Table 1. Flowering times of transgenic and mutant plants.

Genotype*	Rosette leaves or leaves	SD	Range	n
	Experiment 1			
Wild type, LD	10.9	1.9	9–15	11
Wild type, SD	21.0	2.1	18–25	21
35S::FT, LD†‡	2.2	0.4	2–3	20
35S::FT, SD†	2.0	0.2	2–3	30
<i>tfl1-17</i> , LD	8.0	1.1	6–9	5
35S::FT; tfl1-17, LD‡	2.0	0	2	44
35S::TFL1, LD	18.5	2.7	12–25	63
35S::FT/-; 35S::TFL1/-, LD	4.0	0	4	3
	Experiment 2			
Wild type	11.3	1.9	8–15	61
co-1	19.9	2.4	15–25	43
35S::FT§	3.8	0.5	3–5	57
35S::FT; co-1§	3.4	0.6	2-4	70
	Experiment 3			
Wild type (L)	, 7.6	0.7	7–9	10
fwa-2/fwa-2 (L)	17.6	0.9	16–19	12
FWA+/FWA+; 35S::FT/- (L/C)	4.6	0.5	4–5	8
FWA+/fwa-2; 35S::FT/- (L/C)	10.1	1.0	9–12	7
, , ,	Experiment 4			
Wild type (L)	, 9.8	1.6	8–12	6
ft-3/ft-3 (L)	19.0	1.2	18–21	7
FT+/FT+; 35S::TFL1/- (L/C)	11.0	0.8	10-12	3
FT+/ft-3; 35S::TFL1/- (L/C)	17.7	0.5	17–18	3
ft-3/ft-3; 35S::TFL1/- (L/C)	38.0	3.7	32-42	4
	Experiment 5			
Wild type	10.4	1.0	9–12	20
35S::FT	5.3	0.5	5–6	43
Wild type (L)	10.9	1.3	8–13	29
35S::LFY (L)	7.1	0.8	6-8	7
35S::FT \times wild type (L) F ₁	5.8	0.7	5–7	6
$35S::FT \times 35S::LFY$ (L) F_1	1.9	0.2	1–2	15

*Genetic background: L, Landsberg *er* (Ler); L/C, F₁ between Ler and Columbia (Col); otherwise, Col. Transgenic lines used were YK#11-1 (a strong line, experiments 1 and 5) and YK#1-5C (a weak line, experiments 2 and 3) of 355::FT, 355::TFL1 (KG#9-5) and 355::LFY (DW151.2.5L). SD, 8 hours light/16 hours dark cycle; LD, 16 hours light/8 hours dark cycle; otherwise, continuous light conditions. In each experiment, there was a statistically significant difference (Student's t test, P < 0.001) among genotypes or conditions compared including the three pairs marked \dagger , \ddagger , and \S . ||The number of rosette leaves (experiments 1 to 4) or leaves (experiment 5) as an indicator of flowering time (16).

deletion in the *FT-FAS1* region was identified. The bacterial artificial chromosome (BAC) clone F5I14 (GenBank accession number AC001229) was found to cover the deleted region. One candidate gene (*F5I14.3*) with similarity to *TFL1* (4) was examined in six *ft* alleles, including three new ones (*ft-4*, *ft-5*, and *ft-6* from ecotype Nossen) [this study and (16)], and a nucleotide substitution was found in all cases. The entire *F5I14.3* was deleted in vTAAT26C51. On the basis of these results, we concluded that *F5I14.3* is the *FT* gene. Sequences of cDNA were deposited in GenBank (accession numbers AB027504).

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- The putative orthologs are a *Citrus unshiu* expressed sequence tag clone for *CiFT* (GenBank accession number AB027456), and a rice BAC clone, nbxb0035E07r (GenBank accession number AQ289409), containing a part of *OsFT*.
- 7. The period of floral commitment was determined by expression of *pAP1::GUS* and *pAP3::GUS* reporter genes.

