed that misexpression of CKS1 in trichomes could rescue the KRP1 caused trichome phenotype, suggesting that the proteolysis of Arabidopsis KRPs might be regulated by a similar $\operatorname{SCF}^{\text {Skp2-CKS1 }}$ dependent pathway. However, analysis of the stability of the KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ :YFP fusion protein in the progeny of the cross of Pro $_{G L 2}:$ CKS1 with Pro $_{G L 2}: K R P 1{ }^{109}$ :YFP misexpressing plants revealed a strong YFP signal in the cytoplasm and the nucleus. One possible explanation is that the amount of KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ : YFP in the crosses with CKS1 is reduced below a certain threshold leading to wild type trichomes. To test this measurements of the YFP intensity of KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ :YFP in Pro $_{G L 2}$ : CKS1 and wild type background would be needed. Moreover it should be analyzed whether the observed rescue also leads to wild-type DNA levels in the trichomes. Another possibility to explain CKS1 function could be that CKS1 prevents binding of KRP1 to the CDK/cyclin complex. A third possibility is that CKS1 either activates or stabilizes the CDK/cyclin complex. In budding yeast it has
been shown that CKS1 stabilizes and activates the CDK/cyclin (Cdc28/Cln2) complex in vitro (Reynard et al., 2000).

## Endocycles and terminal differentiation

Endocycles are often regarded as a state of terminal differentiation since the switch to an endocycle is often associated with cell differentiation (Edgar and Orr-Weaver, 2001; Sugimoto-Shirasu and Roberts, 2003). Evident examples for this connection are Arabidopsis trichomes (Marks, 1997; Hulskamp et al., 1999), salivary gland cells in Drosophila (Smith and Orr-Weaver, 1991), or human thrombocytes (Zybina and Zybina, 1996).

Here I have shown that endocycles might be much more dynamic and flexible than previously thought. The first observation was that the onset of an endoreplication program still allows cells to adopt, and thus, change their fate. The second observation was that an endoreplicated cell can re-enter a mitotic cycle. Interestingly, already more than 50 years ago it was observed that polyploid plant and animal cells could occasionally reduce their number of chromosomes and return to a diploid chromosome set (Grell, 1946; Huskins, 1948a, b). Here it has been shown that a reduction of DNA content is not limited to tetraploid cells but even highly endoreplicated cells appeared to divide.

What causes these enlarged cells to re-enter mitosis? Three possibilities are conceivable. In animals, it has been observed that binding of $\mathrm{p} 27^{\text {Kip } 1}$ can stabilize a CDK4/cyclin D complex (LaBaer et al., 1997; Cheng et al., 1999; Bagui et al., 2000). Correspondingly, KRP1 could conserve a mitotic regulator complex in the trichomeneighboring, cells and after KRP1 is not supplied any longer by the trichome, the mitotic complex is liberated. A mitotic complex stabilized by KRP1 might include
cyclin D as in plants D-type cyclins have been found to have also mitotic activities (Schnittger et al., 2002b; Koroleva et al., 2004). On the other hand a cell-size check point might operate and induce late cell divisions. The endoreplicated trichomeneighboring cells in KRP1-misexpressing plants are at least for some time the largest cells found in the epidermis and likely of the entire leaf. Thus, a cell-autonomous control mechanism might be responsible for the onset of cell divisions, and after a certain size might be reached, a new cell division could be initiated.

Finally, also a non-cell-autonomous control mechanism based for instance on stomata index might be responsible. I noticed that new stomata complexes were formed by many cell divisions of trichome-neighboring cells (Fig5E). Stomata density is tightly controlled on the leaf blade (Nadeau and Sack, 2002b; Bergmann, 2004). Stomata can only be generated by cell divisions, and therefore, leaf growth by cell expansion in maturating leaves would lead to a dramatic decrease in stomata density. Interestingly, always a few 2C cells were found in maturing leaf areas in which other cells had undergone a few rounds of endoreplication (Melaragno et al., 1993). These cells have been interpreted as a "reserve" for regenerating cells and also for stomata formation. In the light of my findings, however, these cells might not be set aside but could be generated by divisions of endoreplicated cells.

These different possibilities remain to be tested in future but it already emerges that plant cell-cycle control is much more flexible than anticipated and detailed analysis of division patterns will be needed in future to get a deeper insight into the dynamics of plant cell-cycle control in the context of organ and tissue development.

## MATERIAL \& METHODS

## 1.MATERIAL

### 1.1. Chemicals and antibiotics

All used chemicals and antibiotics of analytical quality have been used from Sigma
(Deisenhofen, Germany), Roth (Karlsruhe, Germany), Merck (Darmstadt, Germany) and Duchefa (Haarlem Netherlands).

### 1.2. Enzymes, primers and kits

Restriction enzymes were used from MBI-fermentas (St.Leon-Rot, Germany) and New England Biolabs (Frankfurt/Main, Germany). Modifying enzymes were used from MBI-fermentas (St.Leon-Rot, Germany), Invitrogen (Karlsruhe, Germany), Roche (Mannheim, Germany), usb (Cleveland, USA), Qbiogene (Heidelberg, Germany), TaKaRa (Otsu, Japan). Primers were generated by Metabion (München, Germany). Kits were supplied from peqlab (Erlangen, Germany), GENOMED (Löhne, Germany), Roche (Mannheim, Germany), QIAGEN (Hilden, Germany) and DYNAL (Oslo, Norway).

### 1.3. Cloning vectors and constructs

All used cloning vectors and constructs are listed in the appendix.

### 1.4. Bacterial strains

For standard cloning the Escherichia coli strains DH5alpha and XL1blue were used, the DB3;1 strain, which is resistant to the $c c d B$ gene, was used for the Gateway Entry, Donor and Destination vectors.

For plant transformation Agrobacterium tumefaciens strain GV3101 was used. For all gateway vector based plant transformation GV3101+pMP90RK was used.

### 1.5. Plant lines

In this study Landsberg erecta (Ler), Columbia (Col), and Wassilewskaja (WS-O) ecotypes were used. All mutants and transgenic lines are listed in the appendix.

## 2. METHODS

### 2.1. Plant work

### 2.1.1. Plant growth conditions

Arabidopsis thaliana plants were grown under long-day conditions ( 16 h of light, 8 h of darkness) between 18 and $25^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ under standard greenhouse conditions.

### 2.1.2. Crossing of plants

At a stage when the flowers were closed and the pollen of the anthers was not ripe the anthers of the acceptor flower were removed completely using very fine forceps. All remaining older and younger flowers were also removed. After two days the stigma of the carpels were pollinated with pollen from the donor plant.

### 2.1.3. Plant transformation

Plants were transformed according to the "floral dip" method (Clough and Bent, 1998). To gain strong plants, these were allowed to grow at $18^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ untill the first flowers appeared at stalks of approximately 10 cm in length. Four days before plant transformation a 5 ml Agrobacteria preculture was incubated for two days at $28^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. This preculture was used to inoculate the final 500 ml culture which was then
incubated again for two days at $28^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. Before transformation $5 \%$ sucrose and $0.05 \%$ Silwett L-77 were added to the culture. Plants were dipped in this solution for approximately 20 seconds and afterwards covered with a lid. The lid was removed on the following day.

### 2.1.4. Seed surface sterilization

The surface of the seeds was sterilized by a five min incubation in 95\% Ethanol followed by a 10 min incubation in a $20 \%$ Klorix solution (containing $0.1 \%$ triton X100). Afterwards the seeds were washed two to three times with $0.01 \%$ Triton-X100 solution and than plated under the clean bench on MS-Agar plates ( $1 \%$ MurashigeSkoog salts, $1 \%$ sucrose, $0.7 \%$ agar, pH 5.7 ).

### 2.1.5. Selection of transformants

The seeds of transgenic plants carrying in their T-DNA a kanamycin or a hygromycin resistance were selected on MS-Agar plates with $50 \mu \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{ml}$ kanamycin or $25 \mu \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{ml}$ hygromycin, respectively. Transgenic plants containing the BASTA resistance were grown on soil for 10 to 15 days. The seedlings were sprayed with a $0.001 \%$ BASTA solution, the spraying was repeated after three to seven days.

### 2.2. Microscopy and cytological methods

### 2.2.1. Microscopy

Light microscopy was performed with an Axiophot microscope (Zeiss, Heidelberg, Germany) or a Leica DM RA2 (Leica, Wetzlar, Germany) equipped with differential interference contrast (Nomarski) and epifluorescence optics. The DISKUS software package (Carl H. Hilgers-Technisches Büro, Königswinter, Germany; version
4.30.19) was used to quantify the fluorescence intensity of DAPI stained leaves to determine nuclear and cell sizes, and to measure the nuclear size of propidium iodide stained embryos in optical sections. Cryo-scanning electron microscopy was performed as described by Rumbolz et al., 1999. Confocal-laser-scanning microscopy was performed with Leica DM-Irbe (Leica, Wetzlar, Germany) or LSM 510 META (Zeiss, Heidelberg, Germany).

### 2.2.2. GUS staining

GUS-activity was assayed according to Sessions and Yanofsky, 1999. To allow complete penetration of the X-Gluc-solution plants were vacuum infiltrated in staining buffer ( $0.2 \%$ Triton X-100, $50 \mathrm{mM} \mathrm{NaPO}_{4} \mathrm{pH} 7.2,2 \mathrm{mM}$ potassiumferrocyanide $\mathrm{K}_{4} \mathrm{Fe}(\mathrm{CN})_{6} * \mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}$, 2 mM potassium-ferricyanide $\mathrm{K}_{3} \mathrm{Fe}(\mathrm{CN})_{6}$ containing 2 mM X-Gluc) for 15 to 30 minutes and afterwards incubated at $37^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ over night. Clearing was performed in $70 \%$ Ethanol at $37^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ over night.

