Full Title: Coding-sequence evolution does not explain divergence in petal anthocyanin

pigmentation between *Mimulus luteus* var. *luteus* and *M. l. variegatus*

Short Title: Monkeyflower pigment expansion not due to coding-sequence evolution

Walker E. Orr[1]

Ji Yang Kim[1]

Tejas Raj[2]

Ellen K. Hom[1]

Ashley E. Person[1]

Anne Vonada[1]

John A. Stratton[2]

Arielle M. Cooley[1,*]

[1]Whitman College Biology Department, Walla Walla WA, 99362, U.S.A.

[2]Whitman College Computer Science Department, Walla Walla WA, 99362, U.S.A.

*Corresponding author

Abstract

Phenotypic transitions in related taxa often share a common genetic basis, which suggests that

there are constraints that shape the process of evolution at the genetic level. For example,

noncoding changes in a gene might be favored relative to coding changes due to being less

constrained by pleiotropic effects. Here we evaluate the importance of coding-sequence

changes to the recent evolution of a novel anthocyanin pigmentation trait in the monkeyflower

genus *Mimulus*. The magenta-flowered *Mimulus luteus* var. *variegatus* recently gained petal

lobe anthocyanin pigmentation via a single-locus Mendelian difference from its sister taxon, the

yellow-flowered *M. l. luteus*. Previous work showed that the differentially expressed transcription

factor gene *MYB5a/NEGAN* is the single causal gene. However, it was not clear whether

MYB5a coding-sequence evolution (in addition to the observed patterns of differential

expression) might also have contributed to increased anthocyanin production in *M. l. variegatus*.

Quantitative image analysis of tobacco leaves, transfected with highly expressed *MYB5a* coding

sequence from each taxon, revealed robust anthocyanin production driven by both alleles

compared to a negative control. Counter to expectations, significantly higher anthocyanin

production was driven by the coding sequence from the low-anthocyanin taxon *M. l. luteus*.

Together with previously-published expression studies, this supports the hypothesis that petal

pigment in *M. l. variegatus* was not gained by protein-coding changes, but instead via non-

coding *cis*-regulatory evolution. Finally, while constructing the transgenes needed for this

experiment, we unexpectedly discovered two sites in *MYB5a* that appear to be post-

transcriptionally edited – a phenomenon that has been rarely reported, and even less often

explored, for nuclear-encoded plant mRNAs.

260 words

Keywords: anthocyanin regulation; floral color patterning; gene expression; *cis*-regulatory

evolution; R2R3 MYBs; *Mimulus*; petal lobe pigmentation; post-transcriptional mRNA editing; A-

to-I editing; transient transformation; digital image analysis

Introduction

To what extent are the molecular mechanisms of evolutionary diversification predictable?

Biologists have long been interested in understanding constraints on the evolutionary process,

which can increase our ability to predict the molecular mechanisms that underlie a specific trait.

For example, coding and noncoding mutations have been hypothesized to differ in their

contributions to evolutionary change (Hoekstra and Coyne, 2007; Stern and Orgogozo, 2008).

Noncoding "*cis*-regulatory" regions integrate upstream signals to determine the conditions under

which a protein will be expressed. These regions tend to be modular, so mutations can easily

alter the gene expression driven by one *cis*-regulatory region without altering expression patterns

driven by neighboring regions (Wray, 2007). By contrast, a change in a gene's coding sequence

tends to be more pleiotropic since it will likely alter the gene product's function in all contexts

under which that gene is expressed. Stern and Orgogozo (2008) proposed a model predicting

that the contribution of coding changes to phenotypic transitions will decline with evolutionary

distance between the diverged taxa, due to lower average fitness values for coding changes

compared to noncoding changes. The pattern has been documented empirically by Wittkopp et

al. (2008) in *Drosophila*.

In plants, transitions in anthocyanin pigmentation are especially well suited to investigating the

mechanisms of molecular evolution (Davies et al., 2012; Sobel and Streisfeld, 2013; LaFountain

and Yuan, 2021; Li et al., 2022). Anthocyanins are a class of flavonoids that are responsible for

purple, pink, and red colors in diverse angiosperm tissues, including leaves, seed coats, and

flowers (Durbin et al., 2003). In the model plant *Arabidopsis thaliana* and many other species, the

anthocyanin pathway consists of "early" genes *CHS, CHI,* and *F3'H*, followed by the "late" genes

DFR, ANS, and *UF3GT* (Dubos et al., 2010). The "late" genes are coordinately activated by MYB-

bHLH-WD40 (MBW) transcription factor complexes (Grotewold, 2006). Much of the target

specificity of an MBW complex is conferred by the MYB partner in the complex: different tissues

make use of different *MYB* genes to stimulate anthocyanin production, but may use the same

bHLH gene (Quattrocchio et al., 2006). *MYB* genes thus serve as "input-output" integrators that

regulate gene batteries under highly specific contexts. Consistent with their position in gene

networks and the hypothesized importance of "input-output" genes in repeated evolution events,

MYB genes demonstrate remarkable reuse in floral pigment transitions across a variety of species

(Streisfeld and Rausher, 2011; Yuan et al., 2013).

The independent evolution of petal lobe anthocyanin (PLA) pigmentation in three lineages in the

luteus group of the monkeyflower genus *Mimulus* (synonym *Erythranthe*; see Barker (2012) and

Lowry et al. (2019) for a debate within the monkeyflower research community over which genus

name to use) provides an opportunity to test the relative importance of coding and noncoding

changes at different evolutionary time scales. *Mimulus* lends itself to studies in plant evo-devo,

thanks to a diversity of species with short generation times, high fecundity, amenability to

greenhouse cultivation, and a large range of environmental adaptation (Wu et al., 2008; Yuan

2018). Sequenced genomes have been published for several species including *M. guttatus*

(Puzey et al., 2017) and *M. l. luteus* (Edger et al., 2017).

The *luteus* group of *Mimulus* has an ancestral phenotype of yellow, carotenoid-pigmented flowers

with red, anthocyanin-pigmented spots in the nectar guide region (Fig. 1). The overall color of the

anthocyanin-pigmented petal tissue ranges from orange in *M. cupreus*, to red in *M. l. luteus*, to

magenta in *M. l. variegatus* and *M. naiandinus*, depending on the relative intensity of carotenoid

and anthocyanin pigmentation (Fig. 1).

In three members of the *luteus* group—the magenta-flowered *M. l. variegatus* and *M. naiandinus,*

and the orange-flowered *M. cupreus*—anthocyanin pigment has expanded into the petal lobes.

The gain of PLA is a derived, single-locus Mendelian trait in all three taxa. In *M. cupreus* and *M.*

naiandinus, this is controlled by the *pla1* locus, which contains candidate anthocyanin-activating

transcription factor genes *MYB2* and *MYB3a* (Cooley et al., 2011). A rare yellow-flowered morph

of *M. cupreus* does not bear petal lobe anthocyanins (PLA). Since it is found in a single population

in Chile, intermingled with orange morphs of *M. cupreus* (Cooley et al., 2008), it likely represents

a secondary loss of the PLA trait, and also segregates as a single-locus trait mapping to *pla1*. In

M. l. variegatus, in contrast, the gain of PLA is conferred by an unlinked second locus named

pla2. The *pla2* locus contains candidate gene *MYB5a/NEGAN*. All of the candidate genes at *pla1*

and *pla2* belong to subgroup 6 of the R2R3 MYB gene family (Cooley et al., 2011), which regulate

the "late" anthocyanin biosynthetic genes via participation in the MBW complex (reviewed in Lloyd

et al. (2017); see Stracke et al. (2001) for a description of the subgroup 6 genes).

Fig. 1. Petal lobe anthocyanin has been gained repeatedly in the *luteus* group of *Mimulus*. Closely related

species outside the *luteus* group, like *M. guttatus*, are typically yellow-flowered, with red anthocyanin

pigmentation restricted to the nectar guide region of the corolla. *Mimulus cupreus* and *M. naiandinus* have

each gained petal lobe anthocyanin via a single-locus change at genomic region *pla1*, while the magenta-

petaled *M. luteus* var. *variegatus* gained petal lobe anthocyanin via a change at *pla2*. A rare yellow-flowered

morph of *M. cupreus*, found in a single population in Chile, has lost petal lobe anthocyanin via a change at

pla1. Figure modified from Zheng et al. (2021).

While transitions in floral pigment traits have been extensively studied in plants, pigment losses

have been investigated more often than pigment gains (Rausher, 2008). Studying the repeated

gain of PLA in the *luteus* group presents an opportunity to rectify this. PLA transitions in the group

also enable a test of the Stern and Orgogozo (2008) prediction that protein-coding changes are

relatively more important within populations, while noncoding changes become increasingly

abundant as evolutionary divergence increases. Consistent with this prediction, the rare yellow

morph of *M. cupreus* - a within-population polymorphism linked to *pla1* (Cooley and Willis 2009;

Cooley et al. 2011) - appears to be associated with a deletion or other major mutation in exon 3

or 4 of *MYB2* (Supplemental Figures S1-S4). Based on the Stern and Orgogozo (2008) model,

we expect that the fixed gains of PLA in *M. l. variegatus*, orange *M. cupreus*, and *M. naiandinus*,

are more likely to be caused by *cis*-regulatory evolution.

Of the three taxa that recently gained PLA, *M. l. variegatus* is the most thoroughly characterized.

In *M. l. variegatus,* a combination of genetic mapping, *MYB5a* RNAi and overexpression, and

transcriptomic studies of wild-type versus *MYB5a* RNAi lines, shows that *MYB5a* is both

necessary and sufficient for the gain of PLA (Cooley et al. 2011; Zheng et al., 2021), and points

to one particular splice variant of the gene as participating in anthocyanin activation.

Unlike most *MYB* genes, which have a conserved three-exon structure (Dubos et al., 2010),

MYB5a in *M. l. luteus* and *M. l. variegatus* has four exons. The exon 1-2-4 splice variant, but not

the 1-2-3 variant, was found to be abundant specifically in anthocyanin-pigmented petal tissue:

the petal lobes of *M. l. variegatus* and the nectar guide regions of both taxa (Zheng et al. 2021).