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- 26. 355::CO:GR; co-2 plants were grown on MS medium (3% sucrose, 0.8% agar) under LD (16 hours light/8 hours dark) conditions. On day 14, 5 ml of 10 μ M dex solution was applied to the medium (25 ml) to give a final concentration of 1.7 μ M.
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Activation Tagging of the Floral Inducer *FT*

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FLOWERING LOCUS T (FT), which acts in parallel with the meristem-identity gene LEAFY (LFY) to induce flowering of Arabidopsis, was isolated by activation tagging. Like LFY, FT acts partially downstream of CONSTANS (CO), which promotes flowering in response to long days. Unlike many other floral regulators, the deduced sequence of the FT protein does not suggest that it directly controls transcription or transcript processing. Instead, it is similar to the sequence of TERMINAL FLOWER 1 (TFL1), an inhibitor of flowering that also shares sequence similarity with membrane-associated mammalian proteins.

The transition from the vegetative to the flowering phase of *Arabidopsis* is controlled by several genetic pathways that monitor the developmental state of the plant as well as environmental conditions (1). Despite the cloning of several *Arabidopsis* genes participating in these pathways, substantial gaps remain in our knowledge of how the signals controlling flowering are transduced and integrated. To comple-

Fig. 1. Structure and expression of FT. (A) The K2 plasmid rescued from the 1733 mutant and reintroduced into plants. Boxes indicate exons; filled boxes indicate coding sequences. ft alleles are shown above. R119H, Arg¹¹⁹ \rightarrow His; G171E, Gly¹⁷¹ \rightarrow Glu; W138, Trp¹³⁸. (**B** to **E**) FT mRNA accumulation determined by RT-PCR, with UBIQUITIN10 (UBQ) as control (3). (B) Ten-day-old, longday-grown Columbia wild-type plants. cots, cotyledons; apex, shoot apex including young leaf primordia; hypo, hypocotyl. (C) Six- to 14-dayold Columbia plants, in long days (LD; 16 hours of light) or short days (SD; 9 hours of light). AP1 expression is a marker for flower initiation (23). (D) Six- to 18-day-old Landsberg erecta (Ler) wild-type plants and fwa-2 mutants in long days. (E) Six- to 18-day-old Landsberg erecta plants and co-2 mutants in long days.

ment other approaches to the study of floral induction, we applied activation tagging to whole plants. Activation tagging is a random



overexpression screen that was developed several years ago for isolated plant cells. In this scheme, transcriptional enhancers from the viral 535S promoter are randomly inserted in the genome with transferred DNA (T-DNA) of Agrobacterium (2). Using activation tagging, we identified a mutant, 1733, that flowered early, independently of day length (3). In addition, it had terminal flowers. Adjacent to the 1733 T-DNA insertion was an overexpressed gene that, when linked to either the original 35Senhancers (Fig. 1A) or the full 35S promoter and reintroduced into wild-type plants (3), recapitulated the 1733 phenotype (Table 1 and Fig. 2). Because the 1733 insertion mapped close to the flowering-time gene FT, we sequenced genomic DNA corresponding to the tagged gene from three

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Fig. 2. Phenotypes of mutant and transgenic plants. Plants were grown in long days, except where indicated. (A) Nineteen-day-old plants in Columbia background. From left: wild type, 355::FT (arrowhead indicates terminal flower), 355::FT (short days), 355::FT 355::FT1, 355::FT tfl-1 (arrow indicates a silique formed by the single terminal flower), and tfl1-1. (B) Nineteen-day-old plants in Landsberg erecta. From left: wild type, 355::FT, 355::FT, 355::FT, 355::FT, 355::FT, 355::FT, 355::FT, 355::FT (wa-2, 355::FT 355::CO, and 355::CO. (C) Fourteen-day-old plants in Columbia. From left: 355::FT 355::AP1, 355::FT, and 355::FT 355::LFY. Inset shows close-up of another 12-day-old 355::FT 355::LFY plant, with a slightly more severe phenotype than the one in the main panel. The first whorl of the terminal flower includes two sepals (se) and two true leaves (lf). cot, cotyledon. (D to I) Scanning electron micrographs of shoot apices. (D) Twelve-day-old 355::FT applicate that the severe (tfl). (E) Nine-day-old 355::FT 355::



