# Genetic analysis and molecular mapping of *Rp*, a mutant gene encoding red pericarp in rice (*Oryza sativa* L.)

Jiping Tong\*, Zhengshu Han, Aonan Han

Crop Institute, Tianjin Academy of Agricultural Sciences, Tianjin, P.R. China

\*Corresponding author: tongjiping@sina.com

**Citation:** Tong J., Han Z., Han A. (2021): Genetic analysis and molecular mapping of *Rp*, a mutant gene encoding red pericarp in rice (*Oryza sativa* L.). Czech J. Genet. Plant Breed., 57: 51–57.

**Abstract:** Coloured rice has pigments deposited in the grain pericarp; red rice is the most common type of coloured rice. Red rice is rich in essential nutrients and has been grown and consumed in China for a long time. In this study, we report the genetic characterisation and preliminary molecular mapping of a mutant gene encoding red pericarp in rice ( $Oryza\ sativa\ L$ .). To analyse the genetic basis of the red pericarp mutant, a reciprocal cross between GER-3 (red pericarp, indica cv.) and 898 (white pericarp, indica cv.) was made. The genetic analysis results confirmed that there was only one dominant gene, temporarily designated  $Rp\ (Red\ pericarp)$  controlling the segregation of the red pericarp in the  $F_2$  population. For the molecular mapping of Rp, an  $F_2$  population derived from an inter-subspecific cross between Gene Engineering Rice-3 (GER-3) and C418 (japonica cv., white pericarp) was constructed. The genotype of the pericarp colour of the  $F_2$  individuals in the mapping population was validated by progeny testing of the  $F_{2:3}$  families. Simple sequence repeat (SSR) markers and the bulked segregation analysis (BSA) method were used;  $Rp\$ was mapped to the short arm of chromosome 7 between the SSR markers RM21182 and RM21268, with a genetic distance of 3.5 and 12.0 cM, respectively. In this paper, the potential origin of the red pericarp mutant gene  $Rp\$ was also discussed.

Keywords: gene mapping; genetic characteristics analysis; coloured rice; red pericarp mutant

Most of the cultivated rice (*Oryza sativa*) consumed and grown worldwide has a white pericarp, but rice producing grains with red, purple, and brown pericarps is also common (Sweeney et al. 2006). Coloured rice has pigments deposited in the grain pericarp; red rice is the most common type of coloured rice. Among the wild ancestors of cultivated rice (*Oryza rufipogon*), a red pericarp is ubiquitous and, in some regions, is preferred for its ceremonial or medicinal value, texture, and taste (Sweeney et al. 2006; Finocchiaro et al. 2007; Qiu et al. 2010; Gunaratne et al. 2013; Mbanjo et al. 2020).

The red pigment in rice grains is due to the presence of proanthocyanidins (Oki et al. 2002). Proanthocya-

nidins provide nutritional value and are produced by a branch of the anthocyanin pathway and share many of the same biosynthetic genes (Ling et al. 2001; Winkel-Shirley 2001). Proanthocyanidins also serve as powerful antioxidants to reduce atherosclerotic plaque formation (Ling et al. 2001). Proanthocyanidins have been shown to have important deterrent effects on pathogens and predators (Bate-Smith 1973; Swain 1978; Scalbert 1991).

White rice was derived from the ancestral red rice by mutations in the *Rc* gene, which encodes an upregulator of proanthocyanidin expression in the seed. Two mutations are responsible for the white trait of rice (Sweeney et al. 2006). The mutations were pre-

Supported by the National Nature Science Foundation of China (31071396), the Key Projects of the Nature Science Foundation of Tianjin Municipality (11JCZDJC17400), and the President Nature Science Foundation of the Tianjin Academy of Agricultural Science (09012).

dicted to be in exon 6 but were shown to be in exon 7 in the *Rc* locus for all the white rice studied (Sweeney et al. 2006; Furukawa et al. 2007). A single nucleotide polymorphism causes the premature termination of the Rc protein before the bHLH domain, and a 14-bp deletion results in a frame shift to a nonsense codon, finally resulting in a white pericarp (Sweeney et al. 2006; Furukawa et al. 2007).