### 2.2.3. Propidium iodide staining

Plant material was incubated for 5 minutes in $100 \mu \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{ml}$ Propidium iodide in $\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}$. Afterwards the samples where washed with $\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}$, mounted on a slide and analyzed under the microscope with UV excitation.

### 2.2.4. DAPI staining

To ensure an equal DAPI staining for DNA measurements of socket cells leaves are incubated overnight in 70\% Ethanol at RT. Leaves are then vacuum infiltrated for 30 min in a DAPI solution $\left(0.25 \mu \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{ml}\right.$ DAPI in $\left.\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}\right)$ followed by a wash with $\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}$.

For DNA measurements of trichomes, rosette leaves were vacuum infiltrated for 30 min in formaldehyde solution ( $3.7 \%$ formaldehyde in PBST) followed by a 2 h incubation at $4^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. Samples were washed two times for 15 min in PBST. Then leaves were vacuum infiltrated in DAPI solution $(0.25 \mu \mathrm{~g} / \mathrm{ml}, 5 \%$ DMSO in PBST) for 15 min and incubated overnight in DAPI solution at $4^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ thereafter leaves were washed two times in PBST.

### 2.2.5. Measurement of DNA content and YFP Intensity

Measurements of DNA content and YFP intensity were performed as described in Weinl et al., 2005.

### 2.2.6. Fluorescent-Activated Cell Sorting Analysis

FACS Analysis was performed as described in Weinl et al., 2005.

### 2.3. Molecular-biological methods

### 2.3.1. RNA isolation, reverse transcription and semiquantitative RT-PCR

 Isolation of RNA, DNAse digest, reverse transcription and semiquantitative RT-PCR was performed according to Schnittger et al., 2002; Schnittger et al., 2003 and Weinl et al., 2005. All RT-PCR primers are listed in the table 8.| TABLE 8 RT-PCR primers |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| gene | S/AS primer | sequence 5'->3' | annealing temp |
| att-Gateway | S attB1 | CAA GTT TGT ACA AAA AAG CAG | 55 |
| att-Gateway | AS attB2 | CCA CTT TGT ACA AGA AAG CTG | 55 |
| CDKA;1 | AS cdc2a_511 | ATG AGT AAA TGT CCT GAC AGG GAT AC | 55 |
| CDKB1;1 | AS CDKB1;1_560 | TCA AGA GGC TTA GGA TTA GGT CC | 62 |
| EF1 | S EF1_UP | ATG CCC CAG GAC ATC GTG ATT TCA T | 58 |
| EF1 | AS EF1_RP | TTG GCG GCA CCC TTA GCT GGA TCA | 58 |
| GLABRA2 | S GL2_UTR_53 | GAG GAG AAG AGG GAA GAG ATC ATA A | 55 |
| GLABRA2 | AS GL2_330_AS | TCT TTC TCT TAT TAG TGC CCT TGT | 55 |
| GLABRA2 | AS GL2_685 | AGG AAT TAG CCT TGG AAA AAG ACT | 55 |
| KRP1 | S R1/KRP1_617 | CTC CGT CGT CGG TGA TAA TG | 55 |
| $K R P 1$ | AS R2/KRP1_1591 | AAG ACA CGA CTT TTC TGG GC | 55 |
| KRP1 | S R3/KRP1_1048 | GGC GGT TAA AGA ATC GTT AGA T | 55 |
| KRP1/KRP1 ${ }^{109}$ | AS ICK_655_FL | TTT ACC CAT TCG TAA CGT CCT TCT A | 60 |
| $K R P 1^{152}$ | AS ICK_454 | CAA CAA CAA TCT AAC GAT TCT TTA ACC | 60 |
| YFP | S YFP126_S | GCT GAC CCT GAA GTT CAT CTG | 55 |
| YFP | AS YFP485_AS | TGA TAT AGA CGT TGT GGC TGT TG | 55 |

### 2.3.2. Genomic DNA preparation

Genomic DNA was isolated by CTAB-preparation (Rogers \& Bendich 1988). Plant material (single rosette or cauline leave) was grinded and $200 \mu \mathrm{l}$ of extraction buffer ( $2 \%(\mathrm{w} / \mathrm{v}) \mathrm{CTAB}, 1.4 \mathrm{M} \mathrm{NaCl}, 20 \mathrm{mM}$ EDTA, 100 mM Tris/ HCl pH $8.0,0.2 \%$ b-mercaptoethanol) was added and incubated for 30 minutes at $65^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. After addition of $150 \mu \mathrm{l}$ Chloroform/Isoamylalcohol (24:1) and careful shaking, the probes were centrifuged for 15 minutes at 4000 rpm . The aqueous phase was transferred into a new tube and mixed with $200 \mu$ isopropanol and centrifuged for 15 min . at 4000 rpm. The pellet was washed with $70 \%$ Ethanol and dried, afterwards the pellet was resolved in $20 \mu \mathrm{l} 20 \mathrm{mM}$ Tris/ HCl pH 8.0.

### 2.3.3. Plasmid DNA preparation from bacteria

Plasmid preparation was performed using a column pEQ-LAB Plasmid Miniprep KitI (PEQLAB Biotechnology GmbH, Erlangen) according to the manufacturer's protocol.

### 2.3.4. DNA-manipulation

DNA manipulation and cloning were carried out according to Sambrock et al., 1989 or Ausubel et al., 1994, using standard procedures. All PCR-amplified fragments were sequenced prior to further investigation.

PCR-Primers and constructs were designed using the VectorNTI-suite 7.1 software (Invitrogen, Karlsruhe).

### 2.3.5. Isolation of T-DNA insertion lines

To isolate T-DNA insertion lines for KRP1 or KRP4 of the Csaba Koncz collection a PCR based screen was performed following the protocol of Rios et al., 2002. All screening and T-DNA primers are listed in table 9.

| TABLE 9 <br> Screening and T-DNA Primers |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| primer | sequence 5'->3' | annealing <br> temp |
| KRP4_S | CCA CAA AGA GCA CTA ATC TTC ACA ACC CTA | 68 |
| KRP4_AS | GAG TCC CCC TGT ACC GGA ATT CAT A | 68 |
| S1 (KRP1_S) | CGT CAC TGT AAC GGG ACC ACT AAA AC | 68 |
| S2 (KRP1_AS) | CTC TAA CTT TAC CCA TTC GTA ACG TCC TTC | 68 |
| T1 (left border Fish1) | CTG GGA ATG GCG AAA TCA AGG CAT C | 68 |
| T2 (right border Fish2) | CAG TCA TAG CCG AAT AGC CTC TCC A | 68 |
| T3 (left border HOOK1) | CTA CAC TGA ATT GGT AGC TCA AA TGT C | 68 |
| T4 (right border HOOK4) | TCA GAG CAG CCG ATT GTC TGT TGT G | 68 |
| T5 (left border HOOK3) | GTT GAC AGA CTG CCT AGC ATT TGA GTG | 68 |
| T6 (right border HOOK2) | TAC TTT CTC GGC AGG AGC AAG GTG A | 68 |

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| \# | construct | cloning / source | resistance |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| CK1 | AtCycB1;2 | trunc Cyclin B1;2 cDNA (mit 5'u.3'UTR) kloniert via Linker in pKS (EcoRI+Xhol) Arp Schnittger | Amp |
| CK2 | AtCycD3;1 | Cyclin D3;1 cDNA kloniert in pKS (Notl) Arp Schnittger | Amp |
| CK3 | Atcdc2a-A | cdc2a cDNA (mit 170 bp 5' u. 290 bp 3' UTR) in pGEM-7Zf(-) (EcoRI) Arp Schnittger | Amp |
| CK4 | Atcdc2a-D | cdc2a cDNA in pKS (EcoRV) Daniel Bouyer | Amp |
| CK5 | pBinpGL2 | 2.2 kb GL2-Promotor in pBI101 Arp Schnittger | Kan |
| CK6 | AJH1 = CSN5A | Ara.JAB Homolog 1cDNA in pKS (EcoRI) von Claus Schwechheimer | Amp |
| CK7 | Red1-C1 | pDsRed1-C1 Clontech | Kan |
| CK8 | Red1-N1 | pDsRed1-N1 Clontech | Kan |
| CK9 | EYFP | pEYFP-N1 von Clontech subkloniert in pKS (Xhol+Notl) Jaideep Mathur | Amp |
| CK10 | BY1 | 144bp PCR-Fragment in pGEM-T (template CK1; Primer B1-RFP_U u. B1-RFP_L) | Amp |
| CK11 | BY2 | CK10 (Agel+Xhol) in CK9 (Agel+Xhol+Cip) | Amp |
| CK12 | BY3 | CK1 (1.3kb Notl-T4+Xhol-partial)in CK11 (Acc65l-T4+Xhol+Cip) | Amp |
| CK13 | BY4 / pGL2:trunc-CycB1;2-YFP | CK12 (2kb BamHI+Sacl-partial) in CK5 (BamHI+Sacl+Cip) | Kan |
| CK14 | BY5 | CK13 in Agros | Rif+Kan+Genta |
| CK15 | YB1 | EYFP (Bsp1407I+Notl) Munl via Linker eingeführt u. Stop eliminiert | Amp |
| CK16 | YB2 | 300 bp PCR-Fragment in pKS (EcoRV) (temp CK1; Primer YFP-B1;2_U u. YFP-B1;2_L) | Amp |
| CK17 | YB3 | CK16 (0.3 kb Mva1296I+BamHI) in CK1 (Mva1296I+BamHI+Cip) | Amp |
| CK18 | YB4 | CK17 (1.4 kb Acc65l-T4+Munl) in CK15 (Notl-T4+Munl+Cip) | Amp |
| CK19 | YB5 / pGL2::YFP-CycB1;2 | CK18 (ca. 2kb BamHI+Sacl-partial) in CK5 (BamHI+Sacl+Cip) | Kan |
| CK20 | YB6 | CK19 in Agros | Rif+Kan+Genta |
| CK21 | CR1 | PCR-Fragment in pGEM-T (template CK3; Primer cdc-RFP_U u.cdc-RFP_L | Amp |
| CK22 | CR2 | CK21 (70 bp BamHI+Agel) in CK8 (BamHI+Agel+Cip) | Kan |
| CK23 | CR3 | CK3 (0.9 kb BamHI) in CK22 (BamHI+Cip) | Kan |
| CK24 | CR4 | CK23 (Notl) Sacl via Linker (Oligo: Sacl-1 u. Sacl-2) eingeführt | Kan |
| CK25 | CR5/ pGL2::cdc2a-RFP | CK24 (1.8 kb Sacl+BamHI-partial) in CK5 (BamHI+Sacl+Cip) | Kann |
| CK26 | CR6 | CK25 in Agros | Rif+Kan+Genta |
| CK27 | AJH1-A | CK6 (BamHI-T4-religiert) BamHI eliminiert | Amp |
| CK28 | AJH1-B | CK27 (HindIII+Sall) BamHI via Linker (Oligo: BamHI-Ila u. BamHI-IIb) eingeführt | Amp |
| CK29 | AJH1-C/ pGL2::CSN5A | CK28 (1.4 kb BamHI+Sacl) in CK5 (BamHI+Sacl+Cip) | Kann |
| CK30 | AJH1-D | CK29 in Agros | Rif+Kan+Genta |
| CK31 | AtDPa | AtDPa cDNA (AJ294531) (=pDP1b) Dirk Inze | Amp |