Knockdown of the 1-2-4 splice variant resulted in the loss of petal pigmentation from *M. l.*

variegatus (Zheng et al., 2021). Finally, the exon 1-2-4 splice variant of *M. l. variegatus* - but not

the 1-2-3 splice variant - contains the subgroup 6 motif found in all known R2R3 MYB anthocyanin

activators (Stracke et al., 2001). Thus, the exon 1-2-4 splice variant of *MYB5a* appears to be

responsible for the gain of petal lobe anthocyanins in *M. l. variegatus*. While its pattern of spatially

specific expression suggests a mechanism of *cis*-regulatory evolution, it is unknown whether

divergence in the protein-coding sequence of *MYB5a* additionally contributed to the evolution of

increased anthocyanin production in *M. l. variegatus*.

In previous studies (Zheng et al., 2021), we relied on the stable transformation procedure

published by Yuan et. al. (2013) to test hypotheses about *MYB* gene function. While the method

is capable of producing stably transformed offspring, it has the disadvantage of having a low

transformation efficiency (about one seed per thousand in *M. l. variegatus*) and a large time cost

of about five months between infiltration of plants and flowering of transformant offspring.

Transient transformation is an attractive alternative for more rapid tests of gene function,

particularly for genes - such as pigment activators - that are expected to produce an easily visible

phenotype. In transient expression, the transgene is delivered to plant cells and transcribed by

the plant's transcriptional machinery without necessarily being incorporated into the plant's

genome, and transient transformation is regularly used in the tobacco genus *Nicotiana* (Kapila et

al., 1997; Schöb et al., 1997; Yang et al. 2000; Sparkes 2006). *Nicotiana* is relatively closely

related to *Mimulus*, as the two genera belong to the sister orders of Solanales and Lamiales,

respectively, and *Nicotiana* is a highly tractable system for transgenic experimentation. It is

routinely used for heterologous genetic experiments *in planta*, including tests of flower color genes

from both rosids and asterids (Montefiori et al., 2015; Tian et al., 2017). Ding and Yuan (2016)

adapted methods from *Nicotiana* for use in *Mimulus lewisii*. In our hands, however, transient

transformation caused substantial leaf tissue death in both *M. lewisii* and *M. l. luteus*. We therefore

returned to *Nicotiana*, using *N. tabacum* as the host for transient tests of *MYB5a* gene function.

If the gain of petal lobe anthocyanin (PLA) in the magenta-flowered *M. l. variegatus* is caused

solely by a *cis*-regulatory-driven spatial expansion of *MYB5a* function, then we predict that the

coding sequences of *MYB5a* from *M. l. variegatus* and the yellow-flowered *M. l. luteus* will be

equally capable of stimulating anthocyanin production. We tested this hypothesis by transiently

expressing each taxon's *MYB5a* exon 1-2-4 sequence in leaves of *N. tabacum*. We used a custom

image analysis pipeline to rapidly generate quantitative estimates of pigment production in the

transformed leaves.

Somewhat surprisingly, the *luteus* allele of *MYB5a* drove significantly stronger anthocyanin

pigmentation than did the *variegatus* allele. This indicates that *M. l. variegatus* did not evolve its

greater anthocyanin pigmentation via coding-sequence changes at *MYB5a*, and points to *cis-*

regulatory evolution at the causal *MYB5a* gene as a more likely driver of the gain of petal lobe

anthocyanin pigmentation in *M. l. variegatus*.

Methods

Plant materials and growth conditions

Nicotiana tabacum cv. Petit Havana SR1 seeds were obtained from Lehle Seeds (Round Rock,

TX, USA). *Mimulus lewisii*, line LF10HT1 (two generations inbred) seeds were a gift from the

Yao-Wu Yuan lab at the University of Connecticut (Storrs, CT, USA). *Mimulus luteus* var. *luteus*

and *M. l. variegatus* were originally collected in Chile from the El Yeso and Río Cipreses

populations, respectively (Cooley et al. 2008), and self-fertilized repeatedly with single-seed

descent to generate highly inbred lines. In this work, we utilized the 12-generations inbred line

M. l. luteus EY7 and the 11-generations inbred line *M. l. variegatus* RC6.

Seeds were surface-planted on wet soil and grown at Whitman College (Walla Walla, WA, USA)

in a greenhouse with 16-hour day lengths and temperatures ranging from 15ºC to 30ºC. Plants

were misted daily and fertilized three times per week with Open Sesame flowering fertilizer (Fox

Farm, Samoa, CA, USA).

Determining the genomically encoded sequence of MYB5a *from* M. l. variegatus

While investigating the *MYB5a* protein-coding regions of *M. l. luteus* and *M. l. variegatus*, using

the cloning and sequencing methods described in Zheng et al. (2021), we discovered an

unexpected new sequence in the fourth exon of *M. l. variegatus Myb5a*. In two different

sequencing reactions, originating from two distinct cDNA syntheses from a single mRNA

extraction from young bud *M. l. variegatus* tissue, a "GG" variant was found in which adenines

at positions 582 and 684 of the exon 1-2-4 splice variant were replaced with guanines (Figure

2). A third sequencing reaction from the same mRNA extraction produced the expected "AA"

sequence that was previously reported in Zheng et al. (2021). Because the same two variants

were observed, twice each, in the same two samples, we discounted the likelihood of four

random sequencing errors. Instead, we hypothesized that the "GG" variant might be encoded in

the genome of *M. l. variegatus*, perhaps representing an alternate allele of *MYB5a* or a closely

related gene duplicate, or that it might be the result of post-transcriptional editing.

To determine whether the "GG" variant represented the genomic sequence of an unknown,

related *MYB* gene, we cloned and sequenced a fragment of genomic *MYB5a* from an F1 hybrid

of *M. l. luteus* x *M. l. variegatus* using primers Myb5_64F and Myb5_57R (Supplemental Table

S1), which encompass the first of the two sites in question; these primers were selected

because they reliably amplified *MYB5a* from both *M. l. luteus* and *M. l. variegatus*. We reasoned

that, if the "GG" variant were from a paralogous *MYB* gene, then we should be able to recover

both variants from the F1 hybrid. The "AA" variant would originate from the *M. l. variegatus*

MYB5a and the "GG" variant would originate from the other, unknown gene; we would also

expect to recover the *M. l. luteus* allele of *MYB5a*. If the "GG" variant instead represented

residual heterozygosity in *M. l. variegatus*, or post-transcriptional editing of the mRNA, then any

single F1 hybrid would contain only one of the two *M. l. variegatus* variants, along with the *M. l.*

luteus allele of *MYB5a*.

To determine whether the "GG" variant represented genomically encoded, residual

heterozygosity in our highly inbred *M. l. variegatus*, we similarly cloned and sequenced genomic

MYB5a from the *M. l. variegatus* inbred line. If the "GG" variant were the result of post-

transcriptional modification, it should be absent from all genomic DNA samples (both the F1

hybrid and the *M. l. variegatus*).

Finally, to determine whether the "GG" variant could be repeatably isolated from cDNA, we

performed new mRNA extractions, and cloned and sequenced *MYB5a* cDNA, from two types of

M. l. variegatus and *M. l. luteus* floral tissues: the nectar guide region, which is anthocyanin-

pigmented in both taxa, and the petal lobe region, which is anthocyanin-pigmented only in *M. l.*

variegatus. Because exons 3 and 4 are partial duplicates of each other, primers Myb5_64F and

Myb5_57R (Supplemental Table S1) amplified both splice variants (exon 1-2-3 and 1-2-4) from

M. l. luteus, though only the exon 1-2-4 variant from *M. l. variegatus*. See Supplemental Figure

S6 for an illustration of primer binding sites for both taxa.

Figure 2. Putative A-to-I editing sites in the exon 1-2-4 splice variant of *M. l. variegatus MYB5a*.

A. Dark gray bars show the exon structure from start codon to stop codon. Light gray bars show the DNA-binding R2 and R3 domains common to all members of the R2R3 MYB gene family (Stracke et al. 2001). "Subgroup 6" is a sequence motif that is conserved across all R2R3 MYB genes that encode activators of anthocyanin biosynthesis (Stracke et al. 2001). The two putative A-to-I editing sites are each marked as "edited site". B. Chromatograms from *MYB5a* Variant AA and Variant GG. The two polymorphic sites are both located in the fourth exon of *MYB5*, 584 and 686 nucleotides downstream of the translation start site. Nucleotide and amino acid differences are highlighted. Sequences were obtained using Sanger sequencing and were visualized using Geneious R10.

Nucleic acid extraction, PCR, and cloning

Genomic DNA was extracted from young leaves and floral buds using the Zyppy DNeasy

Extraction kit (Zymo Research, CA, USA) according to the manufacturers' protocol. RNA was

extracted from buds using the E.Z.N.A. Plant RNA Kit (Omega Bio-Tek, GA, USA) with the

DNAse I digestion protocol added to it. cDNA was synthesized using the qScriptTM cDNA

Synthesis Kit (Quanta BioSciences, Inc., MD, USA). Quality and concentration of DNA and RNA

were quantified using a nanodrop.

Fragments of *MYB5a* spanning one or both adenine/guanine polymorphic sites were PCR

amplified using the primers listed in Supplemental Table S1 with G-Biosciences Taq polymerase

(St. Louis, MO, USA). Reactions were run with 10µM forward and reverse primers, G-

Biosciences 10x buffer, and 2.5µM dNTPs. Annealing temperatures were set to 3℃ below the

primer's lowest melting temperature and the number of PCR cycles ranged from 30-32.

PCR products were purified and cloned into pGEM vectors in *E. coli* as described in Zheng et al.

(2021). Colonies were PCR-screened for inserts of the correct size using primers M13F(-20)

and M13R(-24). Sanger sequencing was performed by Eton Biosciences (San Diego, CA, USA)

and sequences were visualized using Geneious R9 and R10.

Strategy for testing for functional equivalence of two coding sequences

Once the "AA" allele had been identified as the only genomically encoded *MYB5a* sequence

present in the magenta-flowered *M. l. variegatus*, transgenes were constructed to test whether

the exon 1-2-4 splice variant was functionally equivalent to the corresponding allele from the

yellow-flowered *M. l. luteus* (which lacks petal lobe anthocyanins), as described below. Each

transgene, as well as a negative control, was transfected into leaves of *Nicotiana tabacum*, and

the area of the spot of anthocyanin pigment produced following each infiltration was quantified.

The heterologous *N. tabacum* system was selected because our pilot studies in *M. l. luteus* and

another monkeyflower species, *M. lewisii*, failed to produce visible anthocyanin pigment.

Bacterial culturing for transgene construction

Escherichia coli cultures were grown at 37ºC in Luria-Bertani (LB) broth: 10g/L tryptone, 5g/L

yeast extract, 10g/L NaCl in demineralized water, sterilized by autoclaving. *Agrobacterium*

tumefaciens cultures were grown at 28 ºC in LB broth with the NaCl concentration reduced from

10g/L to 5g/L.