Due to its health-promoting benefits, red rice has become increasingly popular. In recent decades, although several red rice varieties have been developed based on conventional breeding (Sharma et al. 2014; Zhang et al. 2015), most cultivated red rice varieties suffer from a low yield or other poor agronomic traits. Thus, the development of elite varieties would be of great significance for the production of red rice to meet the growing market.

In this paper, GER-3, an indica red pericarp mutant line possessed multiple desirable characteristics, and C418, a japonica white pericarp line was introduced for the genetic analysis and molecular mapping of *Rp* (Bao et al. 1994; Zhang & Yang 2006).

### MATERIAL AND METHODS

Origins and genetic analysis of GER-3, a red pericarp mutant. By introducing the total genetic DNA of the maize donor, Yijingbai (maize cv., white pericarp), into the embryo of the rice receptor, Xiangzaoxian8 (indica cv., white pericarp), by means of embryo soaking, Gene Engineering Rice-3 (GER-3), a red pericarp mutant among the descendants of the trans-genetic line of maize-rice, was isolated in the maize-rice transgenic breeding programme (Bao et al. 1994).

Because it possessed multiple desirable characteristics, GER-3 was released widely for rice field production.

To analyse the genetic basis of the red pericarp mutant, a reciprocal cross between GER-3 (red pericarp, indica cv.) and 898 (white pericarp, indica cv.) was made. The plant materials of GER-3, 898 and the reciprocal  $F_1$  and  $F_2$  were field planted at the experiment station.

**Mapping population development.** To mapping the Rp, an inter-subspecific cross between GER-3, the red pericarp mutant (indica cv., red pericarp) and C418 (japonica cv., white pericarp) was made, and an  $F_2$  population derived from this cross was constructed. The  $F_2$  individuals derived from this inter-subspecific cross were selfed to obtain the

 $F_{2:3}$  families. Genotypes of the  $F_2$  individuals can be deduced using the  $F_{2:3}$  population.

Field planting and trait recording. The plant materials were planted in the field during the rice-growing seasons at the experimental stations in Hefei (31°N, 117°E), Sanya (18°N, 109°E), and Tianjin (39°N, 117°E), China. The planting spacing was 13.3 cm between the plants in a row and 16.7 cm between the rows with 11 plants per row. The field management followed the local agricultural practices. The irrigation of the field was maintained to avoid drought stress (Yang & Tu 2003). The pericarp colour of these materials was recorded after harvest in autumn.

DNA extraction and PCR analysis. The genomic DNA was extracted from the fresh leaves of individuals in the F<sub>2</sub> mapping population using the modified cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB) method (Doyle & Doyle 1987; Ragers & Bendich 1998). Nearly 2000 SSR markers selected from 12 rice chromosomes were used to mapping the *Rp* (http://www. gramene. org; International Rice Genome Sequencing Project 2005). The polymerase chain reactions (PCRs) consisted of 2.5 mL of a 10× reaction buffer with (NH4)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, 100 mM, 2.0 mL MgCl<sub>2</sub> (25 mM), 1.0 mL dNTPs (10.0 mM), 1.0-unit Taq DNA polymerase (Takara Bio (Dalian) Inc., Japan), 100 ng template DNA and 1.5 mL of primer (10 mM), in a final volume of 25.0 mL with distilled water, and then covered with a drop of mineral oil. The PCR amplification was performed with the T100TMPCR (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, USA). The amplifications were performed using the following profile: 94 °C for 5 min, 35 cycles of 94 °C for 1 min, 55 °C for 1 min and 72 °C for 1 min, with a final extension at 72 °C for 5 min. The amplification products were analysed on 4% agarose gels stained with ethidium bromide and photographed using the Gel Doc 2000 system (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, USA). The amplification products were further analysed on 6% polyacrylamide gels stained with 0.1% silver nitrate, when necessary.