| CK32 | AtDPb | AtDPb cDNA Dirk Inze | Amp |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| CK33 | AtE2Fb | AtE2Fb cDNA (AJ294533) (=pGBT-E2F3) Dirk Inze | Amp |
| CK34 | AtE2Fa | AtE2Fa cDNA (AJ294534) (=pBinE2F5) Dirk Inze | Kan |
| CK35 | pJawohl8RNAi | binärer RNAi Destination-Vektor im GATEWAY-System mit 35S-Promotor u. pA35S Bekir Ülker | Chloramp./Amp |
| CK36 | p35SGW-Myc | binärer Myc-tag Destination Vektor im GATEWAY-System mit 35S-Promotor u.pA35S Franziska Turck | Chloramp./Amp |
| CK37 | pBender | binärer Destination-Vektor im GATEWAY-System mit 35S-Promotor u. Nos-Terminator Marc Jacoby | Amp |
| CK38 | pENTR4 | Entry-Vektor im GATEWAY-System INVITROGEN | Kan |
| CK39 | pDONR201 | Donor-Vektor im GATEWAY-System INVITROGEN | Kan |
| CK40 | pDONR207 | Donor-Vektor im GATEWAY-System INVITROGEN | Genta |
| CK41 | pENTR1A | Entry-Vektor im GATEWAY-System INVITROGEN | Kan |
| CK42 | pAM-PAT-GW | binärer Destination-Vektor im GATEWAY-System mit 35S-Promotor u. pA35S Bekir Ülker | Chloramp./Amp |
| CK43 | pENTR1A ohne ccdB | CK41(EcoRI) ccdB-Gen raus+religiert Arp Schnittger | Kan |
| CK44 | pENTR1A | CK41(Dral+Acc65-Klenow+religiert) pENTR1A ohne Dral,Xmnl,Sall,BamHI,KpnI | Kan |
| CK45 | pART30+Sdal | pART30 von Arp Schnittger (Notl+Xbal) via Linker Sdal rein | Amp |
| CK46 | 5'ICK1::GUS-CDB | CK45 (Sdal+Sall) in MT79 von Michael Lenhard (Sdal+Sall+Cip) (=ICK-G1) | Kan |
| CK47 | ICK-G1 | CK46 in Agros | Rif+Kan+Genta |
| CK48 | 5'ICK1::GUS-CDB-3'ICK1 | CK45 (Sdal+Sall) in pART 39 von Arp Schnittger (Sdal+Sall+Cip) (I=CK-G2) | Kan |
| CK49 | ICK-G2 | CK48 in Agros | Rif+Kan+Genta |
| CK50 | pHannibal | RNAi-Vektor Wesley et al PJ 2001 | Amp |
| CK51 | pKannibal | RNAi-Vektor Wesley et al PJ 2001 | Kan |
| CK52 | pGL2 in pUC18 | GL2-Promotor (2.2 kb in pUC18) Daniel Bouyer | Amp |
| CK53 | pGL2::YFP in pBI101 | CK9 (0.7kb BamHI+Sacl) in CK5 (BamHI+Sacl+SAP) | Kann |
| CK54 | GL2::YFP | CK53 in Agros | Rif+Kan+Genta |
| CK55 | Red-N-Sacl | CK8 (Notl) Sacl via Linker eingeführt (Oligos: Sacl-1 u. Sacl-2) | Kan |
| CK56 | pGL2::RFP in pBI101 | CK55 (0.7kb BamHI+Sacl) in CK5 (BamHI+Sacl+SAP) | Kann |
| CK57 | pGL2::RFP | Ck56 in Agros | Rif+Kan+Genta |
| CK58 | AtML1-Promotor (=pART5) | AtML1-Promotor (3.4 kb HindIII-Fragment) Arp Schnittger | Kan |
| CK59 | pUC19 | pUC19 | Amp |
| CK60 | pKS | pBlueskript II KS- STRATAGENE | Amp |
| CK61 | pKS-Ascl | CK60 (HindIII) Ascl via Linker eingeführt | Amp |
| CK62 | pGL2 in pKS | CK52 (2.3kb HindIII+BamHI) in CK60 (HindIII+BamHI+SAP) | Amp |
| CK63 | AtE2Fb in pUC19-II | CK33 (EcoRI+BamHI+T4) in CK59 (Smal+SAP) | Amp |
| CK64 | AtE2Fb in pUC19-I | CK33 (EcoRI+BamHI+T4) in CK59 (Smal+SAP) | Amp |


| Amp |
| :--- |
| Amp |
| Amp |
| Kan |
| Rif+Kan+Genta |
| Kan |
| Rif+Kan+Genta |
| Kann |
| Rif+Kan+Genta |
| Kan |
| Rif+Kan+Genta |
| Amp |
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| Chloramp./Amp |
| Chloramp.IAmp |
| Amp |
| Amp |
| Amp |
| Amp |
| Amp |
| Amp |
| Amp |


| CK33 (EcoRI+BamHI+T4) in pKS(Smal+SAP) |
| :--- |
| CK34 (BamHI+Ncol+T4) in CK59 (Smal+SAP) |
| CK34 (BamHI+Ncol+T4) in CK59 (Smal+SAP) |
| CK63 (BamHI+SacI) in CK5 (BamHI+SacI+SAP) |
| CK68 in Agros |
| CK64 (BamHI+SacI) in CK5 (BamHI+SacI+SAP) |
| CK70 in Agros |
| CK66 (BamHI+SacI) in CK5 (BamHI+SacI+SAP) |
| CK72 in Agros |
| CK67 (BamHI+SacI) in CK5 (BamHI+SacI+SAP) |
| CK74 in Agros |
| CK52 (HindIII) Ascl via Linker eingeführt |
| CK76 (BamHI+Acc65I) Xhol via Linker eingeführt |
| AtCycB1;1 cDNA in pGEM-T Arp Schnittger |
| AtICK1 cDNA Arp Schnittger |
| AtGL2 cDNA |
| CK3 (EcoRI) in CK41(EcoRI+SAP) antisense Orienti |
| CK62 (Xhol+Acc65I) EcoRI via Linker eingeführt |
| CK78 (Sall+BamHI) in CK43 (Sall+BamHI+SAP) |
| CK1 (BamHI+Acc65I) in CK43 (BamHI+Acc65I+SAP) |
| CK77(Ascl+Xhol) in CK35 (Ascl+Xhol+SAP) |
| CK77(AsII+Xhol) in CK42 (Ascl+Xhol+SAP) |
| KLON FALSCH weiterarbeiten mit KLON CK226 |
| CK84 via LR-Reaktion in CK85 |
| CK83 via LR-Reaktion in CK85 |
| binärer Vektor für pHannibal und pKannibal Weley eta |
| KLON VERLOREN CK3 (EcoRI) in CK44(EcoRI+SAP) |
| cdc2a-Antikörperfragment Geert de Jaeger |
| cdc2a-Antikörperfragment Geert de Jaeger |
| cdc2a-Antikörperfragment Geert de Jaeger |
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scFV-G4... Geert de Jaeger
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Chloramp./Amp
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| CK132 | pGL2::KRP4 | CK125 via LR Reaktion in pGL2-pAM-PAT (CK86) | Amp |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| CK133 | pGL2::KRP4-RNAi | CK125 via LR Reaktion in pGL2-Jawohl8-RNAi (CK85) | Amp |
| CK134 | pGL2::AtRBR1 | CK118 via LR-Reaktion in pGL2-pAM-PAT (CK86) | Amp |
| CK135 | pGL2::AtRBR1-RNAi | CK118 via LR-Reaktion in pGL2-Jawohl8-RNAi (CK85) | Amp |
| CK136 | AtKRP4::GUS | pGSV4.KRP4GUS Dirk Inze | Strep50+Spec50 |
| CK137 | AtDEL1 | DP-E2F-Like1 cDNA in ...CROP DESIGN |  |
| CK138 | AtDEL3 | DP-E2F-Like2 cDNA in ... CROP DESIGN |  |
| CK139 | pGL2::KRP1-RNAi | CK124 via LR Reaktion in CK85 | Amp |
| CK140 | pGL2::KRP1 | CK124 via LR Reaktion in CK86 | Amp |
| CK141 | pGL2::AtWEE1 | CK127 in Agros | Carb/Rif/Kann |
| CK142 | pGL2::AtWEE1-RNAi | CK128 in Agros | Carb/Rif/Kann |
| CK143 | pGL2::KRP4 | CK132 in Agros | Carb/Rif/Kann |
| CK144 | pGL2::KRP4-RNAi | CK133 in Agros | Carb/Rif/Kann |
| CK145 | pGL2::KRP1-RNAi | CK139 in Agros | Carb/Rif/Kann |
| CK146 | KRP-cons in pGEM-T | 141 bp KRP-cons-Frag. in pGEM-T (PCR mit Hifi-Pol template CK112 u. Primer KRP-RNAiS+AS) | Amp |
| CK147 | pGL2::KRPcons-RNAi | CK126 via LR in pGL2-Jawohl8-RNAi (CK85) | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK148 | pGL2::KRP1 | CK140 in Agros | Carb/Rif/Kann |
| CK149 | AtE2F3 in pENTR1A | CK63 (BamHI+Acc65I) in pENTR1A-ccdB (BamHI+Acc65I+SAP) | Kan |
| CK150 | pGL2::AtE2F3-RNAi | CK149 via LR-Reaktion in pGL2-Jawohl8-RNAi (CK85) | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK151 | AtE2F5 in pENTR1A | CK66 (BamHI+Acc65I) in pENTR1A-ccdB (BamHI+Acc65I+SAP) | Kan |
| CK152 | pGL2::AtE2F5-RNAi | CK 151 via LR-Reaktion in pGL2-Jawohl8-RNAi (CK85) | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK153 | AtDPa in pENTR1A | CK31 (EcoRI) in pENTR1A (EcoRI+SAP) | Kan |
| CK154 | pGL2::AtDPa-RNAi | CK153 via LR-Reaktion in pGL2-Jawohl8-RNAi (CK85) | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK155 | AtDPb in pENTR1A | CK32 (EcoRI) in pENTR1A (EcoRI+SAP) | Kan |
| CK156 | pGL2::AtDPb-RNAi | CK155 via LR-Reaktion in pGL2-Jawohl8-RNAi (CK85) | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK157 | antiDPb in pENTR1A | CK32 (EcoRI) in pENTR1A (EcoRI+SAP) | Kan |
| CK158 | pGL2::DPa | GL2::DPa in Agros Ulrike Schöbinger | Rif+Kan+Genta |
| CK159 | pGL2::anti-DPa | GL2::anti-DPa in Agros Ulrike Schöbinger | Rif+Kan+Genta |
| CK160 | pGL2::DPb | GL2::DPb in Agros Ulrike Schöbinger | Rif+Kan+Genta |
| CK161 | pGL2::anti-DPb | GL2::anti-DPb in Agros Ulrike Schöbinger | Rif+Kan+Genta |
| CK162 | p35S::Histon2B-YFP | 35S::Histon-2B-YFP Fred Berger | Kann |
| CK163 | p35S::Histon2B-YFP | 35S::Histon-2B-YFP in Agros | Rif+Kan+Genta |
| CK164 | pGL2::DPa | DPa (CK31) (Bcul+Cfr42l gebluntet) in pBinGL2 (CK5) (Smal+Ecl136II+SAP) Ulrike Schöbinger | Kan |