abnormal flower (af) has formed in the axil of a cotyledon, which has been removed. st, stamen; pe, petal; g, gynoecium. (F to I) Six-day-old plants. (F) In Columbia wild type, the shoot meristem (sm) is vegetative and produces leaves (lf). (G) In 355::FT, the shoot apical meristem is domed and has produced the first lateral flower primordium (f). (H) In 355::FT tfl1-1, the apical meristem has been transformed into a floral meristem (fm) that has begun to produce sepals (se). (I) In 355::FT 355::LFY, the apical meristem has been replaced by a flower, in which development of sepal, petal (pe), stamen (st), and gynoecium (g) primordia is advanced. Two leaves and two sepals have been removed. Scale bars, 1 cm in (A) to (C), 100 μ m in (D), (E), and the inset in (C), and 20 μ m in (F) to (I).

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ethylmethane sulfonate (EMS)–induced ft alleles (4). All three contained mutations in the open reading frame of the tagged gene (Fig. 1A) (3), indicating that the 1733 mutant carried a dominant, early flowering allele of FT, whose recessive alleles cause late flowering (4).

Late-flowering mutants have been functionally grouped by their environmental responses

Table 1. Flowering times determined by total leaf number on the main shoot (3). Measurements are in long days except where indicated. Each group represents plants that are from the same genetic background and are grown at the same time.

Genotype	Leaves	SD	Range	n
Columbia wild type	14.3	1.2	13–16	16
35S::FT	3.9	0.7	3–5	26
35S::FT (short days)*	4.1	0.3	4–5	32
35S::FT tfl1-1	3.2	0.4	3–4	13
35S::FT tfl1-1 (short days)*	3.3	0.5	3–4	16
tfl1-1	9.3	1.0	8–11	21
35S::FT 35S::TFL1	5.2	0.7	4–6	9
35S::TFL1	37.7	3.0	34-43	10
Landsberg erecta wild type	10.5	0.7	9–12	25
ft-3/+	13.2	0.7	12–15	23
Landsberg erecta wild type	10.9	0.8	10–13	35
35S::FT	4.0	0.4	3–5	24
35S::FT 35S::CO*	4.0	0.0	4	9
35S::CO	5.5	0.5	5–6	21
35S::FT fwa-2	17.6	1.5	15–20	16
fwa-2	23.0	1.4	21–26	23
Landsberg erecta wild type	10.6	0.7	9–12	40
35S::FT	4.0	0.5	3–5	25
35S::FT co-2*	4.0	0.0	4	19
co-2	31.9	2.1	28–36	21
Columbia wild type	16.5	1.2	14–19	35
35S::FT	4.3	0.5	3–5	28
35S::FT 35S::LFY	2.0	0.0	2	17
35S::LFY	11.4	2.1	8–15	13
35S::FT 35S::AP1	3.4	0.5	3–4	9
35S::AP1	6.9	1.7	5–10	7
Landsberg erecta wild type	9.8	1.2	8–12	16
ар1-1*	10.6	1.0	9–12	20
35S::FT ap1-1	4.2	0.5	3–5	24
35S::FT*	4.0	0.5	3–5	24

^{*}Indicates no statistically significant difference to genotype above; otherwise, all genotypes within each group are significantly different (Student's t test, P < 0.005).

Fig. 3. Expression of meristem-identity genes in 8-day-old 355::FT (top) and Columbia wild-type plants (bot-tom) determined by in situ hybridization (3). (A) AP1 mRNA is apparent in the flower primordia (f) that have formed on the flanks of the shoot apical meristem (sm). (B) LFY mRNA is apparent in lateral flower primordia. The shoot apical meristem of this plant has already undergone the transition to a floral meristem (fm), which also expresses LFY. (C) TFL1 expression in 35S .: FT is transient, similar to what is seen in tfl1 mutants (24). In this plant, TFL1 expression was already reduced in the primary shoot apical meristem and



only apparent in the adjacent section. Strong *TFL1* expression is, however, still seen in the lateral shoot (ls). (**D**) No *AP1* mRNA is detected in wild type. (**E**) Weak *LFY* expression is observed in leaf primordia (lf). (**F**) The vegetative wild-type apex expresses *TFL1* weakly (arrowhead) (15). Scale bar in (A), 50 μ m. All panels are at the same magnification.