**BSA** and mapping of the red pericarp mutant gene Rp. The bulked segregant analysis (BSA) method (Michelmore et al. 1991) was used to identify the polymorphic molecular markers linked to the mutant gene Rp in this study. The genomic DNA from 30 red pericarp individuals and 30 white pericarp individuals in the  $F_2$  segregated progenies was pooled to create the red pericarp and white pericarp DNA bulks, respectively. The parental DNA and the two bulks were used for the BSA. The markers

were examined for polymorphism between GER-3 and C418. The polymorphic markers from the two parents were screened against the two DNA bulks, and the polymorphic markers between the two DNA bulks were screened against the entire  $F_2$  segregated population. Polymorphic markers were used for the linkage analysis with the pericarp colour genotype. The pericarp colour of the  $F_2$  individuals in the population was validated by progeny testing of  $F_{2:3}$ .

 $\chi^2$  test of the goodness of the fit was applied to analyse the segregation ratio in the population (Gai 2000). To determine the linkage relationship between the Rp locus and the molecular markers, the genotype of the pericarp colour was combined with the DNA marker data for the linkage analysis. The linkage analysis was conducted using the Mapmaker/Exp 3.0 program at a logarithm of the odds (LOD) threshold of 3.0 to construct a local genetic map for the Rp genomic region. The map distance between the marker and the red pericarp colour gene was estimated by the Kosambi mapping function (Lincoln et al. 1992).

#### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Genetic analysis of Rp gene. The genetic results revealed that the pericarp colour of the reciprocal  $F_1$  was red for all the red individuals, exhibiting the same red pericarp as that of the GER-3 parent, which was significantly different from that of the white pericarp parent 898 (Figure 1). No segregation of the pericarp colour within one plant (panicle) was founded, because the tissue of the pericarp grain is completely identical to the mother plant, and it is the rest of the cover tissue of the pistil that has not undergone the process of fertilisation.

In the [GER-3 × 898]/ $F_2$  population, there was segregation in the pericarp colour (Figure 1). Of the 1034 individuals, 759 individuals had a red pericarp and 275 individuals had a white pericarp; the segregation ratio of the red pericarp individuals to the white pericarp individuals was 2.76:1, which was a good fit to a 3:1 ratio ( $\chi_c^2 = 1.3204 < 3.84$ , P > 0.05, Table 1; Gai 2000).



Figure 1. Phenotypes of red pericarp mutants Top row, left to right: seeds from 898, [898  $\times$  GER-3]/F<sub>1</sub>, [GER-3  $\times$  898]/F<sub>1</sub> and GER-3; bottom row, left to right: seeds from [898  $\times$  GER-3]/F<sub>2</sub>, and [GER-3  $\times$  898]/F<sub>2</sub>

A similar segregation ratio of the red pericarp to white pericarp individuals was obtained in the reciprocal F<sub>2</sub> population between GER-3 and 898 in another trial. In the [GER-3  $\times$  898]/ $F_2$  population, of the 766 individuals, 537 individuals had a red pericarp and 229 individuals had a white pericarp. In the  $[898 \times GER-3]/F_2$  population, of the 1 625 individuals, 971 individuals had a red pericarp and 294 individuals had a white pericarp. Combining the data for the reciprocal F<sub>2</sub> population, the segregation ratio of the red pericarp individuals to the white pericarp individuals was 2.867:1, which was also a good fit to a 3:1 ratio ( $\chi_c^2 = 0.5713 < 3.84$ , P > 0.05, Table 1; Gai 2000). The result indicated that only a single dominant gene is responsible for the red pericarp of GER-3 and that the red pericarp expression of the mutant gene Rp is not affected by the cytoplasm.

**Mapping population development.** To mapping the red pericarp mutant gene *Rp*, an inter-subspecific cross was carried out between the mutant GER-3 (indica rice cultivar, red pericarp) and C418 (japonica

Table 1. The results of the  $\chi^2$  test of the  $F_2$  population for the genetic analysis of the Rp

F <sub>2</sub> population	Year	Total	Red	White	Red/white ratio	$\chi^2_c$	P
$[GER-3 \times 898]/F_2$	2002	1 034	759	275	2.76:1	1.3204	> 0.05
$[GER\text{-}3\times898]/F_2$	2003-2005	766	537	229	2.067.1	0.5712	. 0.05
$[898 \times \text{GER-3}]/\text{F}_2$	2003-2005	1 625	971	294	2.867:1	0.5713	> 0.05