Cells containing plasmids with a Kanamycin-resistance gene were grown in media containing 50

µg/mL kanamycin. The *A. tumefaciens* strain, GV3101, used in these studies contains gentamicin-

and rifampicin-resistance genes; these cultures were grown in media additionally containing 50

µg/mL gentamicin and 25 µg/mL rifampicin. Liquid cultures were grown at the appropriate

temperature with shaking at 200 rpm. To isolate individual colonies, cells were grown on plates

containing LB media with appropriate selective antibiotics and 15 g/L agar.

Construction of Gateway® Entry Vectors

The exon 1-2-4 splice variant of *MYB5a* was amplified from *M. l. variegatus* petal cDNA, using

primers cacc10F and Myb5_69R (Supplemental Table S1) and New England Biolabs® Phusion®

High-Fidelity DNA Polymerase. Amplicons were transformed into the pEARLEYGATE101

Gateway vector (Earley et al. 2006). From there, the coding sequence without a stop codon was

amplified from plasmid DNA containing *M. l. variegatus MYB5a* CDS using the same primers and

polymerase.

The pENTR-D/TOPO Cloning Kit was used to produce directionally-cloned Gateway® entry

clones carrying *M. l. variegatus MYB5a* CDS. The reaction mixture was transformed into TOP10™

E. coli cells, and colonies were screened for the presence of the insert via PCR, using the

Myb5_10F, M13R(-24) primer pair. Three colonies that gave a band at ~1-kb were selected for

sequencing. The M13F(-20), M13R(-24) primer pair was used to amplify and sequence the insert.

Sanger sequencing was performed by Eton BioScience® (San Diego, CA, USA) and checked for

errors against reference sequence in Geneious® version 9.1.8 (https://www.geneious.com).

For *M. l. luteus*, amplification of the exon 1-2-4 splice variant was attempted without success using

cDNA extracted from young bud tissue of *M. l. luteus* lines EY1 and EY7. *M. l. luteus* EY7 is

known to express *MYB5a* in the anthocyanin-spotted nectar guide region of the flower bud, but

expression levels are low (Zheng et al. 2021). Instead, this protein-coding region was synthesized

by GENEWIZ (Plainfield, NJ, USA) based on the published genomic sequence of *M. l. luteus*

(Edger et al., 2017). The sequence was delivered in a pUC57 vector, but with attL1 and attL2

homology sites added to the 5'- and 3'- ends of the gene, respectively, to facilitate Gateway

recombination. Upon receipt, the plasmid was transformed into TOP10™ chemically competent

E. coli cells, and colonies were screened for the presence of the insert via PCR, using Myb5_12F

internal forward primer and M13R(-24) reverse primer (primer table). Sanger sequencing was

performed by Eton BioScience, and sequence was checked for errors against the reference

sequence in Geneious.

Construction of Gateway® Plant Expression Vectors

The LR Clonase II kit (ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) was used to transfer each

insert from an entry vector to destination vector pEARLEYGATE101 (Earley et al. 2006). Entry

vectors used in this study were pENTR with *M.l.variegatus MYB5a* CDS and pUC57 with

M.l.luteus MYB5a CDS.

Reactions were transformed into TOP10™ chemically competent *E. coli* and screened for the

presence of the insert via PCR and sequencing, using an insert-specific forward primer

(Myb5_10F for *M. l. variegatus* and Myb5_12F for *M. l. luteus*) and a reverse primer, att-R2, that

binds to the recombination site at the 3'-end of the insert in recombined pEARLEYGATE vectors.

To exclude colonies with unrecombined entry vector, restriction endonuclease digests were

performed as an additional diagnostic on plasmid purified from those colonies. Because it cuts

both within the destination vector and within the insert, the HinDIII enzyme was used (Promega

Corp., Madison, WI). Reactions were incubated for 60 minutes at 37ºC, then heat-inactivated for

15 minutes at 65ºC. Colonies that gave the expected digest pattern for recombined destination

construct as well as the correct insert DNA sequence were chosen to proceed with this project.

Transformation into Agrobacterium

GV3101 electrocompetent *A. tumefaciens* cells, mixed with 1 µL isolated plasmid DNA (25-350

ng/µL) from each construct, were briefly exposed to a 2.5 kV, 200 ohm, 25 µF pulse using a

BioRad® MicroPulser Electroporator (BioRad Laboratories, Hercules, CA, USA). The mixture was

then immediately combined with 1 mL room-temperature LB media without antibiotics, incubated

at 28ºC for 2-3 hours with shaking at 200 rpm., then plated on selective media. Putative

transformants were tested for transgene insertion using a PCR screen with primers pEG-35S-

attB1_F and att-R2 (Supplemental Table S1).

pGFP plasmid for negative control

To screen for non-specific effects of transgene infiltration, the *A. tumefaciens*-compatible GFP

expression plasmid pGFPGUSPlus was used as a negative control. pGFPGUSPlus was a gift

from Claudia Vickers (Addgene plasmid # 64401; http://n2t.net/addgene:64401;

RRID:Addgene_64401) (Vickers et al., 2007). Using the protocol in the previous section, the

plasmid was transformed into *A. tumefaciens*.

We initially planned to use GFP fluorescence as a read-out of transgene activity, if anthocyanin

pigment failed to be produced by either the *luteus* or *variegatus* coding sequence. However, we

found that the focal trait of anthocyanin pigmentation was indeed reliably produced. GFP

fluorescence, beyond that produced by autofluorescence, was not evident in a pilot study of

infiltrated *N. tabacum* leaves (Supplemental Figure S5), and thus was not examined further.

Transient transformation

A video documenting our transformation methodology, adapted from Ding and Yuan (2016), is

available upon request.

Agrobacterium colonies were PCR-screened to verify that they contained the desired transgene

(pGFPGUSPlus, or *MYB5a* CDS from *M. l. luteus* or *M. l. variegatus*), and were then grown 16-

24 hours in 5 mL LB (*Agrobacterium* recipe) at 28°C with appropriate antibiotics. The small culture

was brought up to 50 mL with LB plus antibiotics and grown 12-16 hours at 28°C.

The 50-mL cultures were centrifuged in a Beckman-Coulter Allegra 25R temperature-controlled

benchtop centrifuge (Beckman Coulter Inc, Brea, CA, USA) at 4ºC and 6,000 RCF for 15 minutes.

The pellet was resuspended in a volume of 5% sucrose (w/v) solution equivalent to between one

half and one time the original culture's volume. Resuspensions were adjusted, through dilution

with the sucrose solution, to have the same optical density at 600 nm (OD_{600}) across all three

transgene types within each trial, with an OD_{600} range of 1.6-1.9 across trials. Departing from Ding

and Yuan (2016), acetosyringone and Silwet L-77 were not included in the resuspension solution;

omitting these reagents was proposed as a possible solution for leaf tissue damage previously

observed in infiltrated *Mimulus lewisii* leaves (B. Ding, personal communication).

A B-D 1-mL slip tip disposable SubQ syringe (Becton, Dickinson and Company, Franklin Lakes,

NJ, USA) with the needle removed was used to deliver *A. tumefaciens* cells to the leaves of young

(1-3 months) *N. tabacum*. Using a gloved finger, the top of the leaf was held firmly while the

underside of the leaf was injected with the syringe until the liquid had visibly spread past the site

of injection. A volume of 100-200µL resuspended cells was injected per spot. The *M. l. luteus*

MYB5a transgene and the *M. l. variegatus MYB5a* transgene were infiltrated in pairs, alternating

with each leaf which transgene was injected into the left versus the right side of the leaf. A smaller

number of negative controls was performed, with pGFPGUSPlus infiltrations approximately

evenly distributed between the two sides of other leaves on the same plants.

Image acquisition and preparation

Leaves were imaged starting three days after infiltration, since Li et. al. (2009) reported that

maximum expression of *Agrobacterium*-delivered transgenes occurs 3 days after infiltration.

Because accumulation of visible gene product (anthocyanin) continued for several days after

infiltration in some samples, leaves were imaged until a maximum of twelve days after infiltration.

Digital photographs of infected leaves were then taken in a dark room with a Nikon D3500 DSLR

camera with 18-55mm lens. The camera was fixed on a stand and the leaf was illuminated by a

Sylvania Ceramic Metal Halide bulb, which exceeds 15,000 lumens, as the light source. All

exposures produced both RAW and jpeg images, with RAW images used for the analysis and

jpeg images used for interoperability with image annotation software. VGG Image Annotator was

used to demarcate the regions of interest covering the extent of the infiltrated leaf tissue and the

center of each injection site.

Analysis of images and data

S_{green}, which is the strength of the green channel relative to the total of all three color channels,

was previously found to correlate highly ($R^2 >= 0.63$, $p<.001$) with anthocyanin concentration

across a range of taxa and plant tissues (del Valle et. al. 2018). This is because anthocyanin

absorbs light in the green region of the visible spectrum. The index, S_{green}, is given by:

$S_{green} = N_{green} / (N_{green} + N_{blue} + N_{red})$

where N is the intensity value for the green, blue, or red color channel (del Valle et al. 2018).

A custom Python program imported the RAW image files for processing. The Python program

used   a   modified   version   of   the   MacDuff   color   chart   detection   algorithm

(https://github.com/mathandy/python-macduff-colorchecker-detector)   to   automatically   detect   the

panels of known broad-spectrum reflectance values on a reference color chart. Image pixel values

were converted into normalized reflectance values based on a linear fit of the red, green, and blue

signal strengths in those panels of known reflectance. The program then averages the relative

greenness (S_{green}) value over all pixels of the annotated region of interest minus a circular region

20 pixels in radius at the injection site, which typically exhibited tissue damage from the injection

syringe. This yielded a single S_{green} value for each sample.

To simultaneously evaluate S_{green} values across all three treatments (the negative controls, the

luteus transgenes, and the *variegatus* transgenes), a one-way ANOVA was performed in R 4.1.2,

followed by a Tukey's post hoc test. To further compare effects of only the *luteus* and *variegatus*

transgenes to each other, taking advantage of the paired design of infiltrations for these two

treatments, a two-tailed paired t-test was used.

A number of leaves infiltrated with *MYB5a* did not produce visible quantities of red pigmentation.