and their genetic interactions (4, 5). One class, which flowers much later than wild type in long days, includes the recessive co and ft mutants and the dominant fwa mutants. In contrast to co mutants, ft and fwa not only flower late in long days but are also moderately delayed in short days. The two groups, FT/FWA and CO, also interact differently with the meristem-identity gene LFY because only co mutations affect transcriptional induction of LFY (6, 7). In addition, ft lfy and fwa lfy but not co lfy double mutants have a phenotype that is associated with loss of expression of the meristem-identity gene APETALA1 (AP1), indicating that FT and FWA act redundantly with LFY to regulate AP1 (8, 9). AP1 was expressed precociously in 35S::FT plants, but in contrast to 35S::LFY, AP1 expression was confined to floral primordia (Fig. 3, A and D), suggesting that FT regulates AP1 expression less directly than the LFY transcription factor (10).

Because changes in FT levels affected flowering, as deduced both from the 35S::FT phenotype and the semidominant nature of ft mutants (Table 1), we determined whether CO or FWA regulates FT mRNA accumulation. In both long and short days, FT levels in wild type increased from young seedlings to older plants, with higher overall levels in long days (Fig. 1C) (3). Whereas FT expression profiles were similar in wild-type and fwa-2 plants grown in long days, FT expression was reduced in co-2 seedlings, rising to wild-type levels in older plants (Fig. 1, D and E). These data suggest that CO functions partially upstream of FT and that FWA acts downstream of or in parallel with FT(3).

We complemented the expression studies by testing how constitutive FT expression affected the co-2 or fwa-2 mutant phenotypes. Even though co mutants have a more severe phenotype in long days than ft mutants, 35S::FT could completely suppress the co-2 phenotype. 35S::FT also masked the effects of CO overexpression (6), confirming that changing CO activity had no effect in a 35S::FT background (Table 1 and Fig. 2B). Although these interactions would normally suggest that FT is the only downstream effector of CO, FT and CO interact differently with LFY (6-9), which argues against a simple linear hierarchy from CO through FT to flowering. A possible explanation is that increased activity of the FT-dependent pathway can compensate for reduced activity of a parallel, normally FT-independent pathway in co-2 mutants. Consistent with such a scenario, 35S::FT caused precocious induction of LFY mRNA (Fig. 3, B and E), even though FT is not normally required for LFY expression (7, 8). Unlike 35S::FT co-2 plants, 35S::FT fwa-2 plants flowered much later than wild type (Table 1 and Fig. 2B), consistent with FWA affecting events downstream of FT (3).

These and other findings indicate that FT and LFY have parallel functions downstream of

the long-day-dependent and -independent pathways of floral induction (1, 7, 8, 11). Indeed, in contrast to plants that overexpressed only FT or LFY(12), the vegetative phase was bypassed in 35S::FT 35S::LFY plants, which produced a terminal flower immediately upon germination. The only leaves produced by these plants were the first two leaves, which are already initiated in the embryo (Fig. 2, C, E, and I, and Table 1). A less marked effect was seen in 35S::FT 35S:: AP1 plants (Fig. 2C and Table 1), even though 35S:: AP1 plants on their own flowered considerably earlier than did 35S::LFY plants (7, 12-14) (Table 1). The 35S::FT 35S::LFY phenotype was also more severe than that of 35S::AP1 35S::LFY plants (14), indicating that FT does not only induce AP1, which is confirmed by a failure of an apl mutation to suppress early flowering of 35S::FT plants (Table 1).