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Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann
 Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann
DPa (CK31) (Bcul+Cfr42I gebluntet) in pBinGL2 (CK5) (Smal+Ecl1361I+SAP) Ulrike Schöbinger ca.200bp PCR Fragment (KRP1_RNAi_S+KRP1_RNAi_AS) temp.CK124 in pDONR201 via BP Reaktion
ca.223bp PCR Fragment (KRP4_RNAi_S+AS) temp.CK112 in pDONR201 via BP Reaktion
CK92 ( ) in pENTR1A ( ) ohne Stop Xiaoguo Zhang
CK93 ( ) in pENTR1A ( ) ohne Stop Xiaoguo Zhang
CK94 ( ) in pENTR1A ( ) ohne Stop Xiaoguo Zhang CK94 ( ) in pENTR1A ( ) ohne Stop Xiaoguo Zhang CK96 ( ) in pENTR1A ( ) ohne Stop Xiaoguo Zhang CK97 ( ) in pENTR1A ( ) ohne Stop Xiaoguo Zhang CK98 ( ) in pENTR1A ( ) ohne Stop Xiaoguo Zhang CK170 via LR Reaktion in CK86 (pGL2-pAM-PAT) STOP fehlt geeignet für Fusionen Xiaoguo Zhang
CK171 via LR Reaktion in CK86 (pGL2-pAM-PAT) STOP fehlt geeignet für Fusionen Xiaoguo Zhang
CK172 via LR Reaktion in CK86 (pGL2-pAM-PAT) STOP fehlt geeignet für Fusionen Xiaoguo Zhang
CK173 via LR Reaktion in CK86 (pGL2-pAM-PAT) STOP fehlt geeignet für Fusionen Xiaoguo Zhang
CK174 via LR Reaktion in CK86 (pGL2-pAM-PAT) STOP fehlt geeignet für Fusionen Xiaoguo Zhang
CK175 via LR Reaktion in CK86 (pGL2-pAM-PAT) STOP fehlt geeignet für Fusionen Xiaoguo Zhang
CK176 via LR Reaktion in CK86 (pGL2-pAM-PAT) STOP fehlt geeignet für Fusionen Xiaoguo Zhang
CK92 () in pENTR1A ( ) Xiaoguo Zhang
CK93 ( ) in pENTR1A ( ) Xiaoguo Zhang CK94 ( ) in pENTR1A ( ) Xiaoguo Zhang CK95 ( ) in pENTR1A ( ) Xiaoguo Zhang CK96 ( ) in pENTR1A ( ) Xiaoguo Zhang CK97 ( ) in pENTR1A ( ) Xiaoguo Zhang CK98 ( ) in pENTR1A ( ) Xiaoguo Zhang CK184 via LR Reaktion in CK86 Xiaoguo Zhang CK185 via LR Reaktion in CK86 Xiaoguo Zhang CK186 via LR Reaktion in CK86 Xiaoguo Zhang CK187 via LR Reaktion in CK86 Xiaoguo Zhang CK188 via LR Reaktion in CK86 Xiaoguo Zhang CK189 via LR Reaktion in CK86 Xiaoguo Zhang CK190 via LR Reaktion in CK86 Xiaoguo Zhang

| CK198 | pGL2::N-KRP1-RNAi | CK168 via LR Reaktion in CK85 | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| CK199 | pGL2::N-KRP4-RNAi | CK169 via LR Reaktion in CK85 | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK200 | KRP1_109 in pDONR201 | PCR-Frag. via BP in pDONR201 (template CK79; Primer ICK1_109-S und ICK1_109-AS, Hifi-Polymerase) | Kan |
| CK201 | pGL2::DPa | CK153 via LR-Reaktion in pGL2-pAM-PAT (CK86) | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK202 | pGL2::DPb | CK155 via LR-Reaktion in pGL2-pAM-PAT (CK86) | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK203 | pGL2::E2Fb | CK149 via LR-Reaktion in pGL2-pAM-PAT (CK86) | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK204 | pGL2::E2Fa | CK151 via LR-Reaktion in pGL2-pAM-PAT (CK86) | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK205 | pENTR1A-ccdB + Sacl | pENTR1A-ccdB (CK43) (BamHI+Acc65I) und Sacl-Linker (Sacl_U+Sacl_L) eingeführt | Kan |
| CK206 | KRP1-YFP in pENTR1A | CK100 (BamHI+Sacl) in CK205 (BamHI+Sacl+SAP) | Kan |
| CK207 | KRP1_108-YFP in pENTR1A | CK101 (BamHI+Sacl) in CK205 (BamHI+Sacl+SAP) | Kan |
| CK208 | KRP1_109-YFP in pENTR1A | CK102 (BamHI+Sacl) in CK205 (BamHI+Sacl+SAP) | Kan |
| CK209 | YFP-KRP1 in pENTR1A | CK103 (BamHI+Sacl) in CK205 (BamHI+Sacl+SAP) | Kan |
| CK210 | YFP-KRP1_108 in pENTR1A | CK104 (BamHI+Sacl) in CK205 (BamHI+Sacl+SAP) | Kan |
| CK211 | YFP-KRP1_109 in pENTR1A | CK105 (BamHI+Sacl) in CK205 (BamHI+Sacl+SAP) | Kan |
| CK212 | cdc2a in pENTR1A | CK3 (Xhol+Sacl) in CK205 (Sall+Sacl+SAP) | Kan |
| CK213 | pGL2:KRP1_109 | CK200 via LR Reaktion in CK86 (pGL2-pAM-PAT) | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK214 | pWUS-BD::KRP1_109 | CK200 via LR Reaktion in CK111 (pWUS-BD::pAM-PAT) | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK215 | pWUS-BD: :E2Fb | CK149 via LR-Reaktion in pWUS-BD-pAM-PAT (CK111) | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK216 | pWUS-BD: E2Fa | CK151 via LR-Reaktion in pWUS-BD-pAM-PAT (CK111) | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK217 | AtCycD4 | AtCycD4 cDNA Arp Schnittger |  |
| CK218 | AtCKS | AtCKS cDNA in pGEM Arp Schnittger | Amp |
| CK219 | pGL2::KRP1-YFP | CK206 via LR Reaktion in CK86 (pGL2-pAM-PAT) | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK220 | pGL2::KRP1_108-YFP | CK207 via LR Reaktion in CK86 (pGL2-pAM-PAT) | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK221 | pGL2::KRP1_109-YFP | CK208 via LR Reaktion in CK86 (pGL2-pAM-PAT) | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK222 | pGL2::YFP-KRP1 | CK209 via LR Reaktion in CK86 (pGL2-pAM-PAT) | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK223 | pGL2::YFP-KRP1_108 | CK210 via LR Reaktion in CK86 (pGL2-pAM-PAT) | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK224 | pGL2::YFP-KRP1_109 | CK211 via LR Reaktion in CK86 (pGL2-pAM-PAT) | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK225 | cdc2a in pDONR201 | PCR-Frag. via BP in pDONR201 (template CK3; Primer GRR-S und GRRR-AS, Pfu-Polymerase) PRAKTIKUM | Kan |
| CK226 | pGL2::cdc2a-RNAi | CK225 old (mit 2 Seq. Fehlern, deshalb noch mal neues CK225 mit Pfu gemacht) via LR Reaktion in CK85 | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK227 | pGL2::CycB1;2 | CK84 via LR-Reaktion in CK86 | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK228 | GUS in pENTR1A | GUS cDNA in pENTR von Bekir Uelker... | Kan |
| CK229 | pTMM-pAM-PAT-GW | TMM-Promotor in pAM-PAT-GW (via Ascl und Xhol) Xiaoguo Zhang | Chloramp./Amp |
| CK230 | pGL2::GUS | CK228 via LR Reaktion in CK86 | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |

UAS mit MinimalPromotor via Ascl+Xhol in pAM-PAT Martina Pesch
(
Chloramp./Amp
Chloramp./Amp Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann Kan
 Chloramp./Amp
 Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann
 Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann
CK118 via LR Reaktion in CK257 binäre Destination-Vektor im GATEWAY-System mit 2x35S-Promotor + Intron u. pA35S Marc Jakoby CK200 via LR Reaktion in CK262
pRep42 HA-KRP2 N186A+D188A Lieven de Veylder
At5g03660 (unknown protein) BC004 in pDONR201 Lieven de Veylder At2g28520 (putative vacuolar proton ATPase subunit) BC23 in pDONR201 Lieven de Veylder
At4g19700 (ring-finger protein) BC78 in pDONR201 Lieven de Veylder
At5g01370 (unknown protein) BC112 in pDONR201 Lieven de Veylder
pCPC in pAM-PAT (Ascl+Xhol) Martina Pesch pTRY in pAM-PAT (Ascl+Xhol) Martina Pesch CK84 via LR in CK246 CK124 via LR in CK246 CK125 via LR in CK246 CK84 via LR in CK247 CK124 via LR in CK247 CK125 via LR in CK247
CK237 (Ascl+Sall) in pLEELA (Ascl+Xhol+SAP) CK262
CK121 (BamHI+Sacl) in CK205 (BamHI+Sacl+SAP)
UAS mit MinimalPromotor via Ascl+Xhol in pJawohl-RNAi Martina Pesch $\qquad$ CK200 via LR Reaktion in CK256
CK118 via LR Reaktion in CK256
CK200 var jakoby

| Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| :--- |
| Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| Chloramp./Amp |
| Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| Kan |
| Amp |
| Amp |
| Amp |
| Amp |
| Amp |
| Kan |
| Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| Kan |
| Kan |
| Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| kan |
| Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |


| CK297 | KRP1_152 in pDONR |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| CK298 | pUAS::KRP1_152 | CK297 via LR Reaktion in CK256 |  |
| CK299 | E2Fb in pDONR201 | E2Fb cDNA via PCR (Primer E2F3_S+E2F3_AS, template CK33, hifi) u. via BP Reaktion in pDONR201 | Kan |
| CK300 | pGL2::PCR-E2Fb | CK299 via LR Reaktion in CK86 | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK301 | E2Fa in pDONR201 | E2Fa cDNA via PCR (Primer E2F5_S+E2F5_AS, template CK34) u. via BP Reaktion in pDONR201 | Kan |
| CK302 | pGL2::PCR-E2Fa | CK301 via LR Reaktion in CK86 | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK303 | KRP1 in pDONR | KRP1 cDNA via PCR (P1 ICK-Myc_S+Myc-ICK_AS, templat CK119, hifi) und BP Reaktion in pDONR201 | Kan |
| CK304 | pGL2::KRP1-PCR-pAM-PAT | CK303 via LR Reaktion in pGL2-pAM-PAT CK86 | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK305 | KRP1_108 in pDONR | KRP1_108 via PCR (Primer ICK-Myc_S + Myc-ICK_108_AS, templat CK119, hifi) und BP in pDONR201 | Kan |
| CK306 | pGL2::KRP1_108-pAM-PAT | CK305 via LR Reaktion in pGL2-pAM-PAT CK86 | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK307 | pTMM::KRP1_109-YFP | CK208 via LR Reaktion in pTMM-pAM-PAT | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK308 | pTMM::YFP-KRP1_109 | CK211 via LR Reaktion in pTMM-pAM-PAT | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK309 | YFP in pDONR | YFP cDNA in pDONR201 (Primer YFP_S +YFP_AS template CK9, hifi) | Kan |
| CK310 | pTMM: YFP | CK309 via LR Reaktion in pTMM-pAM-PAT | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK311 | pGL2::AJH1 | CK295 via LR Reaktion in pGL2-pAM-PAT (CK86) | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK312 | pGL2:KRP1_109 BIN | Daniel Bouyer | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK313 | p2x35S:YFP:KRP1 LeeLa | CK209 via LR Reaktion in pLeeLa CK262 | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK314 | p2x35S:KRP1_109:YFP LeeLa | CK208 via LR Reaktion in pLeeLa CK262 | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK315 | p2x35S:YFP:KRP1_109 LeeLa | CK211 via LR Reaktion in pLeeLa CK262 | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK316 | KRP1 für Y-2-Hybrid | KRP1 (in-frame) in pDONR (Stefan Pusch) via LR in pB42D-GWY (Marc Jakoby) für Y-2-Hybrid | Amp |
| CK317 | KRP1_109 für Y-2-Hybrid | KRP1_109 (in-frame) in pDONR (Stefan Pusch) via LR in pB42D-GWY (Marc Jakoby) für Y-2-Hybrid | Amp |
| CK318 | pTMM:YFP:KRP1 | CK209 via LR in pTMM-pAM-PAT CK229 siehe CK337 |  |
| CK319 | pXCSG-3xHA | p2x35S-C-terminal 3xHA-tag Gateway von Laurent Noel (LN139) AG Parker | Chloramp./Amp |
| CK320 | pXCSG-6xmyc | p2x35S-C-terminal 6xmyc-tag Gateway von Laurent Noel (LN172) AG Parker | Chloramp./Amp |
| CK321 | pJ2B-3xHA | p2x35S-N-terminal 3xHA-tag Gateway von Nieves Medina-Escobar (NME48) AG Parker | Chloramp./Amp |
| CK322 | pJ2B-6xmyc | p2x35S-N-terminal 6xmyc-tag Gateway von Nieves Medina-Escobar (NME48) AG Parker | Chloramp./Amp |
| CK323 | p35S:CycB1;2:CFP | CK351 via LR in CK329 | Amp |
| CK324 | p35S:CDKA;1:CFP | CK333 (CDKA;1 von Stefan)via LR in CK330 pEXSG-YFP | Amp |
| CK325 | p35S:CDKA;1:YFP | CK333 (CDKA;1 von Stefan)via LR in CK330 pEXSG-YFP | Amp |
| CK326 | p35S:CKS1:CFP | CKS1 in pEXSG-CFP Stefan Pusch (ST92) wird nicht klappen da CKS noch Stop hat | Amp |
| CK327 | p35S:CFP:CKS1 | CK336 via LR in CK331 CKS1 in pENSG-CFP | Amp |
| CK328 | p35S:YFP:CKS1 | CKS1 in pENSG-YFP Stefan Pusch (ST94) | Amp |
| CK329 | pEXSG-CFP | Marcel Wiemer AG Parker | Amp/Chloramph. |


| CK330 | pEXSG-YFP | Marcel Wiemer AG Parker | Amp/Chloramph. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| CK331 | pENSG-CFP | Marcel Wiemer AG Parker | Amp/Chloramph. |
| CK332 | pENSG-YFP | Marcel Wiemer AG Parker | Amp/Chloramph. |
| CK333 | CDKA;1-ohne stop in pDONR201 | Stefan Pusch (ST30), sequenziert und ok, stille Mutation Nt180 05.10.04 | Kana |
| CK334 | KRP1-ohne stop in pDONR201 | Stefan Pusch (ST31) sequneziert und ok 05.10.04 | Kana |
| CK335 | KRP1_109-ohne stop in pDONR201 | Stefan Pusch (ST32) sequenziert und ok 05.10.04 | Kana |
| CK336 | CKS1-mit stop in pDONR201 | Stefan Pusch (ST34) hat laut sequenzierung doch noch sein stop!!!!!! Ansonsten ok 05.10.04 | Kana |
| CK337 | pTMM:YFP:KRP1 | CK209 via LR in pTMM-pAM-PAT CK229 | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK338 | p2x35S:3xHA:KRP1 | CK334 via LR in CK321 | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK339 | p2x35S:6xMyc:KRP1 | CK334 via LR in CK322 | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK340 | p2x35S:3xHA:KRP1_109 | CK335 via LR in CK321 | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK341 | p2x35S:6xMyc:KRP1_109 | CK335 via LR in CK322 | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK342 | p2x35S:3xHA:CDKA;1 | CK333 via LR in CK321 | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK343 | p2x35S:6xMyc:CDKA;1 | CK333 via LR in CK322 | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK344 | p2x35S:CDKA;1:3xHA | CK333 via LR in CK319 | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK345 | p2x35S:CDKA;1:6xMyc | CK333 via LR in CK320 | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK346 | p2x35S:3xHA:CKS1 | CK336 via LR in CK321 | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK347 | p2x35S:6xMyc:CKS1 | CK336 via LR in CK322 | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK348 | p2x35S:CKS1:3xHA | CK336 via LR in CK319 nicht möglich mit CK336 da stop noch in CKS1 | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK349 | p2x35S:CKS1:6xMyc | CK336 via LR in CK320 nicht möglich mit CK336 da stop noch in CKS1 | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK350 | pGEM-T | pGEM-T cloning vector PROMEGA | Amp |
| CK351 | CycB1;2 ohne stop in pDONR | PCR via BP in pDONR201; template CK1 Primer (J604+CW15) Hifi Polymerase sequenziert CK351A alles ok | Kana |
| CK352 | truncCycB1;2 ohne stop in pDONR | PCR via BP in pDONR201; template CK1 Primer (CW16+CW15)Hifi Polymerase sequenziert CK352B alles ok | Kana |
| CK353 | p2x35S:CycB1;2:3xHA | CK351 via LR in CK319 | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK354 | p2x35S:CycB1;2:6xMyc | CK351 via LR in CK320 | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK355 | p2x35S:truncCycB1;2:3xHA | CK352 via LR in CK319 | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK356 | p2x35S:truncCycB1;2:6xMyc | CK352 via LR in CK320 | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK357 | pDONR201 | pDONR201 Invitrogen | Kana |
| CK358 | GUS:YFP:KRP1_109 in pDONR201 | GUS:YFP:KRP1_109 in pDONR201 Moritz Nowack (MN17) | Kana |
| CK359 | pTMM:GUS:YFP:KRP1_109 |  | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK360 | pTMM:KRP1_108:YFP | CK207 via LR Reaktion in CK229 | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK361 | pTMM:YFP:KRP1_108 | CK210 via LR Reaktion in CK229 | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK362 | p2x35S:KRP1_108:YFP LeeLa | CK207 via LR Reaktion in CK262 | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |


| CK363 | p2x35S:YFP:KRP1_108 LeeLa | CK210 via LR Reaktion in CK262 | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| CK364 | p35S:CFP:CDKA;1 | CK333 (CDKA;1 von Stefan)via LR in CK331 pENSG-YFP |  |
| CK365 | p35S:YFP:CDKA;1 | CK333 (CDKA;1 von Stefan) via LR in CK332 pENSG-CFP | Amp |
| CK366 | p35S:CycB1;2:YFP | CK351 via LR in CK330 | Amp |
| CK367 | p35S:truncCycB1;2:CFP | CK352 via LR in CK329 | Amp |
| CK368 | p35S:truncCycB1;2:YFP | CK352 via LR in CK330 | Amp |
| CK369 | pGL2:GUS:YFP:KRP1_109 | MN17 via LR in pGL2:pAM-PAT Moritz Nowack (MN21) |  |
| CK370 | p35S:KRP1-RNAi_Exon3A | template KRP1, Primer Ex3a_S+ EX3a_AS in pDONR via LR in pJawohl8RNAi Oliver Hofmann |  |
| CK371 | p35S:KRP1-RNAi_Exon3B | nicht geklappt | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |
| CK372 | p35S:KRP7-RNAi_Exon4A | template KRP7, Primer Ex4a_S+ EX4a_AS in pDONR via LR in pJawohl8RNAi Oliver Hofmann |  |
| CK373 | p35S:KRP7-RNAi_Exon4B | template KRP7, Primer Ex4b_S+ EX4b_AS in pDONR via LR in pJawohl8RNAi Oliver Hofmann | Amp /Carb+Rif+Kann |



| ProTRY:GUS |  | Ler | BASTA |  | Martina Pesch |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ProTMM:GFP5-ER |  | Col | BASTA |  | Oliver Hofmann |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Transgenic lines |  |  |  |  |  |
| Construct | \# | ecotype | resistance | number of T1 plants | phenotype |
| pGL2::truncAtCycB1;2-YFP | CK13 | Ler | Kan | >20 | like pGL2:trunc-CycB1;2 multicellular and Clusters |
| pGL2::YFP-AtCycB1;2 | CK19 | Ler | Kan | >20 | no phenotype |
| pGL2::Atcdc2a-RFP | CK25 | Ler | Kan | not selected |  |
| pGL2::AtCSN5A | CK29 | Ler | Kan | >100 | no phenotype, 1 line increased trichome numberl |
| rev 3 gen.KRP1::GUS-DB | CK46 | Ler | Kan | 3 | line A and C GUS positive |
| rev 3 gen.KRP1::GUS-DB | CK46 | Ler | Kan | >30 | not analyzed |
| rev 3 gen.KRP1::GUS-DB:rev 5'gen | CK48 | Ler | Kan | 2 | line D GUS positive |
| rev 3 gen.KRP1::GUS-DB:rev 5'gen | CK48 | Ler | Kan | $>30$ | not analyzed |
| pGL2::YFP | CK53 | Ler | Kan | $>20$ | YFP positive |
| pGL2: RFP | CK56 | Ler | Kan | >20 | RFP positive |
| pGL2::AtE2Fb | CK68 | Ler | Kan | 8 | no phenotype |
| pGL2::AtE2Fb | CK68 | Col | Kan | not selected |  |
| pGL2.:AtE2Fb | CK68 | gl2 362 | Kan | 18 | gl2 |
| pGL2::anti-AtE2Fb | CK70 | Ler | Kan | not selected |  |
| pGL2::AtE2Fa | CK72 | Ler | Kan | 1 | no phenotype |
| pGL2: $\mathrm{AtE2Fa}$ | CK72 | Col | Kan | not selected |  |
| pGL2.:AtE2Fa | CK72 | gl2 362 | Kan | 14 | $g 12$ |
| pGL2::anti-AtE2Fa | CK74 | Ler | Kan | not selected |  |
| pGL2::anti-Atcdc2a-RNAi | CK87/106 | Ler | BASTA | 18 | no phenotype |
| pGL2::AtCycB1;2-RNAi | CK88/129 | Ler | BASTA | >45 | no phenotype |
| pGL2::AtCycB1;1-RNAi | CK89/130 | Ler | BASTA | 32 | 20 lines more 4-branched trichomes |
| pGL2::AtWEE1 | CK127/141 | Ler | BASTA | 65 | no phenotype |
| pGL2::AtWEE1-RNAi | CK128/142 | Ler | BASTA | 30 | no phenotype |
| pGL2::AtKRP4 | CK132/143 | Ler | BASTA | >90 | 10 strong lines with 2-branched and unbranched trichomes |
| pGL2::AtKRP4-RNAi | CK133/144 | Ler | BASTA | 27 | not analyzed |
| pGL2::AtRBR1 | CK134 | Ler | BASTA | >30 | WT |
| pGL2::AtRBR1-RNAi | CK135 | Ler | BASTA | no transformants |  |


| Kan ?? | not selected |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| BASTA | 15 | no phenotype |
| BASTA | >70 | no phenotype |
| BASTA | 25 | no phenotype |
| BASTA | not selected |  |
| BASTA | not selected |  |
| BASTA | 4 | no phenotype |
| BASTA | 3 | no phenotype |
| Kan |  | construct and seeds from Fred Berger |
| Kan | 13 | no phenotype |
| Kan | not selected |  |
| Kan | 2 | $g l 2$ |
| Kan | not selected |  |
| Kan | 1 | no phenotype |
| Kan | not selected |  |
| Kan | 25 | $g l 2$ |
| Kan | not selected |  |
| BASTA | >80 | no phenotype |
| BASTA | >80 | no phenotype |
| BASTA | >80 | no phenotype |
| BASTA | >80 | no phenotype |
| BASTA | >80 | no phenotype |
| BASTA | >80 | no phenotype |
| BASTA | >80 | no phenotype |
| BASTA | 14 | no phenotype |
| BASTA | 23 | no phenotype |
| BASTA | 20 | no phenotype |
| BASTA | >20 | no phenotype |
| BASTA | not selected |  |
| BASTA | 25 | no phenotype |
| BASTA | >20 | no phenotype |
| BASTA | 12 | no phenotype |
| BASTA | 12 | no phenotype |


| pGL2::AtDPa | CK201 | Ler | BASTA | >20 | no phenotype |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| pGL2::AtDPa | CK201 | Col | BASTA | not transformed |  |
| pGL2::AtDPa | CK201 | gl2 4AA | BASTA | 66 | gl2 |
| pGL2::AtDPb | CK202 | Ler | BASTA | >20 | no phenotype |
| pGL2::AtDPb | CK202 | Col | BASTA | not transformed |  |
| pGL2::AtDPb | CK202 | gl2 4AA | BASTA | not selected |  |
| pGL2::AtE2Fb | CK203 | Ler | BASTA | >20 | no phenotype |
| pGL2::AtE2Fb | CK203 | Col | BASTA | not transformed |  |
| pGL2::AtE2Fb | CK203 | gl2 4AA | BASTA | 7 | II-107, 3xgl2, 2xWT, 1x more trichome clusters, 1 x clusters and multicellular |
| pGL2::AtE2Fa | CK204 | Ler | BASTA | >20 | no phenotype |
| pGL2::AtE2Fa | CK204 | Col | BASTA | not transformed |  |
| pGL2::AtE2Fa | CK204 | gl2 4AA | BASTA | 14 | gl2 |
| pGL2::AtKRP1_109 | CK213 | Ler | BASTA | 23 | 3 x weak, 1x strong KRP1-phenotype |
| pGL2::AtKRP1_109 | CK213 | Poethig 232 | BASTA | not selected |  |
| pGL2::AtKRP1_109 | CK213 | cpc try | BASTA | 9 | 8 x typ cpc, 1x WT |
| pGL2::AtKRP1_109 | CK213 | Col | BASTA | Marc Jakoby |  |
| pGL2::AtKRP1_109 | CK213 | sim | BASTA | >51 | 5x KRP-strong, 9x KRP-weak, 29x sim-weak, 7xsim-mediuml, 1x sim-strong |
| pWUS-BD::AtKRP1_109 | CK214 | Ler | BASTA | not selected |  |
| pWUS-BD::AtE2F3 | CK215 | Ler | BASTA | not selected |  |
| pWUS-BD::AtE2F5 | CK216 | Ler | BASTA | not selected |  |
| pGL2::AtKRP1-YFP | CK219 | Ler | BASTA | 60 | no phenotype |
| pGL2::AtKRP1-YFP | CK219 | Col | BASTA | not transformed |  |
| pGL2::AtKRP1_108-YFP | CK220 | Ler | BASTA | 38 | no phenotype |
| pGL2::AtKRP1_108-YFP | CK220 | Col | BASTA | Marc Jakoby |  |
| pGL2::AtKRP1_109-YFP | CK221 | Ler | BASTA | 83 | 13x weak, 14x medium, 7x strong KRP1 phenotype |
| pGL2::AtKRP_109-YFP | CK221 | cpc try | BASTA | 2 | 1 x more trichome branches. 1 x normal |
| pGL2::AtKRP_109-YFP | CK221 | Col | BASTA | Marc Jakoby |  |
| pGL2::AtKRP_109-YFP | CK221 | sim | BASTA | 24 | 5xKRP-weak, 16x sim-weak, 1xsim-medium, 2 x sim-strong |
| pGL2::YFP-AtKRP1 | CK222 | Ler | BASTA | 77 | 11 x weak, 6 x medium, 4 x strong KRP1-phenotype |
| pGL2::YFP-AtKRP1 | CK222 | cpc try | BASTA | not transformed |  |
| pGL2::YFP-AtKRP1 | CK222 | Col | BASTA | Marc Jakoby |  |
| pGL2::YFP-AtKRP1 | CK222 | sim | BASTA | 14 | 1xKRP-weak, 3xsim-weak, 6xsim-medium, 4xsim-strong |
| pGL2::YFP-AtKRP1 | CK222 | ajh1+/- | BASTA+Kana | not selected |  |