A *luteus-variegatus* treatment pair was categorized as "no visible pigment" if the S_{green} value for

either member of the pair showed equal or lower amounts of red pigmentation than the average

of all the negative controls. This categorization corresponded well with a by-eye assessment.

Data were analyzed both with and without these apparently-unsuccessful infiltration pairs. Overall

rates of success (defined as production of visible pigment) were compared between the *luteus*

and *variegatus* transgenes using a χ^2 contingency test in R 4.1.2.

Data availability

A detailed transient-transformation methods video is available upon request. Images of all

leaves analyzed are linked as Supplemental Figure S9.A, S9.B, and S9.C in the Supplemental

Data. Full S_{green} (pigment intensity) data are available as Supplemental Table S2. *MYB5a*

sequences from the exon 1-2-4 splice variants of *M. l. luteus* and *M. l. variegatus* have been

previously published: https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/nuccore/MT361119.1 (*M. l. luteus*, also listed

as *E. l. lutea*) and https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/nuccore/2019733960 *(M. l. variegatus*, also

listed as *E. l. variegata*). Code for image analysis is available at

https://github.com/WhitmanOptiLab/PigmentSpotting.

Results

Two sites in MYB5a *are occasionally sequenced as guanine rather than adenine*

The locations of two putatively edited sites, in exon 4 of *M. l. variegatus MYB5a*, are shown in

Figure 2, along with chromatograms from the "AA" variant versus the "GG" variant from our

initial, fortuitous discovery of the sequence difference. The novel "GG" variant was found in two

different sequencing reactions, originating from two cDNA synthesis reactions from a single

mRNA extraction of *M. l. variegatus* young bud outer-petal tissue.

The "GG" allele of MYB5a *from* M. l. variegatus *is not genomically encoded*

Cloning *MYB5a* gDNA from a *variegatus x luteus* F1 hybrid yielded 29 colonies containing a

MYB sequence. Of these, 13 contained the "AA" variant of the *M. l. variegatus* allele. The

remaining 16 contained the *M. l. luteus* allele. The "GG" variant was not discovered in these

genomic DNA samples.

Cloning *MYB5a* gDNA from a highly inbred line of *M. l. variegatus* yielded 37 colonies

containing a *MYB* sequence. All of these were the "AA" variant of *M. l. variegatus MYB5a*. The

"GG" variant was not discovered in these genomic DNA samples. Sample PCR colony screens,

from both F1 hybrid gDNA and *M. l. variegatus* gDNA, are shown in Supplemental Figure S7.

After collecting new floral bud tissues, and cloning and sequencing *MYB5a* cDNA from them, we

identified one additional colony containing a G at the edited site encompassed by our primers

(Table 1). As before, the variant was obtained from the petal lobes ("outer petal") of *M. l.*

variegatus. The other 29 *M. l. variegatus* colonies contained the "AA" variant. In *M. l. variegatus,*

only the exon 1-2-4 splice variant was recovered, as expected based on the utilization of

primers Myb5_64F and Myb5_57R (Supplemental Figure S6). These same primers were,

however, competent to amplify both 1-2-3 and 1-2-4 splice variants from *M. l. luteus*, and they

did. We found 28 colonies containing the exon 1-2-4 splice variant of *M. l. luteus MYB5a*, and

13 containing the exon 1-2-3 splice variant, with both splice variants appearing in both inner and

outer petal tissue (Table 1).

Recovering *M. l. luteus MYB5a* sequence from outer petal tissue was unexpected, and may

reflect imprecise separation of the two tissue types during floral bud dissection. The finding is

consistent with RT-PCR of *MYB5a* from our four cDNA samples, which indicated the presence

of some *MYB5a* transcript in the *M. l. luteus* outer petal sample (Supplemental Figure S8).

Table 1. Sequencing *MYB5a* cDNA from *M. l. luteus* and *M. l. variegatus* developing flower bud

tissue identifies splice variants in *M. l. luteus,* and sequence variants in *M. l. variegatus.* "Inner

petal" corresponds to the nectar-guide-spotted throat region of the flower; "outer petal" corresponds to the

petal lobes.

MYB5a variant	*luteus* inner petal	*luteus* outer petal	*variegatus* inner petal	*variegatus* outer petal
Exons 1-2-4 with "A"	17	11	10	19

MYB5a variant	luteus inner petal	luteus outer petal	variegatus inner petal	variegatus outer petal
Exons 1-2-4 with "G"	-	-	-	1
Exons 1-2-3	10	3	-	-

Infiltration of transgenes into N. tabacum *leaves*

Of the 124 leaves that received paired infiltrations of the 1-2-4 splice variant of *MYB5a* (*M. l.*

variegatus on one side of the central vein, and *M. l. luteus* on the other), 26 were eliminated due

to tearing or inadvertent marking over the pigmented area. The remaining 98 were scored for

the presence of visible anthocyanin pigmentation, and also quantitatively analyzed for pigment

abundance. Of the 25 leaves infiltrated on each side of the midvein with pGFPGusPlus as a

negative control, five were eliminated due to tearing or marking errors and the remaining 20

leaves (40 infiltrations) were quantitatively analyzed for anthocyanin pigment abundance

(Supplemental Table S2, Supplemental Figure S9).

MYB5a *from both* M. l. luteus *and* M. l. variegatus *drives strong anthocyanin production*

Both *MYB5a* transgenes resulted in significantly redder leaf tissue, as indicated by lower S_{green}

values, than did the negative control (Figure 3 and 4; $F_{(2, 233)}$ = 12.43; p<0.0001**)**. Surprisingly,

the allele of *MYB5a* from the yellow-flowered *M. l. luteus* drove significantly greater anthocyanin

production than the corresponding allele from the magenta-flowered *M. l. variegatus* (Tukey's

post hoc test: p=0.0102). After excluding the negative control to compare only the *luteus* and

variegatus transgenes via a paired t-test, the difference was even more strongly significant (t = -

6.3656, df = 97, p = $6.461*10^{-9}$; mean difference = $6.456*10^{-3}$ S_{green} units).

Figure 3. *MYB5a* transgenes yielded a range of anthocyanin biosynthesis levels in *N. tabacum*

leaves. In each image, the injection site is indicated with an arrow, labeled as n (negative control), l

(*luteus* allele of *MYB5a*), or v (*variegatus* allele of *MYB5a*). Leaf photos for this figure were uniformly

brightened by 30% in Powerpoint to make anthocyanin pigmentation and injection sites easier to see,

although analyses were performed on un-brightened images.

Figure 4. ***MYB5a* alleles from both the yellow-petaled *M. l. luteus* and the magenta-petaled *M. l.**

***variegatus* drive production of red anthocyanin pigmentation in *N. tabacum* leaf tissue.** Left, data

from all samples; *N* = 40 (negative control), 98 (*luteus* coding sequence), 98 (*variegatus* coding

sequence). Right, data only from matched *luteus-variegatus* pairs for which both members of the pair

produced visible pigmentation; *N* = 66 pairs. Each graph is a violin plot with the median shown as a

dashed line and the first and third quartiles as dotted lines. On the Y-axis, low values correspond to

redder leaf tissue and high values correspond to greener tissue. Color swatches on the Y-axis were taken

from injection sites with S_{green} values of 0.53 and 0.41 respectively. Swatches were taken from leaf photos

that had been uniformly brightened by 30% in Powerpoint, to maintain consistency with the previous

figure, although analyses were performed on un-brightened images. Letters a, b, and c are significance

groupings at p<0.05 based on a one-way Anova with Tukey's post hoc test; *** indicates p<0.001 based

on a two-tailed paired t-test.

We wondered whether this result might have been influenced by different rates of infiltration

success, rather than by different quantities of pigment produced in successful infiltration events.

Overall, 79/98 *luteus* infiltrations, but only 67/98 *variegatus* infiltrations, resulted in the

accumulation of visible anthocyanin pigmentation in a tobacco leaf (Table 2). The difference in

success rate between the two alleles approached but did not reach statistical significance (χ^2 =

3.249, df = 1, p = 0.0715).

Table 2. The *M. l. luteus* allele of *MYB5a* more often produced visible anthocyanin pigmentation in

tobacco leaves than did the *M. l. variegatus* allele, although the difference is not statistically

significant. χ^2 = 3.249, df = 1, p = 0.0715.

Transgene	Leaves with visible anthocyanin	Leaves without visible anthocyanin
luteus MYB5a	79	19
variegatus MYB5a	67	31

To exclude possible effects of varying infiltration success, we analyzed pigment production only

from the pairs of infiltrations for which both members of the pair produced visible amounts of

leaf anthocyanin pigment (Figure 4 right panel). In these pairs, a slightly smaller but still highly

significant difference was found, again with the *luteus* coding sequences corresponding to lower

S_{green} values and thus more-intense red pigmentation (t = -4.4855, df = 65, p = $3.032*10^{-5}$; mean

difference = $6.170*10^{-3}$ S_{green} units).

Discussion

When closely related taxa show phenotypic divergence, is the molecular mechanism a

mutational difference in the protein-coding region of a gene, or in the noncoding, *cis*-regulatory

region? We used transient transgenic assays to investigate this question for the MYB5a

anthocyanin-activating transcription factor from two varieties of monkeyflower: the yellow-

flowered *Mimulus luteus* var. *luteus*, which lacks anthocyanin pigment in its petal lobes, and the

magenta-flowered *M. l. variegatus*, which recently evolved petal lobe anthocyanin via an

unknown change within the *MYB5a* gene. Using quantitative image-analysis based methods, we

report that there is a significant functional difference between the two protein-coding regions

when expressed in *N. tabacum* leaves, but in the opposite direction of what would be expected

if coding sequence evolution were responsible for the increased pigmentation observed in *M. l.*

variegatus. Together with a previous finding that *MYB5a* is more strongly expressed in *M. l.*

variegatus petal lobes than in its conspecific (Zheng et al. 2021), this result strongly indicates

that *cis*-regulatory evolution is responsible for the recent expansion of pigmentation in *M. l.*

variegatus.