Table 2. The results of the $\chi^2$ test of the $F_2$ population for the $Rp$ mapping	Table 2. The	results of the $\chi^2$	test of the F2 I	population for	r the $Rp$ mapping
--	--------------	-------------------------	------------------	----------------	--------------------

Population	Total	Red	White	Red/white ratio	$\chi^2_{\rm c}$	P
$[GER-3 \times C418]/F_2$	864	626	238	2.288:1	0.9698	> 0.05
$[C418 \times GER-3]/F_2$	679	514	165	2.200:1		> 0.05

rice line, white pericarp), and an  $F_2$  mapping population was developed. In the  $F_2$  mapping population and the  $F_{2:3}$  progenies derived from  $F_2$  individuals, segregation in the pericarp colour occurred.

In the [GER-3 × C418]/ $F_2$  population, of the 864 individuals, 626 had a red pericarp and 238 had a white pericarp, and in the [C418 × GER-3]/ $F_2$  population, of the 679 individuals, 514 had a red pericarp and 165 had a white pericarp. Combining the data, of the 1 543 individuals in the  $F_2$  segregation population, 1 140 had a red pericarp and 403 had a white pericarp. The segregation ratio of the red pericarp individuals to the white pericarp individuals was 2.8288:1, which was an excellent fit with the segregation ratio of 3:1 ( $\chi_c^2 = 0.9698 < 3.84$ , P > 0.05, Table 2; Gai 2000).

In the  $[C418 \times GER-3]/F_{2:3}$  progeny, the populations could be categorised into three groups according to the pericarp colour. Group 1, derived from the homozygous red pericarp F2 individuals, exhibited red pericarp non-segregation; 81 F<sub>2:3</sub> progenies were categorised in this group. Group 2, derived from the heterozygote red pericarp F2 individuals, showed continued segregation and resulted in both red pericarp and white pericarp individuals; 141 F<sub>2:3</sub> progenies were categorised in this group. Group 3, derived from the homozygous white pericarp  $F_2$  individuals, exhibited white pericarp non-segregation; 77 F<sub>2:3</sub> progeny were categorised in this group. The ratio of group 1 to group 2 progeny was 0.57447. The ratio of the segregating red pericarp F<sub>2:3</sub> progenies to the non-segregating red pericarp F<sub>2:3</sub> progeny showed a good fit to 2:1 ( $\chi_c^2 = 0.8565 < 3.84$ , P > 0.05, Figure 2; Gai 2000). The results confirmed that there was only one dominant gene, temporarily designated Rp (Red pericarp) controlling the segregation of the red pericarp in the F<sub>2</sub> mapping population. Because the genetic background of the individuals in the segregation population derived from the inter-subspecific cross is very different, the segregation population is especially suitable for the primary mapping of *Rp*.

Preliminary mapping of the red pericarp mutant gene Rp. A total of 119  $F_2$  individuals in the mapping population were selected for the preliminary mapping of the red pericarp mutant gene Rp. Nearly

2 000 SSR markers selected from 12 rice chromosomes were tested (http://www.gramene.org). Initially, the markers were examined for polymorphism between GER-3 and C418. Then, the polymorphic markers were screened against the white DNA bulks, and finally, the polymorphic markers between the white DNA bulks were screened against the entire  $F_2$  mapping population. Polymorphic markers were used for co-segregation analysis with the pericarp colour genotype.

By using SSR markers and the BSA approach, the red pericarp mutant gene *Rp* was finally mapped to the short arm of chromosome 7 at the interval between two SSR markers RM21182 and RM21268, with a genetic distance of 3.5 and 12.0 cM (Figure 3), respectively.