| pGL2::YFP-AtKRP1_108 | CK223 | Ler | BASTA | 15 | no phenotype |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| pGL2::YFP-AtKRP1_108 | CK223 | ajh1+/- | BASTA+Kana | not selected |  |
| pGL2::YFP-AtKRP1_109 | CK224 | Ler | BASTA | 89 | 19x weak, 14x medium, 8x strong KRP1-phenotype |
| pGL2::YFP-AtKRP1_109 | CK224 | cpc try | BASTA | no transformants |  |
| pGL2::YFP-AtKRP1_109 | CK224 | Col | BASTA | Marc Jakoby |  |
| pGL2::YFP-AtKRP1_109 | CK224 | sim | BASTA | 27 | 12xKRP, 11x sim-weak, 3x sim-medium, 2 x sim-strong |
| pGL2::YFP-AtKRP1_109 | CK224 | ajh1+/- | BASTA+Kana | not selected |  |
| pGL2::Atcdc2a-RNAi | CK226 | Ler | BASTA | not selected |  |
| pGL2::AtCycB1;2 | CK227 | Ler | BASTA | 8 | seeds for Farshad |
| pGL2::GUS | CK230 | Ler | BASTA | $>12$ | seeds for Farshad |
| pWUS-BD::GUS | CK231 | Ler | BASTA | >19 | not analyzed |
| pTMM::GUS | CK232 | Ler | BASTA |  | seeds for Oliver |
| pGL2::AtDEL3 | CK236 | Ler | BASTA | >100 /// >70 | 1/3 häufig 4-verzweigt /// 18 Linien häufiger 2-verzweigt |
| pGL2::CycD3;2 | Xiaoguo | Ler | BASTA | >80 | no phenotype |
| pGL2::CycD3;3 | Xiaoguo | Ler | BASTA | 12 | no phenotype |
| pGL2::RBX1-RNAi | Xiaoguo | Ler | BASTA | 22 | II-86-87 weak-medium and strong phenotype see B8 SEM pictures |
| pGL2: $\mathrm{RBX1}$ | Xiaoguo | Ler | BASTA | 65 | 10 lines with more 4-branched trichomes |
| pGL2::Bax-Inhibitor-RNAi | Xiaoguo | Ler | BASTA | 30 | 8 lines with moe 4-branched trichomes |
| pGL2::ANT-RNAi | Xiaoguo | Ler | BASTA | 34 | 2 lines with 4-and 5-branched trichomes |
| pWUS::cdc2aDN | Xiaoguo | Ler | BASTA | 13 | no phenotype |
| pWUS::KRP4 | Xiaoguo | Ler | BASTA | >20 | no phenotype |
| pWUS::KRP1 | Xiaoguo | Ler | BASTA | 14 | no phenotype |
| pWUS::KRP4-RNAi | Xiaoguo | Ler | BASTA | 45 | no phenotype |
| pWUS::APC11-RNAi | Xiaoguo | Ler | BASTA | 34 | no phenotype |
| pWUS::CycB1;2 | Xiaoguo | Ler | BASTA | 8 | 1 line with 5-branched trichomes |
| pWUS::E2Fb | Xiaoguo | Ler | BASTA | 22 | no phenotype |
| pWUS::DEL1 | Xiaoguo | Ler | BASTA | >100 | 3 lines with more 2-branched trichomes |
| pWUS::DEL1-RNAi | Xiaoguo | Ler | BASTA | 42 | no phenotype |
| pWUS::ANT-RNAi | Xiaoguo | Ler | BASTA | 23 | no phenotype |
| pWUS::DEL3 | Xiaoguo | Ler | BASTA | 46 | not analyzed |
| pWUS::ANT | Xiaoguo | Ler | BASTA | 17 | not analyzed |
| pWUS::RBX1 | Xiaoguo | Ler | BASTA | 27 | 6 lines with more 4-branched trichomes 1x 5-branched trichomes |
| pWUS::APC11 | Xiaoguo | Ler | BASTA | 63 | no phenotype |


| pWUS::DEL3-RNAi | Xiaoguo | Ler | BASTA | 35 | not analyzed |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| pPRP3::RBXII-RNAi | Xiaoguo | Ler | BASTA | 2 | not analyzed |
| pPRP3::KRP4-RNAi | Xiaoguo | Ler | BASTA | 2 | not analyzed |
| pPRP3::DEL1-RNAi | Xiaoguo | Ler | BASTA | 4 | not analyzed |
| pPRP3::CycB1;2 | Xiaoguo | Ler | BASTA | 24 | not analyzed |
| pPRP3::RBXI | Xiaoguo | Ler | BASTA | 7 | not analyzed |
| pPRP3::ANT-RNAi | Xiaoguo | Ler | BASTA | 23 | not analyzed |
| pPRP3::KRP4 | Xiaoguo | Ler | BASTA | 23 | not analyzed |
| pPRP3::APC11 | Xiaoguo | Ler | BASTA | 21 | not analyzed |
| pPRP3::E2Fb | Xiaoguo | Ler | BASTA | 12 | not analyzed |
| pPRP3::ANT | Xiaoguo | Ler | BASTA | 18 | not analyzed |
| pPRP3::cdc2aDN | Xiaoguo | Ler | BASTA | 27 | not analyzed |
| pPRP3::DEL1 | Xiaoguo | Ler | BASTA | 27 | not analyzed |
| pPRP::RBXI-RNAi | Xiaoguo | Ler | BASTA | 3 | not analyzed |
| pPPR3::DEL3 | Xiaoguo | Ler | BASTA | 27 | not analyzed |
| pCPC::СусB1;2 | CK248 | Ler | BASTA | not transformed |  |
| pCPC::KRP1 | CK249 | Ler | BASTA | not transformed |  |
| pCPC::KRP4 | CK250 | Ler | BASTA | not transformed |  |
| pTRY::CycB1;2 | CK251 | Ler | BASTA | not transformed |  |
| pTRY::KRP1 | CK252 | Ler | BASTA | not transformed |  |
| pTRY::KRP4 | CK253 | Ler | BASTA | not transformed |  |
| 35S-UAS::KRP1 | CK258 | Poethig 232 | BASTA | >70 | not analyzed |
| 35S-UAS::KRP1 | CK258 | Col | BASTA | not selected |  |
| 35S-UAS::KRP1_109 | CK259 | Poethig 232 | BASTA | >60 | 26 GFP positive, WT with Bino |
| 35S-UAS::KRP1_109 | CK259 | Col | BASTA | not selected |  |
| 35S-UAS::RBR | CK260 | Poethig 232 | BASTA | >30 | 7 GFP positive, WT with Bino |
| 35S-UAS::RBR | CK260 | Col | BASTA | not selected |  |
| 35S-UAS::KRP1 | CK258 | Poethig 254 | BASTA | >100 | >90\% GFP positive |
| 35S-UAS::KRP1_109 | CK259 | Poethig 254 | BASTA | >100 | >90\% GFP positive |
| 35S-UAS::RBR | CK260 | Poethig 254 | BASTA | >50 | >90\% GFP positive |
| 35S-UAS::KRP1 | CK258 | Poethig 1801 | BASTA | not selected |  |
| 35S-UAS::KRP1_109 | CK259 | Poethig 1801 | BASTA | not selected |  |
| 35S-UAS::RBR | CK260 | Poethig 1801 | BASTA | not selected |  |