Improved tools for rapid transgenic assays in Mimulus

The success of the two *Mimulus* transgenes at activating anthocyanin production in *N. tabacum*

is encouraging for future functional studies in *Mimulus*, though not unprecedented. One factor

that can limit the ability of a MYB to function in a heterologous system is the availability of a

functional bHLH co-factor. In some cases, co-expression of the focal MYB gene's native bHLH

partner has been necessary for successful anthocyanin activation (Espley et al., 2009; Lin-

Wang et al., 2010), but in other cases, anthocyanins have been induced in *N. tabacum* without

also expressing bHLH from the same system (Fraser et. al., 2013). In one such study,

Montefiori et. al. (2015) expressed *AcMyb110* from Kiwifruit (*Actinidia* sp., order Ericales) in *N.*

tabacum leaves and successfully stimulated anthocyanin production. They identified two

endogenous bHLH transcription factors in *N. tabacum*, NtJAF13 and NtAN1, that associated

with AcMYB110 to stimulate expression of anthocyanin biosynthetic pathway genes, and that

may also have interacted with the *Mimulus* MYB5a protein in our experiment. While stable

transgenics are more useful for many applications, the ease and rapidity of transient

transformation approaches makes it a valuable tool when studying a readily quantifiable

phenotype such as pigment production.

One caveat to the quantification of anthocyanin activation by the *luteus* and *variegatus* transgenes

is that high levels of transgene expression could potentially alter patterns of functionality that only

appear at lower concentrations (Koes et. al., 2005). Developing a more closely related species

as a platform for functional tests would also be beneficial. In our hands, preliminary tests with both

M. luteus and congener *M. lewisii* resulted in high levels of tissue death and damage, but the

latter appears to have promise as a host for transient transgenic assays (Ding and Yuan 2016).

Using *N. tabacum* for direct side-by-side comparison of *Agrobacterium*-delivered transgenes was

first reported by Van der Hoorn et. al. (2000). This strategy takes advantage of leaf symmetry and

the clearly delineated leaf sectors in *N. tabacum* to compare two genes side-by-side in an identical

biological background. Coupled with a nondestructive way to quantify the resulting phenotype, we

believe this remains an underutilized strategy for functional comparisons between genes. Finally,

we note that the significant difference in pigment production between the *luteus* and *variegatus*

transgenes would almost certainly not have been detected using a qualitative assessment of

pigmentation, highlighting the benefits of even relatively simple computer-vision based programs

to quantify color traits in plants.

Possible A-to-I editing of mRNA

In the process of building *MYB5a* overexpression transgenes, we discovered what appears to

be the first documented case, to our knowledge, of post-transcriptional editing in an

anthocyanin-related gene. Two sites within the *M. l. variegatus* allele are encoded as adenine in

the genome, yet occasionally produce mRNA sequences that read as a guanine in Sanger

sequencing.

Inosine is a guanine analog, most often created in cells by the deamination of adenine

(Srinivasan et al., 2021), that is reported as guanine in Sanger sequencing (Cattenoz et al.,

2013). Adenine-to-inosine (A-to-I) editing was first discovered in *Xenopus laevis* mRNA by Bass

and Weintraub (1988), and is abundant in metazoans (Cattenoz et al., 2013), with one study

predicting over 36,000 A-to-I editing sites in the human genome (Li et al., 2009).

Although A-to-I editing of mRNA transcripts does not yet appear to have been directly

investigated in plants, we hypothesize that the two new bases are in fact inosine, given that

inosine is reported as guanine by Sanger sequencing (Cattenoz et al., 2013). Nuclear A-to-I

post-transcriptional editing has been reported in plant tRNA (Delannoy et al., 2009; Karcher and

Bock 2009; Zhou et al., 2014), and the deaminase enzymes required for A-to-I editing have

been putatively discovered in *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Zhou et al., 2014). Though mRNA A-to-I

editing has not been described in plants, it is widespread across the domains of life, including

fungi (reviewed in Teichert 2018), animals (reviewed in Knoop 2011), and bacteria (first reported

by Bar-Yaacov et al., 2017).

In contrast, reports of A-to-G editing in plants appear to be based solely on sequencing-based

approaches that would report inosines incorrectly as guanines (Pan et al., 2022), with A-to-I

editing apparently first proposed by Meng et al. (2010) on the basis of A-to-"G" mRNA editing

discovered by sequencing plant transcriptomes. True A-to-G editing does not appear to be a

verified biological phenomenon in any taxon. We therefore consider A-to-G editing to be less

likely than A-to-I editing in our study.

A variety of methods exist for confirming A-to-I editing, including chromatographic approaches

(Wolf et al., 2002; Chan et al., 2010) and "inosine chemical erasing" (ICE)-Seq (Sakurai et al.,

2010). However, A-to-I editing is commonly detected and quantified by the simple method used

here, in which reverse transcription and sequencing of mRNA reveals unexpected "guanines" in

some proportion of transcripts (e.g. Gu et al., 2012).

When inosine is present in tRNA, it can pair promiscuously with A, C, or U. In mRNA transcripts,

in contrast, it is translated as though it were guanine (Srinivasan et al. 2021). Regardless of

whether the edited bases result in guanine or inosine, then, they are likely to be interpreted by

the translational machinery of the cell as guanine. In the *M. l. variegatus* allele of *MYB5a*, both

edited sites would result in an amino acid change: from asparagine to serine at nucleotide

position 584, and from glutamic acid to glycine at position 686.

How conservative are these changes? One metric is Grantham's Distance, based on

composition, polarity and molecular volume (Grantham 1974). Using this metric, amino acid

pairs have similarity scores ranging from 5 for the highly similar leucine-isoleucine pair to a

maximum of 215 for cysteine-tryptophan. The first putative editing site reported here

(asparagine-serine, both of which have polar side chains) has a modest Grantham's Distance of

46. The putative glutamic acid to glycine substitution - replacing a negatively charged side chain

with a single hydrogen - has a larger Grantham's Distance of 98. The implications for MYB5a

protein folding and function are, however, unknown. Overall, the mechanisms for A-to-I (or A-to-

G) editing in plant mRNAs, and their functional impacts, comprise a barely-explored area within

plant molecular biology, which seems likely to yield new discoveries upon further investigation.

Nanopore native RNA sequencing methods, recently used by Nguyen et. al. (2022) to globally

identify inosine in human, mouse, and *Xenopus* transcriptomes, might be applied fruitfully to

plant transcriptomes with the same aim.

Conclusions

Mimulus luteus var. *luteus* and *M. l. variegatus* differ strikingly in floral phenotype, thanks to a

derived loss of yellow carotenoid pigment and gain of magenta cyanidin pigment in the latter.

The expansion of cyanidin to the petal lobes of *M. l. variegatus* has previously been tracked to

the *MYB5a* transcription factor gene, for which the patterns of petal expression correlate well

with the presence versus absence of cyanidin pigment. Here, we use transient transgenics in *N.*

tabacum, coupled with quantitative digital image analysis, to show that the protein-coding region

of *MYB5a* from the high-anthocyanin *M. l. variegatus* does not show any increased anthocyanin-

activation ability (in fact, the reverse) compared to the orthologous sequence from the low-

anthocyanin *M. l. luteus*. This finding adds further support to the hypothesis that evolution in *cis*

to *MYB5a* is the molecular mechanism for the gain of this novel anthocyanin trait in *M. l.*

variegatus.

We additionally report the discovery of what appears to be post-transcriptional mRNA editing.

The edits are reported as A-to-G by Sanger sequencing, but we argue that A-to-I editing is more

likely based on what is known about RNA editing in plants and other organisms. Overall, our

work highlights the utility of floral diversification for identifying the molecular mechanisms of

evolution, as well as the scope for continued new discoveries in the realm of plant molecular

genetics.

Acknowledgements and Funding

The authors thank N. Forsthoefel, B. Ding, and Y.-W. Yuan for assistance with and advice on

the transgenic techniques. We thank D. Vernon, B. Moss, J. Puzey, and their students for

discussion of some of the results presented here. AMC was supported by NSF-DEB-1655311,

NSF-DEB-1754075, and NSF-IOS-2031272. AEP was additionally supported by a Whitman

College Abshire Award for undergraduate research.

703 References

Barker, W. R., G. L. Nesom, P. M. Beardsley, and N. S. Fraga. 2012. A taxonomic

conspectus of Phrymaceae: a narrowed circumscription for Mimulus, new and

resurrected genera, and new names and combinations. Phytoneuron 39:1–60.

Bar-Yaacov, D., E. Mordret, R. Towers, T. Biniashvili, C. Soyris, S. Schwartz, O. Dahan,

and Y. Pilpel. 2017. RNA editing in bacteria recodes multiple proteins and regulates an

evolutionarily conserved toxin-antitoxin system. Genome Res. 27:1696–1703.

Bass, B. L., and H. Weintraub. 1988. An unwinding activity that covalently modifies its

double-stranded RNA substrate. Cell 55:1089–1098.

Beardsley, P. M., and R. G. Olmstead. 2002. Redefining Phrymaceae: the placement of

Mimulus, tribe Mimuleae, and *Phryma*. Am. J. Bot. 89:1093–1102.

Cattenoz, P. B., R. J. Taft, E. Westhof, and J. S. Mattick. 2013. Transcriptome-wide

identification of A > I RNA editing sites by inosine specific cleavage. RNA 19:257–270.

Chan, C. T. Y., M. Dyavaiah, M. S. DeMott, K. Taghizadeh, P. C. Dedon, and T. J. Begley.

2010. A Quantitative Systems Approach Reveals Dynamic Control of tRNA

Modifications during Cellular Stress. PLoS Genet 6:e1001247.

Cooley, A. M., G. Carvallo, and J. H. Willis. 2008. Is Floral Diversification Associated with

Pollinator Divergence? Flower Shape, Flower Colour and Pollinator Preference in

Chilean Mimulus. Annals of Botany 101:641–650.

Cooley, A. M., J. L. Modliszewski, M. L. Rommel, and J. H. Willis. 2011. Gene Duplication

in Mimulus Underlies Parallel Floral Evolution via Independent trans-Regulatory

Changes. Current Biology 21:700–704.

Cooley, A. M., and J. H. Willis. 2009. Genetic divergence causes parallel evolution of flower

color in Chilean *Mimulus*. New Phytologist 183:729–739.

Davies, K. M., N. W. Albert, and K. E. Schwinn. 2012. From landing lights to mimicry: the

molecular regulation of flower colouration and mechanisms for pigmentation patterning.

Functional Plant Biol. 39:619.

del Valle, J. C., A. Gallardo-López, M. L. Buide, J. B. Whittall, and E. Narbona. 2018. Digital

photography provides a fast, reliable, and noninvasive method to estimate anthocyanin

pigment concentration in reproductive and vegetative plant tissues. Ecol Evol 8:3064–

3076.

Delannoy, E., M. Le Ret, E. Faivre-Nitschke, G. M. Estavillo, M. Bergdoll, N. L. Taylor, B. J.