**Potential sources of the red pericarp mutant gene** *Rp.* The study provides important information for the better understanding of the genetics and molecular biology of the red pericarp and for the better management of the features associated with red rice. Lee et al. (2009) identified a genetic difference between the cultivar Perla and its natural red rice mutant Perla Rosso in the *Rc* gene. Lost by the original 14-bp deletion that gave rise to white rice,

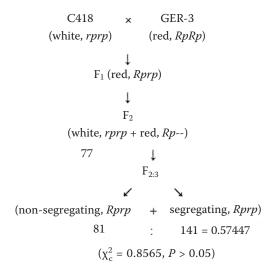


Figure 2. Results of the  $\chi^2$  test of the progeny testing of the red pericarp lines of the  $F_{2:3}$  families

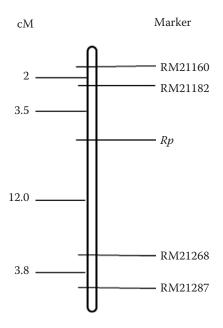


Figure 3. Preliminary mapping of the *Rp* gene on the short arm of chromosome 7

the deletion of a G base restores the reading frame for the *Rc* gene. A new allele that arose by natural mutation within the *Rc* pseudogene of the cultivar Wells has been identified by Brooks et al. (2008); the mutation restored the reading frame of the gene and reverted the bran layer pigmentation to red (wild-type). Both restorative mutations of the red pericarp gene occurred independently, which might suggest that such events may not be rare.

The red pericarp mutant gene *Rp* represents a novel germplasm resource for rice specialty breeding. In the process of exploring the potential sources of the red pericarp mutant gene *Rp*, we first considered an outcross as leading to the red pericarp in GER-3. However, there was no red pericarp rice cultivars planted in the experiment field (Bao et al. 1994). In the maize-rice transgenic breeding programme, the colour of the pericarp of Yijingbai, the maize donor, is white; thus, the assumption that the red pericarp mutant gene *Rp* originated from the maize donor was also rejected.

The red pericarp mutant gene Rp was mapped to the region between the SSR markers RM21182 and RM21268 and is located in the same vicinity of the Rc gene (Os07g0211500) on the short arm of chromosome 7 (Sweeney et al. 2006). In addition, the chalcone synthase gene (Os07g0214900) in the Rp region may function for the anthocyanin biosynthesis (Tsutsui et al. 2012). Referring to the two restorative muta-

tions of the red pericarp gene reported by Brooks et al. (2008) and Lee et al. (2009), it was deduced that the potential origin of *Rp* may be a gene mutation associated with the anthocyanin in the tissue culture or transgenic process in the maize-rice transgenic breeding programme. Of course, the above hypothesis needs to be further studied and confirmed.

Studies on red rice. Extensive research has been previously conducted the inheritance and mechanism of the underlying red colouration in the rice pericarp. Using classical genetic analysis, two loci, Rc (brown pericarp and seed coat) and Rd (red pericarp and seed coat), have been identified. Rc and Rd are inherited monogenically, and they were mapped on chromosome 7 and on chromosome 1, respectively (Nagao & Takahashi 1947; Dong et al. 2008). The red pericarp in rice is controlled by the complementary effect of two major genes; the Rd gene increases the pigment content in the pericarp and the Rc gene is responsible for the accumulation of the pigments (Nagao et al. 1957). Studies have shown that: (1) Rd alone has no phenotype; (2) in the absence of Rd, Rc produces brown seeds; and (3) when Rc and Rd are both present, these loci produce a red seed colour (Kato & Ishikawa 1921). Furukawa et al. (2007) reported that Rc and Rd were involved in the proanthocyanidin synthesis in the red pericarp of rice (Dong et al. 2008). The Rd gene encodes a dihydroflavonol-4reductase (DFR) protein (Furukawa et al. 2007), and the Rc gene encodes a transacting regulatory factor with a basic helix-loop-helix (bHLH) motif (Sweeney et al. 2006). Zhu et al. (2019) developed a CRISPR/Cas9-mediated method to functionally restore the recessive Rc allele through reverting the 14-bp frame-shift deletion to in-frame mutations in which the deletions were in multiples of three bases, and successfully converted three elite white pericarp rice varieties into red ones (Zhu et al. 2019). The red rice discussed in this paper, is not the same as purple rice. The phenotype of purple rice is controlled by other Pb (synonym Prp-b) and Pp (synonym Prp-a) genes (Rahman et al. 2013).