The deduced FT protein belongs to a small family of Arabidopsis proteins, which includes the TFL1 protein, whose amino acid sequence is more than 50% identical to that of FT (3, 15). FT and TFL1 have opposite effects on flowering. Loss of FT function causes late flowering (4), whereas loss of TFL1 causes early flowering along with the formation of terminal flowers (16). However, FT and TFL1 effects are not entirely mirror images of each other, because 35S::FT plants flower much earlier than tfl1 loss-of-function mutants, particularly under short days, and 35S::TFL1 plants not only flower late, as do ft loss-of-function mutants, but they also show transformation of individual flowers into shootlike structures (17).

To clarify the relation between FT and TFL1, we tested whether FT promotes flowering by eliminating TFL1 activity. 35S::FT tfl1-1 plants flowered even earlier than 35S::FT plants and often formed only a single, terminal flower on the main shoot, indicating that TFL1 is still active in 35S::FT (Table 1 and Fig. 2, A and H). Consistent with this finding, TFL1 was expressed in 35S: FT plants (Fig. 3, C and F). Independent action of FT and TFL1 was likewise evident from the fact that 35S::TFL1 attenuated the early flowering of 35S:: FT, even though the attenuation was modest (Table 1 and Fig. 2A). Together, these observations suggest that FT and TFL1 act at least partially in parallel.

TFL1 mRNA is highly expressed in a small group of shoot meristem cells (15) (Fig. 3F). Using reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR), we detected FT mRNA throughout the aerial part of the plant (Fig. 1B). In situ hybridization revealed no specific concentration of FT transcripts at the shoot apex, suggesting that FT and TFL1 do not have to be expressed in the same pattern to antagonize each other's effects.

FT and TFL1 are related to a membraneassociated mammalian protein that can bind

hydrophobic ligands (18). This protein also gives rise to hippocampal cholinergic neurostimulating peptide (HNCP), which is generated from its precursor by cleavage after amino acid 12 (19). Comparison of the FT and TFL1 sequences (3) with the crystal structure (20, 21)of HCNP precursor, also called phosphatidylethanolamine binding protein (PEBP), revealed several interesting features. The conserved residue Arg¹¹⁹ has been proposed to activate the bond between Leu¹² and Ser¹³ for cleavage of HCNP (20). Arg¹¹⁹ is important for FT function as well, because this residue was changed to histidine in the strong ft-3 allele (Fig. 1A). It has also been proposed that access to the PEBP ligand-binding site is regulated by a COOH-terminal α helix (20, 21). A missense mutation in ft-1 close to the COOH-terminus indicates that this region is critical for FT as well (Fig. 1A).

In summary, FT and TFL1 encode related proteins with opposite effects on flowering. Similarly to FT, its antagonist TFL1 is positively regulated by CO(6), suggesting that the balance between FT and TFL1 activity serves to fine tune the response to floral inductive signals (3). It remains to be determined how far the sequence similarity between FT, TFL1, and mammalian PEBP reflects similar biochemical modes of action.

Note added in proof: Human PEBP was recently shown to be identical to RKIP (Raf kinase inhibitor protein), which regulates the activity of the RAF/MEK/ERK signal transduction pathway (22).

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Organogenic Role of B Lymphocytes in Mucosal Immunity

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Follicle-associated epithelium (FAE) in the intestinal Peyer's patches contains M cells that deliver pathogens to organized lymphoid tissue. Development of Peyer's patches, FAE, and M cells was found to be impaired in mice that had no B cells. Transgenic expression of membrane-bound immunoglobulin M restored B cells and FAE development. The lack of M cells abrogated infection with a milk-borne retrovirus. Thus, in addition to secretion of antibodies and presentation of antigens, B cells are important for organogenesis of the mucosal immune barriers.

The gut-associated lymphoid tissue (GALT) consists of highly organized Peyer's patches (PPs) in the small intestine and intraepithelial lymphocytes (IELs) found throughout the length of the gastrointestinal tract. The intes-

tinal surface of PPs is characterized by the presence of FAE-covering "domes," regions free of intestinal villi (1). M cells are found in these domes, scattered among enterocytes (2). M cells lack microvilli on their apical

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References and Notes

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¹⁰ Transcriptional Activation of APETALA 1 by LEAFY

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¹⁵ Inflorescence Commitment and Architecture in Arabidopsis

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