Pogson, I. Small, P. Imbault, and J. M. Gualberto. 2009. *Arabidopsis* tRNA Adenosine

Deaminase Arginine Edits the Wobble Nucleotide of Chloroplast tRNAArg(ACG) and Is

Essential for Efficient Chloroplast Translation. The Plant Cell 21:2058–2071.

Ding, B., and Y.-W. Yuan. 2016. Testing the utility of fluorescent proteins in Mimulus lewisii

by an Agrobacterium-mediated transient assay. Plant Cell Rep 35:771–777.

Dubos, C., R. Stracke, E. Grotewold, B. Weisshaar, C. Martin, and L. Lepiniec. 2010. MYB

transcription factors in Arabidopsis. Trends in Plant Science 15:573–581.

Durbin, M. 2003. Genes that determine flower color: the role of regulatory changes in the

evolution of phenotypic adaptations. Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution 29:507–

518.

Edger, P. P., R. Smith, M. R. McKain, A. M. Cooley, M. Vallejo-Marin, Y. Yuan, A. J.

Bewick, L. Ji, A. E. Platts, M. J. Bowman, K. L. Childs, J. D. Washburn, R. J. Schmitz,

G. D. Smith, J. C. Pires, and J. R. Puzey. 2017. Subgenome Dominance in an

Interspecific Hybrid, Synthetic Allopolyploid, and a 140-Year-Old Naturally Established

Neo-Allopolyploid Monkeyflower. Plant Cell 29:2150–2167.

Espley, R. V., C. Brendolise, D. Chagné, S. Kutty-Amma, S. Green, R. Volz, J. Putterill, H.

J. Schouten, S. E. Gardiner, R. P. Hellens, and A. C. Allan. 2009. Multiple Repeats of a

Promoter Segment Causes Transcription Factor Autoregulation in Red Apples. The

Plant Cell 21:168–183.

Feller, A., K. Machemer, E. L. Braun, and E. Grotewold. 2011. Evolutionary and

comparative analysis of MYB and bHLH plant transcription factors: Plant MYB and

bHLH factors. The Plant Journal 66:94–116.

Fraser, L. G., A. G. Seal, M. Montefiori, T. K. McGhie, G. K. Tsang, P. M. Datson, E.

Hilario, H. E. Marsh, J. K. Dunn, R. P. Hellens, K. M. Davies, M. A. McNeilage, H. N. D.

Silva, and A. C. Allan. 2013. An R2R3 MYB transcription factor determines red petal

colour in an Actinidia (kiwifruit) hybrid population. BMC Genomics 14:28.

Grantham, R. 1974. Amino Acid Difference Formula to Help Explain Protein Evolution.

Science 185:862–864.

Grotewold, E. 2006. The genetics and biochemistry of floral pigments. Annu. Rev. Plant

Biol. 57:761–780.

Gu, T., F. W. Buaas, A. K. Simons, C. L. Ackert-Bicknell, R. E. Braun, and M. A. Hibbs.

2012. Canonical A-to-I and C-to-U RNA Editing Is Enriched at 3′UTRs and microRNA

Target Sites in Multiple Mouse Tissues. PLoS ONE 7:e33720.

Hoekstra, H. E., and J. A. Coyne. 2007. The Locus of Evolution: Evo Devo and the

Genetics of Adaptation. Evolution 61:995–1016.

Kapila, J., R. De Rycke, M. Van Montagu, and G. Angenon. 1997. An Agrobacterium-

mediated transient gene expression system for intact leaves. Plant Science 122:101–

108.

Karcher, D., and R. Bock. 2009. Identification of the chloroplast adenosine-to-inosine tRNA

editing enzyme. RNA 15:1251–1257.

Knoop, V. 2011. When you can't trust the DNA: RNA editing changes transcript sequences.

Cell. Mol. Life Sci. 68:567–586.

Koes, R., W. Verweij, and F. Quattrocchio. 2005. Flavonoids: a colorful model for the

regulation and evolution of biochemical pathways. Trends in Plant Science 10:236–

242.

LaFountain, A. M., and Y. Yuan. 2021. Repressors of anthocyanin biosynthesis. New

Phytol 231:933–949.

Li, C., W. Yu, J. Xu, X. Lu, and Y. Liu. 2022. Anthocyanin Biosynthesis Induced by MYB

Transcription Factors in Plants. IJMS 23:11701.

Li, J. B., E. Y. Levanon, J.-K. Yoon, J. Aach, B. Xie, E. LeProust, K. Zhang, Y. Gao, and G.

M. Church. 2009a. Genome-Wide Identification of Human RNA Editing Sites by

Parallel DNA Capturing and Sequencing. Science 324:1210–1213.

Li, J.-F., E. Park, A. G. von Arnim, and A. Nebenführ. 2009b. The FAST technique: a

simplified Agrobacterium-based transformation method for transient gene expression

analysis in seedlings of Arabidopsis and other plant species. Plant Methods 5:6.

Lin-Wang, K., K. Bolitho, K. Grafton, A. Kortstee, S. Karunairetnam, T. K. McGhie, R. V.

Espley, R. P. Hellens, and A. C. Allan. 2010. An R2R3 MYB transcription factor

associated with regulation of the anthocyanin biosynthetic pathway in Rosaceae. BMC

Plant Biol 10:50.

Lloyd, A., A. Brockman, L. Aguirre, A. Campbell, A. Bean, A. Cantero, and A. Gonzalez.

"Advances in the MYB–BHLH–WD Repeat (MBW) pigment regulatory model: Addition

797   of a WRKY factor and co-pption of an anthocyanin MYB for betalain regulation." Plant

798   and Cell Physiology 58: 1431–41.

799  Lowry, D. B., J. M. Sobel, A. L. Angert, T. Ashman, R. L. Baker, B. K. Blackman, Y.

800   Brandvain, K. J. R. P. Byers, A. M. Cooley, J. M. Coughlan, M. R. Dudash, C. B.

801   Fenster, K. G. Ferris, L. Fishman, J. Friedman, D. L. Grossenbacher, L. M. Holeski, C.

802   T. Ivey, K. M. Kay, V. A. Koelling, N. J. Kooyers, C. J. Murren, C. D. Muir, T. C. Nelson,

803   M. L. Peterson, J. R. Puzey, M. C. Rotter, J. R. Seemann, J. P. Sexton, S. N. Sheth,

804   M. A. Streisfeld, A. L. Sweigart, A. D. Twyford, M. Vallejo-Marín, J. H. Willis, K. M.

805   Wright, C. A. Wu, and Y. Yuan. 2019. The case for the continued use of the genus

806   name *Mimulus* for all monkeyflowers. Taxon 68:617–623.

807  Meng, Y., D. Chen, Y. Jin, C. Mao, P. Wu, and M. Chen. 2010. RNA editing of nuclear

808   transcripts in Arabidopsis thaliana. BMC Genomics 11:S12.

809  Montefiori, M., C. Brendolise, A. P. Dare, K. Lin-Wang, K. M. Davies, R. P. Hellens, and A.

810   C. Allan. 2015. In the Solanaceae, a hierarchy of bHLHs confer distinct target

811   specificity to the anthocyanin regulatory complex. Journal of Experimental Botany

812   66:1427–1436.

813  Nguyen, T. A., J. W. J. Heng, P. Kaewsapsak, E. P. L. Kok, D. Stanojević, H. Liu, A.

814   Cardilla, A. Praditya, Z. Yi, M. Lin, J. G. A. Aw, Y. Y. Ho, K. L. E. Peh, Y. Wang, Q.

815   Zhong, J. Heraud-Farlow, S. Xue, B. Reversade, C. Walkley, Y. S. Ho, M. Šikić, Y.

816   Wan, and M. H. Tan. 2022. Direct identification of A-to-I editing sites with nanopore

817   native RNA sequencing. Nat Methods 19:833–844.

818  Pan, Y., M. Li, J. Huang, W. Pan, T. Shi, Q. Guo, G. Yang, and X. Nie. 2022. Genome-

819   Wide Identification and Characterization of RNA/DNA Differences Associated with

820   Drought Response in Wheat. IJMS 23:1405.

821  Puzey, J. R., J. H. Willis, and J. K. Kelly. 2017. Population structure and local selection

822   yield high genomic variation in *Mimulus guttatus*. Mol Ecol 26:519–535.

Quattrocchio, F., W. Verweij, A. Kroon, C. Spelt, J. Mol, and R. Koes. 2006. PH4 of Petunia

Is an R2R3 MYB Protein That Activates Vacuolar Acidification through Interactions with

Basic-Helix-Loop-Helix Transcription Factors of the Anthocyanin Pathway. The Plant

Cell 18:1274–1291.

Sakurai, M., T. Yano, H. Kawabata, H. Ueda, and T. Suzuki. 2010. Inosine cyanoethylation

identifies A-to-I RNA editing sites in the human transcriptome. Nat Chem Biol 6:733–

740.

Schöb, H., C. Kunz, and F. Meins. 1997. Silencing of transgenes introduced into leaves by

agroinfiltration: a simple, rapid method for investigating sequence requirements for

gene silencing. Mol Gen Genet 256:581–585.

Sobel, J. M., and M. A. Streisfeld. 2013. Flower color as a model system for studies of plant

evo-devo. Front. Plant Sci. 4.

Sparkes, I. A., J. Runions, A. Kearns, and C. Hawes. 2006. Rapid, transient expression of

fluorescent fusion proteins in tobacco plants and generation of stably transformed

plants. Nat Protoc 1:2019–2025.

Srinivasan, S., A. G. Torres, and L. Ribas de Pouplana. 2021. Inosine in Biology and

Disease. Genes 12:600.

Stern, D. L., and V. Orgogozo. 2008. The Loci of Evolution: How Predictable Is Genetic

Evolution? Evolution 62:2155–2177.

Stracke, R., M. Werber, and B. Weisshaar. 2001. The R2R3-MYB gene family in

Arabidopsis thaliana. Current Opinion in Plant Biology 4:447–456.

Streisfeld, M. A., and M. D. Rausher. 2011. Population genetics, pleiotropy, and the

preferential fixation of mutations during adaptive evolution. Evolution 65:629–642.

Teichert, I. 2018. Adenosine to inosine mRNA editing in fungi and how it may relate to

fungal pathogenesis. PLoS Pathog 14:e1007231.

Tian, J., J. Zhang, Z. Han, T. Song, J. Li, Y. Wang, and Y. Yao. 2017. McMYB12

Transcription Factors Co-regulate Proanthocyanidin and Anthocyanin Biosynthesis in

Malus Crabapple. Sci Rep 7:43715.