# **CONCLUSION**

In the maize-rice transgenic breeding programme Gene Engineering Rice-3 (GER-3), a red pericarp mutant line that possessed multiple desirable characteristics was isolated and used for the genetic analysis and molecular mapping of the red pericarp mutant gene in this study.

The genetic analysis results revealed that the red pericarp of the red pericarp mutant was controlled by a single dominant gene, temporarily designated red pericarp (Rp), and that the red pericarp expression of the mutant gene Rp is not affected by the cytoplasm.

An  $F_2$  population derived from an inter-subspecific cross between GER-3 (indica cv., red pericarp) and C418 (japonica cv., white pericarp) was constructed for the molecular mapping of Rp. There was only one dominant gene controlling the segregation of the red pericarp in the  $F_2$  mapping population, it confirmed that the  $F_2$  segregation population is especially suitable for the primary mapping of Rp.

Referring to the preliminary mapping result of Rp, and the restorative mutations of the reported red pericarp gene, it was deduced that the potential origin of Rp may be a gene mutation in the tissue culture or transgenic process in the maize-rice transgenic breeding programme.

### REFERENCES

- Bao T.P., Zhong X.X., Zheng W. (1994): Brief introduction to Genetic Engineering Rice-3. Journal of Hubei Agricultural Science, 6: 15.
- Bate-Smith E.C. (1973): Tannins of herbaceous Leguminosae. Phytochemistry, 12: 1809–1812.
- Brooks S.A., Yan W., Jackson A.K., Deren C.W. (2008): A natural mutation in *rc* reverts white-rice-pericarp to red and results in a new, dominant, wild-type allele *Rc-g*. Theoretical and Applied Genetics, 117: 575–580.
- Dong Y.J., Xu J.L., Xiao K.A., Zhang Y.J., Zhang J.Z., Luo L.J., Matsuo M. (2008): Genomic regions associated with the degree of red coloration in pericarp of rice (*Oryza sativa* L.). Journal of Cereal Science, 48: 556–560.
- Doyle J.T., Doyle J.L. (1987): A rapid DNA isolation procedure for small quantities of fresh leaf tissue. Photochemical Bulletin, 19: 11–15.
- Finocchiaro F., Ferrari B., Gianinetti A., Dall'asta C., Galaverna G., Scazzina F., Pellegrini N. (2007): Characterization of antioxidant compounds of red and white rice and changes in total antioxidant capacity during processing. Molecular Nutrition & Food Research, 51: 1006–1019.
- Furukawa T., Maekawa M., Oki T., Suda I., Iida S., Shimada H., Takamure I., Kadowaki K-I. (2007): The *Rc* and *Rd* genes are involved in proanthocyanidin synthesis in rice pericarp. Plant Journal, 49: 91–102.
- Gai J.Y. (ed.) (2000): Test Statistical Method. Beijing, China Agricultural Publishing House: 134–138.
- Gunaratne A., Wu K., Li D., Bentota A., Corke H., Cai Y.Z. (2013): Antioxidant activity and nutritional quality of