| p2x35S::KRP1_109 | CK263 | Ler | BASTA | not selected |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| p2x35S::KRP1_109 | CK263 | Poethig 232 | BASTA | not selected |  |
| p2x35S::KRP1_109 | CK263 | Poethig 254 | BASTA | not selected |  |
| p2x35S::KRP1_109 | CK263 | Poethig 1801 | BASTA | not selected |  |
| pCPC::E2Fb | CK264 | Ler | BASTA | >80 | 7 lines with slight increase in 4-branched trichomes |
| pCPC::E2Fb | CK264 | gl2 4AA | BASTA | >150 | gl2 |
| pTRY::E2Fb | CK265 | Ler | BASTA | >50 | no phenotype |
| pTRY::E2Fb | CK265 | gl2 4AA | BASTA | >150 | gl2 |
| pCPC::E2Fa | CK266 | Ler | BASTA | 90 | 50 lines with 4-and 5-branched trichomes; 2 ines with less branched trichomes |
| pCPC::E2Fa | CK266 | gl2 4AA | BASTA | >150 | gl2 |
| pTRY::E2Fa | CK267 | Ler | BASTA | $>50$ | 16 lines with 4-branched trichomes, 1 line multicellular |
| pTRY::E2Fa | CK267 | gl2 4AA | BASTA | >150 | gl2 |
| pCPC::RBR1 | CK268 | Ler | BASTA | 10 | II-141 6 lines more 2-branched trichomes no unbranched |
| pTRY::RBR1 | CK269 | Ler | BASTA | 5 | II-141 2 lines more 2-branched trichomes no unbranched |
| p2x35S::RBR1 | CK270 | Ler | BASTA | not transformed |  |
| pGL2::E2Fb-LeeLa | CK272 | Ler | BASTA | 56 | 14 lines with more 2-branched trichomes |
| pGL2::E2Fb-LeeLa | CK272 | gl2 4AA | BASTA | >150 | gl2 |
| pGL2::E2Fa-LeeLa | CK273 | Ler | BASTA | 38 | no phenotype |
| pGL2::E2Fa-LeeLa | CK273 | gl2 4AA | BASTA | >150 | gl2 |
| pGL2::KRP-Interactor_1 | CK281 | Ler | BASTA | 5 | WT |
| pGL2::KRP-Interactor_2 | CK282 | Ler | BASTA | not transformed |  |
| pGL2::KRP-Interactor_3 | CK283 | Ler | BASTA | >50 | no phenotype |
| pGL2::KRP-Interactor_4 | CK284 | Ler | BASTA | not transformed |  |
| pGL2::E2Fc | CK285 | Ler | BASTA | >80 | more 4-branched trichomes |
| pGL2::GUS LeeLa | CK286 | Ler | BASTA | not selected |  |
| pGL2::CycB1;2 LeeLa | CK287 | Ler | BASTA |  | seeds for Farshad |
| pGL2::KRP1 LeeLa | CK288 | Ler | BASTA | 14 | 1 line wih slightly less branched trichomes |
| pCPC::E2Fc | CK291 | Ler | BASTA | not transformed |  |
| pTRY::E2Fc | CK292 | Ler | BASTA | not transformed |  |
| pCPC::KRP1_109 | CK293 | Ler | BASTA | 27 | 12 lines with KRP phenotype |
| pTRY::KRP1_109 | CK294 | Ler | BASTA | 19 | 15 lines with KRP phenotype |
| pTMM::KRP1_109 | CK296 | Ler | BASTA | 58 | \#1-6 round leaves and smaller plants |
| pGL2::PCR-E2Fb | CK300 | Ler | BASTA | not transformed |  |


| pGL2::PCR-E2Fa | CK302 | Ler | BASTA | not transformed |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| pGL2::KRP1-PCR-pAM-PAT | CK304 | Ler | BASTA | not transformed |  |
| pGL2::KRP1_108-pAM-PAT | CK306 | Ler | BASTA | not transformed |  |
| pTMM::KRP1_109-YFP | CK307 | Ler | BASTA | >30 |  |
| pTMM::KRP1_109-YFP | CK307 | Col | BASTA | not selected |  |
| pTMM::YFP-KRP1_109 | CK308 | Ler | BASTA | 10 |  |
| pTMM::YFP-KRP1_109 | CK308 | Col | BASTA | $>100$ |  |
| pTMM::YFP-KRP1_109 | CK308 | ajh1+/- | BASTA+Kana | not selected |  |
| pGL2::AJH1 | CK311 | Ler | BASTA | not transformed |  |
| pGL2:KRP1_109 BIN von Arp | CK312 | Ler | KAN | not transformed |  |
| pGL2:KRP1_109 BI von Arp | CK312 | try-cpc | KAN | not transformed |  |
| pGL2:ICK1 von Arp |  | sim | KAN | 40 | 11x KRP-strong, 22x KRP-weak, 7x sim-weak |
| pGL2:CKS1 von Arp |  | Sim | KAN | not selected |  |
| p2x35S:YFP:KRP1_LeeLa | CK313 |  | BASTA | not transformed |  |
| p2x35S:KRP1_109:YFP LeeLa | CK314 |  | BASTA | not transformed |  |
| p2x35S:YFP:KRP1_109 LeeLa | CK315 |  | BASTA | not transformed |  |
| p35S:CycB1;2:CFP | CK323 |  | BASTA | not transformed |  |
| p35S:CDKA;1:CFP | CK324 |  | BASTA | not transformed |  |
| p35S:CDKA;1:YFP | CK325 |  | BASTA | not transformed |  |
| p35S:CFP:CKS1 | CK327 |  | BASTA | not transformed |  |
| p35S:YFP:CKS1 | CK328 |  | BASTA | not transformed |  |
| pTMM:YFP:KRP1 | CK337 | Ler | BASTA | no transformants |  |
| pTMM:YFP:KRP1 | CK337 | Col | BASTA | $>100$ | enlarged epidermal cells |
| pTMM:YFP:KRP1 | CK337 | ajh1+/- | BASTA+Kana | not selected |  |
| p2x35S:3xHA:KRP1 | CK338 |  | BASTA | Agro-Infil. in tobacco |  |
| p2x35S:6xMyc:KRP1 | CK339 |  | BASTA | Agro-Infil. in tobacco |  |
| p2x35S:3xHA:KRP1_109 | CK340 |  | BASTA | Agro-Infil. in tobacco |  |
| p2x35S:6xMyc:KRP1_109 | CK341 |  | BASTA | Agro-Infil. in tobacco |  |
| p2x35S:3xHA:CDKA;1 | CK342 |  | BASTA | Agro-Infil. in tobacco |  |
| p2x35S:6xMyc:CDKA;1 | CK343 |  | BASTA | Agro-Infil. in tobacco |  |
| p2x35S:CDKA;1:3xHA | CK344 |  | BASTA | Agro-Infil. in tobacco |  |
| p2x35S:CDKA;1:6xMyc | CK345 |  | BASTA | Agro-Infil. in tobacco |  |
| p2x35S:3xHA:CKS1 | CK346 |  |  |  |  |


| p2x35S:6xMyc:CKS1 | CK347 |  | BASTA | Agro-Infil. in tobacco |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| p2x35S:CycB1;2:3xHA | CK353 |  | BASTA | Agro-Infil. in tobacco |  |
| p2x35S:CycB1;2:6xMyc | CK354 |  | BASTA | Agro-Infil. in tobacco |  |
| p2x35S:truncCycB1;2:3xHA | CK355 |  | BASTA | Agro-Infil. in tobacco |  |
| p2x35S:truncCycB1;2:6xMyc | CK356 |  | BASTA | Agro-Infil. in tobacco |  |
| pTMM:KRP1_108:YFP | CK360 | Ler | BASTA | not selected |  |
| pTMM:KRP1_108:YFP | CK360 | Col | BASTA | not selected |  |
| pTMM:YFP:KRP1_108 | CK361 | Ler | BASTA | 20 | not analyzed |
| pTMM:YFP:KRP1_108 | CK361 | Col | BASTA | $>100$ | no phenotype, 4 lines tested for YFP all positive |
| pTMM:YFP:KRP1_108 | CK361 | ajh1+/- | BASTA+Kana | not selected |  |
| p2x35S:KRP1_108:YFP LeeLa | CK362 |  | BASTA | not transformed |  |
| p2x35S:YFP:KRP1_108 LeeLa | CK363 |  | BASTA | not transformed |  |
| p35S:CFP:CDKA;1 | CK364 |  | BASTA | not transformed |  |
| p35S:YFP:CDKA;1 | CK365 |  | BASTA | not transformed |  |
| p35S:CycB1;2:YFP | CK366 |  | BASTA | not transformed |  |
| p35S:truncCycB1;2:CFP | CK367 |  | BASTA | not transformed |  |
| p35S:truncCycB1;2:YFP | CK368 |  | BASTA | not transformed |  |
| Oliver Hofmann constructs |  |  |  |  |  |
| 35S:KRP1-RNAi_Exon3A | CK370 | Ler | BASTA | $>50$ | no phenotype |
| 35S:KRP1-RNAi_Exon3A | CK370 | Col | BASTA | $>51$ | no phenotype |
| 35S:KRP7-RNAi_Exon4B | CK373 | Ler | BASTA | $>52$ | no phenotype |
| 35S:KRP7-RNAi_Exon4B | CK373 | Col | BASTA | $>53$ | no phenotype |
| 35S:KRP7-RNAi_Exon4A | CK372 | Ler | BASTA | $>54$ | no phenotype |
| 35S:KRP7-RNAi_Exon4A | CK372 | Col | BASTA | $>55$ | no phenotype |

## Erklärung

Ich versichere, daß ich die von mir vorgelegte Dissertation selbständig angefertigt, die benutzten Quellen und Hilfsmittel vollständig angegeben und die Stellen der Arbeit einschließlich Tabellen, Karten und Abbildungen -, die anderen Werken im Wortlaut oder dem Sinn nach entnommen sind, in jedem Einzelfall als Entlehnung kenntlich gemacht habe; daß diese Dissertation noch keiner anderen Fakultät oder Universität zur Prüfung vorgelegen hat; daß sie - abgesehen von unten angegebenen Teilpublikationen noch nicht veröffentlicht worden ist sowie, daß ich eine solche Veröffentlichung vor Abschluß des Promotionsverfahrens nicht vornehmen werde. Die von mir vorgelegte Dissertation ist von Prof. Dr. Martin Hülskamp betreut worden.

## Christina Weinl

Ectopic D-type cyclin expression induces not only DNA replication but also cell division in Arabidopsis trichomes
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