Wittkopp, P. J., B. K. Haerum, and A. G. Clark. 2008. Regulatory changes underlying

expression differences within and between Drosophila species. Nat Genet 40:346–350.

Wolf, J. 2002. tadA, an essential tRNA-specific adenosine deaminase from Escherichia coli.

The EMBO Journal 21:3841–3851.

Wray, G. A. 2007. The evolutionary significance of cis-regulatory mutations. Nat Rev Genet

8:206–216.

Wu, C. A., D. B. Lowry, A. M. Cooley, K. M. Wright, Y. W. Lee, and J. H. Willis. 2008.

Mimulus is an emerging model system for the integration of ecological and genomic

studies. Heredity 100:220–230.

Yang, Y., R. Li, and M. Qi. 2000. In vivo analysis of plant promoters and transcription

factors by agroinfiltration of tobacco leaves. Plant J 22:543–551.

Yuan, Y. 2019. Monkeyflowers (*Mimulus*): new model for plant developmental genetics

and evo-devo. New Phytol 222:694–700.

Yuan, Y.-W., K. J. Byers, and H. Bradshaw. 2013a. The genetic control of flower–pollinator

specificity. Current Opinion in Plant Biology 16:422–428.

Yuan, Y.-W., J. M. Sagawa, R. C. Young, B. J. Christensen, and H. D. Bradshaw. 2013b.

Genetic Dissection of a Major Anthocyanin QTL Contributing to Pollinator-Mediated

Reproductive Isolation Between Sister Species of *Mimulus*. Genetics 194:255–263.

Zheng, X., K. Om, K. A. Stanton, D. Thomas, P. A. Cheng, A. Eggert, E. Simmons, Y.-W.

Yuan, G. D. Conradi Smith, J. R. Puzey, and A. M. Cooley. 2021. The regulatory

network for petal anthocyanin pigmentation is shaped by the MYB5a/NEGAN

transcription factor in *Mimulus*. Genetics 217:iyaa036.

Zhou, W., D. Karcher, and R. Bock. 2014. Identification of Enzymes for Adenosine-to-

Inosine Editing and Discovery of Cytidine-to-Uridine Editing in Nucleus-Encoded

Transfer RNAs of Arabidopsis. Plant Physiol. 166:1985–1997.

Supplemental tables

Supplemental Table S1. Primers used. F and R in primer names indicate forward and reverse

primer directions with respect to the direction of transcription. *MYB5a* primers bind to both *M. l.*

variegatus and *M. l. luteus* alleles unless otherwise noted.

Primer ID	Sequence (5' to 3')	Target	Notes
att-R2	CACCACTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTG	pEARLEYGATE vector	
cacc_10F	CACCTTGCAGAGCATGGAAAACAC	MYB5a, end of 5'UTR through beginning of coding sequence	"cacc" tag enables directional cloning into entry vector
GAPDH_1F	TTGAAGGGAATCTTGGGCTA	GAPDH	used as a positive control
GAPDH_2R	CATTTGACGTACCATAAACGAGT	GAPDH	used as a positive control
M13F(-20)	GTAAAACGACGGCCAGT	pENTR entry vector	
M13R(-24)	AACAGCTATGACCATG	pENTR entry vector	

Myb5_10F	TTGCAGAGCATGGAAAACAC	MYB5a, end of 5'UTR through beginning of coding sequence	
Myb5_12F	TGTAGGTGTAAGAAAAGGTGCAT	Beginning of MYB5a Exon 1, luteus allele only	
Myb5_53R	TTAATTAGGCCCCAGTAGGC	End of MYB5a Exon 4, variegatus allele only	includes stop codon
Myb5_57R	CCATCTTCTGTCGTCGTAGTTTC	MYB5a Exon 4	can bind exon 3, though with 2 mismatches
Myb5_64F	GACGGCGGCGAAATTACT	MYB5a Exon 4	also binds exon 3, in luteus only
Myb5_69R	ATTAGGCCCCAGTAGGC	End of MYB5a Exon 4, variegatus allele only	does not include stop codon
pEG-35S-attB1_F	ACGCTCGAGATCACAAGTTT	pEARLEYGATE vector	

885 **Supplemental Table S2.** S_{green} pigment intensity data for all analyzed samples. Damaged

886 leaves were excluded from the dataset prior to analysis. A lower S_{green} value corresponds to a

887 greater intensity of red pigmentation. Each pair of *luteus* and *variegatus* transgenes that were

888 infiltrated into the same leaf also share an ID number. In the "Vis_red" column, 1 indicates

889 pigment intensity higher than the average for the negative controls.

ID	Treatment	Vis_red	Sgreen
19	luteus	1	0.45896124

20	luteus	1	0.47148911
21	luteus	1	0.46284725
22	luteus	1	0.47377697
23	luteus	1	0.44480534
24	luteus	1	0.47310128
25	luteus	1	0.46713436
28	luteus	1	0.46502909
30	luteus	1	0.46001506
32	luteus	1	0.47255904
33	luteus	1	0.41304113
34	luteus	1	0.4789886
36	luteus	1	0.45663214
38	luteus	1	0.46054921
39	luteus	1	0.49623173
42	luteus	0	0.50579161
43	luteus	1	0.47908797
44	luteus	1	0.49753298
45	luteus	1	0.48242528
46	luteus	1	0.47112646
48	luteus	0	0.50685166
49	luteus	1	0.48953625
51	luteus	1	0.4946138
52	luteus	1	0.50356411
53	luteus	0	0.51186847
54	luteus	1	0.48408803
55	luteus	1	0.48813383
56	luteus	1	0.49909275
57	luteus	1	0.48070741
58	luteus	1	0.48181555
59	luteus	1	0.48455214
60	luteus	1	0.49736191
62	luteus	1	0.49150095
63	luteus	1	0.4850712
64	luteus	1	0.48059246
65	luteus	1	0.47644334
68	luteus	1	0.48498292
70	luteus	1	0.49468007
71	luteus	1	0.5003172
73	luteus	1	0.48761652
94	luteus	1	0.50385092

95	luteus	1	0.49936115
96	luteus	1	0.48075892
98	luteus	1	0.48728567
99	luteus	1	0.5016936
101	luteus	0	0.50752067
102	luteus	1	0.4857078
104	luteus	1	0.49520219
107	luteus	1	0.48361114
108	luteus	1	0.46805803
128	luteus	0	0.50970645
129	luteus	1	0.49818394
130	luteus	1	0.49095988
131	luteus	1	0.49361628
132	luteus	1	0.49463075
133	luteus	1	0.50097837
134	luteus	0	0.50725935
135	luteus	1	0.50149842
136	luteus	1	0.5012832
137	luteus	1	0.49518309
138	luteus	1	0.502672
139	luteus	0	0.51151598
140	luteus	0	0.509741
141	luteus	0	0.50641157
142	luteus	0	0.51103531
143	luteus	1	0.49785915
144	luteus	1	0.50101639
145	luteus	0	0.51817363
146	luteus	1	0.49673595
147	luteus	1	0.49658392
148	luteus	1	0.50435194
149	luteus	1	0.49478991
150	luteus	1	0.50428831
151	luteus	1	0.49645666
152	luteus	0	0.52145751
153	luteus	0	0.50715806
154	luteus	1	0.4989888
157	luteus	0	0.5279056
158	luteus	0	0.51197026
161	luteus	1	0.48309196
162	luteus	1	0.49193773

167	luteus	1	0.48526353
168	luteus	1	0.49288641
169	luteus	1	0.48946587
170	luteus	1	0.49558514
171	luteus	1	0.48158542
172	luteus	1	0.48120953
173	luteus	1	0.49439967
174	luteus	1	0.50384465
175	luteus	0	0.5114833
176	luteus	1	0.49654562
177	luteus	1	0.48933943
178	luteus	1	0.49135485
179	luteus	1	0.49939164
180	luteus	0	0.51514498
181	luteus	0	0.51083798
182	luteus	0	0.50657476
183	luteus	1	0.50250531
19	variegatus	1	0.47568877
20	variegatus	1	0.48868988
21	variegatus	1	0.46880163
22	variegatus	1	0.476834
23	variegatus	1	0.47909708
24	variegatus	1	0.48677177
25	variegatus	1	0.46918763
28	variegatus	1	0.48686645
30	variegatus	1	0.48905031
32	variegatus	1	0.47155967
33	variegatus	1	0.46714941
34	variegatus	1	0.4838239
36	variegatus	1	0.46573637
38	variegatus	1	0.47379907
39	variegatus	1	0.48784078
42	variegatus	0	0.51741385
43	variegatus	1	0.4794843
44	variegatus	1	0.48321804
45	variegatus	1	0.48173758
46	variegatus	1	0.50040993
48	variegatus	0	0.52520581
49	variegatus	1	0.50306358
51	variegatus	1	0.49606229

52	variegatus	1	0.49970266
53	variegatus	0	0.50902986
54	variegatus	1	0.48608338
55	variegatus	1	0.49465192
56	variegatus	1	0.50304332
57	variegatus	0	0.50605713
58	variegatus	1	0.47967438
59	variegatus	1	0.50309228
60	variegatus	1	0.50266188
62	variegatus	1	0.49723691
63	variegatus	1	0.49567132
64	variegatus	1	0.48869598
65	variegatus	1	0.50188501
68	variegatus	0	0.50639038
70	variegatus	1	0.47943648
71	variegatus	1	0.48588973
73	variegatus	1	0.49556374
94	variegatus	0	0.51197658
95	variegatus	1	0.50227522
96	variegatus	1	0.48536213
98	variegatus	1	0.49801555
99	variegatus	0	0.50660931
101	variegatus	1	0.50401541
102	variegatus	1	0.49641449
104	variegatus	1	0.49945548
107	variegatus	1	0.48027251
108	variegatus	1	0.48198389
128	variegatus	0	0.52135956
129	variegatus	0	0.50577999
130	variegatus	1	0.49626116
131	variegatus	1	0.49693573
132	variegatus	1	0.49175623
133	variegatus	0	0.52033851
134	variegatus	0	0.5189482
135	variegatus	1	0.49854457
136	variegatus	0	0.51242068
137	variegatus	1	0.49919095
138	variegatus	0	0.50810671
139	variegatus	0	0.51677281
140	variegatus	0	0.50841716