- traditional red-grained rice varieties containing proanthocyanidins. Food Chemistry, 138: 1153–1161.
- International Rice Genome Sequencing Project (2005): The map-based sequence of the rice genome. Nature, 436: 793–799.
- Kato S., Ishikawa J. (1921): On the inheritance of the pigment of red rice. Japan Journal of Genetics, 1: 1–7.
- Lee D., Lupotto E., Powell W. (2009): G-string slippage turns white rice red. Genome, 52: 490–493.
- Lincoln S., Daly M., Lander E. (1992): Constructing genetic maps with MAPMAKER/EXP 3.0. In: Martin D.N., Proebsting W.M. (eds.): Whitehead Institute Technical Report. 2<sup>nd</sup> Ed. Cambridge, Whitehead Institute: 7–10.
- Ling W.H., Cheng Q.X., Ma J., Wang T. (2001): Red and black rice decrease atherosclerotic plaque formation and increase antioxidant status in rabbits. Journal of Nutrition, 131: 1421–1426.
- Mbanjo E.G.N., Kretzschmar T., Jones H., Ereful N., Blanchard Ch., Boyd L.A., Sreenivasulu N. (2020): The genetic basis and nutritional benefits of pigmented rice grain. Frontiers in Genetics, 11: 229.
- Michelmore R.W., Paran I., Kesseli R.V. (1991): Identification of markers linked to disease-resistance genes by bulked segregant analysis: a rapid method to detect markers in specific genomic regions by using segregating populations. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the USA, 88: 9828–9832.
- Nagao S., Takahashi M. (1947): Ein Beitrag zu einer genotypischen Analyse der Farbeigenschaften der Spelze und der anderen Pflanzenteile bei der Reispflanze. Japanese Journal of Genetics, Suppl. 1: 1–27.
- Nagao S., Takahashi M., Miyamoto T. (1957): Genetic studies on rice plant, XXI. Biochemical studies on red rice pigmentation. Japanese Journal of Genetics, 32: 124–128.
- Oki T., Masuda M., Kobayashi M., Nishiba M., Furuta Y., Suda I.S., Sato T. (2002): Polymeric procyanidins as radical-scavenging components in red-hulled rice. Journal of Agricultural Food Chemistry, 50: 7524–7529.
- Qiu Y., Liu Q., Beta T. (2010): Antioxidant properties of commercial wild rice and analysis of soluble and insoluble phenolic acids. Food Chemistry, 121: 140–147.
- Ragers O.S., Bendich A.J. (1998): Extraction of total DNA from plant tissue. Plant Molecular Biology Manual, A6: 1010.
- Rahman M.M., Lee K.E., Lee E.S., Matin M.N., Lee D.S., Yun J.S., Kim B.J., Kang S.G. (2013): The genetic constitutions of complementary genes *Pp* and *Pb* determine the purple color variation in pericarps with cyanidin-3-O-glucoside depositions in black rice. Journal of Plant Biology, 56: 24–31.
- Scalbert A. (1991): Antimicrobial properties of tannins. Phytochemistry, 30: 3875–3883.

- Sharma N., Kaur R., Mangat G.S., Singh K. (2014): Red pericarp introgression lines derived from interspecific crosses of rice: physicochemical characteristics, antioxidative properties and phenolic content. Journal of Science of Food and Agriculture, 94: 2912–2920.
- Swain T. (1978): Plant-animal coevolution: A synoptic view of the paleozoic and mesozoic. In: Harborne J.B. (ed.): Biochemical Aspects of Plant and Animal Coevolution. London, Academic Press: 3–19.
- Sweeney M.T., Thomson M.J., Pfeil B.E., McCouch S. (2006): Caught red-handed *Rc* encodes a basic helix-loop-helix protein conditioning red pericarp in rice. The Plant Cell, 18: 283–294.
- Tsutsui T., Yamaji N., Huang C.F., Motoyama R., Nagamura Y., Ma J.F. (2012): Comparative genome-wide transcriptional analysis of Al-responsive genes reveals novel Al tolerance mechanisms in rice. PLoS One, 7: e48197.
- Winkel-Shirley B. (2001): Flavonoid biosynthesis. A colorful model for genetics, biochemistry, cell biology, and biotechnology. Plant Physiology, 126: 485–493.

- Yang W.Y., Tu N.M. (2003): Crop Cultivation Science. China Agricultural Press, Beijing: 5–60.
- Zhang H., Shao Y., Bao J., Beta T. (2015): Phenolic compounds and antioxidant properties of breeding lines between the white and black rice. Food Chemistry, 172: 630–639.
- Zhang Z.X., Yang Z.Y. (2006): Viewing the situation of boat goes up as river rises in Northern Japonic hybrid rice from the development of C418. Breeding practice. In: Deng H.Y. (ed.): Theory and Practice of Hybrid Japonica Rice. Beijing, China Agricultural Publishing House: 181–184.
- Zhu Y., Lin Y., Chen S., Liu H., Chen Z., Fan M., Hu T., Mei F., Chen J., Chen L., Wang F. (2019): CRISPR/Cas9-mediated functional recovery of the recessive *rc* allele to develop red rice. Plant Biotechnology Journal, 17: 2096–2105.

Received: July 29, 2020 Accepted: February 18, 2021 Published online: March 15, 2021