141	variegatus	0	0.50649654
142	variegatus	0	0.51604924
143	variegatus	1	0.49630413
144	variegatus	0	0.51275691
145	variegatus	0	0.52673709
146	variegatus	1	0.49852838
147	variegatus	1	0.49625944
148	variegatus	0	0.50718913
149	variegatus	1	0.49693789
150	variegatus	0	0.50736216
151	variegatus	0	0.50968741
152	variegatus	0	0.52494794
153	variegatus	0	0.50955283
154	variegatus	1	0.50310402
157	variegatus	0	0.53515949
158	variegatus	0	0.50600882
161	variegatus	1	0.48170408
162	variegatus	1	0.49886199
167	variegatus	1	0.48870643
168	variegatus	1	0.50240691
169	variegatus	1	0.4864144
170	variegatus	1	0.50069586
171	variegatus	1	0.49361669
172	variegatus	1	0.4820093
173	variegatus	1	0.49556454
174	variegatus	0	0.51279883
175	variegatus	0	0.51206144
176	variegatus	1	0.49898868
177	variegatus	1	0.49354642
178	variegatus	1	0.49645237
179	variegatus	1	0.49709808
180	variegatus	0	0.51553433
181	variegatus	0	0.51572583
182	variegatus	0	0.51128091
183	variegatus	1	0.50510844
184	pGFP		0.52134394
185	pGFP		0.49493349
186	pGFP		0.50720189
187	pGFP		0.48427841
188	pGFP		0.50338806

189	pGFP	0.52251484
190	pGFP	0.50606369
191	pGFP	0.5069713
192	pGFP	0.51953843
193	pGFP	0.50197984
194	pGFP	0.52441718
195	pGFP	0.48660946
196	pGFP	0.50257154
197	pGFP	0.5067341
198	pGFP	0.48867401
199	pGFP	0.50075806
200	pGFP	0.49162335
201	pGFP	0.51551854
202	pGFP	0.50892671
203	pGFP	0.52311187
204	pGFP	0.52580258
205	pGFP	0.48691814
206	pGFP	0.50820532
207	pGFP	0.4929026
208	pGFP	0.50398024
209	pGFP	0.51763381
210	pGFP	0.50977392
211	pGFP	0.50713293
212	pGFP	0.52212015
213	pGFP	0.50461793
214	pGFP	0.51932389
215	pGFP	0.48918478
216	pGFP	0.49894963
217	pGFP	0.49885496
218	pGFP	0.48199319
219	pGFP	0.49959746
220	pGFP	0.49140784
221	pGFP	0.51215037
222	pGFP	0.50583205
223	pGFP	0.52408216

893   **Supplemental figures**

A

B

C

Supplemental Figure S1. *Mimulus cupreus MYB3a* and *MYB2* transcripts aligned to *M. luteus*

genomic sequence. A. *MYB3a*. Primers Myb2/3_1F and Myb3a_2R are shown in green. B.

MYB2.

Two *M. cupreus* transcripts were recovered from transcriptome sequence; the region in which

they diverge is labeled as "Cupreus 1" and "Cupreus 2," possibly corresponding to alternative

splice variants. Primers Myb 2_1F and Myb 2b_5R shown in green. These primers are expected

to amplify only transcript 2. C. The same *MYB2* transcripts with primers Myb 2_1F and Myb

2b_7R shown in green.

Supplemental Figure S2. Primers Myb 2/3_1F and Myb 3a_2R were used to amplify a portion

of *Myb3a* exon 3, encoding a transcription factor gene that is one of two candidates for the gain

of petal anthocyanin pigmentation in the orange-flowered morph of *M. cupreus* (Cooley et al.,

2011). The recent loss of pigmentation in the rare yellow morph of *M. cupreus* also maps to the

same region. A product of the expected length (300 bp) was amplified out of gDNA for both

orange and yellow-flowered *M. cupreus.* The product was also amplified out of cDNA for both

inner and outer petal tissue from both morphs, indicating that Myb 3a **is** expressed in all of

these tissues.

Supplemental Figure S3. Primers Myb 2_1F and Myb 2b_5R were used to amplify a portion of

Myb2 transcript 2, exon 3, encoding a transcription factor gene that is the second of two

candidates for the derived gain of petal anthocyanin pigmentation in the orange-flowered morph

of *M. cupreus*, and the even more recent loss of petal anthocyanin in the rare yellow morph. A

product of expected length (around 450 bp) was amplified out of orange-flowered *M. cupreus*

gDNA. The product was also amplified out of cDNA from both inner and outer petal from

orange-flowered *M. cupreus,* indicating that it is expressed in the orange morph. However, no

product of the expected length was amplified out of yellow-flowered *M. cupreus* gDNA. Several

longer products were amplified less brightly, and are likely due to nonspecific annealing. No

product was seen in the yellow-flowered petal cDNA either.

935

Supplemental Figure S4. Primers Myb 2_1F and Myb 2b_7R were used to amplify a region of

Myb2 extending from the beginning of the third exon through the beginning of the predicted

fourth exon. The expected length of the product spanning the third intron of Myb2 was estimated

to be approximately 1050 bp based on the *M. luteus* genome. A PCR amplification done using

standard Taq polymerase showed bands at 1050 bp and 1500 bp in orange-flowered *M.*

cupreus gDNA and at 950 bp and 1300 bp in yellow-flowered *M. cupreus* gDNA. Amplification

using long-amp Taq polymerase revealed that a 950 bp product was also present in gDNA from

orange-flowered *M. cupreus*. Sequencing of these products showed that the 1050 bp fragment

from orange *M. cupreus* corresponds to *Myb2*, while the two bands seen in yellow *M. cupreus*

contain sequences with no resemblance to any anthocyanin-related Myb gene. In orange-

flowered *M. cupreus* cDNA from both inner and outer petal, a product of approximately 430 bp

was amplified. This indicates that the transcript is spliced as expected, and is expressed in inner

and outer petal tissue of orange-flowered *M. cupreus.* No product was observed in the

amplification out of yellow-flowered *M. cupreus* petal cDNA, indicating that the Myb 2b transcript

is not expressed in yellow *M. cupreus* petals.

A

B

Supplemental Figure S5. Screen for GFP fluorescence in transfected *N. tabacum* and *M. lewisii* leaves. Fluorescence microscopy was performed on a Jenco GL7-3L zoom stereo microscope (Jenco International, Portland, OR, USA) equipped with a NIGHTSEA green filter (NIGHTSEA LLC, Lexington, MA, USA). Light was provided by both a full-spectrum light source supplied with the microscope as well as an external NIGHTSEA ultraviolet light (UV) light source, which was used to excite fluorescence in tissue infiltrated with GFP-expressing plasmids. Leaves infiltrated with pGFPGUSPlus were used as a positive control; leaves infiltrated with a mock control and YFP-expressing pEARLEYGATE101 with *M. l. luteus Myb5a* CDS were used as negative controls. A) Fluorescence microscopy with *Nicotiana tabacum* leaves. Left, two replicates treated with 5% sucrose; middle, two replicates treated with pEARLEYGATE101 with *M. l. luteus Myb5a* CDS in *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*; right, two

replicates treated with pGFPGUSPlus in *A. tumefaciens*. Top row, visual spectrum light source;

bottom row, UV source. Some leaves imaged with visual spectrum light source appear dimmer;

this is an artifact caused by the inadvertent use of a different light setting. Red circles

correspond to injection sites. B) Fluorescence microscopy with *Mimulus lewisii* leaves. Left, two

replicates treated with 5% sucrose; right, two replicates treated with pGFPGUSPlus in *A.*

tumefaciens. Top row, visual spectrum light source; bottom row, UV source. Red circles

correspond to injection sites. Note apparent tissue damage at edge of leaves treated with

pGFPGUSPlus (red arrows).

Supplemental Figure S6. Alleles of *MYB5a* from the yellow-petaled *M. l. luteus* (top sequence

on each line) and the magenta-petaled (anthocyanin-pigmented) *M. l. variegatus* (bottom

sequence on each line). Primers mentioned in the Methods are shown in dark green (forward

primers) and light green (reverse primers). Exons are marked in gray. Two putative A-to-I

editing sites are marked in yellow. Note that Subgroup 6, which is a hallmark of all known

anthocyanin-activating R2R3 MYBs, is present in both taxa in exon 4 as the amino acid

sequence RPRPRTF. In exon 3, however, a frameshift mutation in *M. l. variegatus* eliminates

this feature, making it unlikely that the exon 1-2-3 splice variant of *M. l. variegatus* would be

capable of anthocyanin activation.

A

B

Supplemental Figure S7. pGEM Cloning of an exon 4 fragment of *MYB5a*. A fragment

containing the first edited site was PCR-amplified using primers 64F-57R and cloned, and

colonies were screened for fragment insertion. Lanes with band size ~500 bp are colonies that

contain the *MYB5a* exon 4 insert. Lanes with bands ~300 denote empty vectors. (A) Primers

M13_F (-47) and M13_R (-28) were used to screen white colonies from a pGEM cloning attempt

with *M. l. variegatus* x *M. l. luteus* F1 hybrid gDNA. 16 colonies appear to have taken up the

MYB5 exon 4 insert. (B) Primers M13_F (-47) and M13_R (-28) were used to screen white

colonies from a pGEM cloning attempt with Mlv gDNA. 15 colonies appear to have successfully

taken up the insert. The band at ~650bp most likely denotes a vector with a longer, incorrect

insert.

1001

1002

Supplemental Figure S8. Relative expression of *MYB5a* in *M. l. variegatus* and *M. l. luteus*.

Left: positive control using GAPDH primers 1F-2R, on each of the samples shown on the right.

Right: An exon 4 fragment of *MYB5a* amplified using Myb5_64F and Myb5_57R from cDNA

from *M. l. variegatus* inner petal (1) and outer petal (2); the red-spotted *M. l. luteus* inner petal

(3); and the yellow *M. l. luteus* outer petal (4). NTC, No Template Control. All band sizes were

as expected.

1009

1010

Supplemental Figure S9. Leaf photos utilized in quantitative comparisons of anthocyanin

production. Photos excluded due to leaf damage are not included. A. pGFP negative controls,

with two transgene injections per leaf. B. Leaves for which the *M. l. variegatus MYB5a* exon 1-2-

4 transgene was injected on the left side of the leaf and the *M. l. luteus* allele on the right. C.

Leaves for which the *M. l. variegatus MYB5a* exon 1-2-4 transgene was injected on the right

side of the leaf and the *M. l. luteus* allele on the left. Files uploaded separately.

1017

1018

1019